

**Biyani's Think Tank**  
***Concept based notes***

**Under Graduation Program (B.A)**

**with**

**Psychology**

**(Paper II - Social Psychology)**

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**SYLLABUS OF PSYCHOLOGY FOR B.A FIRST YEAR**  
**PAPER-II SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**SEC-A**

**INTRODUCTION:**

Nature, Scope and Brief History of Social Psychology

.Method of Social Psychology: Systematic Observation, Correlation, Experimental method

**SOCIAL PERCEPTION & PERSON PERCEPTION :**

social perception meaning and nature, perceptual.

**ATTITUDE:**

Attitude: Nature, Formation, Change and Resistance to Change

**SEC-B**

**PREJUDICE & DISCRIMINATION :**

Nature and origin reduction of prejudice and discrimination.

**INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION**

Interpersonal Attraction: Nature,

Rules of Attraction, Sternberg's Theory of Love Pro-social .

**LEADERSHIP:**

Definition of leadership types of leadership, trait and situation approach.

**SEC-C**

**COMMUNICATION:**

Meaning nature types of communication: verbal non verbal and barriers of communication.

**PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR:**

Behaviour: Steps involved in the process of Pro-social behavior, its Determinants and Altruistic.

**AGGRESSION :**

Aggression; Nature, Types and Causes, General Aggression Model (GAM), Frustration

Aggression Hypothesis Prevention and Control of Aggression.

**Suggested Readings:**

1. Baron, R.A. (2003). Psychology (5th ed.). Delhi: Pearson Education.
2. Chadha, N.K. (2012). Social Psychology. MacMillan: New Delhi
3. Ciccarelli, S.K., & Meyer, G.E. (2007). Psychology. New Delhi: Pearson Publishers.
4. Myers, D.G. (2008). Social Psychology. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill.
5. Mohanty, G. (2008). Social Psychology. New Delhi: Kalyani Publishers

**B.A First Year Practical's:**

- 1: Human Maze Learning.
- 2: Attitude Scale.
- 3: Memory Drum.
- 4: Leadership Scale.
- 5: Social Support.
- 6: Measurements of Emotions by Facial Expressions.
- 7: Aggression.
- 8: Altruism.
- 9: Measurement of Intelligence.
- 10: Experiment on Figure Ground Reversal.

## CHAPTER-1

### SCOPE OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Chapter-1 Scope of social psychology:

Nature, Scope and Brief History of Social Psychology, Method of Social Psychology: Systematic Observation, Correlation, Experimental method.

**Q.1 What is it that shapes our attitudes? Why are some people such great leaders? How does prejudice develop, and how can we overcome it?**

**Ans.** These are just a few of the big questions of interest in the field of social psychology. Social psychologists tackle issues that can have a significant impact on individual health and well-being, from understanding why bullying behavior and aggression take place to analyze why people sometimes fail to help individuals in need.

**Q.2 What Is Social Psychology?**

**Ans.** According to psychologist Gordon Allport, social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods "to understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied the presence of other human beings."<sup>2</sup> Essentially, social psychology is all about understanding how each person's individual behavior is influenced by the social environment in which that behavior takes place.

You probably already realize that other people can have a dramatic influence on the way you act and the choices you make. Consider how you might behave in a situation if you were all alone versus if there were other people in the room. The decisions you make and the behaviors you exhibit might depend on not only how many people are present but exactly who you are around. For example, you are likely to behave much differently when you are around a group of close friends than you would around a group of colleagues or supervisors from work.

Social psychology looks at a wide range of social topics, including:

Group behavior Social perception Leadership Nonverbal behavior Conformity Aggression Prejudice. It is important to note that social psychology is not just about looking at social influences. Social perception and social interaction are also vital to understanding social behavior. The way that we see other people (and the way we think they see us) can play a powerful role in a wide variety of actions and decisions. Just think for a moment about how

you sometimes act differently in a public setting than you might if you were at home by yourself. At home, you might be loud and rambunctious, while in public you might be much more subdued and reserved.

Why is this? Because the people around us shape our thoughts, feelings, moods, attitudes, and perceptions. The presence of other people can make a difference in the choices we make and the actions we take.

While social psychology tends to be an academic field, the research that social psychologists perform can and does have a powerful influence on our understanding of various aspects of mental health and wellbeing. For example, research on conformity has contributed to our understanding of why teenagers sometimes go to such great lengths to fit in with their social group—sometimes to the detriment of their own health and wellness.<sup>3</sup> As a result, psychologists are able to develop public health programs and treatment approaches aimed at helping teenagers resist potentially harmful behaviors such as smoking, drinking, and substance use.

### **Q.3 How Did People Become Interested in Social Psychology?**

**Ans.** While Plato referred to the idea of the "**crowd mind**," and concepts such as **social loafing** and **social facilitation** were introduced in the late 1800s, it wasn't until after World War II that research on social psychology began in earnest.

The horrors of the Holocaust led researchers to study the effects of **social influence, conformity, and obedience**. What could explain why so many people participated in such terrible and evil actions, social psychologists wondered? Were people only following orders and bowing to social pressure, or were there some other forces at work that led people to engage in such devastating actions? By investigating these questions, social psychologists were able to gain a greater understanding of the power of societal forces such as authority, compliance, and obedience.

**Social psychologist Stanley Milgram**, for example, was able to demonstrate just how far people are willing to go to obey authority figures. In a series of now infamous experiments, Milgram and his colleagues ordered study participants to deliver what they believed was a potentially dangerous shock to another person. In reality, the shocks were not real and the other individual was only pretending to be hurt by the electrical pulses—but a whopping 65 percent of those who took part in the study delivered the maximum level of shock simply because an authority figure told them to do so. Social psychology has continued to grow throughout the twentieth century, inspiring research that has contributed to our understanding of social experience and behavior. Our social world makes up such a tremendous part of our

lives, so it is no wonder that this topic is so fascinating to many.

#### **Q.4 How Is Social Psychology Different From Other Disciplines?**

**Ans.** It is important to differentiate social psychology from a few similar and related subjects. Social psychology is often confused with folk wisdom, personality psychology, and sociology. What makes social psychology different? Unlike folk wisdom, which relies on anecdotal observations and subjective interpretation, social psychology employs scientific methods and the empirical study of social phenomena. Researchers do not just make guesses or assumptions about how people behave; they devise and carry out experiments that help point out relationships between different variables. While personality psychology focuses on individual traits, characteristics, and thoughts, social psychology is focused on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that the social environment and group interactions have on attitudes and behaviors.

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

#### **Important last note on social psychology**

What makes social psychology such an important topic? A quick glimpse at the daily news shows just how profoundly social problems can impact people's lives. By better understanding these issues, psychologists can look for ways to prevent, identify, and remedy such problems. Social psychologists focus on societal concerns that have a powerful influence on individual wellbeing as well as the health of society as a whole, including problems such as substance use, crime, prejudice, domestic abuse, public health, bullying, and aggression.

Social psychologists typically do not work directly in the field of mental health, but the results of their research do have a significant influence on how psychologists and mental health professionals treat behaviors that are influenced by social factors. Public health programs, for example, often rely on persuasion techniques identified by social psychologists to encourage people to engage in healthy behaviors while avoiding potentially dangerous ones.

## CHAPTER-2

### SOCIAL PERCEPTION & PERSON PERCEPTION

#### Q.1 What is social perception.

**Ans.** Being competent in social perception includes three domains of competence:

- (1) knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intentions, desires, and the like,
- (2) being able to “read” other people’s inner states based on their words, behavior, facial expression and the like, and
- (3) adjusting one’s actions based on those “readings”. That is, a socially competent person can make note of other people’s facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, gestures, words, and the like, and on the basis of these clues, make reasonably accurate judgments about that person’s state of mind, emotions, and intentions. Socially competent people then use these inferences about other people’s inner states to make good decisions about how to behave socially.

Social perception is one important component of social competence and social success (including peer acceptance and friendship). In addition to social perception, socially competent people must have knowledge of social rules, roles, routines, and scripts in their social lives. Furthermore, they must make use of this knowledge and of these scripts in their decision making and acting. They also have a concern for other people and make it a habit to adjust their behavior based on the needs of others. Finally, they have the confidence needed to interact socially and accept the vulnerability associated with potential rejection.

#### Q.2 Describe the Characteristics of the Perceiver

**Ans.** Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:

**Attitudes:** The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization –a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.



**Moods:** Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy than we do when we are depressed. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impression of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavorably.

Motives:

**Self-Concept:** Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.

Interest:

**Cognitive Structure:** Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and appearance, more readily. Others tend to focus more on central traits, or personality dispositions. Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

**Expectations:** Finally, expectations can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see. The research findings of the study conducted by Sheldon S Zalkind and Timothy W Costello on some specific characteristics of the perceiver reveal.

### **Q.3 The processes of social perception begin.**

#### **Ans. Persons – physical influence**

Although society tries to train people not to judge others based on their physical traits, as social perceivers, we cannot help but be influenced by others' hair, skin color, height, weight, style of clothes, pitch in voice, etc., when making a first impression. People have the tendency to judge others by associating certain facial features with specific personality types. For example, studies indicate that people are perceived as stronger, more assertive, and competent if they have small eyes, low eyebrows, an angular chin, wrinkled skin, and a small forehead. People tend to associate baby-faced people with impotence and harmlessness.[4]

#### **Situations – context from prior experiences**

People are able to easily predict the sequences or results of an event based on the extent and depth of their past experiences with a similar event. The ability to anticipate the outcomes of a situation is also greatly influenced by an individual's cultural background because this

inevitably shapes the types of experiences. Situational observations either lead humans to have preset notions about certain events or to explain the causes of human behaviors.

### **Behaviors – nonverbal communication**

Nonverbal communication helps people express their emotions, attitudes, and personalities. The most dominant form of nonverbal communication is the use of facial expressions to channel different emotions. Greatly influenced by Charles Darwin's research on facial expressions and book *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872), it is believed that all humans, regardless of culture or race,

## **CHAPTER-3**

### **ATTITUDE**

#### **Q.1 Define attitude**

**Ans.** In psychology, an attitude refers to a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviors toward a particular object, person, thing, or event. Attitudes are often the result of experience or upbringing, and they can have a powerful influence over behavior. While attitudes are enduring, they can also change.

#### **Q.2 How attitudes are formed?**

**Ans.** What's your opinion on the death penalty? Which political party does a better job of running the country? Should prayer be allowed in schools? Should violence on television be regulated? Chances are that you probably have fairly strong opinions on these and similar questions. You've developed attitudes about such issues, and these attitudes influence your beliefs as well as your behavior. Attitudes are an important topic of study within the field of social psychology. But what exactly is an attitude? How does it develop?

##### **How Psychologists Define Attitudes**

Psychologists define attitudes as a learned tendency to evaluate things in a certain way. This can include evaluations of people, issues, objects, or events. Such evaluations are often positive or negative, but they can also be uncertain at times.

For example, you might have mixed feelings about a particular person or issue. Researchers also suggest that there are several different components that make up attitudes. The components of attitudes are sometimes referred to as CAB or the ABC's of attitude.

#### **Q.3 Explain the Components of Attitude.**

##### **Ans. Cognitive Component:**

Your thoughts and beliefs about the subject Affective Component: How the object, person, issue, or event makes you feel Behavioral Component: How attitude influences your behavior attitudes can also be explicit and implicit. Explicit attitudes are those that we are consciously aware of and that clearly influence our behaviors and beliefs. Implicit attitudes are unconscious but still have an effect on our beliefs and behaviors.

##### **Attitude Formation**

There are a number of factors that can influence how and why attitudes form. Here is a closer

look at how attitudes form.

## **Experience**

Attitudes form directly as a result of experience. They may emerge due to direct personal experience, or they may result from observation.

## **Social Factors**

Social roles and social norms can have a strong influence on attitudes. Social roles relate to how people are expected to behave in a particular role or context. Social norms involve society's rules for what behaviors are considered appropriate.

## **Learning**

Attitudes can be learned in a variety of ways. Consider how advertisers use classical conditioning to influence your attitude toward a particular product. In a television commercial, you see young, beautiful people having fun on a tropical beach while enjoying a sports drink. This attractive and appealing imagery causes you to develop a positive association with this particular beverage.

## **Conditioning**

Operant conditioning can also be used to influence how attitudes develop. Imagine a young man who has just started smoking. Whenever he lights up a cigarette, people complain, chastise him, and ask him to leave their vicinity. This negative feedback from those around him eventually causes him to develop an unfavorable opinion of smoking and he decides to give up the habit.

## **Observation**

Finally, people also learn attitudes by observing people around them. When someone you admire greatly espouses a particular attitude, you are more likely to develop the same beliefs. For example, children spend a great deal of time observing the attitudes of their parents and usually begin to demonstrate similar outlooks.

## **Attitudes and Behavior**

We tend to assume that people behave according to their attitudes. However, social psychologists have found that attitudes and actual behavior are not always perfectly aligned.<sup>2</sup>

After all, plenty of people support a particular candidate or political party and yet fail to go out and vote. People also are more likely to behave according to their attitudes under certain

conditions.

#### **Q.4 Describe the Factors Influencing Attitude Strength**

Are an expert on the subject Expect a favorable outcome Experience something personally  
Stand to win or lose something due to the issue Are repeatedly expressed attitudes  
Changing to Match Behavior

**In some cases**, people may actually alter their attitudes in order to better align them with their behavior. Cognitive dissonance is a phenomenon in which a person experiences psychological distress due to conflicting thoughts or beliefs.<sup>3</sup> In order to reduce this tension, people may change their attitudes to reflect their other beliefs or actual behaviors.

#### **Cognitive Dissonance and Ways to Resolve It**

Using Cognitive Dissonance

Imagine the following situation: You've always placed a high value on financial security, but you start dating someone who is very financially unstable. In order to reduce the tension caused by the conflicting beliefs and behavior, you have two options.

You can end the relationship and seek out a partner who is more financially secure, or you can de-emphasize fiscal stability importance.

In order to minimize the dissonance between your conflicting attitude and behavior, you either have to change the attitude or change your actions.

#### **Q.5 Why Attitudes Change?**

**Ans.** While attitudes can have a powerful effect on behavior, they are not set in stone. The same influences that lead to attitude formation can also create attitude change.<sup>4</sup>

#### **Learning Theory**

Classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and observational learning can be used to bring about attitude change. Classical conditioning can be used to create positive emotional reactions to an object, person, or event by associating positive feelings with the target object.

Operant conditioning can be used to strengthen desirable attitudes and weaken undesirable ones. People can also change their attitudes after observing the behavior of others.

#### **Elaboration Likelihood Theory**

This theory of persuasion suggests that people can alter their attitudes in two ways. First, they can be motivated to listen and think about the message, thus leading to an attitude shift.

Or, they might be influenced by the characteristics of the speaker, leading to a temporary or surface shift in attitude. Messages that are thought-provoking and that appeal to logic are more likely to lead to permanent changes in attitudes.

### **Dissonance Theory**

As mentioned earlier, people can also change their attitudes when they have conflicting beliefs about a topic. In order to reduce the tension created by these incompatible beliefs, people often shift their attitudes.

## **CHAPTER-4**

### **PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATIONS**

#### **Q.1 Define Prejudice and Discrimination**

**Ans.** Being prejudiced usually means having preconceived beliefs about groups of people or cultural practices. Prejudices can either be positive or negative—both forms are usually preconceived and difficult to alter. The negative form of prejudice can lead to discrimination, although it is possible to be prejudiced and not act upon the attitudes. Those who practice discrimination do so to protect opportunities for themselves by denying access to those whom they believe do not deserve the same treatment as everyone else.

#### **Q.2 What are The sources of prejudice**

**Ans.** Sociologists and psychologists hold that some of the emotionality in prejudice stems from subconscious attitudes that cause a person to ward off feelings of inadequacy by projecting them onto a target group. By using certain people as scapegoats—those without power who are unfairly blamed—anxiety and uncertainty are reduced by attributing complex problems to a simple cause: “Those people are the source of all my problems.” Social research across the globe has shown that prejudice is fundamentally related to low self-esteem. By hating certain groups (in this case, minorities), people are able to enhance their sense of selfworth and importance.

#### **Q.3 Explain common social factors that may**

**contribute to the presence of prejudice and discrimination.**

**Socialization.** Many prejudices seem to be passed along from parents to children. The **media**—including television, movies, and **advertising**—also perpetuate demeaning images and

stereotypes about assorted groups, such as ethnic minorities, women, gays and lesbians, the disabled, and the elderly.

**Conforming behaviors.** Prejudices may bring support from significant others, so rejecting prejudices may lead to losing social support. The pressures to conform to the views of families, friends, and associates can be formidable.

**Economic benefits.** Social studies have confirmed that prejudice especially rises when groups are in direct competition for jobs. This may help to explain why prejudice increases dramatically during times of economic and social stress.

**Authoritarian personality.** In response to early socialization, some people are especially prone to stereotypical thinking and projection based on unconscious fears. People with an authoritarian personality rigidly conform, submit without question to their superiors, reject those they consider to be inferiors, and express intolerant sexual and religious opinions. The authoritarian personality may have its roots in parents who are unloving and aloof disciplinarians. The child then learns to control his or her anxieties via rigid attitudes.

**Ethnocentrism.** Ethnocentrism is the tendency to evaluate others' cultures by one's own cultural norms and values. It also includes a suspicion of outsiders. Most cultures have their ethnocentric tendencies, which usually involve stereotypical thinking.

**Group closure.** Group closure is the process whereby groups keep clear boundaries between themselves and others. Refusing to marry outside an ethnic group is an example of how group closure is accomplished.

**Conflict theory.** Under conflict theory, in order to hold onto their distinctive social status, power, and possessions, privileged groups are invested in seeing that no competition for resources arises from minority groups. The powerful may even be ready to resort to extreme acts of violence against others to protect their interests. As a result, members of underprivileged groups may retaliate with violence in an attempt to improve their circumstances.

### **Q. Explain the Solutions of prejudice.**

**Ans.** For decades, sociologists have looked to ways of reducing and eliminating conflicts and prejudices between groups:

One theory, the self-esteem hypothesis, is that when people have an appropriate education and higher self-esteem, their prejudices will go away. Another theory is the contact hypothesis, which states that the best answer to prejudice is to bring together members of different groups so they can learn to appreciate their common experiences and backgrounds.

A third theory, the cooperation hypothesis, holds that conflicting groups need to cooperate by laying aside their individual interests and learning to work together for shared goals. A fourth theory, the legal hypothesis, is that prejudice can be eliminated by enforcing laws against discriminative behavior.

To date, solutions to prejudice that emphasize change at the individual level have not been successful. In contrast, research sadly shows that even unprejudiced people can, under specific conditions of war or economic competition, become highly prejudiced against their perceived “enemies.” Neither have attempts at desegregation in schools been successful. Instead, many integrated schools have witnessed the formation of ethnic cliques and gangs that battle other groups to defend their own identities.

Changes in the law have helped to alter some prejudiced attitudes. Without changes in the law, women might never have been allowed to vote, attend graduate school, or own property and racial integration of public facilities in America might never have occurred. Still, laws do not necessarily change people's attitudes. In some cases, new laws can increase antagonism toward minority groups.

Finally, cooperative learning, or learning that involves collaborative interactions between students, while surely of positive value to students, does not assure reduction of hostility between conflicting groups. Cooperation is usually too limited and too brief to surmount all the influences in a person's life.

## **CHAPTER-5**

### **INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION**

#### **Q.1 What is interpersonal Attraction?**

**Ans.** Interpersonal Attraction refers to positive feelings about another person. It can take many forms, including liking, love, friendship, lust, and admiration.

#### **Q.2 Describe some influencer of interpersonal Attraction.**

**Ans.** Influences many factors influence whom people are attracted to. They include physical attractiveness, proximity, similarity, and reciprocity:

**Physical Attractiveness:** Research shows that romantic attraction is primarily determined by physical attractiveness. In the early stages of dating, people are more attracted to partners whom they consider to be physically attractive. Men are more likely to value physical attractiveness than are women.



People's perception of their own physical attractiveness also plays a role in romantic love. The Matching Hypothesis proposes that people tend to pick partners who are about equal in level of attractiveness to themselves.

**Proximity:** People are more likely to become friends with people who are geographically close. One explanation for this is the mere exposure effect. The Mere Exposure Effect refers to people's tendency to like novel stimuli more if they encounter them repeatedly.

**Similarity:** People also tend to pick partners who are similar to themselves in characteristics such as age, race, religion, social class, personality, education, intelligence, and attitude.

This similarity is seen not only between romantic partners but also between friends. Some researchers have suggested that similarity causes attraction. Others acknowledge that people may be more likely to have friends and partners who are similar to themselves simply because of accessibility: people are more likely to associate with people who are similar to themselves.

**Reciprocity:** People tend to like others who reciprocate their liking.

### **Q.3 Explain the form of attraction.**

#### **Ans. Romantic Love**

Many researchers focus on one particular form of attraction: romantic love.

#### **Kinds of Romantic Love**

Researchers have proposed that romantic love includes two kinds of love: passionate love and compassionate love. These two kinds of love may occur together, but they do not always go hand in hand in a relationship:

##### **Passionate Love:**

Involves absorption in another person, sexual desire, tenderness, and intense emotion.

##### **Compassionate Love:**

Involves warmth, trust, and tolerance of another person. Compassionate love is sometimes considered to have two components: intimacy and commitment. Intimacy is the warm, close, sharing aspect of a relationship. Commitment is the intent to continue the relationship even in the face of difficulties. Researchers believe commitment is a good predictor of the stability of a relationship.

#### **Attachment Styles**

Some researchers study the influence of childhood attachment styles on adult relationships. Many researchers believe that as adults, people relate to their partners in the same way that they related to their caretakers in infancy. (See Chapter 4 for more information on attachment styles.)

### **Cultural Similarities and Differences**

There are both similarities and differences among cultures in romantic attraction. Researchers have found that people in many different cultures place a high value on mutual attraction between partners and the kindness, intelligence, emotional stability, dependability, and good health of partners.

## **CHAPTER-6 LEADERSHIP**

- **Meaning and Nature of Leadership**

"A leader is a group member who influences other members to behave in ways he prefers more than they influence him." -Lindgren: An Introduction to Social Psychology, 1973 "Leadership is behaviour that affects the behaviour of other people more than their behaviour affects that of leader." — Lapiere & Fransworth Social Psychology, 1949.

"Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of group that other involves a structuring and restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change; persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's act affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group." -Bass: The Handbook of Leadership, 1990

Leadership is a universal process found in both human and animal societies. If someone is asked who is the leader of a certain group, then a clear answer from that person would be that the leader of this group is the one who is followed by the members. Although this simple approach seems to be true to a large extent, yet there is no scientific explanation of leadership just by saying this. Therefore, it is necessary that we look at the definitions given by some social psychologists.

There is a lot of similarity in these three definitions because the leader of these three psychologists is seen by them as the other of the group defined as the effect it exerts on its members. Fiedler (1971) and Stogdill (Stogdill, 1948) has also supported the views of these three experts by expressing similar views. An analysis of these definitions throws light on an

important dimension of leadership and that is that there are two parties in leadership - one is the leader who leads and the other is those who accept the leadership, i.e. the followers. In the process of leadership, these two aspects influence each other leader influences the followers and the followers also influence the leader. The only difference is that the behavior of the leader has more influence on the followers than the behavior of the followers on the leader. This means that there is a two-way affair between the leader and the followers and not a one-way relationship, and the degree of mutual influence between the two varies. Haythorne (1956) has also confirmed this two-way relationship with his study. Eg:- If a commander orders his soldiers to do something keeping in mind the suggestion of the people, if he makes some modification in his order, but it will be a sign of a two-way relationship in those leadership. Sometimes the leader strives for absolute dominance so that he can influence his followers but is not himself affected by the behavior of the followers. In such a situation, a person cannot remain on the post of leader for a long time, his leadership ends soon. Therefore, it is necessary that the leader understands the reactions of his followers and tries to behave accordingly to an extent. This is the reason why people often say that followers also lead the group just like the leader. Therefore, the effectiveness of leadership is based on the fact that the leader is considered as one's own by the followers. Kretch, Crutchfield & Ballachey, 1963 have rightly remarked that the leader should be considered "one of those and the best of most" from the point of view of the followers.

The explanation of the meaning and nature of leadership is not complete until the difference between leader and formal head is shown. On this, Gibb (1969) has expressed his opinion that the leader gets the right to show influence spontaneously by his followers whereas a formal head has the right to show influence on others automatically. Not because of his formal position. For example, a vice-chancellor has influence over the teachers, staff and students of the university because of his position. Sometimes it is difficult to determine. That the other members of the group or organization consider him a good leader and follow him or do so keeping in mind the dignity of his post. The truth is that not all formal leaders are actual leaders.

The conclusion is that leadership is a process that involves interpersonal interaction as the leader influences his followers and the followers influence their leaders. The only difference is that the influence of the leader is greater than that of the follower. So there is a difference in the degree of interaction between these two. It is because of this type of influence that the leader differs from the formal head.

- **Difference between Leadership and Dominance**

Leadership and dominance are two terms that are used in colloquial language with almost the same meaning. But in social psychology the difference between the meaning of these two has been told. As we have told earlier that there is a mutual relationship between the leader and the followers in leadership, as a result of which, despite being influenced by his followers, the leader guides the followers on the strength of his skill and intelligence. But this is not the case in dominance. According to Kimbal Young (1957), dominance is a response that-

1. Leader must be perceived by followers as "one of us, most of us and better than most of us." - Kretch, Crutchfield & Ballachey: "we define dominance as an act or response which affects the attitude and act of another. This may be viewed as a power device used by one person to control or modify the actions of others." Kimbal Young, 1957

Therefore, it is a power device which is used by one person to control or change the attitudes and actions of other persons." It is clear from this explanation of dominance that in leadership there are two parties i.e. the leader. And there are followers, in the same way there are two sides in dominance - one person is dominant and the other is submissive. Just as there can be no leader without followers, so is dominance without subordination. It cannot be. Kimble Young's explanation also makes it clear that dominance has an element of authority or power by which the dominant person controls the attitudes and behaviors of the people under him. For example, the dominance of an officer over the grocers, the dominance of shopkeepers over peons, the dominance of teachers over students and the dominance of mill owners over their employees, the basic reason is that there is some power or authority in the hands of officers, grocers, teachers and mill owners. We can state more clearly in this way.

(1) In leadership the views of the followers are taken into consideration as well as by agreeing with their views. Leaders are also affected. But the people who are under the dominance are pressured by power or power. There is no question of agreeing with his views.

(2) There is a kind of fear and sense of compulsion in the people who are under dominance but there is no such feeling in leadership. In successful leadership, it has even been seen that there is a feeling of full dedication voluntarily among the followers. Yes, sometimes there are situations where the leader exerts force and compulsion on his followers. But this is not always the case.

(3) Leadership is a process of mutual stimulation in which the leader has a substantial influence on the behavior of followers whereas dominance is basically a process of control in which the dominant individual manipulates the behavior of others in a particular way in order to achieve his/her own chosen objectives controls direction.

Thus it is clear that there is a difference between leadership and dominance.

- **Common traits or attributes of Leadership**

There are certain qualities of leadership on the basis of which a leader can be easily understood or identified. Different psychologists have given different number of leadership qualities. According to Allport there are 18 qualities of leadership and according to Tead there are 10 qualities of leadership. After studying the views of all these social psychologists, we come to the conclusion that there are some common qualities of leadership, in which the following are the main ones-

1. **Physical attributes-** There are some physical qualities of a leader, on the basis of which any person can easily perceive him as a leader. Studies conducted by Terman (1904), Stogdill (1956), Patridge (1961), Caldwell (1953) have made it clear that there are three main physical qualities of a leader - height, weight, vigor and good health. Often the height of leaders is higher than normal. The greater height gives the individual extravagance as a result of which he has some facility in handling the work load of leadership. It is often seen that the height of the leader of different groups also varies. Leaders of sportspersons are usually more tall but the height of political leaders can be less. Political leaders like Shri Mahatma Gandhi and Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri were less tall than most of their followers. ***Weight is another important physical quality of the leader.*** It has been proved by the studies of Partidge (Partidge, 1961) and Stogdill (1966) that leaders are generally of heavy build. But it is not necessary because the body of many leaders is light instead of heavy or weighs less. ***The third physical quality is energy and health.*** Most of the psychologists are of the opinion that health is better than normal people and they also have more energy. All the three physical qualities of a leader mentioned above are such that it is definitely desirable for a leader, but not necessary. Big leaders of the world like Mahatma Gandhi, Napoleon and Hitler were neither taller than their followers. But He was neither of heavy body nor was he very physically strong. So it is concluded that suitable physical quality is not an essential quality for a leader.

2. **Personality traits:** Apart from physical qualities, personality traits are also found in the leader. Such qualities are also called psychological traits. The main such psychological qualities are as follows-

(1) **Intelligence Common sense** suggests that the leader is more intelligent than his followers. This is also confirmed by the studies done by social psychologists. Gibb (Gibb, 1969), Mann (Mann, 1959) Stogdill, (Stogdill, 1948) etc. Psychologists have found the leader of different groups to be of higher intelligence than his followers. However, the correlation between

intelligence and leadership has not been found to be significant. Mann (Mann, 1959) in his study found a correlation of around 25, Kiessling and Kalish (1961) found a correlation of 35 and Lindgren (Lindgren, 1973) found a correlation of 38 to 41. There are some psychologists like Loretto and Williams (Loretto & Williams, 1974) who have not found any correlation between intelligence and leadership. From the results of these psychological studies, we come to the conclusion that leaders. It is not necessary that one should always be of much higher intelligence than the followers.

(ii) **Self-confidence:** Self-confidence is the second main quality of a leader. The leader has to guide his followers and always encourage the people even in the most difficult of circumstances. Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) have found in their studies that leadership and self-confidence are significantly correlated. If there is a lack of self-confidence in the leader, then the followers lose faith in him and his leadership also ends. The leader who behaves with great confidence among the followers, his leadership is more successful.

