

UGC-NET PSYCHOLOGY

National Testing Agency (NTA)

PAPER 2 || VOLUME – 4



UGC NET Paper – 2 (SOCIOLOGY)

	UNIT - VIII : Social Psychology	
1.	Nature, Scope, and History of Social Psychology	1
2.	Traditional Theoretical Perspectives	6
3.	Traditional Theoretical Perspectives (Part 2)	11
4.	Traditional Theoretical Perspectives (Part 3)	17
5.	Social Perception (Part 1: Communication)	22
6.	Social Perception (Part 2: Attributions)	27
7.	Attitude and Its Change Within Cultural Context	32
8.	Prosocial Behavior	39
9.	Group and Social Influence (Part 1)	44
10.	Social Influence (Part 2)	51
11.	Social Influence (Part 3)	59
12.	Aggression	68
13.	Theories of Intergroup Relations, Applied Social Psychology, Personal Space, Crowding, Territoriality	74
	UNIT - IX : Human Development and Interventions	
1.	Developmental Processes (Nature, Principles, Factors, Stages)	84
2.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging)	+
۷.	Developmental Flocesses (Successful Aging)	90
3.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging)	90 96
3.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging)	96
3. 4.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical)	96
3. 4. 5.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive)	96 102 110
3. 4. 5. 6.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language)	96 102 110 119
3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral)	96 102 110 119 127
3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral) Psychopathology (Concept, Mental Status Examination, Classification)	96 102 110 119 127 134
3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral) Psychopathology (Concept, Mental Status Examination, Classification) Psychopathology (Causes)	96 102 110 119 127 134 141
3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral) Psychopathology (Concept, Mental Status Examination, Classification) Psychopathology (Causes) Psychotherapies (Psychoanalysis, Person-Centered, Gestalt, Existential)	