(iii) **Verbosity of Talkativeness**—Verbosity is one of the main qualities of a leader. Verbosity refers to the habit of speaking more. Riecken (1958), Bass (1949) and McGrath & Julian (1968) have confirmed the fact in their studies that the most vocal member of the group is seen as the leader. goes. This is called the "Big Mouth Theory" of leadership. Bavelas and his associates (Bavelas et al. 1965) conducted a study in which a relationship was found between leadership and rhetoric. In this study, a group of four subjects were asked to discuss in three different sessions. The four subjects discussed the given problem and the observers recorded the time taken by each member to speak. After this, the subjects rate each other on the dimensions of leadership and it was seen in the result that the subjects who spoke for the longest time were considered by the other subjects as the leader of the group. Later Gitner and Lindskold (Gitner & Lindskold, 1975) and Sorrentino and Botiller (Sorrentino & Botiller, 1975) have also confirmed the relationship between rhetoric and leadership in their respective studies.

(iv) **Dominance-** Mann (1959) found a positive correlation between leadership and dominance in his studies. This clearly means that by increasing the quality of leadership, the virtue of lord also increases in a person. Megargee (1968) conducted a study in which two types of individuals were selected on the basis of their scores on the dominance scale of the California Psychological Inventory. There were some individuals who scored very high on that scale and some

There were those whose score on that scale was very low. Naturally, the first type of people had more dominance and the second type of people had less dominance. Many groups were formed

with one person each from these two types of people. In this way, there were two people in each group – one with a more dominant trait and the other with a less dominant trait. Both the members of the group had to decide who would become the leader of the group. The results showed that 75% of males with high dominance traits and 70% of females with high dominance traits expressed a desire to take over the leadership of the group. This study confirms the fact that it becomes easier to become a leader of a group when dominance is a trait, or it can be said that the trait of dominance is more helpful in group leadership.

(v) **Adjustment:** The leader has the quality of adjustment. In leading a group it is natural that he has to go through the toughest situations and deal with problems. To deal with such a situation, it is necessary that the leader should have the quality of adjustment. After reviewing the studies done in the field of leadership, Mann (Mann, 1959) has come to the conclusion that in about 30% of the studies leadership and adjustment ability are positively related to each other positively related. Fitzsimmons and Marcuse (1961) conducted a study in which 50 leaders and 50 followers were measured on 12 types of adjustment by Sentence Completion test. The result showed that out of 12 Leaders in areas were well-adjusted than followers. Neurotic traits were also very less in leadership qualities. Moberg (1953) also in his studies on leadership and adjustment has confirmed the conclusion of Fitzsimmons and Marcus by showing positive correlation.

(vi) **Sociability** – Sociability is a major quality of the leader. Successful and top class leaders always like social gathering and friendship. He has a strong tendency to meet his followers and understand their thoughts and attitudes. Sherif (1958) and Cattle & Stice (1957) have shown that when the leader has the quality of sociability, it makes the interpersonal relationship between him and the followers more close and friendly and the success of his leadership is extreme. It happens on the rank.

(vii) **Industriousness-** The leader needs to be industrious. When a member of a group shies away from hard work, he cannot become a successful leader. History does not confirm that even a lazy and lazy person can become a successful leader. On the other hand, history is witness to the fact that many people, despite being born in close and resourceless families, have become successful leaders because of their hard work. Late Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Shastri is a vivid example of this.

(viii) **Imagination and Foresightedness-** It is essential for a successful leader to have more imagination power. On the basis of this kind of power, the leader anticipates the problems ahead

and then changes his behavior in such a way that he does not have any problem in making any kind of plan in relation to goal-achievement. There should be no difficulty of any kind. Apart from the power of imagination, it is essential for a leader to have the quality of foresight. Possessing the quality of foresight helps the leader to understand the reactions of his followers and to make predictions about the group. Sherif (Sherif, 1953) and Lindemann (Lindger. 1973) have reviewed the studies and told that most of the psychologists have described good imagination power and high degree of foresight as the most essential qualities for leadership.

(ix) **Charisma-** According to Worchel and Cooper (Worchel & Cooper, 1979), some leaders have a special type of magnetic pull called charisma. Some of the world famous leaders like Martin Luther King, John, F. Kennedy (John F. Kennedy), Adolf Hitler, Ho Chi Minh, Mahatma Gandhi mostly has been observed. According to Max Weber (1958), it is a kind of super quality by which the leader, especially in a crisis situation, does something in such a way that the person can understand it properly. It is true that not all people are impressed by such qualities of a leader. This is the reason why there are some supporters of the charismatic leader, while some critics are also there, due to his miraculous qualities, Mahatma Gandhi was able to give freedom to India without Khadag and any other type of weapon, but some There are such people even today who do not desist from criticizing their works.

(x) **Will power** - The leader has to pass through many difficult situations. In such circumstances, the decision taken by them affects all the members of the group equally. Being determined in difficult situations is considered a great quality of a leader. According to Myers and Jones (Myers & Jod 1980), leaders who show more will power in different situations, their copy becomes more in the eyes of followers.

Based on the above mentioned traits, can we say that most of the leaders have a set of common traits (ser)? Probably not. Today's psychologists have proved that even though there is some help in understanding the characteristics of a leader by these virtues, but on the basis of this it cannot be said that a person becomes the leader of the group only on the basis of these qualities. . Not only this, it has been proved by many studies that most of the leaders do not have any common traits. Worchel & Cooper (1979) have rightly remarked, "Hundreds of studies, which have found no such thing as common traits among most leaders, suggest that in reality leadership is more than a set of personality traits." More is found in something else."

- **Emergence of leadership**



Due to his special position, the leader of the group influences the goals, structure, ideology etc. and brings changes in them. But the structure, ideologies and goals of the group also determine how leadership originates in the group. Social psychologists and sociologists together have described some such factors which directly affects the origin of leadership in the group. Some such factors are described below-

1. **Group Complexity** - As the complexity of a group increases, the possibility of formation of new leaders in the group also increases. In other words, as the size and functions of the group increase, the probability of occurrence of primary leaders and secondary leaders in the group increases. Thus it is clear that increasing group complexity gives rise to a hierarchy of leaders. Be the primary leader at the top of the chain? and have secondary leaders on the lower surfaces. So it is clear that having a big organization gives birth to many types of leaders. The famous sociologist Whyte (Whyte, 1948) has confirmed the above fact on the study in the restaurant sub-group.

2. **Group crisis** - When a group is in danger of its security from external elements, the group fails to achieve its set goals, then in such a situation a new leader is born. In such emergency situation, if any person, due to his personal qualities or other reasons, avoids that danger,

The hundreds of studies that have failed to indentify traits common to most leaders suggest that there is, inside a great deal more to leadership than simple set of personality or physical traits." - Worchel & Cooper: Undrstanding Social Psychology, 1979 p 44

If he is able to do or lead the group to its set goals, then he is easily accepted by the people as the leader of the group. Hamblin (Hamblin, 1958) has proved this by doing an experiment. In this study there were 24 groups of 3-3 persons, out of which 12 were crisis groups. The distressed group had to learn a particular rule of the game in a crisis situation where learning was intentionally made difficult by a sudden change in the rule of the game. But the control group had to learn the rules of the game in a normal situation. Two things were found in the result. Firstly, the power of the leader increases in a crisis situation and the leader is immediately accepted by the followers in such a situation. Secondly, if the old leader is not able to solve the problems of the crisis situation properly, then he is immediately replaced by the new leader. Hamblin found in his experiment that 9 out of 12 distressed groups replaced their old leader with a new leader while only 3 out of 12 control groups did so. The effect of group crisis is not only on the emergence of leadership but also on the distribution of leadership. Hamblin (1958) has pointed out that when the crisis is more acute. Or when the threat to the group becomes more, then in such a situation, the possibility of emergence of authoritarian

leader is more. In the same way, when a difficult task comes in front of the group, then in such a situation many members together distribute the leadership related tasks among themselves.

**3. Group instability-** Sometimes it happens that the mutual differences among the members of the group increase considerably, due to which the achievement of group-goal is in danger and a situation of instability arises in the group. In such a situation, the possibility of formation of a new leader and removal of the old leader becomes intense. Any person in the group who removes such instability and leads the group towards the achievement of the goal, is considered by the group as its leader. Crockett (1955) has studied and told that if the ideas of the members about the group goal are divided among themselves, then in such a situation, the possibility of the emergence of a leader becomes very intense. We get a vivid example of this from the reshuffle of the Chief Ministers of the state. Take Bihar only.

**4. Failure of authorized heads-** When the present authorized head of the group becomes unable to fulfil his responsibility, then in such a situation the possibility of emergence of a new leader becomes more intense. An authorized president does many things like making plans, making group policies, doing opposition work, etc. By doing these tasks, the goal of the group is achieved faster. When for some reason the chairman is not able to perform these functions, then the group goal is not achieved and his position is given to another person, that is, the leader of the group becomes another person. Crockett (1955) found in his study that 83% of unsuccessful formal leaders and only 39% of successful formal leaders were replaced by group members. Katz and his colleagues (Katz et al., 1951) have also found this type of fact in the study of the leaders of the groups of rail-road employees.

**5. Failures of Leader-** Some needs (wants or needs) are of this type which help in the emergence of leadership. For example, need for power, need for prestige, desire to earn money, need to show dominance over others are some such needs. If the group is such that most of its members are full of these needs, then in such a situation, the possibility of emergence of many leaders in the group increases. On the other hand, if the group is such that only a single member has such needs, then in such a situation that person in the group will immediately become the leader. But if any member of the group does not have such requirements, then in such a situation no person will be able to handle the leadership of the group and the group will disintegrate.

**6. Personality factors:** The origin of leadership can also be due to influential personality. Some social psychologists are of the opinion that if a person has intelligence, power, insight, If the qualities of verbosity, emotional mobility etc. are sufficient then that person easily becomes the

leader of the group. These qualities increase the ability to work in a person and help in solving social problems and implementing various plans and policies. Despite all this, modern social psychologists do not accept that any person can become the leader of the group, irrespective of the virtues of the personality. According to these people, along with becoming a leader, it is also necessary to have an adequate social situation. It is clear from the above description that the origin of the leader is due to many factors in which the belonging to the group factors and virtues are important to leader's tasks

### • **Functions of Leaders**

The leader does different types of work for his group. The number of tasks a leader has in a particular group basically depends on what are the main problems facing the group that he wants to solve. Yet, in general, a leader must perform certain specific functions, regardless of the nature of the group. According to Kretch, Crutchfield & Ballachey (1962), such major functions were divided into two parts – primary functions and accessory functions. The description of these two is given below-

(a) **Primary functions** – Primary function refers to the tasks that a leader has to perform necessary to continue in office. The main such tasks are as follows-

1. **Leader as executive:** In the form of executive, the leader conducts and directs the programs of the group. He is considered the supreme operator of all the activities of the group. He also makes proper distribution of these different tasks among the members of the group. As an executive, he does not do any work of the group himself, sometimes he gives its work to other members as well. leader as executive plays an important role.

2. **Leader as planner-** Another important function of the leader is to plan for achieving the goals and objectives of the group. In other words, the leader prepares a complete plan of various means and methods for achieving the aims and objectives of the group. Both short term and long term plans are made by the leader to achieve the goals. Often it is only the leader who knows which is the best way and means to achieve the collective goals and how those means can be mobilized.

3. **Leader as policy maker** - The leader is also the creator of the goals and policies of the group. There can be two types of policy in any group Internal policy and External policy. Whether policy is internal or external, it basically emanates from three sources.

(i) Sometimes the policy is decided by the top level leaders and it is communicated to their subordinate leaders and given to the members. Even in such a situation, the views of the subordinate leaders have a place in policy making is given.

(ii) Sometimes group policy is determined not from above but from below. In such a situation, all the members of the group together determine a concrete policy. But in this also the leader directs the discussions being held by the members by being present himself and in this way keeps himself connected with the policy making.

(iii) When the leader has full freedom to formulate the policy, he himself formulates the policy. Thus it is clear that whatever is the source of the origin of the policy, the ultimate responsibility for policy formulation, But it happens.

**4. Leader as expert-** The leader also acts as an expert for the group members and gives advice. There is a belief among group members that the leader will have the highest technical knowledge about his group's problems. The greater this belief among the members, the greater the power of the leader, leading to greater polarization of power around the leader. It is because of this belief that the members urge the leader to guide them when needed. It is often seen that religious leaders give good advice about religion, political leaders about politics and about social work as experts, to the members of their respective groups.

**5. Leader as external group representative-** It is not possible for all the members of any large group to represent the whole group together in the context of an external group. Therefore, the leader has to handle the work of external representation of the group and the other group or organization is present and keeps the views of all its members as a representative. In this way the leader is the official spokesperson of his group. All kinds of information going out of your group and all kinds of information coming from outside into your group are exchanged only through the official spokesperson i.e. the leader. In this special sense, Lewin has termed the leader as 'gatekeeper'.

**6. Leader as controller or internal relations** – The leader determines and controls the mutual and internal relations of the members of his group. His every possible effort is to ensure that the mutual relations of the members remain cordial, for this he also preaches to his members from time to time and also motivates them by telling them the benefits of good relations. In this way the leader acts as a controller of the internal relations of the members of his group. **7. Leader as purveyor of reward and punishment.** He also gives punishments and rewards to the members of his group members who conform to group norms when they contribute significantly to the

achievement of group goals, the leader rewards them appropriately. Nature of the Award be anything can happen. The leader can also give cash prizes to such members or give them promotion. On the other hand the members who behave contrary to the norms of the group and obstruct the achievement of the goals Yes, the leader also gives them appropriate punishment. As a punishment, it is possible that the leader may demote such members. Give or expel from the group. In this way, the leader of the group controls his group by rewarding and punishing the members. Maintains proper control.

8. **Leader as arbitrator and mediator-** It has been seen that sometimes a situation of estrangement and conflict arises between the members of the group. In such a situation, the leader acts as an arbiter and arbitrator and removes mutual estrangement and conflict among the members. In this compromise, he listens to the views of each concerned member and after that gives his decision and removes the estrangement of the members.

(b) **Accessory function:** In addition to the above primary functions, the leader also performs some accessory functions for the members of his group. Auxiliary work refers to such work which the leader either decides to do himself or decides to do on the request of the group members. The nature of these works is such that even if the leader wants, he cannot do it himself. No one can remove him from the post even if he does not do this. The following are the major auxiliary functions:

1. **Leader as exemplar-** The leader acts as an exemplar or model for the members of the group. By setting a pattern or example of behaviour, the leader expects the same behavior from other members. A political leader is expected to behave in front of his party members in a manner consistent with the ideals of the party. In the same way the religious leader serves as an example to the other followers of the religion.

2. **Leader as a symbol of the group-** The leader maintains unity and continuity in the group by acting as a symbol of his group. The whole group is easily known by that symbol and the nature of the group is also understood. For example, Mr. Rajiv may be known as the symbol of the Congress (E) party.

3. **Leader as the substitute for individual (responsibility)-** Sometimes the leader takes the individual responsibility of the members of his group on his shoulders. When a dangerous decision has to be taken (which he really does not want to take), then by taking responsibility

for it on his shoulders, the leader frees those members from worry. He also acts as a substitute for the personal responsibility of these members.

4. **Leader as ideologist-** The leader acts as an ideologist for the members of the group. He appears before the members of the group as a complete principle of behavior conforming to the principles, values, and norms of the group. When the leader appears in front of the members of his group as a principled person, then there is a special purpose behind it and that is that other members of the group should also behave according to the principles.

5. **Leader as father figure-** In terms of emotional role, the position of a father in his family is almost the same as that of a leader in his group. Just as the family members consider their father as the center of positive emotional feelings, in the same way the members of the group identify with the leader as the center of positive emotional feelings. The leader helps its members in a special way in this work. According to Fisher (Fisher, 1982), when the leader is unable to do his work for some reason, then in such a situation he is not considered an effective leader of the group.

6. **Leader as scapegoat-** Whenever the group goal is not achieved, then in such a situation frustration arises among the members and the members start showing resentment towards the leader. Often the members put all the blame on the leader which results in the leader being either removed from office or murdered. In this way, sometimes the leader has to climb the cross of sacrifice. The assassination of Mahatma Gandhi, Indira Gandhi and Rajiv Gandhi is one of the best examples of this special function of the leader in the Indian society. It is clear from the above description that a leader has to perform various functions in his group. One To be an effective leader, it is essential that he/she does most of these tasks successfully.

## • **Types or Styles of Leader**

Several types or styles of leaders have been described by sociologists and social psychologists. It is not possible to explain all these types in detail here, but the types of leaders told by some prominent scientists. The description is as follows-

### **(a) Classification of Bogardus Bogardus (Bogardus, 1940)**

The following five types have been described-

1. **Direct and indirect leadership-** In direct leadership, the relationship between the leader and the followers is direct. He interacts directly with the members of his group, listens to their

problems and offers his suggestions for their solution. In this way direct leadership group members can see, hear and talk to the leader.

The relationship with the followers is indirect. Such leaders indirectly influence and control the thoughts of their followers. Big scientists, writers, philosophers etc. indirectly control the followers of their respective fields.

**2. Partisan and Scientific leadership-** In Partisan leadership, the leader works in favor of his group. In front of other groups, such a leader discusses only the good and commendable aspects of his group and hides the bad and reprehensible aspects. The effort of such a leader is that the group knows that his group is considered the best in comparison to other groups. Today's political leaders often. There are partisan leaders because they show only good qualities for the party in front of the general public. In scientific leadership, the leader lays more emphasis on truth and justice. Such a leader makes his group discuss both the good and the bad. He brings to light both good facts and bad facts in the search for truth. This type of leader or leadership is seen more in the field of science. Big scientists remain connected in the search of their field. In this search, he puts both the good and the bad sides in front of the public. Thus we see that scientific leadership is just the opposite of partisan leadership.

**3. Social, Executive and Mental leadership** – In social leadership, the leader does social and public work for his group. In this type of leadership there is a direct relationship between the leader and the followers and all kinds of social problems are resolved in an open environment. In short, the leader of this field has the predominance of social worker qualities. In mental leadership, the leader demands a secluded and peaceful environment to perform his functions. Such a leader, through his thoughts, influences the hearts and minds of others in such a way that they get inspired to behave according to his sayings. In executive leadership, the inclusion of both social and mental qualities is found in the leader. Such a leader has the quality of a good social worker as well as the ability to present good ideas. It occurs. Such a leader also has a lot of qualities related to governance and management.

**4. Autocratic Charismatic, Paternal and Democratic leadership-** In autocratic leadership, the leader is the all-in-all of his group. Such a leader has more absolute power. He himself formulates and implements all the policies and plans of the group. He punishes someone at his will and rewards someone. He is neither responsible to anyone for this nor can any justification be asked for it. Such a leader has less concern for the well being and well being of his members. The leadership of a charismatic leader depends on some charisma or miraculous actions. Leadership of such persons is accepted because some unique and extraordinary qualities are

found in them. enough of such leaders There is real and imaginary power to show some miracles due to sadhana, effort and other such qualities.

5. **Magicians, religious leaders,** Pirs, Prophets, Sai etc. are leaders of this category. The leadership of such a leader lasts till then. As long as he has the power to perform miracles. In paternalistic leadership, the leader is the equivalent of a father to his followers. Followers have more reverence and respect for such a leader. Such a leader also takes care of the right and wrong of his followers like a father.

- Democratic leadership is just the opposite of authoritarian leader. Such a leader formulates a policy and plan only after consulting all the members of the group. There is a direct relationship between such leader and the members. Such a leader greatly respects the comforts and feelings of the members and does not forcefully impose his views and wishes on them. Decentralization of authority is seen in this type of leadership.

6. **Prophets, Saints, Experts and Boss-** A prophet is a leader who represents God or some other kind of supernatural power and by his actions and actions, creates this faith in the minds of the people grants that all the power of God has come in him. Seeing such power, his followers get very impressed with him and start worshiping him like God and start considering his words as Brahmapakya. Saints dominate others by devotion to God and their pious conduct. They have some such characteristics which can only be called supernatural. Common people get greatly influenced by these characteristics. Such a person is called an expert if he has special knowledge about a subject in a particular field. Such people are expert in a particular work art. Because of his uniqueness, he is worshiped among the people and he has a special authority over the people. Such a specialist has a high degree of specialization. Boss is such a leader who pulls other people towards him because of his cleverness. Such leaders have more qualities of eloquence and fake sociability. The owners of the factories, the big officials of the offices are the leaders of this category.

#### **(b) Kimball Young's classification:**

Kimball Young has divided leadership into the following six parts-

1. **Political boss** -This type of leader is related to a political party. Such leaders are power-hungry and quick to form factionalism and struggle. Such leaders maintain their leadership even when other people oppose them. Such leaders try to keep their party properly organized and



keep a close watch that the work of the party is going on smoothly. They do this because they know. It is that his leadership will end if the party breaks up.

2. **Democratic leader** – Such a leader, while discussing with the group, Determines the leader and plan. He cares more for the comfort and well-being of his members. He makes any kind of decision together and does not impose his decision on the people. This way Leaders are tolerant and go according to the opinion of common members.

3. **Bureaucrats:** Bureaucrats are those who run the administration of the government according to certain rules and prescribed laws. Such leaders run the work of the government department very efficiently and intelligently. They do not take decision on any problem themselves and prefer to leave it to their higher officials. As a result, they know very well how to flatter their senior officers and political leaders. They are power lovers.

4. **Diplomat** - Diplomats work as a representative of the government in another country or international area. The kind of representation that a diplomat makes, he works according to the policies and plans made by him. He uses words very cleverly and skillfully to serve the purpose of his government. Kimbal Young' (Kimbal Young. 1975) has rightly remarked about a successful diplomat. "When the diplomat says 'yes'. So he means 'probably', if he does, perhaps, then he means 'No' and if he clearly does 'no', it means that he is not a diplomat at all. They make different efforts to remove these defects and dream of building a new world. Such leaders are less practical and more theoretical. These leaders have excess of emotions. As a result, they They are very emotional.

6. **Theorist:** - The ideas of the theoretician leader are only related to principles. Hence it is natural that there is less practicality in his thoughts and behaviour. He takes the support of logic to confirm his views. He lives in the world of logic and by influencing his followers through logic keeps.

### **c) Lippitt & White's classification**

White. 1939) conducted a study under the direction of Kurt Lewin which resulted in their The following three types of leadership are mentioned-

1. **Authoritarian Leadership** - The authoritarian leader holds more absolute authority or power in his group. He himself formulates the policies of the group and prepares the plans of the group. The group itself knows the sequence of actions to be taken in the direction of achieving the goals. He himself determines the activities of the members and their relations. He

himself decides which person in the group should be rewarded and which person should be punished. In this way, the key to the fate of each member of the group is in his own hands. Such a leader deliberately maintains the structure of the group in such a way that the members cannot discuss anything among themselves and all communication coming in and out of the group is through him only. be from The sociometric structure of such a group is star-shaped.

According to Lippitt and Haight (Lippitt & White, 1939) the authoritarian leader is task-oriented. This means that such leaders are less concerned about the welfare of the members and emphasize on doing more and more work by the members towards the attainment of the group. Under such leadership, the morale of the group members is low. As a result, when the leader dies or is absent for a long time, the group gradually breaks up. Ayub Khan, Yahiya Khan, Hitler etc. are examples of such authoritarian leaders.

**2. Democratic leadership** - A democratic leader is just the opposite of an authoritarian leader. He reaches a definite decision in consultation with all the key members to determine the policies and plans to be made for the achievement of the group goals. He distributes the work of the group among all the members and makes every possible effort for the welfare of the members. In this way, there is decentralization of authority and power in such leadership. The relationship between the leader and the members is direct. The sociometric structure of a group with such leadership is like a net. (See Fig. 16.1) It is clear from this that members freely discuss or discuss a problem with each other under this type of leadership. There is no interference of the leader in his work. Under such leadership, the morale of the group members is high. As a result, the group does not disintegrate even if the leader dies or is absent for some time. Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri, Smt. Indira Gandhi and Father of the Nation Mahatma Gandhi are some prominent examples of democratic leaders.

**3. Non-interventionist leadership** (Laissez faire or abdicator leadership) - This type of leadership was first introduced in France in the 15th century. This type of leadership refers to the type of leadership where the leader exercises only nominal control over the members of his group. In this type of leadership, the leader neither guides nor gives any kind of instructions on his behalf. The members have complete freedom as to what work to do and what not to do to achieve the group goals. Reber' (Reber, 1985) has defined laissez-faire leadership as, 'In social psychology, laissez-faire leadership is defined as a leadership system that operates with a minimum of control. In a truly laissez-faire system there is no control by the leader, not even any kind of assistance or guidance.'

In this way we see that many types of leadership have been described in social psychology. Of these types, two types are more popular – authoritarian leader and democratic leader. Then out of these two democratic leadership is more common because this type of leadership is seen in most of the countries of the world

### • **Difference between Authoritarian Leader and Democratic Leader**

Authoritarian leader and democratic leader are among the major types of leaders. Therefore it is necessary to consider the difference between these two. Although there is a lot of similarity in the authority function of these two types of leaders, yet there is a lot of difference in the methods of their implementation. Lippitt & White (1939) and Fisher (1982). According to Myers (Myers, 1988), the following are the basic differences between these two types of leadership-

1. Absolute power is more in authoritarian leader. Often it has been seen that such a leader does not like the interference of any other member in the formulation of group's policy and plans and he acts arbitrarily in determining all these. Such a thing does not happen in a democratic leader. He has more relative authority or power. He gives importance to the opinion of the members in finalizing the policies and plans of the group and considers the decision taken by them as his decision.
2. Authoritarian leader is task-oriented while democratic leader is member-oriented. This means that the ruling leader is less concerned about the interest and well-being of his members and more concerned about getting them to work for the attainment of group goals. He only needs work from the members, even if the members are not harmed in any way by this? The democratic leader lays stress on the welfare and interest of the members as well as on the work of the group. He makes every possible effort for the welfare of the members. This is the reason that the democratic leader gets more prestige and respect in his group than the authoritarian leader.
3. An authoritarian leader is a dictator of his group because centralization of power is found in his hands. He himself determines the policies and plans of the group to achieve the group goal. The members of the group are not even aware of it. On the other hand, a democratic leader is an agent of his group because he works according to the policies and plans set by all the members to achieve the group goal. He doesn't do any kind of arbitrariness.
4. In authoritarian leadership, there is no direct relationship between the leader and the followers. There is more social distance between the leader and the followers. This can be seen

more clearly in the group. Ordinary members cannot talk directly to such a leader, rather they can speak to a person or a person certified by the leader. Can talk to the deputy leader only, .Such a certified person or deputy leader conveys his ideas to the leader. This is the reason why the sociometric structure of the group under authoritarian leadership is star-shaped. In democratic leadership, on the other hand, there is a direct relationship between the leader and the followers and social distance between them also decreases. Each member can also discuss any problem among themselves. This is the reason why the sociometric structure of a democratic leadership group is in the shape of a net

5. The authoritarian leader is the keystone person of his group, whose death or absence for a long time leads to distortion of the group structure. But such a thing is not seen in democratic leadership. The group does not disintegrate when the democratic leader dies or becomes absent. Yes, mild upheaval definitely comes for a while. In fact, democratic leaders test their success only by the fact that in their absence, to what extent the group is able to work satisfactorily towards the achievement of the group goal.

6. In authoritarian leadership, there is more submission and submissiveness in the behavior of the followers towards the leader. Even if they want to, they are not able to openly oppose the leader. But in democratic leadership the behavior of the followers towards the leader is more friendly. He openly puts his thoughts in front of the leader.

7. An authoritarian leader is repressive and aggressive. By following the policy of oppression and aggression, he crushes the members of his group and fulfills his selfishness. On the other hand, the democratic leader shows more co-operativeness, empathy and sense of difference towards the members of his group. It wins the hearts of its members by adopting a policy of co-operation, sympathy and discrimination and gets prestige and respect.

8. In an authoritarian leader, the 'initiating and directing aspect' is dominant and the 'consideration aspect' is secondary. One of the main characteristics of an authoritarian leader is that he himself initiates a task and orders it to be completed. In this, he does not accept the suggestions of other members and he is not even ready for any type of discussion with them. On the other hand, the consideration aspect is predominant in a democratic leader. It consults with other members to finalize the implementation of any policy and plan. Such leaders give less orders to their members but believe more in getting the work done by urging.

9. Under authoritarian leadership, the morale of the group members is low. Instead of feeling of brotherhood, the feeling of 'we are the best' prevails in each member of the group. The result is

that there is no sense of unity and sympathy among the members of the group, which is an indicator of low morale. Such a group disintegrates completely as soon as the leader is removed. In democratic leadership, there is more brotherhood and we-feeling among the members of the group. In such a group, the members have a favorable attitude towards the leader and towards each other. As a result, the morale of the group remains high. The structure of the group remains organized due to high morale when the leader is absent or even dead.

10. The authoritarian leader follows the policy of 'divide and rule' among the members. Perhaps this is the reason why he does not like the members to meet and discuss about the attainment of group goals. On the contrary, the democratic leader does administrative work by increasing interaction among the members and getting their cooperation. When he does not get the cooperation of the members in the determination of group goals and group-policies, he starts getting restless.

11. The authoritarian leader rewards or punishes any member of the group at will. for this or other. The members of the group cannot ask him for any kind of clarification for any work. on the other side Any member can fearlessly ask a democratic leader as to what is the reason for awarding or punishing a particular member. Democratic leaders also answer such questions satisfactorily. 12. In a crisis situation, members of a group with authoritarian leadership tend to disintegrate rapidly, but in such a situation, members of a group with democratic leadership tend to act united there is a tendency. It is clear from the above description that authoritarian leadership and generational leadership differ from each other in their procedures quite different from

## • **Theories of leadership**

Social psychologists and sociologists have sought solutions to certain specific questions regarding leadership. Chief among these questions is – How does a person become the leader of a group? Are leaders born? A leader is effective in some situations but ineffective in other situations. But why? To give a satisfactory answer to these questions, some theories of leadership have been propounded by many psychologists. of which the following are the main ones

(1) Trait theory

(2) Situational theory

(3) Contingency theory:- The main theories of this category are-

- (i) Fiedler theory
- (ii) Path goal theory
- (iii) Vroom-Yetton theory

The critical interpretation of these theories is as follows:

## **1. Trait Theory**

This theory is also called the Great Man Theory. This theory was born as a result of the initial attempts to explain leadership. This theory is based on the belief that leaders are born and not made. According to this theory, a great man or a leader has some special innate qualities due to which he is more effective than his followers and becomes the leader of the group. Is. Due to the set of these qualities, the leader is effective in every situation. Leaders like Martin Luther King, Mahatma Gandhi, Hitler, Napoleon etc. had some unique qualities which were not there in their followers and because of which they emerged in front of the people as an effective leader. There are two main important assumptions of the Sheelgun theory which are as follows-

(i) The first important assumption of this theory is that leadership is a common attribute. A person who has become a leader will remain a leader in all circumstances and times. There is some empirical evidence that supports this hypothesis. For example, Carter (1953) and Gibb (1947) found in their experiments that when a leader is removed from one group and placed in another group, he becomes the leader of the group there too. But there have been many such studies which prove that leadership is not a common attribute. Important studies by Carter & Nixon (1949) and Meri (Merci, 1949) have proved that leadership is not a general quality and that being a leader in a situation does not guarantee that he will Will be a leader in other circumstances as well.

(ii) The second assumption of this theory is that the leader has some unique traits which differentiate him from his followers. Many such studies have been done in which an attempt has been made to establish which the presence of which makes a person the leader of the group. Stogdill (1948) surveyed the results of 124 studies done in this regard and Mann (Mann, 1959) surveyed 125 such studies and found that three types of qualities are important, having which one can become a group leader. These are – physical traits, personality traits and acquired traits. In physical virtues, more emphasis has been laid on the physical size, strength and age etc. of the person. Generally, to become a leader, it is necessary to have a tall, heavy, healthy body and a relatively old person. Terman (Terman, 1940), Patridge (Patridge 1961). Studies done by

Caldwell (1953) etc. have proved the importance of these qualities in the emergence of leadership. Personality traits include intelligence, self-confidence. Verbosity, dominance, adjustment, sociability, diligence, foresight, charisma and imagination power are prominent. This has been confirmed in many studies, including Gibb (Gibb, 1961), Loretto and Williams (1974), McGreth and Julian (McGreth & Julian, 1963), Bavelas and colleagues (Bavelas et al. 1965) etc. The studies done are very important. Some psychohistorians suggest that a more powerful leader stems from an effort to overcome perceived weaknesses in oneself. Wolfenstein (1967) studied the history of Lenin, Trotsky and Mahatma Gandhi and found that their inability to deal with significant men in adolescence helped them to emerge as powerful leaders later. There are also some acquired traits which help a person to become a leader. Group status is an important virtue in such virtues. Mills (1967) has pointed out that most of the world's leaders have attained their positions partly because they were born in high families. Warner and Abegglen (Warner & Abeglen, 1955) also found in their study that most of the American business managers were able to achieve their position because they were born in a high family. Rudraswamy (Rudraswamy, 1964) also conducted a study in which they found that when some subjects were made to believe that their rank or position was very high in the group, they would lead in their behaviours started showing qualities. Is the interpretation of trait theory acceptable to modern social psychologists? Probably not. The main reason for this is that there are some weaknesses of this theory, in which the following are the major ones-

- (i) This theory does not reveal such universal qualities which are found equally in all the leaders, although finding such qualities is one of the main objectives of this theory. Not only this, social psychologists have found very low correlation between leadership behavior and personality traits, which indicates that it cannot be said on the basis of personality traits alone who is the leader of the group. Or why does the individual become the leader of the group?
- (ii) There is a lot of inconsistency and contradiction in the studies done in support of this theory. As a result, this theory cannot be considered more reliable and valid.
- (iii) This theory also does not explain the fact that why some of the people who had to struggle more in the early stages of their life or who had to face disability became great leaders like Gandhi and Lenin. But why most of the people could not become even small leaders. In the light of these criticisms, we come to the conclusion that neither the emergence of leadership by virtue theory. Its origin is not explained, nor is its effectiveness so modern society. Psychologists have replaced this theory by other new theories.

## 2. Situational theory: -

“The situational approach implies that a particular individual can be leader in one setting and not in another because it is the characteristics of the situation and not the person that lead to leadership attainment”. (Feldman Social Psychology, 1985)

The presentation of the situational theory was due to dissatisfaction with the trait theory. When social psychologists became convinced that the origin or emergence of leadership could not be explained by the trait theory, then they turning to the characteristics of the group situation, according to this theory, leadership development is not due to the traits of the individual, but the characteristics of the group. Who will be the leader of the group is determined not by the modesty of the person's personality but by the present situation or time of the group. That's why this theory is also called **Time theory** or **Zeitgeist theory**. Clearly, then, according to this principle, they are not born, but they are born by molding the circumstances. According to this theory, a person may be a leader in one situation but may not be a leader in another situation because the position of leader is given to a particular person by the characteristics of the situation. *Feldman (1985) while doing this theory said, “Situational theory states that a particular person can be a leader in one situation and not in another because leadership is achieved by the characteristics of the situation and not the characteristics of the individual.”*

It is clear that according to the situational theory, who will be the leader of the group; it is determined by the situational time. **Cooper and McGaugh** (Cooper & McGaugh, 1969) have brought some facts to light by studying in support of this theory. These people say that if **Hitler** had started his movement in America instead of Germany, he would have been thrown in jail; he would have been admitted to a mental hospital. There are some recent examples of this in India as well. If **Mrs. Indira Gandhi** had not been shot dead on October 31, 1984, would **Rajeev Gandhi** have been the Prime Minister of India immediately? Probably not. But the situation arising out of his murder was such that he was made the leader of the people of India. Similarly, before 1974, **Mr. Jaya Prakash Narayan** did not give that much successful leadership to the people. But after March, 1974 some such situation arose due to which he emerged in front of the people as a successful revolutionary leader. It is clear that a person does not emerge as a leader until a certain situation or time comes. So time is powerful and not the person himself.

Now the question arises that what are the characteristics of the group situation which influence the emergence of leadership. Many studies have been done In this regard. The group characteristics that have emerged in the light of some major studies are as follows – It is clear from the studies of Carter and associates (Carter et al. 1951) and Ketch and his associates



(Kretch et al. 1962) that when the group is large If it happens, then the possibility of many types of leaders being born in it increases. Kurokawa and Misumi (1975) have shown on the basis of their study that the type of leadership is also determined by the size of the group. For example, the origin of task-oriented leaders is more in large groups, but the origin of emotional leaders is more in small groups. Similarly, Dyson and his colleagues (Dyson et al. 1976) have shown on the basis of their study that the emergence of a homogeneous group leader is delayed. Some studies have shown that the crisis situation of the group also has an impact on the emergence of group leadership. If there is a severe crisis in front of the group or the feeling of competition among the members of the group has become very intense, then in such a situation, the possibility of an authoritarian leader to emerge in the group becomes very intense. Humbin (1958) and Worchel and his associates (Worchel et al. 1977) have confirmed this fact on the basis of their respective studies. Some studies have also shown that leadership emerges from the need of the group is influenced. In each situation the group has some special needs. The person who is able to fully satisfy those needs, the group accepts him as its leader. The main requirement of the Indian freedom struggle movement was such a leadership that would give satisfactory liberation to the Indians from the British rule. Since people like Mahatma Gandhi, Nehru etc. were successful in fulfilling this need; the people of India accepted them as their leader. Bales (Bales, 1953) has also shown on the basis of his study that when the group need changes, it also changes the leader of the group. This happens because the old leaders are not able to satisfy the changed needs. Later, Barnlund (1962) also confirmed Wells' conclusion as he found in his experiment that leadership changes when the task of the group changes.

Thus it is clear that the emergence of leadership is influenced by a variety of situational factors. The characteristics of the situation determine not only who will be the leader of the group but also the type of leader that person will be. Sanford (1950) found in his study that authoritarian followers do not prefer group-oriented or democratic leaders. They only like the ruling class. According to Halpin (1954), group members seek democratic leadership in low-risk tasks, but followers seek authoritarian and task-oriented leaders in high-risk tasks.

Some *criticisms* of the situational theory have also been made which are as follows-

1. This theory cannot explain the fact that why some people always remain leaders and why some people always remain followers even when the conditions are equal.
- (2) This theory also cannot tell that in which particular situation which person will become a leader. Feldman (1985) has expressed his view in support of this criticism that this theory. "The

biggest difficulty is that we are unable to tell who the person chosen to be the leader will go. Thus, in predicting who is going to be the leader, in this situational?

The theory is inadequate." The conclusion is that the situational theory - in itself - is as incomplete in explaining the emergence of leadership as the trait theory. In fact, the former explanation of leadership is satisfactory only when we relate it to both the situational theory and the trait theory. Therefore, the best theory of leadership is one that takes into account both the individual's traits and the characteristics of the situation. Psychologists have proposed the contingency theory has given similar emphasis.

### **3. Contingency theory:-**

“The greatest difficulty is that we are unable to tell which particular individual will be choosing as leader. In terms of predicting who is going to emerge as leader, than a purely situational approach is inadequate. “(Feldman, 1985)

Relevance theory is less concerned with the emergence of the leader and more with its effectiveness. According to this principle, an effective leader can only be a person who has appropriate leadership traits and at the same time can meet the demands of the situation. It is clear that in relevance theory, leadership is explained by the interaction or effect of qualities and situations. Basically three principles are very important in relevance theory neither we are separating the explanation of all three one by one.

#### **a. Fiedler's contingency theory:**

As the name suggests, this theory was propounded by Fred Fiedler in 1964. Fiedler has tried to explain in his theory that the leader becomes effective because he has personality traits and at the same time the situation is favourable. In other words, according to Fiedler, leadership effectiveness is determined by both the leadership style and the group situation. The reason for the effectiveness of Rajiv Gandhi's leadership was on the one hand his own personality and on the other hand the special situation of the country was such where no successful alternative party to the Congress € party could be seen. The scientific explanation of Fiedler's relevancy theory has been divided into the following parts-

- i. The situation**
- ii. The leader's style**
- iii. The model which suggests that**

Which type of leadership is more effective in which situation? The description of these three is as follows-

i. *The situation may be favourable or unfavourable for the position of the leader.*

Favourable situation is called when the leader is able to control the members of his group. The effectiveness of leadership increases in a favourable situation.

According to Fiedler, the following are the three factors that determine the favourableness of the situation for the leader:

1. **Leader-member relations:** If there is a cordial relationship between the leader and the group member. If so, then that situation is considered quite favourable for leadership. But if the members look at the leader with suspicion hate him, then that situation is considered unfavourable for the effectiveness of the leadership.

2. **Task structure** – When the work done by the members is structured and there is so much clarity in it that the members do not have any confusion in doing it, then that situation also leads to leadership. Considered favourable for the effectiveness of On the other hand, when the members are faced with unstructured tasks in which ambiguity is high, it becomes difficult to provide group leadership and leadership effectiveness is reduced.

3. **Power position of the leader:** The wider the power position of the leader, the more favorable that situation is for the effectiveness of the leadership. The power level of the leader refers to the privilege of giving rewards and punishments to its members.

(ii) **Leadership style**—In Fiedler's theory, only the group's influence in leadership effectiveness not only the situation but the quality or type of leadership is also important. It has become clear from the studies done by his colleagues that there are two styles of leadership.

1. **Task-oriented leadership** – Task-oriented leaders basically believe in getting their members to work at any cost. They only want work, even if no one has to suffer any loss from it. Such a leader does not care about the mutual relations and interests of the members.

2. **Group-oriented leadership-** Group-oriented leader is cordial with his members. They make more efforts to maintain relations and do their work while taking more care of the interests of the members. This way more emphasis on maintaining close personal relationship with the leader members

Let's put that's why such a leader is also called a relationship-oriented leader. Fiedler also created a questionnaire based on the answers to which he was able to determine whether an AMU leader was task-oriented or group-oriented. They termed this questionnaire as the **Least**

**Preferred Coworker Scale or LPC Scale**, which is separated from each other by 8-points of the eight points on each pair of adjectives, the point marked by the subject is the actual score. By adding together the scores obtained on all the pairs, the total score of that application is determined. If the total score is high (high LPC), then the person is considered to be a group-oriented leader, but if the total score is low (low LPC), then the person is considered to be a task-oriented leader. The first type of leader (group oriented) gives the first place to the satisfaction of the members and their harmonious relationship and gives a secondary place to the performance of the work, while the second type of leader gives the first place to the performance of the work and gives a secondary place to the satisfaction of the members.

(iii) ***Prediction from Model*** – When Fiedler explained the suitability of the situation and the leadership type, in the end he made some predictions about the effectiveness of the leader on the basis of his model which are as follows-

(1) **Task-oriented leader** is highly favourable and more unfavourable (highly unfavourable) prove to be effective in both the circumstances but when the favourability of the situation is in the middle (i.e. neither less nor more) so task-oriented leaders do not prove to be very effective in such situations.

(2) **The group-oriented leader** has the opposite pattern. Group-oriented leaders are more effective when the compatibility of the situation is in the middle, but their effectiveness goes on decreasing when the compatibility of the situation is low or high.

To test the validity of this theory of Fiedler, many social psychologists like Chemers and Skerzypeck (1972), Rice (Rice, 1981) and Main and his colleagues (Graen et al. 1970) have researched. Most of the results have gone in favor of this theory. But some people have also found some demerits in this theory. Before explaining the demerits, we consider it essential to explain the following three merits of this theory-

i. This is the first such theory which has clearly stated that the nature of leader's effectiveness is determined by both the characteristics of the situation and the quality or type of leadership.

(ii) The theory makes specific predictions about those qualities of the leader and those characteristics of the situation. From which the effectiveness of the leader is determined.

(ii) Sturbe & Garcia (1980) conducted studies in the field of this theory till 1980 analyzing it, it has been shown that Fiedler's theory about leadership effectiveness is a successful, makes reliable and valid predictions.

In spite of these merits, there are some **demerits** of this theory which are as follows-

1. Some psychologists like Schein (Schein, 1980) say that it is a difficult task to measure the contingency variables of Fiedler's theory. For example, it is difficult to measure precisely how good leader-member relations are, how structured the group work is, how much authority the leader has over its members, and so on. The result of all this is that leadership effectiveness cannot be explained correctly by this theory.
2. In this theory, the characteristics of group members i.e. followers have been ignored whereas the truth is that these also determine the effectiveness of leadership.
3. According to Mitchell and his colleagues (Mitchell et al., 1970), one of the main problems of Fiedler's theory is that it does not distinguish between task-oriented leader (low-LPC leader) and group-oriented leader (high L.PC leader). There is a lot of vagueness about the behaviours. According to Fiedler's study, low-LPC leaders are task-oriented, but some studies have found that low-LPC leaders are more socially sensitive than high-LPC leaders and are punitive.
4. Several recent studies, most notably those of Main and colleagues (Graen et al., 1970) and Ashour (1973), have found a significant relationship between LPC and leadership effectiveness. The correlation that Fiedler mentions in support of his theory, though in the right direction, is statistically non significant. This clearly means that LPC is not related to leadership effectiveness.
5. According to Worchel and Cooper (Worchel & Cooper, 1970) in this principle the adaptability of the situation. No objective way of measuring favourableness has been suggested.
6. Some people are also of the opinion that Fiedler based his theory on only three dimensions. Only the situation has been classified but there are many other dimensions on the basis of which situations can be classified. Such dimensions are not even mentioned in this principle.
7. Worchel & Cooper (1979) have also pointed out that the theory did not explain the effects of change in circumstances on leadership effectiveness. Is. For example, suppose a low LPC leader enters a group where the situation is unfavourable, but by his efforts he makes it moderately favourable, then can he still remain in this improved situation? Will it be less effective? The answer to this question cannot be clearly found in this theory.

In the light of these criticisms, it remains to be doubted whether Fiedler's contingency theory accurately predicts leadership effectiveness. Nevertheless, the importance of this theory is considerable because it clearly states that leadership effectiveness is based on the confluence of both leadership type or quality and situation.

b. **Path goal theory :-**

The root of this theory lies in the research and experiments done by Martin Evans (1970) and Robert House and his associates (Robert House et al., 1971). The essence of this theory is that both leader behaviour and contingency factors together influence the behaviour and attitude of the followers properly and increase the effectiveness of leadership. According to this theory, a leader is responsible for the satisfaction, motivation and performance of group members. Their satisfaction affects motivation and performance. It can affect in the following three ways.

- (1) By giving proper rewards to its members can Leaders can influence the satisfaction, motivation and performance of the members
2. By giving such rewards only when the performance goals are achieved.
3. According to Podsakoff (1982), the third way to increase satisfaction, motivation and performance of the members is to create paths that lead to the goal of your followers or subordinates clarify the path (i.e. tell them what they should do to achieve the goal) and make it easy for them to walk on the paths (i.e. guide your subordinates in the right direction as needed, provide directions and advice).

**The basic facts of path-goal theory can be broadly divided into two parts and presented.**

(a) Styles of leadership behaviour

(b) Contingency factors

**The explanation of these two is as follows-**

(a) **Styles of leadership behaviour** – In this theory, emphasis has been laid on the following four types of leadership behaviour-

1. **Directive leadership** – In this type of leadership, the leader gives various opinions or suggestions to his subordinates related to reaching the goal. He tells them what they should do, how they should do it, etc. so that they reach the goal as soon as possible. Such a leader also inspires his members to act according to a standard rule.
2. **Supportive leadership** – In this type of leadership, the leader takes more care of the interests and well-being of his followers and subordinates. He makes every possible effort to fulfill as many of their needs as possible.
3. **Participative leadership** – In this type of leadership, the leader takes any decision with his subordinates. Takes opinion from (subordinates) and gives special respect to their suggestions. To decide all shows great readiness to implement.

4. **Achievement-oriented leadership-** In this type of leadership, the leader sets challenging goals for his subordinates and motivates the subordinates to take personal responsibility for achieving them. Is. The leader often emphasizes that his followers are capable enough to achieve these challenging goals. It has become clear from the studies carried out in the field of this principle that the same leader can act in different circumstances. All four leadership types can be adopted.

b. **Contingency factors**—In this theory, emphasis has been laid on the fact that any one type of leadership style can affect the satisfaction and motivation of subordinates or followers in every situation. Growth is not possible. Therefore, different types of leadership are effective for different situations.

In this theory, the following two types of institutional factors have been considered important, which tells to what extent a certain type of leadership will be successful in increasing the level of satisfaction and motivation among the members-

a. **Personal characteristics:** There are certain personal qualities of group members which determine the extent to which they are satisfied with a certain type of leadership. Such major qualities are as follows-

a. **Ability** – When the group members have less ability, they like the directive leadership and this type of leadership gives them more satisfaction and their motivation. The level of motivation raises high, but when the potential of the members is high, the guiding leadership, they do not like such a leader and they consider such a leader as a major obstacle in the direction of achieving the goal. It became clear that the effectiveness of a directive leader is only in the situation when the ability of the members is low.

2. **Focus of control** – There are two types of members in the group. There are some members whose locus of control is internal but there are others whose locus of control is external. Members with an internal locus of control understand that whatever happens to them is under their own control, but members with an external locus of control understand that whatever is happening to them is being controlled by an external situation. Mitchell and his colleagues (Mitchel et al., 1975) have shown on the basis of their study that members with internal locus of control prefer participatory leadership and are more satisfied with such leaders, while those with external locus of control Point members prefer directive leadership more and they get more satisfaction from it.

3. **Needs and Motives**—The needs and motivations of the members also determine the fact that they will be more satisfied with the type of leadership style, for example, members who

have achievement needs. Need for achievement is high, they like achievement oriented leadership more and they get more satisfaction in working with such a leader. But members who have a strong need for affiliation are more likely to prefer supportive or participative leadership.

(b) *Characteristics of work environment*: The environment in which members work for their goal attainment is called work environment. There are certain characteristics of the work environment that also determine which type of leadership will result in greater satisfaction among its members. According to House (1971), the most effective leadership style is the one that fills the gaps in the work environment of its followers by providing guidance and support. According to this theory, if the members of the group are doing some unclear work, then in such a situation, the directional leadership will be more effective. Under such leadership, the satisfaction, motivation and performance of these members will be very good. On the other hand, if the members are doing structured work in a group where the work policy is very clear, then directive leadership will not be beneficial and effective; rather it will create frustration among the members. It is clear from this that this theory emphasizes the fact that before adopting any kind of leadership style, the leader should see how the working environment of the members is, that is, how He has to work in the circumstances of the establishment.

The most important feature of this theory has been told that in this, attention has been paid not only to the different styles of leadership but also to the characteristics of subordinates and the characteristics of leadership situation, due to which leadership can be effective. Despite this, people have tried to draw attention towards some demerits of this theory. According to Robbins (Robbins, 1983), since this theory is still very new, the experimental validity of its concepts has not been fully tested. Therefore, the experimental veracity of its concepts has not been fully tested.

Therefore, it would not be appropriate to accept its predictions as correct. Szilagyi and Wallace (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1980) have drawn attention to the following **two major flaws of this theory**-

(1) Four types of leadership have been described in this theory. But how are they measured or what are its measuring criteria, it has not been explained. Participative leadership in particular the measurement of leadership) and achievement-oriented leadership is even more precise.

(2) In this theory, more emphasis has been placed on the prediction of the satisfaction and motivation of the group members, but the prediction of the performance of the members has



been ignored, although the satisfaction of the members. All three are considered to be equally important concepts.

### **C) Vroom & Yetton's Theory**

This theory has been propounded by Vroom and Yetton (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). In this theory, the leader has been considered as the major role decision making and this theory basically throws light on this point. Keeping the spirit of contingency theory in mind, it also explains situations in which different styles of decision making may prove more appropriate. These principles are described below. We can explain it by dividing it into three parts –

#### **1. Alternative decision type** – In this theory there are five alternative decision types.

This theory describes five alternative decision styles that a leader can use to decide on a problem. What are those five types—

**a. Autocratic decision style** in this type of decision style, the leader does not give any information about the problem of the group to his subordinates. We are about to be decided. It has two alternatives – AI and AII. The leader takes the decision without telling anything to the subordinates, but in AII he partially asks his subordinates on some aspects of before taking the decision.

**b. Consultative styles** – In this type the leader takes advice from his followers and expects their help in deciding the group problem. It has two alternatives CI and CII in which the leader consults each member of his group individually and then arrives at a decision. But in CII the leader consults the members not individually but collectively and arrives at a decision.

**c. Group consensus style** – This is called GII and in this decision type the leader sits in a group with his followers and takes a decision by obtaining the consent of the group. This final responsibility and authority for the decision rests with the leader.

Thus we see that there are five alternative decision types – AI AII CI, CII and GII which can be used by the leader.

**2. Decision effectiveness:** In Embry and Aiton's theory, three such important components have been mentioned which affect the effectiveness of the rule taken by the leader. Those three elements are as follows-

- **Decision quality:** If the problem of the group is very important and the alternative solutions given to it are such that they are quite different from each other, then in such a situation it is

worthwhile to take a decision in which Should be of high quality so that the problem is solved properly. On the other hand, when the problem is simple and whose alternative solutions are almost the same, then in such a situation the qualitative level of the decision is not necessary to be high. Therefore, the effectiveness of the leader increases when decisions are taken according to the importance of the situation.

- **Decision acceptance:** The acceptance of the decision means that to what extent the decision taken by the leader is accepted by his subordinates and has been complied with. The effectiveness of the decision taken by the leader clearly depends on the extent to which it is accepted and followed by the subordinates or followers. A high-level attribute or decision may also be trivial if it is not followed and used by the subordinates.
- **Timeliness** — Timeliness means that the decision is made within a certain period of time should be done within. It does not occur to either the leader or his subordinates that it takes more time than necessary to make a high-quality decision. If they do, then there. This attractiveness to subordinates has a bad effect on effectiveness.
- **Choosing a particular decision style** an important aspect in **Vroom & Yetton's Theory** is which decision style a leader adopts because the effectiveness of the decision is directly related to that style is affected.

According to this theory, the effectiveness of a leader is directly affected by that style. According to this principle, flexibility is more in the leader. Therefore, in the same situation, by adopting different types of decision style like autocratic style or consultative style, he makes his decision effective in that particular situation. It does not happen that authoritarian type decision making leaders cannot conduct advisory programmes. He has been told a special quality of this principle. In this theory also on some such questions has been considered, on the basis of whose answers the leader is able to decide which decision style should be adopted.

### **This theory has some merits and demerits.**

The main **merits** are as follows-

- i. This theory is a normative model of leadership which explains the factors by which the leader can determine the level of his participation in the process of decision-making according to the situation. Gets help. According to Robbins (Robbins, 1979) this is the main quality of this theory.
- j. (ii) According to Arnold and Feldman (Arnold & Feldman, 1986) another important quality is that in this theory the leader is considered a flexible and not a rigid person. In other words,

the leader adjusts his decision style to suit the situation. If the autocratic style would be more effective in the situation, he tends to make authoritarian decisions and if he feels that the consultative decision would be more effective in the situation, then he tends to make such decisions. It happens. In fact, this quality of theory makes it different from Fiedler's theory because in Fiedler's theory, the leader is considered to be a rigid and not a flexible person.

According to Fiedler theory, authoritarian leaders can only take authoritarian decisions. They do not have the ability to make other types of decisions. It is clear that in **Vroom & Yetton's theory**, the leader is considered more effective than Fiedler's theory. In spite of these qualities, some demerits of this theory have been told, which are as follows-

**The main demerits are as follows: -**

- i. Some social psychologists have neglected this theory as a complex theory and have said that despite this complexity, leadership behaviour cannot be explained by this theory in all situations.
- j. (ii) The actual data for this theory were obtained not in leadership situations but through self-reports by managers of different organizations. Therefore, some critics are of the opinion that the truth of the theory should be in the context of organizational leadership. But it will happen in other normal group conditions, it is difficult to say. Despite these criticisms, this theory as stated by Field (Field, 1912) is an important step in the field of leadership. This theory explains such a unique model of leadership and decision-making process, which we do not find in other theories.

### **Q.1 What is Leadership?**

**Ans.** Leaders and their leadership skills play an important role in the growth of any organization. Leadership refers to the process of influencing the behaviour of people in a manner that they strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group objectives.

### **Q.2 What is the important quality of a leader.**

**Ans.** A leader should have the ability to maintain good interpersonal relations with the followers or subordinates and motivate them to help in achieving the organizational objectives.

### **Q.3 Features of Leadership?**

**Ans. Influence the behaviour of others:**

Leadership is an ability of an individual to influence the behaviour of other employees in the organization to achieve a common purpose or goal so that they are willingly co-operating with each other for the fulfillment of the same.

**Inter-personal process:** It is an interpersonal process between the leader and the followers. The relationship between the leader and the followers decides how efficiently and effectively the targets of the organization would be met.

**Attainment of common organizational goals:** The purpose of leadership is to guide the people in an organization to work towards the attainment of common organizational goals. The leader brings the people and their efforts together to achieve common goals.

**Continuous process:** Leadership is a continuous process. A leader has to guide his employees every time and also monitor them in order to make sure that their efforts are going in the same direction and that they are not deviating from their goals.

**Group process:** It is a group process that involves two or more people together interacting with each other. A leader cannot lead without the followers.

**Dependent on the situation:** It is situation bound as it all depends upon tackling the situations present. Thus, there is no single best style of leadership.

#### **Q.4 Describe the Importance of Leadership:**

**Ans. Initiating Action:** Leadership starts from the very beginning, even before the work actually starts. A leader is a person who communicates the policies and plans to the subordinates to start the work.

**Providing Motivation:** A leader motivates the employees by giving them financial and non-financial incentives and gets the work done efficiently. Motivation is the driving force in an individual's life.

**Providing guidance:** A leader not only supervises the employees but also guides them in their work. He instructs the subordinates on how to perform their work effectively so that their efforts don't get wasted.

**Creating confidence:** A leader acknowledges the efforts of the employees, explains to them their role clearly and guides them to achieve their goals. He also resolves the complaints and problems of the employees, thereby building confidence in them regarding the organization.

**Building work environment:** A good leader should maintain personal contacts with the employees and should hear their problems and solve them. He always listens to the point of view of the employees and in case of disagreement persuades them to agree with him by

giving suitable clarifications. In case of conflicts, he handles them carefully and does not allow it to adversely affect the entity. A positive and efficient work environment helps in stable growth of the organization.

**Co-ordination:** A leader reconciles the personal interests of the employees with the organizational goals and achieves co-ordination in the entity.

**Creating Successors:** A leader trains his subordinates in such a manner that they can succeed him in future easily in his absence. He creates more leaders.

**Induces change:** A leader persuades, clarifies and inspires employees to accept any change in the organization without much resistance and discontentment. He makes sure that employees don't feel insecure about the changes.

Often, the success of an organization is attributed to its leaders. But, one must not forget that it's the followers who make a leader successful by accepting his leadership. Thus, leaders and followers collectively play a key role to make leadership successful.

#### **Q.5 Describe the Qualities of a Leader.**

##### **Ans. Personality:**

A pleasing personality always attracts people. A leader should also be friendly and yet authoritative so that he inspires people to work hard like him.

##### **Knowledge:**

A subordinate looks up to his leader for any suggestion that he needs. A good leader should thus possess adequate knowledge and competence in order to influence the subordinates.

##### **Integrity:**

A leader needs to possess a high level of integrity and honesty. He should have a fair outlook and should base his judgment on the facts and logic. He should be objective and not biased.

##### **Initiative:**

A good leader takes initiative to grab the opportunities and not wait for them and use them to the advantage of the organization.

##### **Communication skills:**

A leader needs to be a good communicator so that he can explain his ideas, policies, and procedures clearly to the people. He not only needs to be a good speaker but also a good listener, counsellor, and persuader.

**Motivation skills:** A leader needs to be an effective motivator who understands the needs of the people and motivates them by satisfying those needs.

**Self-confidence and Will Power:** A leader needs to have a high level of self-confidence and immense will-power and should not lose it even in the worst situations, else employees will not believe in him.

**Intelligence:** A leader needs to be intelligent enough to analyze the pros and cons of a situation and take a decision accordingly. He also needs to have a vision and fore-sightedness so that he can predict the future impact of the decisions taken by him.

**Decisiveness:** A leader has to be decisive in managing his work and should be firm on the decisions are taken by him.

**Social skills:** A leader should possess empathy towards others. He should also be a humanist who also helps the people with their personal problems. He also needs to possess a sense of responsibility and accountability because with great authority comes great responsibility.

#### Leadership Styles

**Autocratic leadership style:** It refers to a leadership style where the leader takes all the decisions by himself.

**Democratic leadership style:** It refers to a style where the leader consults its subordinates before taking the final decision.

**Laissez-faire or Free-rein leadership style:** It refers to a style where the leader gives his subordinates complete freedom to take the decisions.

## CHAPTER-7 COMMUNICATION

### Communication

#### ❖ Meaning and nature of communication:-

"Communication is the process of importing one's thoughts and ideas to other by speech, symbols or signs. In this process the individual also becomes aware to other's thinking and ideas." -Author

An important process of human interaction is communication. It is a fundamental part of the complex processes of social interaction. The English version of 'communication' is derived from the Latin word 'communis' which means common. In communication a living being

establishes a common understanding with another living being. Therefore, it can be said that in communication two or more beings or persons exchange information and feelings among themselves. Animals also have the ability to communicate. They convey their feelings to other members of their species through their special expressions or speech. Human communication differs from animal communication in the sense that humans have the ability to use some common response signals, such as words, etc., during communication. Thus humans have the ability to use written or oral language. By using these in communication, a person conveys his thoughts, thoughts etc. to others and also becomes aware of the thoughts, thoughts etc. of others. If we want to define communication, it can be defined in this way – the process of conveying our thoughts and ideas to others through language, signs or symbols is called **communication**. In this process, a person also becomes aware of the thinking and thoughts of others.

As far as human communication is concerned, it is related to different situations. The nature of such situation may be personal or impersonal, may be formal or informal, may be direct or may be indirect. Social psychologists have classified such situation into five categories. It is divided into main parts which are as follows-

1. **Two-way communication** - In this type of situation there are only two persons who exchange ideas among themselves. Communication between husband and wife, communication between two friends, communication between mother and daughter are examples of this type of communication. The nature of such communication is more informal.
2. **Small group communication**- In this type of situation more than two persons is involved in the communication. Here the form of communication can be direct or indirect, when it is indirect; it will be through other members of the group. The communication between family, neighborhood and among one's co-workers is an example of this type of communication. The nature of such communication is more informal.
3. **Public communication**: - This type of communication takes place in public places like schools, colleges, offices. It happens in temple, mosque, playground etc. The nature of such communication is more formal and less informal.

4. **Organizational communication** – The situation of this type of communication is some or the other institution like hospital, industry, government institution, educational institution etc. This type of communication is formal, structured and done with a specific purpose. Various channels are used in this type of communication.

5. **Mass communication**: Many people are involved in this type of communication and mass communication media such as radio, television, newspapers, cinema, etc. are used in this. This type of communication is more formal and structured than other types of communication. This type of communication is one way. It became clear that the form of communication is somewhat complex. The complexity of its form can be easily estimated from its various forms.

### ❖ **Types of Communication**

If we pay attention to communication properly, it will be clear that there are many types of it- such as downward communication, upward communication, one-way communication, two-way communication etc. etc. But all these types of communication can be broadly divided into **two main types-**

1. **Verbal Communication** - Verbal communication is called such communication whose basis is language. In such communication, the communicator expresses his thoughts and feelings by speaking in written language or in the form of words or sentences. By listening to such voices or reading the written message, the receiver of the state understands their meaning and reacts accordingly.

Verbal communication is used more by humans. But apart from humans, it is also used by orangutans, monkeys and parrots, although the verbal communication used by these animals is not as developed. According to the facts known so far, orangutans use about 300 different types of sounds to communicate. According to Torrance (1986), orangutans can be easily taught up to 200 words of American Sign Language.

There is also a difference between the verbal communication of humans and the verbal communication of animals that humans are able to express their thoughts in the form of long sentences by combining different words whereas animals do not have such ability. Not only this, humans are able to create new words and use them but animals do not have such ability.



2. **Non-verbal communication** - In communication, a person does not only use language, but apart from that he also uses other non-verbal behaviors. For example, intonation of voice, body posture, facial expression etc. are also used in communication. Such signals are called non-verbal cues and such communication is called non-verbal communication. In other words, nonverbal communication refers to communication in which a person expresses his thoughts and feelings using nonverbal signals.

Danzinger( Danzinger, 1976). Studies by Harper and colleagues (Harper et al. 1978) and Mehrabian (1972), Bayon, Byrne & Branscombe (2006), made it clear that non-verbal communication has many elements or aspects in which the following are the five pleasures-

1. Proxemis.
2. Kinesics
3. Facial Expression
4. Touching
5. Paralanguage

**The importance of these five is described below-**

1. **Proxemics** – In this element or aspect of nonverbal communication, signals received from the physical distance between the communicator and the receiver of information are studied. It is clear from the studies done by the psychologists that the distance between the communicator and the receiver of information and the attitudes generated by the previous interactions between the two persons are revealed. If the physical distance between these two is less, then it is generally understood that the relationship between them is sweet and intimate. Based on their study, Heshka & Nelson (1972) reported that when the physical distance between the two is less i.e. they are sitting or standing nearby, it means that Both have a good relationship and both have a friendly attitude towards each other. Mehrabian (Mehrabian. 1968) has also confirmed this fact on the basis of his study. Becker (1973) found in his study that when the communicator and the receiver of information are unfamiliar to each other, the physical distance between them is greater while concluding.

2. **Kinesics** – This element or aspect of nonverbal communication is related to the body position, posture, gesture and other bodily movements shown by the communicator while communicating. it happens. This is collectively called body language. It is often seen that the

communicator makes a special gesture while giving any information and adopts a special kind of body posture. Such gestures and body posture say a lot in themselves and other people can easily attach its special meaning. There have been many studies related to this. Mehrabian (Mehrabian, 1968) has stated on the basis of his study that when two persons talk to each other, the person who adopts a more relaxed body posture is considered to be of high status or status cracked up to be. It is considered disrespectful for a person of low rank or status to adopt a loose body posture in front of a person of higher status. Apart from this, the person's self-confidence and status is also revealed by the way a person walks. A person who adopts a taut body posture while walking usually means that the person is more confident and has a higher social status. Very important meanings also emerge from other body postures and gestures. Mehrabian (Mehrabian, 1971) found in his study that when a person walks with a stooped body posture, it means that he is in a state of emotional distress. In a study by Mehrabian, subjects were shown photographs taken in different postures of communication and were asked to describe their meaning. When the communicator is found leaning forward slightly and showing an open and attractive body posture, gestures, he is perceived as a dignified, self-confident and highly idealized person. Similarly, if a person shakes hands in a jerky manner, then according to Mehrabian it means that the person is showing respect only from the upper mind.

There have been many such studies from which it has been found that the emotional states of a person are also revealed by body language. For example, when one part of the body does something to another part (as in touching, rubbing, rubbing, etc.), it can elicit emotional arousal. Similarly, large-scale body movements also provide important information about a person's emotions and apparent traits. This fact has been confirmed by a study by Aronoff, Woike & Hyman (1992). In this study, two types of characters were identified in classical ballet, one type of characters were those who performed dangerous and threatening roles and the other type of characters were those who played amicable roles and used to play a sympathetic role. After this, the examples of dances performed by both these types of characters in real dance were analyzed to know that they actually used to dance adopting different postures. Aronoff and his associates, The hypothesis was that while dancing by dangerous and threatening characters, more diagonal or angular postures will be adopted while cordial and comparatively more circular or circular gestures will be done while dancing by sympathetic characters.

This hypothesis was found to be confirmed in the results of the research more recently, Schubert (Schubert, 2004). Studies conducted have shown that the meaning of specific

pasture is different for men and women it varies. For example, for men, gestures related to bodily force such as fist of hands shows that the man wants the power or has achieved it already. Such gesture by a woman shows her helplessness, despair of not getting power etc.

**3. Facial expression or display** – Facial expression is an important element in nonverbal communication. Anan expression shows the level of affiliation and the level of generosity in the behavioral relationship. Closeness is indicated by eye contact and eye movement. Mehrabian (Mehrabian, 1971) has confirmed this fact with his study. Exline and Winters (Exline & Winters. 1965) have shown on the basis of their study that if two people like each other and have a favorable attitude towards each other, then both of them have eye contact. ) is straightforward and direct but if they hate each other, they will not even like to see each other. Rubin (Rubin, 1970) found in his study that in heterosexual love, both people maintain direct eye contact with each other. Ellsworth (Ellsworth, 1979) has found in his study that when a person gives some information by frowning and shrinking his nose, it means that the person is showing a feeling of unhappiness and disgust. The fist of the hand shows that the person has or has received strong thoughts or power.

**4. Touching** – Touching or physical contact also reveals a person's thoughts and possible future behavior. There are many factors related to touch or physical contact that have received the attention of psychologists. Who is the person touching (friend, stranger, person of the same sex or person of the opposite sex)? What is the nature of physical contact? Means being touched for a short time or for a long time being touched in a simple way or being touched in a vigorous jerky way; Which part of the body is being touched and under what circumstances it is being touched, etc. All these aspects of touch can be used to predict the behavior of many partners, which shows affection, respect, sexual interest, dominance and aggression etc. Studies by Alagna and colleagues (Alagna et al., 1979) and Smith, Gier & Willis (Smith, Gier & Willis, 1982) have shown that when touch or physical contact is perceived as appropriate, it Positive reactions are produced in the person touched. Handshake has also been considered as an important indicator by psychologists. When a person shakes hands in a proper and firm manner, he naturally leaves an impression of a good image on the other person with whom he shook hands. A study by Chaplin and colleagues (Chaplin et al., 2000) found that when a person shakes hands more slowly and firmly, they are generally perceived as more extroverted and open. The person of nature is considered. At the same time, such a person is also able to generate a good first impression on the other person

with whom he has shaken hands, today's characteristics such as intensity, heaviness, pitch etc. of the voice.

**5. Paralanguage** – Paralanguage means that the motivation and emotion of the communicator can be known on the basis of what is taken out of the mouth by the communicator. If a person speaks in a loud voice, it clearly means that the person is in a state of anger and he is trying to control his negative attitude expressing negative feeling. In the same way, if a communicator says something in a soft voice, it shows that the person is saying something in a calm manner and with a generous mind.

It became clear that non-verbal communication is an important form of communication, which provides important information about many aspects of the communicator. Prominent in these aspects are closeness of communication, trust, power, attractiveness and status. No light is directly thrown on those aspects by verbal communication. Mehrabian (Mehrabian, 1972) on the basis of his many studies prepared a formula to show the relative importance of three aspects of communication, namely facial, vocal and verbal aspects which is as follows-

**Total feeling = 55% facial + 38% vocal + 7% verbal**

Keeping this formula in mind, it can be said that the combined contribution of nonverbal components i.e. emotion and voice elements in communication is  $55\% + 38\% = 93\%$  whereas the importance of verbal communication is only 79%. This means that the importance of nonverbal communication is more than that of verbal communication. But some psychologists have criticized that formula of Mehrabian and said that it is not possible to accept the importance of verbal and non-verbal communication shown by this formula in every situation. Firestone (1977) has expressed the opinion that psychologists should make a special study of how verbal and nonverbal elements are organized together to show the overall effect of communication.

## ❖ **Barriers to Effective Communication**

The communicator tries to make the communication done by him as effective as possible. But sometimes due to some reasons or factors the effectiveness of communication decreases. The presence of these factors creates obstacles in the flow of communication. Some of the factors that affect the smooth flow of communication are described below-

1. Vagueness in message information
2. Unintentional distortions of the message

3. Limitations of receiver's capacity
4. Physical barriers
5. Poor quality of communication channel.
6. Personal barriers

**All these types of factors are described below-**

1. **Vagueness in the message:** The effectiveness of communication is greatly reduced when the transmitted information becomes ambiguous due to the use of different words and unusual behaviours. In such a situation, the purpose of the communicator or the communicator is to communicate a certain type of communication but it is meant to be something else by the information receiver. In such a situation, the meaning of the transmitted information is applied differently by the communicator and the receiver of the information. As a result, the effectiveness of communication decreases.
  
- 2 **Unintentional distortions of the message** — Sometimes the receiver of the information interprets the received information in exactly the way he wants it because of his particular bias, attitude and motivation. or likes. In such a situation, the interpretation of information becomes subjective rather than real and objective. This unintentionally creates many distortions in the interpretation of information and disrupts the smooth flow of information.
  
3. **Limitations of receiver's capacity**—the effectiveness of the communication can also be reduced because the information receiver does not have sufficient capabilities. It is possible that the receiver of the information may have insufficient vocabulary, may be of low intelligence, may have hearing impairment and may have qualities such as fleeting attention. In such a situation, he is not able to interpret the information received properly and he is able to extract some other meaning from it. This leads to ambiguity in information and the effectiveness of communication decreases.
  
4. **Physical barriers** - Physical barriers also reduce the effectiveness of communication. Obstacles arise in the fluency of communication due to physical factors like unnecessary noise, excessive distance, excessive vision etc. Due to these factors, sometimes the information transmitted from the communicator does not reach the receiver. This defeats the real purpose of communication.

**5. Poor quality off communication channel:** In order to avoid effective communication, the communicator uses different types of communication channels. In this, the use of telephone, correspondence etc. is maximum when telephone is well managed; the fluency of communication is very high. But if there are interferences and obstacles in the telephone, the communication gets stalled and its effectiveness is almost lost. According to the results of the study of Schultz (Shultz, 1989), there is a decrease of about 65% in the production capacity of large organizations and institutions due to disruption of telephone service. Apart from telephone, other mediums of communication like correspondence, personal contact etc. Since it is a medium of communication which is more time consuming and its quality cannot be trusted much, hence the effectiveness of communication is also not better than these.

**6. Personal barriers of communication-** Sometimes the qualities of the communicator itself become a hindrance in the effectiveness of communication. The quality of unnecessary fear in the communicator Hesitation, language-defect, hearing-defect, lack of intelligence etc. are found. Due to these factors, the communicator is not able to express his wishes and feelings properly. As a result, both the fluency and effectiveness of communication get greatly affected. In conclusion, it can be said that the effectiveness of communication is influenced by many factors. By removing or controlling it, we can make communication more effective and increase its fluency.

### **Q. 1 What is communication?**

**Ans.** The transmission of the message from sender to recipient can be affected by a huge range of things. These include our emotions, the cultural situation, the medium used to communicate, and even our location.

In other words, an act of conveying intended information and understanding from one person to another is called as communication. The term communication is derived from the Latin word “Communis” which means to share. Effective communication is when the message conveyed by the sender is understood by the receiver in exactly the same way as it was intended.

### **Q.2 Describe the different categories of communication.**

**Ans.** The different categories of communication include:

Spoken or Verbal Communication, which includes face-to-face, telephone, radio or television

and other media.

Non-Verbal Communication, covering body language, gestures, how we dress or act, where we stand, and even our scent. There are many subtle ways that we communicate (perhaps even unintentionally) with others. For example, the tone of voice can give clues to mood or emotional state, whilst hand signals or gestures can add to a spoken message.

Written Communication: which includes letters, e-mails, social media, books, magazines, the Internet and other media. Until recent times, a relatively small number of writers and publishers were very powerful when it came to communicating the written word. Today, we can all write and publish our ideas online, which has led to an explosion of information and communication possibilities.

Visualizations: graphs and charts, maps, logos and other visualizations can all communicate messages.

The desired outcome or goal of any communication process is mutual understanding.

The process of interpersonal communication cannot be regarded as a phenomena which simply 'happens'. Instead, it must be seen as a process that involves participants who negotiate their roles with each other, whether consciously or unconsciously.

### **Q.3 Define communication with the information process model of communication.**

Ans. Definition: The Communication is a two-way process wherein the message in the form of ideas, thoughts, feelings, opinions is transmitted between two or more persons with the intent of creating a shared understanding.

Simply, an act of conveying intended information and understanding from one person to another is called as communication. The term communication is derived from the Latin word “Communis” which means to share. Effective communication is when the message conveyed by the sender is understood by the receiver in exactly the same way as it was intended.

#### **Communication Process**

The communication is a dynamic process that begins with the conceptualizing of ideas by the sender who then transmits the message through a channel to the receiver, who in turn gives the feedback in the form of some message or signal within the given time frame. Thus, there are Seven major elements of communication process:

#### **communication process**

**Sender:** The sender or the communicator is the person who initiates the conversation and has

conceptualized the idea that he intends to convey it to others.

**Encoding:** The sender begins with the encoding process wherein he uses certain words or non-verbal methods such as symbols, signs, body gestures, etc. to translate the information into a message. The sender's knowledge, skills, perception, background, competencies, etc. has a great impact on the success of the message.

**Message:** Once the encoding is finished, the sender gets the message that he intends to convey. The message can be written, oral, symbolic or non-verbal such as body gestures, silence, sighs, sounds, etc. or any other signal that triggers the response of a receiver.

**Communication Channel:** The Sender chooses the medium through which he wants to convey his message to the recipient. It must be selected carefully in order to make the message effective and correctly interpreted by the recipient. The choice of medium depends on the interpersonal relationships between the sender and the receiver and also on the urgency of the message being sent. Oral, virtual, written, sound, gesture, etc. are some of the commonly used communication mediums.

**Receiver:** The receiver is the person for whom the message is intended or targeted. He tries to comprehend it in the best possible manner such that the communication objective is attained. The degree to which the receiver decodes the message depends on his knowledge of the subject matter, experience, trust and relationship with the sender.

**Decoding:** Here, the receiver interprets the sender's message and tries to understand it in the best possible manner. An effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the message in exactly the same way as it was intended by the sender.

**Feedback:** The Feedback is the final step of the process that ensures the receiver has received the message and interpreted it correctly as it was intended by the sender. It increases the effectiveness of the communication as it permits the sender to know the efficacy of his **message**. The response of the receiver can be verbal or non-verbal.

**Note:** The Noise shows the barriers in communications. There are chances when the message sent by the sender is not received by the recipient.

#### **Q.4 Explain the types of Nonverbal Communication?**

**Ans.** Types of Nonverbal Communication

Scientific research on nonverbal communication and behavior began with the 1872 publication of Charles Darwin's *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*. Since that time, abundant research has been conducted regarding types, effects, and expressions of unspoken communication and behavior.



While these signals are often so subtle that we are not consciously aware of them, research has identified several different nine types of nonverbal communication, including nonverbal cues and behaviors.

## **CHAPTER-8**

### **PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR**

Prosocial behaviors: - Social psychology Prosocial Behavior, Altruism

#### **❖ Nature and Characteristics**

1. "Prosocial behaviour refers to a helpful action that benefits other people without necessarily providing any direct benefits to the person performing the act, and may even involve a risk for the person who helps."-Baron, Byrne and Branscombe: Social Psychology, 2006.

2. "We can define behaviour as helping, sharing or cooperating with others. Thus prosocial behaviour includes a wide variety of acts performed by one or more individuals and may also benefit those performing the acts."— Brown & Cook: Introductory Psychology, 1986.

Pro-social behavior is such a behavior in the study of which social psychologists have shown great interest. Antisocial behavior is called such behavior which is evaluated positively. This type of behavior benefits others and the person doing the behavior is likely to suffer some loss without getting any benefit. Such behavior is in accordance with social values and norms and conforms to social norms. Donating blood, giving scholarship to meritorious students, giving financial assistance to poor people for bread, clothes and house, reaching food items for drought-flood areas, donating etc. are examples of antisocial behavior. It has become clear that in pro-social behavior, the benefit of the person himself is negligible and the benefit of others reaches more.

In much the same sense, Baron, Byrne and Branscombe (2006) have defined pro-social behavior and have said, "Pro-social behavior is a helping behavior without any direct benefit to the person being helped." Only others benefit and the person helping may even have to bear some risk.

According to Brown and Cook (Brown & Cook, 1986), "Pro-social behavior is defined as helping others, showing participation and showing cooperation. In this way pro-social behavior is done by one or more people. There are many types of work that benefit one or more than one person and the person doing such work can also be benefited.

There are many categories of pro-social behavior; one of the major categories is helping

behavior. Helpful behavior refers to such behavior in which a person voluntarily benefits other people, which reduces their worries and relieves others from some kind of crisis.

There are three characteristics of helping behavior, which are as follows-

- (i) The person does the helping behavior voluntarily.
- (ii) The purpose of helping behavior is to do well to others by benefiting them.
- (iii) While performing the helping behavior, the person does not give importance to the thoughts of his own loss or gain. It is possible that while doing such behavior, the person may also get some financial loss or physical punishment etc., but still he does not get distracted from doing such behavior.

➤ **One type of helping behavior is called altruistic behavior.**

"Altruism is performing an act voluntarily to help someone else where there is no expectation of a reward in any form, except perhaps a feeling of having done a good deed." —Schroeder, Penne, Dovidio & Piliavin: *The Psychology of Helping and Altruism*, 1995.

Altruistic behavior is said to be such behavior which is done without any selfishness or without expecting to get any reward in return. Teaching poor children without remuneration, giving free medical treatment, using one's money for the education of poor children and saving a child from a burning train or house are some examples of altruistic behavior. The motivation of philanthropic behavior arises from the desire to benefit others and not from the desire of his own welfare. In altruistic behavior, the desire for one's own benefit does not exist. Clearly then whether a behavior is altruistic or not depends on the intention of the person helping. If after rescuing a person from a burning train or house, the helping person demands some reward from him, then clearly such behavior will not be called altruistic behavior.

Myers (Myers, 1988) has described **two types of altruism – altruism of reciprocal exchange and unconditional altruism**. In **reciprocal altruism**, a person helps others only if the other has helped them. In **unconditional altruism**, a person helps others without any conditions. Here he helps others but does not expect anything in return.

**Distinction between Pro-social behavior and Altruistic behavior**

The meaning of pro-social behavior and altruistic behavior has been explained above. Sometimes these two types of behavior are used interchangeably but there is a micro difference between the two that needs to be noted.

According to Batson (1998) pro-social behavior is a broad term. It includes all those behaviors through which others are helped, regardless of the intention of the helper. But altruistic behavior is different from this. It includes only such behavior which is done by the helper

without the desire to get any reward in any form. At the most, such behavior gives a person the satisfaction that he has done a noble deed. Schroeder, Penna, Dovidio & Piliadhin (1995) have defined altruistic behavior in much the same way, "Altruism refers to voluntarily giving to another with no expectation of reward in any way." is conduct which involves at most only the intention of doing a good deed."

Many pro-social behaviors cannot be classified as altruistic behavior. For example, if a person voluntarily participates in a concert in which on the one hand he is helping his group of friends but on the other hand he has the secret intention that this will improve or brighten his musical career. If it happens, then this behavior of his may be called pro-social behavior but it will not be called altruistic behavior.

### ❖ **Determinants of Helping Behaviors**

It is clear from the study done by social psychologists that there are five steps involved in the occurrence of any helping behavior or pro-social behavior which is described above. A variety of determinants influence decisions about helping intervention at each stage. Social psychologists have divided all those determinants into the following three categories-

- (a) Situational determinants
- (b) Social determinants
- (c) Individual determinants

- **Situational determinants** and social determinants together are called external determinants and individual determinants are also called internal determinants.

The description of these three types of determinants is given below-

- ❖ **Situational determinants** – On the basis of studies done by social psychologists, those factors have been identified in some such situational factors, which affect helpful behaviour. Situational factors include those factors which are related to that particular situation and which being an emergency deserves helping interaction. Prominent among such factors are the following-

1. **Cry for Help**: Screams of the person lying in bed, plea for help etc. play an important role. If a person cries out for help in a compassionate manner and cries out for help in a compassionate manner, then considering it as a serious emergency, people get ready to help him immediately. Clark and Baird (Clark & Baird, 1972, 1974) have shown on the basis of their experimental study that on hearing someone's scream from the next room, people immediately get ready to help, but the person trapped in a crisis situation by another person Very few people were ready to help after getting the information. Mayer & Mulgerin (1980)

went a step further from such studies and found in their results that when the helper perceives that the person in distress is likely to be driven by his or her own car or accidentally trapped in it, he does not help him but if he understands that he himself is not to blame for the distressing situation but there have been some circumstances which are beyond the control of the victim, then in such a situation he helps Gets ready to give.

2. **Bystander's presence** - In a crisis or emergency situation, the presence of onlookers also affects helpful behavior. When an emergency occurs and the nature of the emergency is vague, the audience is unable to determine what is actually happening and what the seriousness of the incident is. In such a situation, the onlooker looks at each other and assesses the seriousness of the other's behavior and then decides whether to help the person trapped in the emergency or not. It is clear from the studies done by social psychologists that in crisis situation, as the number of onlookers increases, the probability of showing altruistic behavior by any onlooker decreases. This type of effect is called bystander effect which has been confirmed in many experiments or studies. Latane and Rodin (1969) have confirmed this fact in one of their studies. Some of the men in this study acted as subjects. Some of these subjects worked in pairs while some subjects worked individually. A female experimenter gave the subjects some questionnaires to fill and after saying this she went to the next room. After a few minutes, the female experimenter screamed loudly for help and clutching her leg was moaning saying that her leg had been badly hurt by the fall of the chair. The result showed that the subjects who were filling the questionnaire while sitting alone, behaved positively towards the woman in 70% of the cases, that is, they helped her. But those who were sitting in the experiment pair and filling out the questionnaire got up to help the woman only in 40% of the cases. It is clear from the result that with the increase in the number of subjects, the amount of helping behavior decreased. Later, the above experimental result was also confirmed in other studies which were done by Latane & Elman (Latane & Elman, 1970), Petty, Williams, Harkins & Lahane (Petty, Williams, Harkins & Latane, 1977).

Three possible reasons have been given for this type of bystander effect-

- (i) In a crisis situation, if the number of spectators is high, some spectators may not be able to see the incident properly. Don't get it and then the question of behaving altruistically does not arise.
- (ii) In the presence of a large number of spectators, none of the spectators consider the situation to be an emergency.
- (iii) Due to the increase in the number of viewers in the situation, no viewer wants to take responsibility on himself. Since the amount of responsibility is decomposed into the audience,

the amount of helping intervention is naturally reduced.

Some studies have also shown that the mere number of onlookers presents in a crisis situation. Not only this, their philanthropic behavior is also affected by mutual acquaintance. When crisis situations involve bystanders who are not familiar with each other, they will not want to interact with each other and will hesitate to act altruistically. But since they are already familiar, they will talk to each other and after fixing their respective responsibilities, they will be able to take immediate steps to help the victim. This truth has been confirmed by Latane & Rodin (1969) and Rutkowski, Muder and Romer (Rutkowski, Gruder & Romer, 1983) in their respective studies.

In conclusion, it can be said that the presence of other bystanders in a crisis situation leads to a reduction in altruistic behavior or helpful behavior when:

- (i) The crisis situation is ambiguous.
- (ii) The bystanders present in the situation are strangers to each other who can easily observe each other's reactions can't understand from.

3. **Possible physical harm** – If the helper sees the possibility of some kind of physical harm by helping others, then there is a decrease in helpful behavior. This fact was experimentally verified by Allen (1970). They clearly observed in their study that 50% of the audience displayed helpful behavior when they did not see any undue influence on the persons presenting helpful behavior. In contrast, only 28% and 16% of bystanders, respectively, displayed helpful behavior when the bystanders saw the helping person being bullied or threatened. Pilliavin and Pilliavin (Pilliavin & Pilliavin, 1972) also conducted a study which corroborates the said fact. It was observed in this study that people helped less to a fainted person who had blood in his body and helped each other more to a person whose body was not bleeding. The reason for this is that people in general have an aversion to blood, and people are more hesitant to help bloodstained people, thinking that they might get into trouble for helping them.

4. **Lack of time**- When the situation is such that the person is busy in something important work and he lacks time, then he is not able to behave helpfully in such a situation. Insert and Weston (Darley & Baston, 1973) conducted a study in which they asked some students to give a speech at a certain time. When the students were going to give a speech, an old man had fallen on the way, who was coughing loudly from time to time. Some students had come much before the time to give speech and some reached late. Obviously the first type of students had enough time and the second type of students was short of time. As a result, it was seen that the students who came before the time, helped the person who had fallen on the road

the most. On the contrary, the students who came late, they went ahead leaving the person who had fallen on the way and some of them even crossed him. It becomes clear from this study that in general, people do not want to suffer the loss of their work by helping others when there is a shortage of time.

5. **Mimicry** – Mimicry has been shown to be an important determinant of pro-social behavior. Imitation refers to a condition whereby a person imitates the behavior of the person with whom he interacts. Since imitation or perception increases empathy, liking and rapport in a person, it plays an important role in social interactions. Chartrand, Maddux and Lakin {Chartrand, Maddux & Lakin, 2004) have confirmed this fact in their experiment. In a study by Van Baaren and colleagues (Van Baaren et al., 2003), it has been found that imitations led to prosocial participants interacting with two types of experiments for 6 minutes. Mimicry enhances pro-social behavior. In one of their studies participants

There were experimenters who imitated the participants' gestures, body orientation, position of hands and feet and there were other types of experimenters who did not imitate any kind of body position, gestures etc. of the participants. The experimenter then intentionally dropped a few pens on the surface of the room. After this it was observed that all the participants whose gestures and body position were imitated helped the experimenter to lift the pen from the surface but only one third of the participants whose gestures and body position were imitated helped the experimenter in this task. - Emotions and physical condition were not copied. It was said that since imitation increases attraction. Therefore, this result can only be called attractiveness effect and it cannot be deduced that imitation plays a role in it. Therefore, to confirm this fact, some new experiments were done by Van Barren and his colleagues (Van Barren et al., 2004). In this experiment, the behavior of some students was imitated by the experimenter in the last six minutes and the behavior of some students was not imitated by the experimenter. After this, the helping behavior of the students was studied in three experimental conditions. In one experimental condition, an unfamiliar person (i.e. a person other than the experimenter) dropped some pen on the surface. Gave it In the second stage, the experimenter himself had dropped some pens on the surface and in the third stage the students were given two euros and they were told that if you want, you can keep this currency with you or you can put it in it. You can donate some part or all of it to such an organization which will spend it for the treatment of sick children. The result of the experiment showed that in all these three experimental conditions the students whose behavior was imitated during the social interaction helped the experimenter comparatively more than the students whose behavior was not imitated. It became clear that imitation or imitation strengthens pro-social

behavior. And this is because mimicry becomes a nonverbal cue that points to something, does that we are similar. Apart from this, copying or imitation has also been considered as a major aspect of learning, due to which its role has also been considered important.

6. **Exposure to pro-social model** Pro-social model also increases helpful behavior. For example, when a person observes another person helping someone else, such an observation intensifies the person's tendency to engage in helpful behavior. This fact is confirmed by a field experiment done by Bryan and Test (Bryan & Test, 1967). In this field experiment, a female research assistant was asked to change the punctured wheel of her car by the side of a road. People passing by on the road offered to help the woman who had just seen a scene in which a woman driving a car was helped by other people.

In addition to pro-social models in our day-to-day life, helpful models shown in the media also increase motivation to engage in helpful behavior. Sprafkin, Liebert & Poulous (1975) studied the effects of pro-social models seen on television on the behavior of six-year-old children. A group of children was shown a rescue scene in which some people were helping others in an emergency. Another group of children was shown a scene in which no such rescue operation took place. A third group of children was shown a laughing scene that also had no pro-social element. After this, the children of these three groups played a game in which there was a provision of prize for the winner. During the game itself, some puppies of a screaming and hungry dog used to come in front of the children. Here the children had a choice between stopping the game and helping the puppy (and thus giving up their desire to win the game) or continuing the game ignoring the puppy so that they could win the prize. As a result, it was seen that the children were greatly influenced by the scenes seen on Doordarshan. It was found that the children watching the rescue scene spent more time stopping the play and helping the puppy than the other two groups. It is clear from this that seeing a scene related to a pro-social model on Doordarshan can lead to pro-social behavior in real life the tendency to do become stronger. Forge & Phemister (1987) have also confirmed their point. Anderson & Bushman (2001) found that when participants played a violent video game, it decreased. It became clear that there are many factors related to the situation, which affect the self-destructive behavior.

### ❖ **Social Determinants**

Every person is born in a society, grows up and then learns to behave according to the norms, values etc. of that society. This type of social learning has been found to directly influence

altruistic behavior and helping behavior. In the light of the studies done by social psychologists, three types of social factors have been identified which directly affect the helping behavior-

1. Social responsibility
2. Equity and reciprocity
3. Social exchange

The description of these three is as follows-

1. **Social responsibility** – According to this factor, a person is able to help others because helping others is a norm of the society. He helps others keeping in mind the rules, standards and values of the society in which he is brought up. According to such social standard, helping others is a kind of social responsibility of every person. One factor that determines whether the social obligation that leads to helping behavior is the degree of dependency the helper perceives in the person being helped. Berkowitz and Daniels (Berkwitz & Daniels. 1963) have confirmed this fact by doing a study. In this study, a student was asked to act as a supervisor. They were told that they would have to supervise the work of each other who had to make a paper box. The student who made the box was called a worker. Both worked separately from each other and were controlled by those users by giving some written messages on their behalf. In the highest dependence condition, the worker was told that if more paper boxes were made by him, this could lead to a reward for the supervisor. No such thing was done in case of lowest dependency. The results showed that in the case of highest dependence, the supervisor's reward was dependent on the outcome of the task performed by the worker. The worker made more paper boxes. It is clear from this study that helping behavior is more likely to occur when one person has a greater dependence on another person's help.

There are also some studies which show that the factor of social responsibility cannot be considered as the basis of helping behavior in every situation of dependence. As such, when the reason for depending on others for help is beyond the individual's control, help is given abundantly based on a sense of responsibility in such circumstances. Perhaps this is the reason why other people get ready to help a disabled person or a person suffering from some serious disease. But if the reason for depending on others for help is their own actions or their own shortcomings (over which they have full control) then people hesitate to help them. No one is ready to help him either. This fact has also been experimentally confirmed by the study of Bryan and Davenport (Bryan & Davenport, 1968).

2. **Equity and reciprocity** Behavior is also affected by the standard of equity and



reciprocity. According to the standard of equity, if a person is suffering more than he should be, then he should be given immediate help to do so. According to reciprocity norms, I help another only if he understands that he will help me in the future. The importance of the factor of empathy and reciprocity norm in helping behavior has been shown in many studies. A. Lazetta (Wilke & Lanzetta, 1970) in his study found that the amount of help one person gives to another is clearly based on the fact that the person has previously received help from the other person. If they have received more help in the past, they are also ready to help more. The reciprocity norm also affects how the recipient evaluates the helper. Gergen and his colleagues (Gergen et al. 1975) studied the reciprocal exchange of help in three different countries viz., USA, Sweden, and Japan. Subjects in each country rated the person giving money or money during a gambling game more positively when the person asked the subject to return the money. But when he asked not to return the money as a gifted metal, he was not evaluated very positively. Apparently the person receiving the money was seen evaluating the situation in terms of reciprocity. Perhaps this is the reason why people do not like to be burdened with gift loans.

3. **Social exchange** - Social exchange also has an effect on helping behavior. Helping behavior occurs in a social exchange through an analysis of the potential benefits or rewards and losses of this behavior. In the situation of helping behavior, the person wants to get maximum benefit and minimum loss from his behavior. Only after assessing how much benefit and how much harm will be done to him by doing helpful behavior, a person comes to the conclusion whether he should show helpful behavior or not. The benefits of helpful behavior can take many forms, such as reduction of anxiety, praise, prestige, and gratitude. Harm arising out of helpful behavior can also take many forms such as wastage of time and effort, self-getting into trouble etc. If the amount of gain or reward to the individual in a crisis situation is greater than the amount of loss, then the individual is more likely to engage in helpful behavior. It became clear that there are a variety of social factors that influence helping behavior.

❖ **Individual Determinants** Individual differences are found in showing helping behavior, which person will help whom is influenced by personal factors. Studies conducted by social psychologists have clarified that what characteristics of individuals display what type of

helpful behavior and how the temporal states and their moods of the audience display helpful or altruistic behavior. Some such factors are described below-

1. **Likings** – It is clear from the studies done by psychologists that the person whom he likes, he wants to help him immediately. But he hesitates to help those whom he does not like. Goodstadt (1971) in his study has confirmed the fact that the person whom one likes helps him comparatively more than the person whom he likes less or does not like at all. Bensen, Karabenick & Learner (Bensen, Karabenick & Learner, 1976) conducted a field experiment in which they studied the effects of physical attractiveness, an important dimension of liking, on helping behavior. The subjects were asked to sit in a telephone booth where a filled application form, photograph and a stamped envelope were placed. Its purpose was apparently to send the application by post to its destination. A special request was made to the applicants whether they would provide assistance in sending the application form in an envelope by post to its destination. From the observation of the responses made by the subjects, it was found that the subjects did not differentiate between the application form with attractive photo and the postal application by placing it in an envelope showed readiness but left the application form with unattractive photo as it was. This suggests that utility preference is a good determinant of helping behavior.

2. **Race**- It has been observed in some studies that when the person being helped is of the same species as the helper, then the helper helps him immediately if it is a different species. When this happens, the helper hesitates to help. Geartner & Bickman (1971) found in their study that white helpers helped white victims more than black victims. But there have been some studies in which this fact has not been confirmed. Glass (Katz, Cohen \* Glass, 1975) did not find any effect of species similarity on helping behavior, whereas some researchers like Dutton (1973) and Dutton & Lake (1973) found the opposite. A reverse discrimination effect was observed in which white people helped black victims more than white people.

3. **Similarity**- There is a direct and direct effect of similarity between the victim and the person providing help on the helpful behavior. The helpful behavior is affected more when there is similarity in style of country-dress, similarity in political ideology and similarity in nationality, similarity in attitude etc. Several studies such as Amesvilar, Doex & Villiat (Amesvilar, Doex & Villiat, 1971) have used similarity in dress, Baron (1971) in similarity in attitude and Ahlert, Ahlert & Maron (Ahlert, Ahlert & Maron, 1973) Equality in political ideology has been shown to be conducive to helpful behaviours.

4. **Empathy** – Empathy also makes a difference in helpful behavior. Affective and cognitive responses to the emotional states of another person are done in empathy and sympathy is involved in it willingness to solve a problem, and understanding other people's perspective. Darley (1993) and Huan (Duan, 2000) suggest that an empathic person feels what the other person is feeling and at the same time understands why that person is feeling that way experiencing as he does. It has become clear from the studies done by social psychologists that the person who has more sense of empathy, they do more pro-social behavior. Studies of these people have also shown that the extent to which a person is able to respond with empathy depends on hereditary factors and learning experiences. Studies by Trobust, Collins & Embree (Trobust. Collins & Embree. 1994) suggest that women generally have higher levels of empathy than men, either due to genetic factors or experiences of different socialization. Anderson (1993) has shown on the basis of his study that there were more women than men in the task of rescuing Jews from Nazis in World War II, which indirectly supports the result of Trobust and his colleagues provides support.

5. **Sex of the Victim** – Helping behavior is also influenced by the sex of the victim. It is clear from the studies done by psychologists that if the victim's gender is female rather than male, then more people get ready to help him. Gomazal & Clore (1973) conducted a study in which a man and a woman were asked to pretend to be concerned about their cars breaking down on the side of the road and raise the trunk of the car to detect engine failure told to keep peeping with the idea of finding out. The results showed that one out of every four stood with the car while crossing the road to help the woman, but they were required to look at the people passing the road and howl forbidden to ask for help by gesture. A man driving a car stopped and tried to help her. The thing to note here is that the person helping him tried to help him by stopping. But every fifty minutes while passing on the road to help a manAll the persons were male. West, Whitney & Schnedler (West, Whitney & Schnedler, 1975) have confirmed this fact in a later study.

6. **Personality characteristics of helper:** The characteristics of individuals also have an impact on helping behavior. However, it is not necessary that the person who shows helpful behavior in one and the same situation will show the same helpful behavior in another situation. McGovern (McGovern, 1976) has shown on the basis of his study that the helper who has more fear of getting confused, they reduce helpful behavior. In the same way, it has

also been observed in some studies that people who are high in social responsibility, social interest, extroversion, friend attraction and empathic orientation have more tendencies to behave in a helpful manner. Satow (1975) found in his study that individuals with high approval need show more helpful behavior than those who lack high approval need. It has been found in some studies that people who have more interpersonal trust, they do more prosocial behavior. This fact has been confirmed by Cadenhead and Richman (Cadenhead & Richman, 1996) on the basis of their study. Similarly, McHoskey (McHoskey, 1999) has shown on the basis of his study that people who have more Machiavellianism have less pro-social tendencies. Such people are distrustful, manipulative, self-centered and cynical.

One thing has become clear from the above studies that since many aspects of personality are involved in pro-social behavior, some researchers have rendered a special type of personality called altruistic personality by combining many such aspects gone. Five dimensions of such personality have been described and a philanthropist generally rates himself high on these five dimensions. Those five dimensions are as follows:

(i) **Empathy** – The virtue of empathy is more in a charitable person. Such persons are self-controlled, motivated to create a good image and responsible.

(ii) **Belief in just world** – The altruistic person finds the world to be a just and predictable place in which good behavior is rewarded and bad behavior is punished. The result of this belief is that such people do not hesitate to help those people who need them. They also have the belief that one day they too will be benefited by such a noble deed.

(iii) **Social responsibility**- A philanthropist also believes that it is the responsibility of every person to help those who need such help.

(iv) **Internal locus of control**—People who have altruistic tendencies have an internal locus of control, that is, they believe that a person can enhance a good outcome and prevent a bad outcome because it has such potential. People who lack altruistic behavior have an external locus of control because such people believe that an attempt to help would be unfair and wrong because any behavior and its consequences are merely a function of chance, powerful individuals, and other uncontrollable factors is controlled by.

(v) **Low level of ego centrism** —Low level of self-centeredness is found in a philanthropic person and such people are neither showing competition nor such people are self-contained. -

absorbed). The thoughts of such people are open and they are imbued with the feeling of altruism and public interest. It has become clear that there are special qualities in the personality of the people who do charity work.

7. **Mood or Emotion of the helper** he himself is in a good, healthy and encouraging state of mind, is foreign and positive and has a more optimistic outlook towards life. Such helpful behavior is due to that mood. does more, which does the opposite. A study by Ise (1970) has confirmed this fact. In this study, school teachers were described as either very good or poor on their different days. After this, they were asked for donations to cool the library. The results of the experiment were very interesting. It was seen in the result that the school teachers whose performance was said to be excellent or high level. He gave seven times more money to those school teachers whose digestion was said to be poor or academic. Its basic premise was that the mood of high-performing teachers is better than the mood of low-performing teachers or Wilson (Wilson, 1981) on the basis of his study reported that when a person's mood improved after listening to a comedy becomes pro-social, he engages in more prosocial behavior. Smell also has an effect on a person's mood. Pleasant and aromatic scents elevate a person's mood and then he again engages in more helpful behavior. Baron (Baron, 1990) and Baron & Thomley (Baron & Thomley. 1994) have confirmed this fact on the basis of their study. Some studies suggest that the positive effect of positive mood on helping behavior is not permanent. This is because a good mood by itself is not permanent. Isen, Clerk & Swartz (Isen, Clerk & Swartz, 1976) have confirmed this fact on the basis of their experiment. In certain circumstances, even a good and positive mood can weaken a person's tendency to engage in pro-social behavior. Rosenhan, Salovey & Hargis (1981) have found in their study that the audience interprets the emergency situation in a simple way when they are in a very positive and pleasant mood, and if it is difficult and somewhat unpleasant tends to act, of course he tends to the reduce helpful behavior so as not to affect his happiness or his good mood.

The finding that being in a bad or unsatisfactory mood can lead to a reduction in helping behavior has also been supported by experimental studies. Underwood and colleagues (Underwood et al., 1977) conducted a study involving two groups of subjects. The subjects of the experimental group were shown a movie after which they were very sad and depressed, but the subjects of the control group were not shown such a movie. After this both these groups were asked to donate for a particular cause. The results showed that participants in the experimental group did not donate as generously as participants in the control group. The

reason has to do with the difference in mood of these two groups. Amato (Amato, 1986) has made it clear from his study that when a sad person or in a sad mood, the person concentrates on his own problems and he is less likely to engage in pro-social behavior. But there are some situations in which the reverse of this trend has also been seen. Cibaldini, Kenrick & Bauman (1982) have shown on the basis of their study that if the helping behavior is such that the person feels better, then even if he is in a bad mood, he will do that behavior. wants to do In the same way that positive emotion should not be of excessive intensity if the emergency situation is clear rather than ambiguous and Kuniam and his colleagues (Cunnigham et al. 1990) have shown on the basis of their study that negative emotion in China also has a positive effect on antisocial behavior.

The hitting behavior itself should be entertaining enough and not boring. It was found that there are many factors that affect helping behavior those factors or determinants keeping this in mind, the principles of helping behavior have been formulated by social psychologists major motivation behind engaging in antisocial behavior

#### ❖ **Basic Motives behind Pro-social Behavior:-**

Many such efforts have been made by the social psychologists through which it has been tried to understand that what kind of motions are behind the person who does pro-social behavior. It happens that four types of motivation hidden behind social behavior have been explained.

- (1) Empathy-altruism hypothesis
- (2) Negative state Relict model
- (3) Empathic Joy hypothesis
- (4) Genetic-Determinism model All these are described below.

- **Empathy-altruism hypothesis** – This hypothesis originated from the research done by Batson and his associates (Batson et al. 1981). According to this hypothesis, at least some pro-social behavior is motivated by a desire to help others in need. And at the same time it is also determined by the fact that it pleases him to do so. This motivation can be so strong that in order to help others, the person himself gets ready to do dangerous work and even a lot of pain in life. Batson and his colleagues (Batson et al. 1983) have confirmed this fact by doing an experiment. These people adopted a special experimental method (experimental procedure) through which they created empathy in the participants. They elicited empathy for a victim by telling a group of participants that they were just like them. Another group of participants was told that the victim and they were too dissimilar to cause any empathy for the victim. The participants were then asked to play the role of an observer in which they were shown some

task on a television by a woman who was also (hypothetically) electrocuted during the task. In reality, the woman shown on Doordarshan was none other than a research assistant. While the work was going on, the research assistant said that he was feeling very uneasy due to the electric shock. And there is also pain. Here the experimenter asked the participants playing the role of observer that any one of you wants to take his place, who can help the female assistant or else the experiment should be terminated in the middle. The results showed that when the amount of empathy was low (i.e. there was inequality between the participant and the victim), the participants showed a tendency to end the experiment in the middle than to engage in such painful pro-social behavior. But participants who were high in empathy (i.e. the similarity between the participant and the victim were stated) were more willing to put themselves in the victim's place, i.e. they were more willing to act while receiving an electric shock. This result clearly confirms the empathic altruism hypothesis. Batson, Ahmed and their colleagues (Batson, Ahmed et al., 1999) have shown from their study that when the victims are not one but many and all of them need help, then all of them get help from someone. It is not possible to do it for one person and then by choosing only one person can help properly. This has been termed as 'selective altruism'.

Arguments have also been made against the empathy-altruism hypothesis. For example, research by Cialdini and colleagues (Cialdini et al., 1997) has shown that empathy certainly encourages altruistic behavior, but only when participants perceive a reciprocity between themselves and others experiences overlap. This means that the helping participant actually identifies with the victim and is actually helping himself. He clearly found in his research that without such a sense of belonging, helpful behavior does not occur. This means that altruistic behavior does not arise by mere feeling of empathy. This means then that the facts related to the hypothesis of altruism have not yet been clearly resolved and further research is needed in this direction.

- **Negative-state relief model** – Sometimes it happens that a person does altruistic behavior not because of positive emotion generated in him, but because seeing the suffering of a victim, the person does it to get rid yourself of the negative emotion generated in you. Cialdini, Baumann & Kenrick (1981) termed this explanation of antisocial behavior as the negative-state relief model. The general conclusion of the research that has been done to test this hypothesis has been that really negative emotions and feelings lead to more helpful behavior. Dietrich and Berkowitz (Dietrich & Berkowitz, 1997). Fultz, Schaller & Cialdini (1988) conducted

pioneering research to test this hypothesis. In these researches, it was clearly found that whether the origin of negative emotion in the bystander is related to the emergency situation or not, the bystander definitely tries to remove the negative emotion generated in himself by behaving in a helpful manner, that is, by helping the victim. Cialdini (Cialdini. 1989) even claims that sad emotion is the origin of antisocial behavior while empathy cannot be considered a necessary element of such behavior.

➤ **Empathic Joy hypothesis**—According to this hypothesis, the helper helps the victim because he believes that by doing so, spring and happiness will return to someone's life. Here the basic idea of the helper is that he is doing something for the victim and that doing something is the cause of happiness for him. An important aspect of this hypothesis is that the helper must know that his behavior, ie helping, will have a positive effect in the life of the victim. If altruistic behavior is based solely on empathy, then there is no need for feedback. Smith, Keating and Stotland (1989) conducted a study in which this hypothesis was tested. In this study, participants were shown a video in which a female student was shown saying that she would drop out of college because she felt very distressed and isolated. One group of participants was told their similarity to the female student to generate high empathy and the other group of participants was told their dissimilarity to the female student to generate low empathy. . After watching the video, participants were given the opportunity to provide helpful advice to the female student. Some of these participants were told that they would be given feedback about the effectiveness of the feedback given to them, while some of the participants were told that the influence of the feedback given to them on the female student's decision about clothes, its Nothing will be told about it. The results showed that empathy alone was not sufficient to induce pro-social behavior or helping behavior, but when participants with high empathy were also told about the impact of their feedback. Antisocial behavior was found to be in high proportion.

➤ There are some common things in the explanation of pro-social behavior by the above three hypotheses/models which are as follows-

- (i) The assumption of all three types of hypotheses/models is that a person engages in helpful behavior because doing so feels good or does not make him feel bad.
- (ii) These three hypotheses explain pro-social behavior only in specific conditions.



- **Genetic-determinism model** - This model explains pro-social behavior in a general biological perspective. We behave pro-socially because we have certain genes for doing so which a person inherits from his parents. An important question has been considered here by social psychologists. The question is—is it possible that helping behavior can be adaptive? Studies done on different species have made it clear that when there is a lot of genetic similarity between two organisms, it is very likely that one organism will help the other organism in need. This fact has been confirmed by Ridley and Dawkins (1981) on the basis of their study. Evolutionary psychologists have come up with a special term to describe this phenomenon called the 'selfish gene'. According to the study of Rushton, Russell & Wells (1984), if individuals have more similarity, it means that both of them have more common genes. In such a situation, if one of these individuals helps another individual, some part of the helping individual's genes may be represented in subsequent generations due to genetic overlap. In this perspective then it can be said that altruism does not necessarily benefit the person helping, but it is said to be adaptive because the adaptation is related to the individual's reproductive fitness. It is not limited to but it also includes inclusive fitness. Inclusive ability refers to the fact that natural selection not only favors individuals, but also includes behaviors that benefit individuals with whom we have genes in common. Is. It is also sometimes called 'kin selection'. Bernstein, Crandall & Kitayama (Burnstein, Crandall & Kitayama, 1994) did a lot of research that specifically studied the people who choose to help in an emergency situation. It was seen in the result that the basis of this type of selection was called genetic similarity, that is, individuals expressed their desire to choose their close relatives to help more than distant relatives or strangers. Not only this, among these, younger relatives were shown to be more inclined to help than older relatives because they have more reproductive ability.
- It became clear that there are many types of motivations behind engaging in antisocial behavior. As a result, their different interpretations have been done in four ways.

### **Q.1 Define Origin of the term prosocial.**

According to the psychology researcher C. Daniel Batson, the term "was created by social scientists as an antonym for antisocial."

### **Q.2 Definition and characteristics of prosocial behavior.**

Ans. 1. Prosocial behavior, or intent to benefit others, is a social behavior that "benefits other people or society as a whole",

"such as helping, sharing, donating, co-operating, and volunteering".

2. Obeying the rules and conforming to socially accepted behaviors (such as stopping at a "Stop" sign or paying for groceries) are also regarded as prosocial behaviors.
3. These actions may be motivated by empathy and by concern about the welfare and rights of others,
4. Evidence suggests that pro sociality is central to the well-being of social groups across a range of scales, including schools.

\*\* Prosocial behavior in the classroom can have a significant impact on a student's motivation for learning and contributions to the classroom and larger community.

\*\* In the workplace, prosocial behaviour can have a significant impact on team psychological safety, as well as positive indirect effects on employee's helping behaviors and task performance.

\*\* Prosocial behavior fosters positive traits that are beneficial for children and society. It helps many beneficial functions by bettering production of any league and its organizational scale.

### **Q.3 Explain how Prosocial behavior is mediated by both situational and individual factors?**

#### **1. Situational factors**

One of the most common situation factors is the occurrence of the bystander effect. The bystander effect is the phenomenon that an individual's likelihood of helping decreases when passive bystanders are present in a critical situation. For example, when someone drops a stack of papers on a crowded sidewalk, most people are likely to continue passing him/her by. This example can be extended to even more urgent situations, such as a car crash or natural disaster.

The decision model of bystander intervention noted that whether or not an individual gives aid in a situation depends upon their analysis of the situation. An individual will consider whether or not the situation requires their assistance, if the assistance is the responsibility of the individual, and how to help.

This model, proposed by Latane and Darley,[22] describes five things that must occur in order for a person to intervene:

1. Notice the situation Construe it as an emergency.

Develop feelings of responsibility. Believe they have skills to succeed. Reach a conscious decision to help. The number of individuals present in the situation requiring help is also a mediating factor in one's decision to give aid, where the more individuals are present, the less likely it is for one particular individual to give aid due to a reduction in perceived personal responsibility.

This is known as diffusion of responsibility, where the responsibility one feels for the person(s) in need is divided by the number of bystanders. Another factor that comes into play is evaluation apprehension, which simply refers to the fear of being judged by other bystanders.

## **2. Individual factors**

Individuals can be compelled to act prosocially based on learning and socialization during childhood. Operant conditioning and social learning positively reinforces discrete instances of prosocial behaviors. Cognitive capacities like intelligence for example, are almost always related to prosocial likings.[25] Helping skills and a habitual motivation to help others is therefore socialized, and reinforced as children understand why helping skills should be used to help others around them.

Social and individual standards and ideals also motivate individuals to engage in prosocial behavior. Social responsibility norms, and social reciprocity norms reinforce those who act prosocially.

As an example, consider the child who is positively reinforced for "sharing" during their early childhood years.[27] When acting prosocially, individuals reinforce and maintain their positive self- images or personal ideals, as well as help to fulfill their own personal needs.[28] The correlation between a helper's state and helping tendencies are greatly restricted to the relationship between whomever takes part in the situation. Emotional arousal is an additional important motivator for prosocial behavior in general. Batson's (1987) empathy-altruism model examines the emotional and motivational component of prosocial behavior. Feeling empathy towards the individual needing aid increases the likelihood that the aid will be given. This empathy is called "empathetic concern" for the other individual, and is characterized by feelings of tenderness, compassion, and sympathy.

### **Other factors of prosocial behaviors**

In addition to situational and individualistic factors, there are some categorical characteristics that can impact prosocial behavior. Several studies have indicated a positive relationship between prosocial behavior and religion. In addition, there may be sex differences in

prosocial behavior, particularly as youths move into adolescence. Research suggests that while women and men both engage in prosocial behaviors, women tend to engage in more communal and relational prosocial behaviors whereas men tend to engage in more agentic prosocial behaviors.

A recent study examining workplace charitable giving looked at the role of both sex and ethnicity. Results showed that women gave significantly more than men, and Caucasians gave significantly more than minority groups. However, the percent of minority individuals in the workplace was positively associated with workplace charitable giving by minorities.

Culture, sex, and religion are important factors to consider in understanding prosocial behavior on an individual and group level.

#### **Q.4 Define Altruism.**

Ans. Altruism is the principle and moral practice of concern for happiness of other human beings or animals, resulting in a quality of life both material and spiritual. It is a traditional virtue in many cultures and a core aspect of various religious traditions and secular worldviews, though the concept of "others" toward whom concern should be directed can vary among cultures and religions. In an extreme case, altruism may become a synonym of selflessness, which is the opposite of selfishness. The word "altruism" was coined by the French philosopher Auguste Comte in French, as *altruisme*, for an antonym of *egoism*. [1][2] He derived it from the Italian *altrui*, which in turn was derived from Latin *alteri*, meaning "other people" or "somebody else". [3]

Altruism in biological observations in field populations of the day organisms is an individual performing an action which is at a cost to themselves (e.g., pleasure and quality of life, time, probability of survival or reproduction), but benefits, either directly or indirectly, another third-party individual, without the expectation of reciprocity or compensation for that action. Steinberg suggests a definition for altruism in the clinical setting, that is "intentional and voluntary actions that aim to enhance the welfare of another person in the absence of any quid pro quo external rewards". [4] In one sense, the opposite of altruism is spite; a spiteful action harms another with no self-benefit.

Altruism can be distinguished from feelings of loyalty, in that whilst the latter is predicated upon social relationships, altruism does not consider relationships. Much debate exists as to whether "true" altruism is possible in human psychology. The theory of psychological egoism suggests that no act of sharing, helping or sacrificing can be described as truly altruistic, as

the actor may receive an intrinsic reward in the form of personal gratification. The validity of this argument depends on whether intrinsic rewards qualify as "benefits".

The term altruism may also refer to an ethical doctrine that claims that individuals are morally obliged to benefit others. Used in this sense, it is usually contrasted with egoism, which claims individuals are morally obligated to serve themselves first. Effective altruism is the use of evidence and reason to determine the most effective ways to benefit others.

## **CHAPTER-9**

### **AGGRESSION**

Aggression; Nature, Types and Causes, General Aggression Model (GAM), Frustration Aggression Hypothesis Prevention and Control of Aggression.

## **Aggression**

### **❖ Meaning and Nature of Aggression**

Aggression and violence is a behavior that is found in both humans and animals. Therefore aggressive behavior is a universal phenomenon. Social psychologists have shown special interest in its study. Because of this interest, it is obvious that social psychologists have tried to define aggression in appropriate words. Here we will first consider some of the major definitions of the same.

Buss' (Bus, 1961) has given a simplest definition of aggression, saying, "Aggression is such a response that causes another animal to a malicious stimulus." But this definition could not be accepted by social psychologists due to being too broad and simple. For example, some social psychologists have objected that if Buss's definition is accepted, even drilling or pulling out a tooth by a dentist to clean a tooth is aggressive behavior. behavior) although it is clear that the intention of dentistry is to heal the patient and not to harm him. That is to say, the definition of bus does not take into account the purpose or intention of the person who is behaving aggressively, which is an essential fact. According to Verkowicz (Berkowit2 1975), aggression refers to "intentional damage or harm done to others." It is clear from this definition that aggressive behavior is said to be that behavior which not only harms or harms others but also has the purpose of harming or harming others.

Some social psychologists have objected to the inclusion of intention in aggression, saying that it is a concept that cannot be accurately known or measured. Therefore, it should not be

included in the definition of aggression. But many people do not agree with this objection of these social psychologists and while refuting it, these people have said that psychologists infer the purpose of aggressive behavior of humans on the basis of examining those conditions. gives birth to such behavior. As a result, most social psychologists have defined aggressive behavior in terms of motive.

In the words of Baron & Byrne (1987), "aggression is a behavior that is aimed at causing harm or injury to others and that the person (the other person) is motivated to avoid."

1. Aggression is a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism. Buss: 1961.
2. "Aggression is the intentional injury of another." Berkwitz
3. "Aggression is a behavior directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment. Baron & Byrne: Social Psychology, 1988, p. 331.
4. Aggression may be defined as "physical or verbal behavior that is intended to hurt someone." Myers: Social Psychology, 1988, p. 395.
5. "Aggression is the behavior that is intended to injure another person (physically or verbally) or to destroy property —Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith & Hilgard: Introduction to Psychology, 1987, p. 369
6. "Aggression is defined as any action that is interded to hurt others." -Taylor, Peplau & Sears: Social Psychology, 2006

There is a lot of similarity in the definition of aggression in these major definitions, which in analyzing we get the following key facts about aggressive behavior -

1. Aggression is a behavior that is done intentionally with the aim of harming others or their property. Therefore, no behavior can be called aggressive without examining the purpose. A dentist's occasional slapping of a patient in connection with the extraction of a decayed tooth would not amount to aggressive behavior because the intention of the dentist is not actually to injure the patient. On the other hand, imagine that an assassin shoots at a minister. But the minister narrowly escapes. Here the purpose of the killer's behavior is to cause damage but due to some reasons the damage did not happen. The behavior of the murderer being intended to cause harm would definitely be called an aggressive behavior.
- 2 Intention in aggressive behavior may be explicit or may be implicit. In the above example the intention was explicit in the aggressive behavior of the murderer. Such aggression is called hostile aggression by social psychologists. The intent in behaving aggressively may also be hidden or implicit. For example, a political leader can campaign in such a way that he

can win the election by defeating his opposition leader, while keeping a sense of neutrality's towards his opposition leader. Here the meaning is hidden. Such aggression is called instrumental aggression.

3. In aggression the victim or the target person tries to avoid the aggressive behavior. This means that if the victim cannot have motivation to avoid that aggressive behavior, then it will not be called aggressive behavior.

It has become clear that there are certain characteristics of aggressive behavior on the basis of which we identify it and all types of behavior similar to it are not called aggressive behavior a transctioned can be anything. Anti-social aggression refers to such aggressive behavior which is anti-social, anti-social, pro-social and against the rules accepted between them. Like abusing someone, slapping etc. In this sense aggression is considered a bad behavior. But there are some aggressions which are in accordance with the rules of the society, which are examples of pro-social aggression, following orders by soldiers, etc. Something between these two is called pro-social aggression. For example, disciplinary behavior of parents, aggressive behavior of commander in war is called sanctioned aggression. Aggression in this type of Aggressive behaviors are included which are not required by the social norms but can be kept within their limits. Such behavior does not violate accepted moral standards. For example, a woman slapping a rapist is an example of permissive aggression.

In order to understand the nature of aggression properly, it is also necessary to differentiate between aggressive behavior and anger. Anger is an aggressive experience whereas aggressive behavior is external transformation of that experience. When a person feels anger, he generally behaves aggressively, but sometimes he controls these feelings and behaves as if he has never felt anger.

### ❖ **Theories of Aggression**

Social psychologists have described various theories to explain the origin of aggression. In these theories, mainly three types of ideas have been propounded about the origin of aggression, which are as follows-

1. Aggressive behavior arises due to instinct and other biological factors prevalent in human nature. This has been explained by social psychologists under a special theory called instinct theory.
2. Aggressive behavior arises as a result of external anger or frustration. The theory under which it is explained is called frustration aggression theory.

3. Aggressive behavior is learned by the individual in some social context like other behaviors. The theory under which it is explained is called social learning theory.

It is clear that psychologists and sociologists have come together to explain aggression.

Three important principles have been described which are as follows-

1. Instinct theory
2. Drive theory Frustration aggression hypothesis
3. Social-learning theory
4. General Aggressive Model: Modern Theory of Aggression

- **Instinct Theory**

According to the instinct theory, aggression in humans or animals is an inborn behavior that arises due to instinct. Instinct refers to an inherited tendency to respond in a particular way to a stimulus.

Basically, the theories of two persons have been kept under the instinct theory - Freud's psychoanalytical theory and Lorenz's ethical theory. We can describe these two principles as follows-

(a) **Freud's psychoanalytical theory** – This theory was propounded by Sigmund Freud. It is called psychoanalytic theory because it is based on the basic facts derived from psychoanalysis. Aggression has been explained as an instinct under psychoanalytical theory. According to Freud, there are two types of instincts found in every person - life instinct and death instinct (death instinct) provides sufficient motivation to perform constructive functions. The death instinct, also known as Thanatos, is what drives all kinds of destructive and aggressive actions. When death instinct prevails in a person, then that person is found to do more aggression. Generally, a balance is maintained between the life instinct and the death instinct, due to which the person's adjustment is also fine with the environment.

According to Freud, the direction of expression of the death instinct can be both inward and outward. When the direction is inward, the person shows aggression towards himself and self-harm. An extreme example of such behavior is attempted suicide. When the direction is outward, the individual expresses his aggression by harming others or making socially acceptable arguments. Freud was of the opinion that the life instinct often blocks the destructive goal of the death instinct and directs it towards external objects or objects. The result is that the person starts showing aggression and violence towards external objects or persons. Sometimes the life instinct is not successful in turning the death instinct towards



external objects or persons. This is in such a situation, there is an increase in self-aggressive behavior in the person and on reaching the peak, and the person also commits suicide.

(b) **Ethological theory** - This theory was propounded by famous ethologist and Nobel laureate Konrad Lorenz. Lorenz has propounded this theory by studying animals and generalizing its facts to mankind.

Lorenz (1967) initially criticized Freud's theory and later accepted and improved its validity. He has not described aggressive behavior as destructive like Freud; rather he believed that such behavior is adaptive and necessary for animals to maintain their existence. On the basis of studies done on animals, Lorenz came to the conclusion that at the root of survival goal lays the instinct of aggression. The more aggressive an animal is, the more likely that animal is to survive and reproduce itself. Not only this with the help of aggression animals protect their territory and are able to manage food and water for themselves and other members of the species. Due to aggression, only strong animals maintain existence and reproductive capacity, while weak animals have to sacrifice their existence.

Although the work of Lorenz (1967) was originally based on the study of aggressive behavior of animals, yet he also included the explanation of human aggression in his theory and perhaps this point is the basis of his theory. It has been the most controversial point. He basically put forth two questions to explain human aggression—the first was why human beings kill each other between the second, instinctive aggressiveness. How energy is stored and in between? How does it get expression? By answering these two questions, he has given a scientific explanation of human aggression.

### **1. Why a human kills another human?**

Lorenz was of the opinion that two types of processes are done towards any kind of danger - fight and flight. Those animals which do not have sufficient mechanism to protect themselves, like birds, deer etc., they run away as soon as their enemy attacks. Lorenz is of the opinion that the higher the fighting ability in an animal, the stronger is the tendency of innate inhibition to show aggression towards the animals of its caste. But in animals which do not have much fighting ability, the tendency of such innate inhibition is weak. As a result, there is no importance of aggression towards the members of their castes. According to Lorenz, this pattern has been broken in humans. In the beginning of the creation, when there was an attack, humans used to save themselves by running away because they did not have

adequate mechanism to save themselves. In these, the tendency of innate inhibition to show aggressiveness towards other humans is also weak but technology development. Due to technological development, the destructive power of humans has increased. On the one hand such power has increased and on the other hand the lack of negative instinct is already present, as a result of which human beings kill other members of their own caste fearlessly. This type of development is not seen in any other animal.

**2. Building up of instinctual energy-** Another important aspect was the explanation of nature of instinctual aggressive energy by Lorenz. Like Freud, he also believed that aggressive energy always builds up in a person and gradually accumulates unless the animal is stimulated by some suitable stimulus in the environment. This kind of power is not released. Lorenz's opinion on this point was different from Freud's. According to Freud, no external stimulus is needed for the expression or release of such power, while according to Lorenz, it is necessary to be stimulated by external stimulus for the expression of such power. The degree of aggressive behavior depends on the amount of instinctive aggressive energy stored in the animal, which can then be automatically released even without the presence of any stimuli in the environment.

The most important implication of Lorenz's model is that if a person expresses accumulated aggressive power in socially approved ways, there is not much power left to express it in antisocial ways. That's why the society should give adequate expression to the accumulated aggressive power through socially approved methods like sports etc.

### ***Criticisms***

Although the instinct theory explains aggressive behavior does it correctly, yet some social psychologists have raised some objections to its interpretation expressed in which the following are the main ones-

1. While it is clear from this theory that the organism definitely exhibits aggressive behavior, it is not clear when and how the organism will exhibit such aggressive behavior.
2. The ontogenetic theory lacks experimental support. Therefore, even if it is logical to hear or see its explanation it may seem like something but it cannot be considered scientific. Some concepts of this theory, such as the death instinct, cannot be measured. Hence the question of any kind of experimental support does not arise for it.
3. According to instinct theory, if the accumulated aggressive power in a person is not expressed from time to time, then aggressive behavior will be done in greater quantity. This

leads to a hypothesis that if a person engages in aggressive behavior more, he will show less of such behavior later on because he will be left with only a small amount of power to generate such behavior. The study done by Walters and Brown (Walters & Brown, 1963) could not confirm this hypothesis. They have found in their study that the subjects who were given the prize for injuring the given object. Compared to subjects who were rewarded for not injuring, the amount of aggressive behavior was higher in the latter than in the former. Berkowitz (Berkowitz, 1973) has also found in his study that people who participate more in sports do not reduce aggressive behavior as compared to those who do not participate in such sports. This result of Berkowitz also goes against the instinct theory.

4. There have been some experimental studies that have seriously challenged the instinct theory. For example, it is generally believed that the cat is a natural enemy of the rat. Zing Yang Kuo. 1930) has proven this to be false. They reared a group of kittens with their mother from birth. A group of kittens were reared with their mother. -Posa who saw their mother hunting rats. They brought up the second group of kittens by keeping them in isolated condition. In this, such children could not even see the mouse. The third condition was such that the cat the child was raised to be friends with rats. The result showed that 85% of cats in the first stage had a strong tendency to kill rats on sight and only 17% of the cats in the third stage had the tendency to kill rats. Tendency observed. It becomes clear from the study. That aggressive behavior is just an instinct. ) but the social situation is also important.

5. Montague (1976) refutes the claim of instinct theory that aggressive behavior is innate in individuals (or animals). In his famous book *The Nature of Human Aggression*, he refuted the concept of innate aggression and said that there are many societies whose members do not show aggressive behavior. For example, aggression is not found at all in the marginal species of Marle, in the Pigmy race of Ituri Forest, in the Tasady race of Mindanao. These observations make it clear that the instinctual theory's claim that aggressive behavior is innate is falsified. The frequency of aggressive actions has been observed to vary greatly throughout human society. The result of this is that in some societies they are frequent but in some they are not so frequent. This fact has been shown by Fry (1998) on the basis of his study. In such a situation, the natural question that has been raised by social psychologists is that if there is so much variation in aggressive behavior, how can it be considered genetic?

In conclusion, it can be said that the instinctive theory of aggression does not pass the test of scientificity and validity. Therefore, social psychologists have described other theories to explain aggressive behavior.

- **Drive Theories: Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis**

When social psychologists rejected the instinct theory of aggression propounded by Freud and Lorenz and their associates (Dollard et al. 1999) they moved to another alternative called drive theories. (Berkowitz, 1989) and Feshbach (1984) contributed significantly. According to the propulsive theory, aggression is caused by those external conditions.

It arises from the motivation or drive in a person to harm or harm others. The most important frustration aggression hypothesis in the propulsive theory of aggression is the one we will consider in depth. This theory was formulated as a result of the researches done by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Maurer and Sears (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer & Sears, 1929) at Yale University. In this theory, Dollard and his associates have considered the cause of aggression as frustration or frustration and have explained the result-relationship with experimental support. As the name suggests, there are two important terms in this theory – frustration and aggression. Dollard and his associates (Dollard et al., 1939) have first defined both these terms in a clear and objective manner which is as follows-

1. Frustration- when the behavior done by a person to reach a desired goal is blocked in the middle, then the mood arising from it is called frustration.

2. Aggression: Verbal or physical behavior done with the aim of harming others has been termed as aggression by Dollard. In its original form, this theory deals with the relationship between frustration and aggression. Dollard and his colleagues (Dollard et al. 1939) in the form of the following two hypotheses had expressed-

(i) Frustration always leads to some sort of aggression.

(ii) Aggression always stems from frustration.

Keeping these two preliminary hypotheses in view, it can be said that according to this theory, frustrated persons always do some kind of aggressive behavior and all types of aggressive behavior are in fact Frustration only has consequences.

According to this theory, when goal-seeking behavior is inhibited or blocked, the individual first generates frustration and then aggression. How much frustration will arise in the person and then how much aggression will arise from it depends on many things, three of the following things have been told more important-

(i) **How important was the goal to the individual.** The greater the importance of the goal, the greater the amount of anger when goal-seeking behavior is disrupted.

(ii) **The degree of frustration** depends on whether the goal-oriented behavior of the

individual is inhibited partially or completely. In case of partial occlusion, the amount of **frustration** is less than in the direction of complete occlusion.

(iii) There can be many ways to reach the goal and many behaviors related to it. The amount of anger also depends on how many such behaviors are inhibited. The greater the number of such behaviors that are inhibited, the greater the degree of frustration.

According to this theory, the person shows direct aggression towards the source or agent causing the anger. This is called direct aggression, but sometimes the source of aggression is found by the person to be more powerful than himself or the possibility of getting punishment from him is intense or the source itself is not present. , then the individual's aggressive behavior in such a situation is displaced by some other similar source or agent. This is called displaced aggression. For example, when the father does not allow him to go to the cinema, the young man often gets into trouble with his mother. In this confusion, the father is the source of frustration, but instead of engaging with the father, instead of engaging with the mother, the young man showing his aggression towards another source similar to the real source i.e. the mother is an example of displaced aggression. Usually the individual directs its aggression towards a weak source or a safe source aggression displaces. Miller (1948) and (Berkowitz & Kneurek. 1967) on the basis of their studies have confirmed the fact that individuals attribute their aggression to a source similar to the original/similar source only. According to this theory, a person shows sort of or directs aggression towards the source of anger and if this is not possible then he shows displaced aggression.

Experimental verification of the said relationship between anger and aggression has been done in many studies. For example, Haner & Brown (Haner & Brown, 1955) conducted an experiment in which school students were forced to push marbles into a brass hole. A reward was announced for successfully completing the task within a specified time. There was a recess next to which a knob was attached, by pressing which the bell could be stopped while ringing. By ringing the bell, the experimenter indicated to the subject that his time had come for that particular trial and now he could stop ringing the ringing bell and start another trial. In this study, the student was stopped by a bell before they could complete the task, and this deprived them of the reward and created resentment. The hypothesis was that the amount of frustration would be highest when the students were very close to achieving the goal i.e. they were about to finish the task when they were told to stop by ringing a bell. Aggression was measured on the basis of pressure exerted by the applicator on the knob. It was seen in the result that when the quantity of frustration was more in the students. (i.e. the students were

about to get the reward after completing the task when they were stopped), so the amount of aggression in them was also high. The validity of the frustration-aggression theory is verified in the study. Another similar study was done by Hamblin and his colleagues (Hamblin et al. 1963), in which the above relation between anger and aggression has been confirmed. Frustration aggression theory also describes two ways to reduce aggression has gone-

(i) The first method is simple in which emphasis is placed on the elimination of frustration. The theory believes that if frustration is not allowed to arise in the individual or if it is eliminated when it arises, aggression will automatically decrease.

(ii) Aggression can be reduced by adopting the technique of catharsis. In this technique, the person is motivated to behave aggressively. The result of this is that the motivation to behave aggressively gradually decreases and he is able to show almost no aggression again in the near future.

**Criticisms** – There are some criticisms of the frustration aggression theory which include the following. The major ones are-

(i) Some psychologists, most notably Buss (1961), have challenged the theory's claim that anger is always the cause of aggressive behavior. He has told that there are some people who behave aggressively to get material gain. In such a situation there is no frustration, yet the person shows aggression. Buss says that when a person perceives that he will gain something by showing aggressive behavior, he shows aggression. For this, it is not necessary for him to be frustrated. According to Berkowiz (Berkowiz, 1978), frustration is one of the many causes of aggression even though it can happen. But it cannot be the only reason.

(ii) Some social psychologists are of the opinion that in this theory Dollard and his colleagues (Dollard, et.al) have raised their hypothesis more than necessary. These psychologists have challenged the theory's assumption that anger always leads to aggression. Many critics like Britt and Janus ( Brill & Janus, 1940), Rosenwing (Ranig. 1938 ). Sargem (1948) has made it clear that aggression does not always arise from actions. Some others have said that aggression arises from certain types of frustration and not from all kinds of things. For example, if the amount of anger is intense and the person finds it deliberately imposed on him without considering it ass legitimate, then aggression definitely arises from such anger. The impact of these criticisms was more on the frustration-aggression theory. As a result, modifications were made in that principle, which also needs to be considered.

- **Modified Frustration- Aggression Theory** The modified form of frustration-aggression theory is more advanced than the earlier one. In this theory, it has been generated by making two important changes. These two changes are as follows-

(i) Miller (1941), who was one of the five original pro pounders of this theory, himself accepted that frustration does not always lead to aggression and he Amending the claim, it is said that a person reacts to Kutha in a variety of ways, in which aggression is one. This amendment strengthened the theory and the second criticism of the theory which has been described above.

(ii) Another important modification has been proposed by Berkowitz (1965). Berkowitz said that aggressive behavior does not arise directly from frustration; frustration creates a readiness in the person to behave aggressively, which an emotional state is called anger. Real aggressive behavior is performed by a person when on the one hand such readiness (or state of anger) arises and on the other hand the person also gets some cues in the environment which incites his latent aggression and he starts behaving aggressively. Such cues are called aggression cues, and Berkowitz's theory is called the cue theory of aggression. According to Berkowitz, an individual does not show aggressive behavior until appropriate cues or stimuli are present from the environment that can excite him to behave aggressively. Experimental support of Berkowitz's cue theory support follows from the famous experiment of Geen and Berkowitz (Geen & Berkowitz, 1967). In this study, college students were given a set amount of time to solve a puzzle. There were three conditions of the experiment- the condition of frustration, the condition of insult and the controlled condition. In the state of frustration, the students were given such a problem in the form of a puzzle, which they could not solve in the stipulated time. In the humiliation condition, the subject was given such a problem in the form of a puzzle, before solving which a colleague (confederate) of the experimenter humiliated the student by calling her intellectually inferior. In the controlled condition, such a problem was given to the subjects in the form of a puzzle, which was given enough opportunity to solve it, and at the same time they were not humiliated. After this, by asking questions to the participants of these three groups, the experimenter obtained this information that the subjects of anger and humiliation were more angry than the subjects of the controlled group.

There was a feeling of anger. In the next part of the experiment, the hypothesis was tested whether the signals of aggression induce aggressive behavior in the angry person or not. In this part of the study, the students were shown one of two types of films (one with aggressive

scenes and the other with non-aggressive scenes) for 7 minutes. Then the subjects were asked to give a mild electric shock to a colleague of the experimenter. The results showed that the students who watched the movie, in which the aggression cues were presented, did not respond to the experimenter's confederate. The results of this study by Geet and Berkowitz (Geen & Berkowitz. 1967) make it clear that aggressive behavior in the individual only when appropriate cues of aggression are available in the environment somewhere it produces. It is clear from this study that modified frustration theory aggression theory gets full support the experimenter's partner more times and the students who were shown the film without aggressive scenes electrocuted the experimenter's partner a few times. At the same time, it was also observed that those students who had less amount of anger behaved towards the other groups with less frequency than the angry students.

- **Social Learning Theory**

This theory was propounded by Bandura (1973). Later Bandura's other associates like Walters (Walters, 1975) also contributed significantly in the development of this theory. The essence of this theory is that the person learns aggression in the same way as other behaviors and also learns in which situations such aggression response helps to achieve the desired goal. Therefore, according to this theory, aggressive behavior is a learned behavior. Social learning theory basically answers three types of questions regarding aggression-

1. What are the sources of origin of aggressive behavior?
2. What is the provocateur of aggressive behavior?
3. How is aggressive behavior learned?

We find answers to all these three questions in social learning theory. So we will analyze it question wise, so it is as follows-

1. **What are the sources of origin of aggression or aggressive behavior?** - According to this theory, three sources of origin of aggression in a person or group have been told-

(i) **Direct instruction-** There are some situations in which a person is given an offer or a direct instruction to behave aggressively and as a result, he behaves aggressively. For example, in war, the army leader instructs the soldiers to attack their enemy, as a result of which the soldier shows aggression. Therefore, a major source of aggression is direct instruction.



(ii) **Trial and error learning:** Another source of aggression is trial and error learning. For example, suppose a child attacks another child. The situation is such that the first child is unable to run away. As a result, he is forced to counterattack the other child. Let's assume for a while that the first child wins the counterattack. The result will be that the first child, whenever he is faced with this type of situation in the future, will resort to counter aggressive behavior because he has been successful in aggressiveness on the basis of trial and error already happened.

(iii) **Observational learning** – The third source of aggression is observational that when a person sees others behaving aggressively, he starts doing the same. Bandura learning is observational learning. Bandura (Bandura, 1975) has laid more emphasis on this source and said person seen others behaving aggressively, he starts doing the same. Bandura learning is according to this, critical learning continues to happen throughout life. There are many sources of such learning in our lives. For example, the models available in the family, the scenes of aggression shown on television and cinema, the models available in the social context of educational institutions and other businessmen, etc. According to Vaira (Bandura, 1973) and Watlers & Bandura (1963), the basis of this type of adsorption is basically reinforcement and imitation.

3. **What is the provocateur of aggressive behavior?** Social learning theory not only explains what are the sources of aggressive behavior but also explains what are the instigators of aggressive behavior that lead to aggressive behavior. The probability of occurrence increases. Bandura has identified four such factors which are given below-

(i) **Aversive treatment** – It has become clear from the study done by social psychologists that due to painful, painful and frustrating experiences, a person is not only emotionally aroused, but also aggressive in it. ) also has a tendency to arise and he also understands that such aggression is also socially approved.

(ii) **Instruction** - In social learning theory, instruction has been considered as a major factor inciting aggression. Milgram (Milgram, 1964, 1965) conducted studies showing that experimenters mercilessly administered high voltage electric shocks to some adults when instructed by the experimenter. On receiving instructions to show aggression from an authority or similar people, a person is found to behave aggressively with a steady mind.

(iii) **Observation** – According to Bandura (1973), the third factor that provokes aggression is to see others behaving aggressively. When a person observes the aggressive behavior being done by others, then the motivation to behave in the same way arises in him. In such a situation, along with learning the behavior of aggression from that model, the person also learns in which situation such a response would be appropriate. Bandura and Ross (1974) reported on the basis of their study that the number of aggressive behavior increased in children who were shown films containing aggressive scenes on television, while children who were not exposed to such films. There was no increase in aggression in those who did not get the opportunity.

(iv) **Anticipation of incentive or reward** - When a person feels that he can get some benefit by behaving aggressively, he decides to pursue the desired goal. But the best way to reach there is to show aggression. In such a situation, before behaving aggressively, the person estimates the possible rewards and punishments for such behavior. If the award/ if the amount of punishment is greater than the amount, then he shows intensity in aggressive behavior but if the amount of fear potential is very high, he is not in a hurry to show aggression.

4. **How is aggressive behavior learned?** (Bandura, 1963) is of the opinion that an individual learns aggressive behavior on the basis of external reinforcement, self-reinforcement and vicarious reinforcement. External reinforcement includes concrete rewards, social approval, social praise, social status, removal of painful experiences, harming the victim, etc. It is clear from many studies that if a person gets external reinforcement after being aggressive, then he is found to do the same behavior more in the future. Geen & Stoner (1973) found in their study that when subjects were given verbal reinforcement for behaving aggressively, the intensity of aggression increased. Cowan and Walters (Cowan & Walters, 1973) have told this on the basis of their study that the schedule of reinforcement has a significant effect on aggression. He found in his studies that the effectiveness of continuous reinforcement and partial reinforcement on children's aggression is different. According to him, in a partial reinforcement schedule, where some of the child's aggressive behavior was reinforced and some similar behavior was not reinforced, the intensity of aggression increased, in continuous reinforcement, where each of the child's aggressive behaviors was reinforced was done, was more. Self-reinforcement

occurs when a person perceives that they have protected themselves from the target person or object by appropriate aggressive behavior, despite some suffering. It means to say that in self-reinforcement the person expresses satisfaction over the aggressive behavior done by him. Studies have shown that the aggressive behavior that generates self-reinforcement in the person, the intensity and frequency of aggressive behavior increases in the future. According to Albrecht, Thomas & Chadwick (1980), self-reinforcement is difficult to observe, so it cannot be measured accurately.

**Vicarious reinforcement** refers to the psychological sharing with the result produced by the aggression in the person showing the aggressive behavior. For example, one feels proud when the team with which one has been identified defeats the opposing team in the field of sports. On the other hand, shame and guilt arise in him when he finds that his team has been defeated by the opposing team. According to social learning theory, vicarious reinforcement also intensifies the response of aggression in the individual, although Albrecht, Thomas and Chadwick have made it clear that vicarious reinforcement is not as powerful as external reinforcement and self-reinforcement.

It is clear from the above description that social learning theory explains the fact that how does a person learn aggressive behavior? Apart from this, this theory also explains how to reduce aggression in a person. Bandura and Walters (Bandura & Walters, 1973) have emphasized that parents should not physically punish children for their mischief because by doing so they learn this behavior (aggressive behavior). So they should not behave like this themselves. This indirectly reduces aggression in children. According to the social learning theory, a direct way to reduce aggression is that when children behave aggressively, they can be reduced by giving them negative reinforcement, such as caress and love or by depriving them of the desired object.

Social learning theory has been considered an important theory of aggression for several reasons. An important reason in this is that this theory has been considered a supplement to the frustration aggression theory because it also answers those questions which are not found by the frustration aggression theory. For example, the frustration-aggression theory cannot explain why in the same stressful situation one person punches, another uses a revolver, and a third shows no aggression at all. According to the social learning theory, the reason for this individual difference in aggression in the same kind of frustrating situation is their past experiences. Social learning theory is a very important theory because it explains the causes of aggression and how to reduce it.

The methods of aggression have also been described, yet there are some *criticisms*, in which the following are the main ones-

(i) According to this theory, a person learns aggression on the basis of reinforcement received after such behavior. Three types of reinforcement have been described in the theory - external reinforcement, self-reinforcement and substitute reinforcement. In this, people have considered the first two reinforcements as effective, but the third type of reinforcement has been rejected as unnecessary.

(ii) This theory is able to satisfactorily answer the question that how a person learns aggressive behavior but cannot answer the question correctly that why a person shows aggressive behavior and that Why does he make a certain object or person the target of his aggression? Despite some limitations, social learning theory is still considered more important than other theory and its recognition is more among psychologists.

- **General Aggression Model (GAM)**

Anderson (Anderson, 1997) and Anderson and Bushman (2002) have proposed the General Aggression Model or (GAM) based on the facts of the social theory of aggression. It is also called the modern theory of aggression. According to this theory, aggression is basically generated by the following two types of input variables.

(i) Factors relating to the situation, (situational variables )

(ii) Factors relating to the persons (personal variables)

Together they are called input variables. Frustration, being insulted by a person, seeing an aggressive model in real or on film screen, too high or low environmental temperature, too loud noise etc. are examples of situational factors while personal variables include such traits which make the person more aggressive. Like excessive irritability. Impulsivity, a special kind of belief and attitude towards the part, understanding the hostile intention of the other and related to aggression includes special skills such as the method of using weapons, etc.

According to the General Aggression model, both situational and personal factors together produce aggression in a person by affecting three basic processes.

Following are the three internal processes: -

(i) **Affective states**- Both types of factors can generate hostile feelings in a person whose external signs are angry. There is an angry facial expression.

(ii) **Arousal** can generate physiological excitement in a person from both those types of factors.

(iii) **Cognition**:- Both the above types of factors can generate hostile thoughts or a certain

type of belief and attitude towards the need.

After that, according to this principle, a person makes an appraisal of the current situation and the present restraining cognition factors, such as the presence of the police or seeing the targeted person being lashed with a weapon, as a result of which he takes two types of actions one of the following types of behavior- the person either deliberately withholds some behavior, such as aggression/anger etc. or he/she shows excessive impulsive behavior in which he/she clearly aims the aggression towards the target person.

Bushman & Anderson (2002) used this theory to explain why individuals who are exposed to high levels of aggression, that is, those who see aggression models more in their day-to-day lives Or see more and more aggression in movies or video games, automatically gradually start showing more aggressive behavior. These researchers are of the opinion that by repeatedly being exposed to this type of aggressive model, the knowledge structure towards aggression becomes stronger in the individual, that is, thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, schema articles related to aggression becomes quite robust. As this knowledge structure becomes stronger, the person becomes more easily provoked by situational or personal variables and then shows more aggression.

Since the nature of human aggression can be explained in a very detailed manner by the general aggression model, it is very popular among social psychologists and research work is also being done on this model. The nature of this theory is much more complex than the earlier theories of aggression.

#### ❖ **Factors Provoking Aggression and Violence**

Four major determinants of aggression and violence have been given by social psychologists-

- (1) Social causes
- (2) Cultural causes
- (3) Personal causes
- (4) Situational causes

Explanation of all these factors and the factors coming under it is expected here.

- (1) **Social Causes**- Social causes include all those factors that lead to aggression due to what other people say or do, that is, interactions with others. The following are the major factors in such factors-

- (i) **Level of arousal**, when an event causes emotional arousal to a higher extent in a person.

When reached, it not only generates aggression in him, but also makes a person aggressive by generating emotional reaction in subsequent unrelated situations. This has been given the name of excitation-transfer theory by Zillman (1988, 1994). According to this theory, an increased level of arousal in a particular situation, irrespective of its source, increases the level of aggression in a person when there is frustration, teasing etc. arousal from competitive sports according to Christy, Gelfand & Hartmann (1971), arousal from certain types of music according to Rogers & Ketcher (1979) and Zillmann (Zillmann, 1979) According to the study of exercise-induced stimulation, aggression in the individual increases in the immediate post-conditions. This is explained according to the excitation transfer theory. According to this theory, since physiological arousal once generated gradually subsides, some part of the arousal remains in subsequent immediate situations, causing aggression in the individual. According to Zillmann (1994), this type of effect is seen to be greater when the person is not aware of the residual portion of the physiological stimulus. According to Taylor (Taylor, 1991, 1994) the arousal transfer theory also states that aggression will occur even when the person perceives the current situation as the cause of residual arousal.

(ii) **Direct Provocation** - Recent researches have shown that physical verbal provocation done by other persons causes intense aggression in the individual. Ohbuchi & Kambara (1985) have found in their study that when a person is criticized, sarcastic comments or physically attacked by another person and all these are perceived as inappropriate by the person. If it is believed, then in such a situation that person openly shows an intense amount of aggression towards the person making such criticism or comment. Now the question arises that which kind of provocation is more likely to generate aggression?

The following facts have emerged from the researches-

- (i) Studies by Harris (1999) have shown that when a person behaves arrogantly or disparages another person, it leads to aggression in the person towards the person who does so.
- (ii) According to Baron (1993), such harsh and unfair criticism that directly attacks the person. If there is, then it is also considered an important and powerful manipulation and more aggressiveness in the person is generated.
- (iii) The third type of teasing that generates aggression in a person is the derogatory statement or statements given about his family especially parents, siblings etc. Hearing such statements, a person loses his control and starts behaving aggressively.

(iii) **Frustration:** According to the frustration-aggression hypothesis, which has been discussed in the propulsive theory of aggression, frustration is a common cause of aggression. The original version of this hypothesis, which was proposed by Dollard and his associates (Dollard et al., 1939), stated two things.

- (i) Anger always produces aggression in some form or the other, and
- (ii) Aggression always arises from anger.

But later research has shown that there is some exaggeration in both these versions of the hypothesis and that frustration has been given excessive importance in causing aggression. The truth is that when a person is frustrated, it will always lead to aggression in the person, not necessarily. In general, when a person is angry, many reactions like sadness, depression etc. arises in him. Not only this, he tries to remove the source of frustration as well. This means that there is no aggression and automatic response in the area of frustration. Apart from this, it has also been observed that a person shows aggression for many reasons and as a reaction to many different factors. For example, professional boxers fight each other because of some grudge during boxing shows aggression out of a desire to win a reward rather than showing aggression. In the light of these facts, most social psychologists today are of the opinion that frustration is not a strong determinant of aggression. People definitely believe that anger is certainly one of the many causes of aggression. Recent research by Folger & Baron (1996) has shown that frustration becomes a successful cause of aggression only when the person perceives the frustration as illegitimate.

(iv) **Purpose of frustrating behavior** - It became clear from the frustration-aggression theory that a common cause of frustration is frustration. Studies have shown that frustration generates aggression in a person only when the source of frustration is the purpose of the behavior, but if the purpose of that source behavior is known, then such frustration does not generate aggression in the person. . For example, if the most important guest in your birthday party comes three hours late and because of being late, without telling anything special, remains saying 'just like that', then his behavior creates more frustration in you and in you Aggression will arise towards them. However, if the guests reveal that their lateness was due to engine trouble, you reduce the amount of frustration and aggression with their being late. Bernstein and Worchel (1962) have confirmed this fact on the basis of an experimental study. In this study, a group of subjects participated in a group discussion on a topic in two phases

with some of the experimenter's colleagues. In the first condition, the experimenter's accomplices constantly interrupted the person wearing a hearing aid device, which is often used by deaf people (but they were not actually deaf) in the second condition. The accompanying colleague did not use such a device. In the first condition, the subjects interpreted the disturbance as purposeless, while in the second condition, the subjects interpreted the disturbance as intentional, that is, purposefully. After the group discussion was over, the subjects were asked to select one person with whom they would participate in the group discussion again. This behavior of dislike shown by the subjects was taken as aggression towards the person concerned. The results showed that the subjects most disliked participating in the group discussion with the person who disrupted the group discussion by not using the listening aid. The results of the study make it clear that the motive of the person causing the anger is an important factor that determines whether we will behave aggressively or not.

(v) **Expectation of retaliation** – If a person has a motive to retaliate or take revenge, then aggression arises from it. Experimental research has shown that when a person thinks that he is capable of avenging the atrocities committed on him, then such a person shows more aggressive behavior of the person. Taylor (1992) based his study on the fact that people who think of retaliating, recall a variety of negative emotions and information related to the initial causes of their anger, which intensifies their aggression. It happens.

(vi) **Competition:** - Deutsch (Deutsch, 1993) has shown on the basis of his study that when the situation is such that there is more competition among individuals, then in such a situation aggression, argumentation and anger A series of activities starts, but when the situation is such that there is more cooperation and support, then such a series is almost non-existent. Andersen and Morge (Anderics & Morrow, 1995) conducted a study in which some participants were asked to think competitively about an ambiguous situation while some participants were asked to think cooperatively about the same situation. ) were asked to think in terms of after this all these participants were asked to play a video game. The results found that participants who were asked to think about the situation in terms of competition compared the participants who were asked to think about the situation in terms of cooperation and support. ) murdered obviously then the intensity of aggressive behavior in the individual increases with the feeling of competition.



(2) **Cultural Causes** : It has been found from the latest studies that the origin of aggression in a person is also due to some cultural reasons. In other words, in some culture such beliefs are norms and expectations whether aggression is appropriate in a given situation or it is necessary to behave aggressively. Some social psychologists are of the opinion that when someone insults a person's honor, aggressive behavior is considered appropriate behavior. Social psychologists have given it the noun of culture of honor on which many important researches are being done. Why does such a culture develop? Reflecting on this, Cohen & Nishbett (Cohen & Nishbett, 1997, 2000) have made it clear that in some geographic regions of the world, wealth was originally in the form of an asset that could be stolen as a result, the persons who had such property. He needed to see that he did not approve of the theft of his property and would not tolerate such disrespect for his honor or dignity. As a result of this, a culture of aggression and showing violence against the disrespect of one's honor or reputation has developed. Studies conducted by Vandello & Cohen (2003) have made it clear that even today in many parts of the world this type of cultural norm (cultural norm) exists in which a person with the thought of hurting his honor or property Aggressiveness is shown towards the work done by him. It has also become clear from their study that such aggression is clearly visible in the field of sexual jealousy. An example of this can be seen in the culture of Iraq. In this culture, there are some medical doctors whose main job is to decide whether a girl is truly a virgin or not. If a girl is not married and she is not a virgin either so his family can punish him so that his family's prestige or honor is saved others. There is no such thing in countries like America, India etc. But if a husband comes to know that his wife is having an affair with another man, then it creates so much emotion (jealousy) in him. It is that he kills either the wife or her friend. In the same way, if a boy comes to know that his girlfriend is now neglecting him by having a relationship with another boy, then even in this situation the jealousy increases to such an extent that the boy becomes jealous of his girlfriend or his new friend. One starts behaving aggressively. Vandello & Cohen (2003) in their many Studies have confirmed this fact. Here is a description of one of his famous studies – participants were asked to read some short stories. In the story, the husband who came to know that his wife was sexually unfaithful to him, used to shout and some used to shout and slap and some used to talk about divorcing her. Its participants rated such a husband on a variety of dimensions. The results found that participants belonging to cultures of honor showed tolerance towards such disrespectful behavior of the husband and praised him. But some of the participants, who belonged to a different culture, i.e. a culture different from the culture of prestige, did not pay much attention to such disrespectful behaviour. It is clear

from this study that envy is indeed an important factor in aggression. Clearly then it can be said that cultural factors also play an important role in the origin of aggression.

(3) **Personal Causes:** There are also some individual reasons for aggression. Personal factors refer to those reasons which are related to the personality traits, temperament etc. of the person and generate aggressive behavior. The following are the major ones among such personal reasons-

(i) **Type A behavior pattern** Psychologists have studied Type A behavior and Type B behavior pattern by associating it with aggression. As we know, Type A behavior pattern is such a behavior pattern in which the person shows a sense of more competitiveness, more urgency of time and more intense value of hostility. Individuals who do not have such qualities are said to have Type B behavior pattern. Studies conducted by many researchers such as Baron, Russell & Arms (1985), Carver & Glass (1978) have shown that individuals with Type A behavior patterns are more likely to be individuals with Type B behavior patterns. Show more aggression than not only this, studies have also shown that people with Type A behavior patterns show more hostile aggression than those with Type V behavior patterns. In such aggression, the person definitely causes some harm to the victim. But individuals with Type A behavior patterns show comparatively less instrumental aggression. In sadistic aggression, the main objective of harming the victim is not expressed, but in this the person shows some other goal, to get praise etc. for behaving harshly.

(ii) **Hostile attribution bias:** Studies conducted by Dodge and his colleagues (Dodge et al. 1986) have shown that when a person has hostile attribution bias, it leads to aggression. is generated. Malicious attribution bias refers to a person's tendency to see a malicious intent or motive in the behavior of others with certainty when there is ambiguity in the behavior. Individuals who are high in this tendency rarely give others the benefit of the doubt and simply assume that their behavior is intentional, and therefore respond appropriately (i.e., aggressive behavior). It is appropriate to give This fact has been clearly confirmed by the study done by Dodge & Cole (1987).

(iii) **Sensation Seeking:** There are some people who are always interested in something new. There is joy in getting experiences. Such persons show more curiosity especially in getting those experiences which are exciting in nature and in which some risk is also involved. Individuals are described by social psychologists as sensation seekers and this process is closely related to the trait of aquacade (impulsive). Social psychologists believe that

individuals who have sensation seeking Come

When this happens, they show more aggression. Why does this happen? According to the General Aggression Model, the explanation of this is that people who are high in sensory curiosity or impulsivity, experience more hostility and anger because such emotions are easily generated in them. They experience a new sensation of excitement in interacting aggressively with others. Joireman Anderson and Strachman (Joireman, Anderson & Strathman. 2003) have found in their study that the following three types of tendencies related to aggression are increased in people who have high tendency of sensory curiosity.

(i) Such persons are attracted to situations that produce aggression and in such situations they lots of fun.

(ii) Such a person has more anger and jealousy.

(iii) Such people pay more attention to the immediate effect of their behavior rather than the delayed effect. The overall effect of all these three types of trends is that a person is physically and physically better than other people. Verbal aggression is high.

(iv) **Sex Differences** – The sex of the person also has an effect on aggression. In general, males have shown more aggressive behavior than females. This fact has been confirmed by many people in which Harris (Harris, 1994) and Bogard (Bogard, 1990) are the main ones in their studies. Balke, Richardson and Green (Walker, Richardson & Green, 2000) have shown on the basis of their study that this difference in aggressive behavior between men and women persists throughout life. But the size of the difference varies according to the following situation.

(a) When the situation is such that there is no provocation in both the female and the male, then in such a situation males behave more aggressively than females. But if the situation is such that it generates a lot of excitement in both men and women, then the difference between men and women in the idea of aggression ends. In other words, females also start showing aggressive behavior like males in such situations. This fact has been confirmed by Bettencourt and Miller (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996) on the basis of their study.

(b) The size and direction of the difference between males and females in aggressive behavior is affected by the type of aggression. Bjorkquist, Osterman and Hjelt-Buck (Bjorkquist. Osterman & Hjelt-Buck, 1994) have confirmed this fact in their study. It is clear from their study that different types of direct aggression such as pushing, slapping, abusing, shouting, throwing things, etc. are shown more by men while indirect aggression is shown more by women. In which women often include criticism of the targeted person, rumors about him, propaganda to other people not to have any relationship with that targeted person,

etc. Studies by Osterman and colleagues (Osterman et al. 1998) have shown that such gender differences in aggression begin at the age of 8 and continue into adulthood. According to the study of Owens, Shute & Slee (2000), such gender differences in aggression are found in many countries such as Finland, Poland. It has been clearly seen in Poland, Italy and Australia etc.

(v) **Deindividuation** – Impersonality is a state in which the identity of a person is hidden. Some social psychologists such as Ziwardo (Ziwardo, 1969) and Diener (1969) are of the opinion that impersonality reduces self-awareness and fear of negative evaluation ends. As a result, the person tends to behave more impulsively, anti-socially and aggressively. This fact has also been confirmed by the study done by Prentice-Dunn & Rogers (1980). In this study, the subject was called by the name of the experimenter's colleague confederate, in the state of individuation and in the state of depersonalization, and its intensity was observed by the experimenter at the time of electrocution. . In the condition of impersonality, the experimenters were not called by name and at the time of electrocution, the experimenters used to move away from there by giving responsibility for the intensity of electric shock on them. The results showed that subjects in the depersonalization condition delivered 50% more electric shocks than those in the personification condition. It became clear that impersonality increases the tendency of aggression in a person. It is clear that there are many personal factors that generate aggression in a person.

(4) **Situational causes**: It has become clear from the studies done by social psychologists that the origin of aggression is also due to some such reasons, which are related to the situation or the environment in which the person lives. Such causes are called situational causes. Among these reasons the following are important.

(i) **Temperature**: It is clear from many studies that when the temperature of the environment is high, it leads to an increase in aggression. But this does not happen continuously. When the temperature increases beyond a point, then the aggressiveness of the person decreases. These facts have been revealed by many studies. Some preliminary studies by Baron (1972) and Baron and Lawton (Lawton, 1972) clearly showed that when participants were exposed to a comfortable temperature such as 70°F to 72°F and some After exposure to extreme and hot conditions such as 94° to 989F, they were given the opportunity to show aggression towards other individuals. The results found that the aggressiveness of individuals decreased rather than increased after being exposed to high temperatures. Explaining such a result, it was explained that since high temperature makes a person so restless that he always tries to reduce the discomfort in order to get rid of it, it is quite natural from such a situation that in

his aggression there should be a shortage. But an important drawback was found in the interpretation of the results of these early studies, due to which it was difficult to evaluate this interpretation correctly. As such, participants in these experiments were exposed to high temperature experimental conditions for a very short period of time, whereas in day-to-day life a person is exposed to high temperature for a long period of time. That's why later some such studies were done in which some different types of methods were used. Among these studies, Anderson (Anderson, 1989), Bell (Bell, 1992) and Anderson, Bushman and Groom (Anderson, Bushman & Groom, 1997) are prominent. In these studies, the researchers analyzed the relationship between longer duration of temperature and different types of aggressive crimes reported to the police to test whether the increase in temperature increased the number of such crimes it occurs? As an example, we will consider in some detail the study of Anderson, Bushman and Groom (Anderson, Bushman & Groom 1977). The average annual temperature records of 50 US cities were collected by these researchers for 45 years i.e. from 1950 to 1995. By analyzing, he wanted to know what kind of relation is there between temperature and these crimes? As a result, these people again committed three types of crimes, i.e. violent crimes, property related crimes. Collected information related to crime property) and sex crime (sex crime) like rape etc. After this there was an increase but there was no significant increase in crime related to property and rape. It is clear from this study. It is known that temperature is related to aggression. Despite the finding of this relationship, one question remains unanswered, which is whether there is a limit to the temperature aggression relationship or not? In other words, does a person become more aggressive as the temperature rises? Cohn and Rodron (Cohn & Rotton, 1997) and Rodron and Cohn (Rotton & Cohn, 2000) have shown on the basis of their studies that when individuals are exposed to high temperature for a long period of time, there is a greater degree of discomfort in the individual. Increases that lethargy increases in them and they think more about reducing their restlessness. They rarely think of showing aggression towards anyone. Therefore, it is concluded that increasing temperature definitely increases aggression to a certain extent, but after that limit, aggression decreases again because the person starts getting lethargic and he starts paying more attention to removing restlessness.

(ii) **Alcohol and Drug Many studies**, in which Bushman and Cooper (Bushman & Cooper, 1990) and Gustafson (Gustafson, 1990) are prominent, have shown that when a person consumes alcohol in sufficient quantity, So he shows a lot of aggression and behaves very quickly towards any provocation. Explaining such an effect of alcohol, it has been said that the inhibition that a person has when behaving impulsively or dangerously, is almost lost or

the person is not so much drunk makes more sensitive that the person is forced to behave aggressively. Hovken, Giancola & Pihl (1998) have shown on the basis of their study that temple weakens the higher-order cognitive functions of the person. As a result, there is a huge decrease in the evaluation abilities related to stimuli and memory in the person. The result of this is that the person is not able to evaluate the intention of the other. Not only this, he is also unable to evaluate the effect of his aggression on other persons. Getner and Taylor (Getner & Taylor, 1992) have also supported the fact on the basis of their study that turgidity is an important situational factor that increases aggressive behavior in a person.

Consumption of certain types of drugs also increases aggression in a person. Taylor and his colleagues (Taylor et al., 1975, 1976) have confirmed these facts by studying them. In this study, some participants were given a small amount of marijuana and some participants were given a high amount of marijuana. They were then provoked by the experimenter's colleague and then given the opportunity to electrocute that colleague. The intensity of aggressiveness was measured by the amount of electric shock. The results showed that participants who used high amounts of marijuana showed less aggression than participants who used low amounts of marijuana. Participants who used high amounts of marijuana showed aggression of a much lower intensity. This makes it clear that aggression decreases with the amount of marijuana used.

(iii) **Clues available in environment** – Social psychologists have made it clear that the signs of aggression present in the environment help a lot in generating and intensifying aggression. These people have described the presence of a weapon in such signals as an important signal that leads to an increase in aggression. This is called the 'weapon effect'. The presence of weapons like guns, revolvers, swords, bombs, etc., increases aggression significantly as compared to the presence of other neutral objects. The initial validity of this fact was investigated by Berkowitz and Lepage (Berkowitz & Lepage, 1967) in an experiment. In this experiment, the evaluator of the world performance of the subjects had to give electric shock in three conditions. Aggression was measured by the intensity of the electric shock. A revolver and a gun were placed on the electrocution table in front of one group of subjects and badminton racket lined up on the electrocution table in front of the subjects in the second group. There is no object of any kind in front of the subjects of the third stage had gone. It was seen in the result that all the three groups of experimenters gave electric shock to the evaluator, but in the presence of gun and revolver, a substantial increase in the intensity of electric shock was found. It was found that the signals present in the environment lead to an increase in aggression. Later Turner (1977) and Lepens & Perk (Lepens & Perk, 1975) have

also confirmed the weapon effect through their own experiments.

(iv) **Individual in form of cue of aggression-** There is some such evidence in front of psychologists, on the basis of which it is said that not only weapons are effective as signals of aggression, but also such persons are effective as signals for aggression, who are in one way or the other. are closely related to aggression. Verkovitz and his associates (Berkowitz.et. 21. 1967) are of the opinion that if the person's name, face, occupation and other objects are related to aggression in any way, then in such a situation all these are aggression as signs of aggression inspire us to act. Perhaps this is the reason why often the name of notorious criminals makes us feel angry and aggressive. If somewhere his face is seen in newspapers or elsewhere, it incites further aggression.

(v) **Noise** - Social psychologists have also studied the effect of noise. High levels of noise can lead to an increase in aggression in an individual, provided the individual has been angered or provoked in some way prior to being exposed to noise. It means to say that noise generates aggression in a person only when the person is already excited. This fact has been confirmed in the studies of Konecni (Konecni, 1975) and Donnerstein & Wilson (Donnerstein & Wilson, 1976) and Geen (Geen, 1978). In a study by Dornstein and Wilson, subjects were asked to give themselves an electric shock. When they were saying electrocution, in such a situation they were heard noises of high and low intensity through headphones on the ears. The high intensity noise was 95 decibels. The result showed that subjects who had heard high-intensity noise had more electrocution, which means that aggressive behavior was found to be more in them. It was found that high level of noise increases the aggression of the individual.

In conclusion, it can be said that aggression is influenced by a variety of factors. It is necessary to pay attention to all these reasons in order to understand the aggressive behavior of the person.

### ❖ **Measures to prevent and remove Aggression:** -

Since aggression is socially undesirable behavior, social psychologists have described some measures to prevent and overcome it. The following are important in such measures-

1. **Retaliation** – It has been clear from the study done by social psychologists that if aggression is shown towards the target person, then if the expected retaliation from the target person is effective and intense, then this reduces the amount of aggression. Dollard and his associates (Dollard et al., 1939) have shown that expected retaliation deters an individual from behaving aggressively. Dornstein and Donnesrstein (Donnerstein & Donnesrstein, 1976) and Rogers (Rogers, 1983) have shown on the basis of their studies that when white subjects

were given the opportunity to display aggressive behavior towards black subjects and then black subjects. When given an opportunity to display counter-aggressive behavior by the black subjects, the aggressiveness of the white subjects decreased due to the ability of the black subjects to retaliate. Donnerstein (1972) has also shown on the basis of his study that when subjects have sufficient reason to suspect that the other person if he will retaliate as soon as he gets the opportunity, then the amount of aggression in the subjects also decreases. Dangrink & Levendeki (1972) have shown on the basis of their study that when a person knows that the amount of aggressiveness displayed by the retaliatory person will be high, then even in such a situation, aggressive behavior become less.

2. **Catharsis method** - Some psychologists are of the opinion that a person removes his aggression by catharsis method also. In this method, by expressing his aggression or anger towards the target person or object, the person reduces its intensity or frequency in the future. Freud and Lorenz have emphasized the significance of this method in their instinct theory. Some psychologists believe that aggression causes a decrease in physiological arousal, which leads to a decrease in the intensity of future aggression. Doob and Wood (1972) found in their study that immediate aggression reduces future aggression. In their study, according to the situation, some subjects were made angry by the experimenter's colleague. Half of the subjects were given the opportunity to electrocute the partner and the other half were asked to wait in a room and were not given any chance of electrocution. Finally, all subjects participated in the final phase of the experiment, in which the partner was once again given the opportunity to electrocute. The result found that the subjects who were given the initial opportunity to receive electric shock, did less electrocution in the final stage than the subjects who were not given such opportunity earlier. It is clear from this study that aggression can be controlled to some extent through self-expression. According to Baron (1977), one of the difficulties in accepting the results of this study is that according to them, aggressive response will affect future aggression only in those conditions when the subjects have been angry before. If the subjects are not enraged, this type of effect will not occur. Geen, Stonnner & Shope (1975) and Ebbesen, Duncan & Konecani (1975) have also found in their respective studies that immediate behavior of aggression can lead to later behavioral and verbal aggression increases instead of decreasing. Therefore, in conclusion it can be said that the usefulness of the method of discussion in reducing aggression is limited.

3. **Punishment:** Aggression is also reduced by punishment, although it has not been considered as a more effective method by social psychologists. Sears, Maccoby & Lewin (1957) have reported on the basis of their study that children who are subjected to excessive



physical punishment at home are more likely to show aggression towards people outside the home. The tendency is higher. These people have also found that children who are more aggressive, their parents have more tendencies to punish. Feldman (1985) has also pointed out that punishment does not reduce aggression. Yes, there must be some conditions in which the intensity of aggression can be reduced by punishment. But according to Baron (1977) such conditions or circumstances are quite limited. For the punishment to be effective, it is necessary that the person receiving the punishment should definitely feel that the punishment has been received by him as a legal consequence and not as a result of an unannounced and unprovoked incident. Not only this, the person who is punishing another person for aggressive behavior should ever present himself as an aggression model to the punished person. According to Baron, Byrne and Branscombe (2006), punishment can reduce aggression only when the following four basic conditions are met:

- (i) Punishment given should be prompt i.e. punishment is given immediately after the aggressive behaviour.
- (ii) The possibility of punishment is definitely made.
- (iii) The quantum of punishment should be strong and intense enough so that the punished person does not have the courage to behave aggressively again.
- (iv) The punishment is considered justified by the person receiving the punishment.

The question arises why has punishment proved to be an ineffective method in reducing aggression? The following three reasons have been given for this-

- (i) Corporal punishment produces anger in a person and anger again increases aggression instead of decreasing it.
- (ii) Individuals who punish others present themselves as a model from whom the punished person learns to commit aggression and is found to do so in future.
- (iii) The effect of punishment is often only momentary. Sulzer-Azaroff & Mayer (1984) is of the opinion that punishment may reduce aggression for a while, but such reduction will not last forever. It doesn't last.

**5. Social learning approach** - According to the social learning approach or theory, the way a person learns to behave aggressively by looking at an aggressive model, in the same way a person learns to behave aggressively by looking at an unaggressive model reducing the amount of aggression. Baron and Kepner (Baron & Kepner, 1970) have confirmed this fact by doing a study. In this study, one group of students observed the aggressive model and the other group observed the non-aggressive model. The results showed that

students who observed the non-aggressive model showed less aggression than the students who observed the aggressive model. Hoesmann and his colleagues (Hoesmann et al., 1983) have described a new technique for reducing aggression in humans, which emphasizes the interpretation of modeled behavior. In this technique, the aggressive behavior shown in television, cinemas etc. are unrealistic and they are visible to them because of all the camera tricks. Such aggressive behavior has no significance in the real world, etc. Huesmann and his associates (Huesmann et. 1983) have investigated the significance and validity of the above method by conducting a field study. In this study, two groups of students were prepared, the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group was given a new interpretation of the violence and aggression shown on television, in which the aggression shown was called unrealistic and camera trick. Special training was given for this. The control group, who also saw aggression and violence on television screens, was not given any such training. After that the behavior of these students was not evaluated by their classmates. The results showed that their classmates described the behavior of the students in the experimental group as less aggressive than the behavior of the students in the control group. It is clear from this study that the frequency and intensity of aggressive behavior can be reduced by bringing changes in people's perception and attitudes towards the meaning of aggression.

**5. Mild sexual arousal humor:** -It is recommended to reduce aggression through mild sexual arousal humor and humor etc. The underlying assumption is that a person cannot experience two incompatible responses or two conflicting emotional states at the same time. Therefore, when a person is in a state of aggression, if an emotional feeling like mild sexuality or humor etc. is generated in him, then naturally the aggression will reduce in him. Baron and Baal (1974) have confirmed this in one of their studies. In this study, the effects of humorous episodes on aggression were studied. All subjects in the study were coded by a colleague of the experimenter. After this, all the subjects were asked to rate a variety of pictures. Some users rated the picture mildly humorous while some other subjects evaluated neutral objects like table, chair etc. After all the subjects had rated the pictures, they were given the opportunity to electrocute the experimenter's colleague. As a result, it was seen that the subjects who had seen the funny pictures were better than the subjects who had seen the neutral pictures, electrocuted the colleague less. It is clear that the experiences of the context reduce the aggression of the person. Similar results have also been found by Mueller and Donnerstein (Mueller & Donnerstein, 1977) in their study.

Several studies have looked at the effect of different degrees of sexual arousal from erotic stimuli on aggression. Among these researchers, the names of Donnerstein and Evans (Donnerstein & Evans, 1975), Donnerstein (Donnerstein, 1983), Malmath and Donnerstein (Malmath & Donnerstein, 1982) and Zillman (Zillman, 1971) are more notable. Studies of these people have concluded that low or mild sexual arousal reduces the amount of aggression, but excessive sexual arousal increases the amount of aggression. Not only this, Donnerstein (1983) even found in his study that if signals of aggression are used along with erotic stimuli, such as rape scenes in sexy films, then it reduces the amount of aggression instead increases.

6. **Empathy:** -Some psychologists like Geen (Geen, 1972), Baron (1975), Fody (Frody, 1978) have shown from their studies that aggression decreases when empathy is generated. On the basis of these studies, these people have shown that as a result of aggressive and violent behavior, if the aggressor is shown the direction of the victim resulting from his attack or violence, then his aggression will decrease. She goes. The screams and pain of the victim cause emotional feelings like self-blame, sorrow, remorse in the aggressor, as a result of which it is not possible for that person to continue the aggression.

7. **Apology & Pre-attribution** — Apology is such a process. In which the person accepts his wrong behavior or actions and prays to forgive him. A study conducted by Ohbuchi, Kameda and Agaric (Ohbuchi Kameda & Agaric, 1989) has shown that apologies reduce aggression. The other person who is more aggressive behaves less towards the apologist. As we know, when a person is angry, there is a decrease in his ability to think properly, the person is not able to evaluate the consequences of his behavior properly and the person is unable to control his actions also unable to maintain control over behavior. Social psychologists are of the opinion that all those techniques which cause such cognitive deficit reduce aggression in a person. Apart from apology, pre attribution is also important in these techniques. Propagation is one such process. In which the person considers the reason for the aggressive behavior of others to be some unintentional causes. When he realizes this, he naturally resolves not to act so aggressively. The second technique is one in which the person prevents himself or others from remembering past mistakes, real or imagined. This also reduces aggression in a person.

8. **Forgiveness** – Forgiveness is also a technique that reduces aggression in a person. Forgiveness is a technique in which a person gives up the idea of punishing the person or

persons who has hurt them and instead acts cooperatively towards them. This fact has been confirmed by McCullough and his colleagues (McCullough et al., 2001) on the basis of their research. Then later McCullough, Fincham and Song (McCullough, Fincham & Tsang, 2003) have shown that in reality the first goal i.e. the goal of giving up the feeling of revenge is easily reached but the second goal i.e. Forget the dirty behavior done by the other person to the extent that cooperation with him Started showing, it is a bit difficult. Then the first of these two goals is sufficient to reduce aggression because it not only reduces the desire to hurt the person who has behaved badly, but also the person's own psychological satisfaction (mental satisfaction) and a person's sense of self-esteem is strong and negative emotions decrease. This fact has been confirmed by Karremans and his colleagues (Karremans et al., 2003) in their study. In this study, participants were requested to think of an incident in which someone had insulted you. They were then administered a test to measure whether they had forgiven that person. Based on the score on the test, they were told whether they had forgiven that person or were successful in not being able to forgive. Finally, participants' current stress and psychological well-being were measured. The results showed that participants who were given the belief that they had forgiven had higher self-esteem and lower levels of negative affect, while participants who were not given the belief had lower self-esteem and higher levels of negative affect. They were found to have low levels of self-esteem and high levels of negative affect. Some other studies have also observed that the benefits of apologizing depend on the relationship between the person himself and the person who insulted him. If the person who insults is a close relative of the person who is insulted, the person who suffers the insult forgives him very soon. This is clear from the study done by Berry and his colleagues (Berry et al., 2007). There are two traits in people who forgive, which differentiate them from people who do not forgive in general. These two qualities are agreeableness i.e. such people trust others and help them and emotional stability i.e. such people are less affected by negative moods and emotions.

### **Q.1 Define Aggression.**

**Ans.** Aggression is a word that we use every day to characterize the behavior of others and perhaps even of ourselves. We say that people are aggressive if they yell at or hit each other, if they cut off other cars in traffic, or even when they smash their fists on the table in frustration. But other harmful acts, such as the injuries that sports players receive during a rough game or the killing of enemy soldiers in a war might not be viewed by everyone as

aggression. Because aggression is so difficult to define, social psychologists, judges, and politicians (as well as many other people, including lawyers), have spent a great deal of time trying to determine what should and should not be considered aggression. Doing so forces us to make use of the processes of causal attribution to help us determine the reasons for the behavior of others.

Social psychologists define aggression as behavior that is intended to harm another individual who does not wish to be harmed (Baron & Richardson, 1994). Because it involves the perception of intent, what looks like aggression from one point of view may not look that way from another, and the same harmful behavior may or may not be considered aggressive depending on its intent.

Intentional harm is, however, perceived as worse than unintentional harm, even when the harms are identical (Ames & Fiske, 2013).

## **Q.2 Explain the types of Aggression.**

**Ans.** Social psychologists agree that aggression can be verbal as well as physical. Therefore, slinging insults at a friend is definitely aggressive, according to our definition, just as hitting someone is. Physical aggression is aggression that involves harming others physically—for instance hitting, kicking, stabbing, or shooting them. Non-Physical aggression is aggression that does not involve physical harm. Nonphysical aggression includes verbal aggression (yelling, screaming, swearing, and name calling) and relational or social aggression, which is defined as intentionally harming another person's social relationships, for instance, by gossiping about another person, excluding others from our friendship, or giving others the “silent treatment” (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Nonverbal aggression also occurs in the form of sexual, racial, and homophobic jokes and epithets, which are designed to cause harm to individuals.

## **Q.3 What are the causes of aggression?**

**Ans.** Although specific causes of aggression are not known, some studies have shown that abnormal brain chemistry or structural changes may play a role. Environment and genetics also seem to be involved. Aggression is a potential symptom of diseases, disorders or conditions that interfere with thought processes, such as dementia, post-traumatic stress disorder, schizophrenia, and a number of personality disorders.

Psychiatric and cognitive causes of aggression

Aggression may be caused by psychiatric or cognitive diseases, disorders or conditions. Aggression can also be caused by other diseases, disorders or conditions including Brain

tumors and Head injury.

#### **Q.4 Explain The General Aggression Model.**

**Ans.** (GAM) is a comprehensive, integrative, framework for understanding aggression. It considers the role of social, cognitive, personality, developmental, and biological factors on aggression.

Proximate processes of GAM detail how person and situation factors influence cognitions, feelings, and arousal, which in turn affect appraisal and decision processes, which in turn influence aggressive or nonaggressive behavioral outcomes. Each cycle of the proximate processes serves as a learning trial that affects the development and accessibility of aggressive knowledge structures. Distal processes of GAM detail how biological and persistent environmental factors can influence personality through changes in knowledge structures. GAM has been applied to understand aggression in many contexts including media violence effects, domestic violence, intergroup violence, temperature effects, pain effects, and the effects of global climate change.

#### **Q5 Explain Frustration–aggression hypothesis.**

**Ans.** known as the frustration–aggression–displacement theory, is a theory of aggression proposed by John Dollard, Neal Miller, Leonard Doob, Orval Mowrer, and Robert Sears in 1939 and further developed by Neal Miller in 1941 and Leonard Berkowitz in 1969. The theory says that aggression is the result of blocking, or frustrating, a person's efforts to attain a goal.

When first formulated, the hypothesis stated that frustration always precedes aggression, and aggression is the sure consequence of frustration. Two years later, however, Miller and Sears re-formulated the hypothesis to suggest that while frustration creates a need to respond, some form of aggression is one possible outcome. Therefore, the re-formulated hypothesis stated that while frustration prompts a behavior that may or may not be aggressive, any aggressive behavior is the result of frustration, making frustration not sufficient, but a necessary condition for aggression.

The hypothesis attempts to explain why people scapegoat.[7] It attempts to give an explanation as to the cause of violence.[8] According to Dollard and colleagues, frustration is the "condition which exists when a goal-response suffers interference," while aggression is defined as "an act whose goal-response is injury to an organism (or an organism surrogate)."

The theory says that frustration causes aggression, but when the source of the frustration cannot be challenged, the aggression gets displaced onto an innocent target. For example, if a man is disrespected and humiliated at his work, but cannot respond to this for fear of losing his job, he may go home and take his anger and frustration out on his family. This theory is also used to explain riots and revolutions, which both are believed to be caused by poorer and more deprived sections of society who may express their bottled up frustration and anger through violence.

#### **Q.6 Describe Sources of Aggression.**

**Ans.** Like frustration, aggression may arise out of the physical or psychological environment. Emotional insecurity engendered by loss of love and affection may lead to aggression. Children, who have not been loved and cared for properly, are more likely to react to punishment by retaliatory aggressiveness.

Aggression is a learned form of social behaviour. Like any other form of activity, it is acquired and maintained. In the opinion of Bandura aggressive behaviour is encouraged as people receive or anticipate various forms of reward for performing certain actions and when they do not receive such reward, they are frustrated and show aggressive behaviour. Further, aggressive behaviour also occurs because of direct instigation by specific social or environmental conditions.

The social learning theory of aggression holds that the roots of aggressive behaviour are quite varied in scope involving aggressors past experience, learning and various external and situational factors. Sometimes children are encouraged and even rewarded by the parents and neighborhood for certain aggressive behaviour.

Similarly Soldiers and Military personnel's receive award, medals and prestigious titles for killing enemy troops during times of war. Currently sportsmen and athletes receive wide spread admiration, huge financial rewards, good jobs, social prestige and psychological satisfaction by competing in an aggressive manner.

On the contrary, if a person feels perfectly secured, he will show minimum aggression to frustrating encounters. An over indulgent and over protected child getting excessive love and shelter from the parents, whose behaviour is not restricted or checked may show aggressive behaviour without inhibition. Such a child fails to develop frustration tolerance and his aggressive reactions take violent form. Sometimes such a child becomes overtly aggressive as he wants to get punishment.

The Captains of industry, the great scholars, politicians, executives who have achieved name

and fame may still be struggling with inner feeling of unworthiness and failure, the outcome of which may be anger and hostility.

Aggression therefore occurs when the individual is dethroned from a dominant role with its accompanying frustration, insecurity and feelings of inferiority. And finally a child may show aggressive behaviour because it is the only technique he has learnt to handle frustrating situations.

However, whether frustration increases overt aggression or fails to enhance it depends greatly on two factors:

- (a) Frustration enhances aggression only when the frustration is quite internalised.
- (b) Aggression may fail to be enhanced when the frustration is moderate or mild.

When the frustration is perceived as legitimate and due or deserving by the person experiencing the frustration it may not facilitate aggression. But aggression is more likely to occur when someone perceives the frustration to be undeserving, arbitrary or illegitimate.

Physical abuse, verbal taunts, attack to the ego, insults are powerful elicitors of aggressive actions. Studies show that even there is a positive correlation between viewing televised violence and aggression. Thus, the more children watch violent serials, tele- Films and Films in T.V. or Cinema, the greater is their level of aggression against others.

Among the other environmental determinants, effects of noise, crowd and air pollution etc. are important. Heightened physiological arousal, vigorous exercise, competitive activity and exposure to provocative films are some of the situational determinants leading to overt aggression.

Pain, hormones and drugs also determine ones aggressive behaviour. It is found that while a small dose of alcohol inhibits aggression, large doses facilitate it. There are also evidences to show that increased aggression occurs due to irritable focal lesions, certain forms of epilepsy, particularly tumours in temporal lobe and Psycho motor temporal lobe tumours.

Frontal lobe lesions, abnormal discharges in the medial amygdala etc. Animal studies indicate that stimulation of the lateral and medial hypothalamus result in different types of aggression and that the amygdala has a critical role in aggression.

However, excessive aggressive outburst is undesirable not only for the person but also for the society.

## **Q.7 What are the methods to Prevent and Control Aggression?**



It is necessary to prevent and control aggression by the following methods:

### **Punishment as a deterrent:**

The frequency or intensity of aggressive behaviour can be reduced by mild forms of punishment like social disapproval and scolding etc. But punishment may not always be effective. Strong punishment on the oilier hand may lead to more aggression and produce negative results.

### **Training to social skills:**

People lacking in basic social skills do not know how to communicate effectively and hence adopt a type of aggressive self-expression. Aggression in such people can be reduced by giving training on social skill to such persons.

Social skill training has been applied to diverse groups of persons including highly aggressive teen agers, police and even child abusive parents. Increased interpersonal communication, improved ability to handle rejection and stress etc. have very often led to reduction of aggressive behaviour. It is therefore concluded that training in appropriate social skills can offer a promising approval to the reduction of human violence.

### **Empathy:**

Exposure to signs of pain or discomfort on the part of the victim has been found to inhibit further aggression. Besides, humour, drug treatment and clinical monitoring can be helpful for aggressive persons suffering from Psychiatric disorder.

### **Society, culture and aggression:**

A comparative study of different cultures shows that aggression differs according to the cultural variation. Studies of Mead and Benedict serve powerful evidence in support of this view. People belonging to the Arapesh tribe are calm and quiet, peace loving, cooperative and submissive. Life is easy for them to pass probably because their frustrations are less and whatever frustrations they have, they have learnt to handle them in nonaggressive ways.

### **Sublimation of aggression:**

The reflection of aggression is evident in art and literature. Especially in modern poets we find an angry rejection of the world due to the severe frustration that the individual meets at every stage of life. These aggressive reactions are sublimated in many artistic creations. Probably many such creations currently reveal the universal cry of aggressions.

Aggression is also sublimated and channelized in adventure, discovery and sports in a

socially acceptable way. The climax of aggressiveness is experienced in war. Durbin and Bowlby in their book "Personal Aggressiveness and War" have commented that the raw material of war lies in the aggressiveness of humanity.

### **Utility of aggressiveness:**

Aggression always carries an overtone of disapproval as violence, hostility and dominancy is condemned in every society. But they are tolerated only when they are justified. For example, a sexual pervert wants to rape a small girl. In defence if the victim kills the antisocial person, her aggressive behaviour may not be condemned by the society. But nevertheless, a certain amount of admiration with a little disapproval is expressed for the aggressive person, because such a person is said to have self-confidence, courage and strength of character.

It may, therefore, be held that the common man shows an ambivalent attitude towards aggressive behaviour ranging from strong condemnation to mild disapproval at one end and from reluctant admiration to powerful fascination at the other end.

Aggression is inevitable. Even children from happy homes show a lot of spontaneous aggression. Aggression is more or less universally experienced and it is a fact that some amount of aggression is required to struggle for existence. Hence one cannot and need not make himself totally immune from aggressive experience.

Nevertheless, extreme form of aggression becomes pathological. It undoubtedly ruins the personality of the individual. When aggression becomes a trait in the personality of such people, it becomes a sort of character disorder and stands on the way of normal and integrated personality development.

### **Q8 Define Aggression through different perspective.**

**Ans.** Aggression is behavior, verbal or physical, intended to physically hurt or harm in some other way another person or thing. Whether aggression is manifested by individuals or groups (including nations), it is the most destructive force in social relations and consequently an important social issue. A major concern in either individual or group aggression is its origin.

Biology has a role in aggression. Genetic influences play a major part in some aggression, as evidenced in animals specifically bred to exhibit such behavior. Studies of identical twins have frequently shown that if one twin exhibits aggressive behavior, the other often does so as well. Aggression may also have a neural basis; aggressive behavior has been produced in animals through electrical stimulation of parts of the brain.

Konrad Lorenz, an ethologist, proposed that aggression arises from instincts and that such

instincts help members of a species maximize the use of food, space, and other resources. Other biologists have studied the aggression produced by exposing the nervous system to chemicals (drugs, such as alcohol) or hormones (such as testosterone).

Learning theorists such as John Dollard have suggested that frustration of goal-directed behavior leads to aggression (the frustration-aggression hypothesis). Imagine your response, for example, if after you've stood in line for hours to get game tickets, the person just ahead of you gets the last ones.

Social learning, acquisition of behaviors by watching others, is believed to function in learning aggressive behaviors. Research has shown that children model aggressive behavior, and data exist that suggest that exposure to media violence increases a person's tendency to be aggressive. Domestic violence (in which a person is beaten by her or his spouse) is a serious modern social problem. Studies indicate that male abusers often come from families in which the mother was abused or have frequently observed other violence.



**Biyani Girls College**  
**Sample Paper**  
**B.A. Part-1st**  
**Subject- Psychology**  
**(Social Psychology)**  
**Paper-2**  
**Set-A**

**Time Allowed:3 hours.**

**M.M.:75**

**SEC-A VERY SHORT QUESTIONS. (Attempt any five)**

**(5x2)**

- Q.1 Definition of social psychology.
- Q.2 Define Attitude.
- Q.3 Define Prejudice.
- Q.4 What is non-verbal communication?
- Q.5 Define Aggression.
- Q.6 Definition of leadership.
- Q.7 Define the meaning of prejudice. Define
- Q.8 Pro-social behavior.

**SEC-B SHORT QUESTIONS. (ATTEMPT ANY FOUR)**

**(5x4)**

- Q.9 What is the goals of social psychology.
- Q.10 What is meant by person perception.
- Q.11 What are the main types of leader.
- Q.12 Explain bystanders effect.
- Q.13 Differentiate between stereotype and Discrimination.

**SEC-C**

**LONG QUESTIONS(ATTEMPT ANY THREE)**

**(15x3)**

- Q.14 Describe major method of social psychology.  
Or
- Q.15 Explain the scope of social psychology.
- Q.16 What is communication explain with basic model.  
Or
- Q.17 Describe the Determinants of Prosocial behavior.
- Q.18 Explain the Types of leadership given by Bogardus.  
Or
- Q.19 Explain Aggression with theories.



**Biyani Girls College**  
**Sample Paper**  
**B.A. Part-1st**  
**Subject- Psychology**  
**(Social Psychology)**  
**Paper-2**  
**Set-B**

**Time: 3Hrs.**

**M.M.75**

**Very Short Questions.(ATTEMPT ANY FIVE)**

**(5×2)**

- Q.1 What is social Perception?
- Q.2 What is attitude?
- Q.3 Define aggression?
- Q.4 What is non-verbal communication.
- Q.5 What is person perception?
- Q.6 Definition of leadership.
- Q.7 Define the meaning of prejudice.
- Q.8 Define Prosocial behavior.

**Short Questions. (ATTEMPT ANY FOUR)**

**(4X5)**

- Q.9 What are the social determinants of Pro-social behavior?
- Q.10 Discuss the types of communication.
- Q.11 Explain the characteristics of Prejudice.
- Q.12 Describe the characteristics of leaders.
- Q.13 Explain the determinants of inter Personal Attraction.

**Long questions. (ATTEMPT ANY THREE)**

**(15X3)**

- Q.14 Describe methods of social Psychology.

OR

- Q.15 What is communication explain with types?
- Q.16 Explain the types of leadership given by Bogardus.

OR

- Q.17 How attitudes are formed.
- Q.18 What is interpersonal attraction? throw light upon the role of personal factors in interpersonal attraction.

OR

- Q.19 Discuss some of the barriers to effective communication.

## B.A./B.Sc. (Part-I) EXAMINATION - 2022

101117

(Common for the Faculties of Arts &amp; Science)

[Also Common with Subsidiary Paper of B.A./B.Sc. (Hons.) Part - I]

(Three-Year Scheme of 10+2+3 Pattern)

## PSYCHOLOGY - II

(Social Psychology)

Time Allowed : 3 Hours

समय : 3 घण्टे

Maximum Marks  
अधिकतम अंक75 for Arts,  
50 for Science.  
कला के लिए 75,  
विज्ञान के लिए 50

NOTE :

सूचना :

1. Write your roll number on question paper before start writing answers of questions.  
प्रश्नों के उत्तर लिखने से पूर्व प्रश्न-पत्र पर रोल नम्बर अवश्य लिखिए।
2. No supplementary answer-book will be given to any candidate. Hence the candidates should write the answers precisely in the main answer-book only.  
किसी भी परीक्षार्थी को पूरक उत्तर-पुस्तिका नहीं दी जाएगी। अतः परीक्षार्थियों को चाहिए कि वे मुख्य उत्तर-पुस्तिका में ही समस्त प्रश्नों के उत्तर लिखें।
3. Question paper consists of **three** Sections. **All three** sections are **compulsory**.  
प्रश्न पत्र तीन खण्डों में विभाजित है। सभी तीनों खण्ड अनिवार्य हैं।
4. Section-A : Will contains 10 questions of 20 words each. Each will be of 1.5 marks for Arts students and 1 mark for Science students. Thus, Section-A will be of 15 marks for Arts students and of 10 marks of Science students.  
खण्ड-अ में 10 प्रश्न हैं और प्रत्येक प्रश्न के लिए कला के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 1.5 अंक और विज्ञान के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 1 अंक निर्धारित है। प्रत्येक प्रश्न का उत्तर 20 शब्दों से अधिक नहीं होना चाहिए। खंड-अ में कला विद्यार्थियों के लिए 15 अंक, और विज्ञान विद्यार्थियों के लिए 10 अंक निर्धारित किया गया है।
5. Section-B : Will contains 7 questions of 50 words each, out of which students are required to attempt 5 questions. Each question will be of 3 marks for Arts students and 2 marks for Science students. Thus, Section-B will be of 15 marks for Arts students and 10 marks for Science Students.  
खण्ड-ब में 7 प्रश्न हैं और प्रत्येक प्रश्न के लिए कला के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 3 अंक और विज्ञान के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 2 अंक निर्धारित हैं। कुल पाँच प्रश्नों के उत्तर दीजिए। प्रत्येक प्रश्न का उत्तर 50 शब्दों से अधिक नहीं होना चाहिए। खंड-ब में कला विद्यार्थियों के लिए 15 अंक, और विज्ञान विद्यार्थियों के लिए 10 अंक निर्धारित किया गया है।
6. Section-C : Will contain 3 long questions each with internal choice. Each question will be of 15 marks for Arts students and of 10 marks of Science students.  
खण्ड-स से तीन प्रश्नों के उत्तर दीजिए, जिनमें प्रत्येक प्रश्न में आन्तरिक विकल्प दिया गया है। प्रत्येक प्रश्न कला के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 15 अंक और विज्ञान के विद्यार्थियों के लिए 10 अंक निर्धारित हैं।

1. Write brief answers in 20 words :

20 शब्दों में संक्षिप्त उत्तर दीजिये :

- (a) What is social perception ?  
सामाजिक प्रत्यक्षण क्या है ?
- (b) What is experimental method ?  
प्रयोगात्मक विधि क्या है ?
- (c) Define attitude.  
मनोवृत्ति को परिभाषित कीजिये।
- (d) Define discrimination.  
विभेद को परिभाषित कीजिये।
- (e) What do you mean by interpersonal attraction ?  
अन्तर्वैयक्तिक आकर्षण से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
- (f) What is an attitude change ?  
मनोवृत्ति परिवर्तन क्या है ?
- (g) What is leadership ?  
नेतृत्व क्या है ?
- (h) What do you mean by communication ?  
संचार से आप क्या समझते हैं ?
- (i) Define Pro Social Behaviour.  
प्रति सामाजिक (Pro Social) व्यवहार को परिभाषित कीजिये।
- (j) Define aggression.  
आक्रामता (aggression) को परिभाषित कीजिये।

SECTION - B / खण्ड - ब

2. Describe scope of Social Psychology.

समाज मनोविज्ञान के कार्य क्षेत्र (scope) का वर्णन कीजिये।

3. Describe meaning and nature of Person Perception.

व्यक्ति प्रत्यक्षण का अर्थ एवं स्वरूप का वर्णन कीजिये।

4. Are you familiar with Likert's Scaling method of attitude measurement ?

क्या आप मनोवृत्ति मापन के लिंकर्ट मापनी विधि से परिचित हैं ?

5. Describe nature of Prejudice.

पूर्वाग्रह के स्वरूप का वर्णन कीजिये।

6. What is the difference between Authoritarian leader and Democratic leader.

सत्तावादी नेता एवं प्रजातन्त्रात्मक नेता में क्या अन्तर है ?

7. Describe some of the barriers in communication.

संचार के मार्ग में कुछ बाधाओं का वर्णन कीजिये।

8. Describe main types of Social Problems.

सामाजिक समस्याओं के प्रमुख प्रकारों का वर्णन कीजिये।

SECTION - C / खण्ड - स

9. Discuss experimental method of Social Psychology.  
समाज मनोविज्ञान के प्रयोगात्मक विधि की विवेचना कीजिये।

OR / अथवा

How can we change attitude ?

हम मनोवृत्ति परिवर्तन कैसे कर सकते हैं ?

10. How can we reduce Prejudice and discrimination ?  
पूर्वाग्रह एवं विभेद को हम लोग कैसे कम कर सकते हैं ?

OR / अथवा

Describe various functions of leader.

नेता के विभिन्न कार्यों का वर्णन कीजिये।

11. Discuss the determinants of Pro Social Behaviour.  
प्रति सामाजिक व्यवहार के निर्धारकों की विवेचना कीजिये।

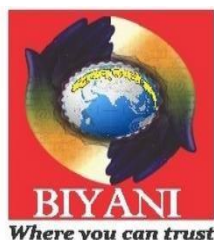
OR / अथवा

Describe various types of Communication.

संचार के विभिन्न प्रकार का वर्णन कीजिये।

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**Biyani Girls College**  
**Department of Social Science**  
**Mid-term Examination 2022-23**

**Class: BA Part I**

**Unit Covered: Unit I**

**Subject: Social Psychology (Paper-II) (SET-A)**

**Faculty Name: - Ms. Gunjan Agarwal**

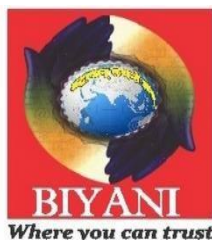
**Time: 1:30 Hrs.**

**MM: 50 Marks**

**Note:** Answer of all the questions (short answer as well as descriptive) are to be given in the main answer – book only. Answers of short answer type questions must be given in sequential order. Similarly all the parts of one question of descriptive part should be answered at one place in the answer – book. One complete questions should not be answered at different places in the answer – book. Write your roll number on question paper before start writing answers of questions.

| S.No.          | Questions   | MM                      | CO's Mapping         | Bloom Taxonomy Level | POs & PSOs Mapping |
|----------------|---|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Part- A</b> |   |                         |                      |                      |                    |
|                | <b>Contains 5 questions. Each carrying 2 marks.</b>                     | <b>(5*2 = 10 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 &amp; CO2</b> | <b>Level-1,2</b>     |                    |
| Q1             | What do you mean by Social Psychology?                                  | 2                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q2             | Compare the difference between Social Perception and Person Perception. | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q3             | Explain the meaning of perceptual defense and perceptual accentuation.  | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q4             | Explain the role of Non- Verbal cues.                                   | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q5             | Define the goals of Social Psychology.                                  | 2                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |

| <b>Part – B</b> |  |                         |                      |                     |                |
|-----------------|--|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------|
|                 | <b>Attempt all five questions.</b>   | <b>(5*4 = 20 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 &amp; CO2</b> | <b>Level-1,2</b>    |                |
| Q.1             | Define the scope and goals of Social Psychology.                             | 4                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | What are the Non-Experimental Methods of Social Psychology?                  | 4                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.3             | Explain characteristics of ongoing interaction.                              | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.4             | Explain the meaning and nature of Social Perception.                         | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.5             | Illustrate the meaning of Subliminal Perception.                             | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>Part – C</b> |  |                         |                      |                     |                |
|                 | <b>Attempt any one.</b>  | <b>(20*1=20 marks)</b>  | <b>CO1/CO2</b>       | <b>Level-1/2</b>    |                |
| Q.1             | Explain in detail the meaning of Social Perception and Person Perception.    | 10                      | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | Discuss the Experimental and Non- Experimental Methods of Social Psychology. | 10                      | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |



**Biyani Girls College**  
**Department of Social Science**  
**Mid-term Examination 2022-2023**

**Class: BA Part I**

**Unit Covered: Unit I**

**Subject: Social Psychology (Paper-II) (SET-B)**

**Faculty Name: - Ms. Gunjan Agarwal**

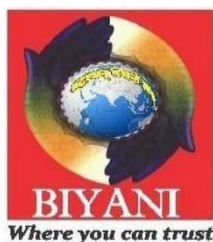
**Time: 1:30 Hrs.**

**MM: 50 Marks**

**Note:** Answer of all the questions (short answer as well as descriptive) are to be given in the main answer – book only. Answers of short answer type questions must be given in sequential order. Similarly all the parts of one question of descriptive part should be answered at one place in the answer – book. One complete questions should not be answered at different places in the answer – book. Write your roll number on question paper before start writing answers of questions.

| S.No.          | Questions   | MM                      | CO's Mapping         | Bloom Taxonomy Level | POs & PSOs Mapping |
|----------------|---|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Part- A</b> |   |                         |                      |                      |                    |
|                | <b>Contains 5 questions. Each carrying 2 marks.</b>                     | <b>(5*2 = 10 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 &amp; CO2</b> | <b>Level-1,2</b>     |                    |
| Q1             | Define the goals of Social Psychology.                                  | 2                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q2             | Explain the rol of Non- Verbal cues.                                    | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q3             | Compare the difference between Social Perception and Person Perception. | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q4             | Explain the meaning of perceptual defense and perceptual accentuation.  | 2                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2)  | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |
| Q5             | What do you mean by Social Psychology?                                  | 2                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1,PO3 & PSO3     |

| <b>Part – B</b> |  |                         |                      |                     |                |
|-----------------|--|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------|
|                 | <b>Attempt all five questions.</b>   | <b>(5*4 = 20 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 &amp; CO2</b> | <b>Level-1,2</b>    |                |
| Q.1             | What are the Non-Experimental Methods of Social Psychology?                  | 4                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | Define the scope and goals of Social Psychology.                             | 4                       | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.3             | Explain characteristics of ongoing interaction.                              | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.4             | Illustrate the meaning of Subliminal Perception.                             | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.5             | Explain the meaning and nature of Social Perception.                         | 4                       | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>Part – C</b> |  |                         |                      |                     |                |
|                 | <b>Attempt any one.</b>  | <b>(20*1=20 marks)</b>  | <b>CO1/CO2</b>       | <b>Level-1/2</b>    |                |
| Q.1             | Explain in detail the meaning of Social Perception and Person Perception.    | 10                      | CO2                  | Understanding (L-2) | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | Discuss the Experimental and Non- Experimental Methods of Social Psychology. | 10                      | CO1                  | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1,PO3 & PSO3 |



**Biyani Girls College**  
**Department of Social Science**  
**Pre-University Examination 2022-23**

**Class: BA Part I**

**Unit Covered: Unit I, II, III**

**Subject: Social Psychology (Paper-II)**

**Time: 3:00 Hrs.**

**MM: 75 Marks**

**Note:** Answers of all the questions (short answer as well as descriptive) are to be given in the main answer book only. Answers of short answer type questions must be given in sequential order. Similarly, all the parts of one question of descriptive part should be answered at one place in the answer book. One complete question should not be answered at different places in the answer book. Write your roll number on the question paper before starting writing answers of questions.

| S.No.           | Questions   | M.M.                       | CO's Mapping      | Bloom Taxonomy Level | POs & PSOs Mapping   |
|-----------------|---|----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Part- A</b>  |   |                            |                   |                      |                      |
|                 | <b>Contains 10 questions. Each carrying 1.5 marks.</b>                          | <b>(10*1.5 = 15 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 to CO5</b> | <b>Level- 1 to 6</b> |                      |
| Q.1             | What do you mean by social psychology?  | 1.5                        | CO1               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | What is social perception?  | 1.5                        | CO2               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.3             | Define attitude.  | 1.5                        | CO2               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.4             | What is prejudice?  | 1.5                        | CO3               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.5             | Define interpersonal attraction.  | 1.5                        | CO4               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.6             | What is leadership?   | 1.5                        | CO4               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.7             | What is prosocial behaviour?  | 1.5                        | CO6               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.8             | Define poverty.   | 1.5                        | CO6               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.9             | What is Aggression?   | 1.5                        | CO6               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.10            | What is communication?  | 1.5                        | CO5               | Remembering (L-1)    | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>Part – B</b> |   |                            |                   |                      |                      |
|                 | <b>Contains 7 questions. Each Carrying 3 marks. Attempt any five questions.</b> | <b>(5*3 = 15 marks)</b>    | <b>CO1 to CO5</b> | <b>Level- 1 to 6</b> |                      |

|                 |   |                        |                   |                     |                      |
|-----------------|---|------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| Q.1             | Write scope of Social Psychology?   | 3                      | CO1               | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | What is observation and its types?  | 3                      | CO1               | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.3             | Difference between prejudices and discrimination.   | 3                      | CO3               | Analyzing (L-4)     | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.4             | How are prejudices are acquired?  | 3                      | CO3               | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.5             | Explain determinants of interpersonal attraction.   | 3                      | CO4               | Understanding (L-2) | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.6             | Write major types of Leadership.  | 3                      | CO4               | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.7             | What are the social determinants of aggression? Explain.  | 3                      | CO6               | Remembering (L-1)   | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>Part – C</b> |   |                        |                   |                     |                      |
|                 | <b>Contain 3 long questions each with internal choice. Each question will be of 15 marks.</b>   | <b>(3*15=45 marks)</b> | <b>CO1 to CO5</b> | <b>Level-1 to 6</b> |                      |
| Q.1             | Explain the goals of social psychology. Discuss non- experimental methods of social psychology. | 15                     | CO1               | Understanding (L-2) | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>OR</b>       |   |                        |                   |                     |                      |
| Q.1             | Discuss the factors that influence change and formation of attitude.                            | 15                     | CO2               | Creating (L-6)      | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.2             | Explain trait and situational approaches of leadership.   | 15                     | CO4               | Understanding (L-2) | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>OR</b>       |   |                        |                   |                     |                      |
| Q.2             | Discuss the nature and major types of communication.  | 15                     | CO3               | Creating (L-6)      | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| Q.3             | Discuss the prevention and controls of aggression.  | 15                     | CO6               | Creating (L-6)      | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |
| <b>OR</b>       |   |                        |                   |                     |                      |
| Q.3             | Explain the hypothesis behind the social behaviors.   | 15                     | CO6               | Understanding (L-2) | PO1, PO2, PO3 & PSO3 |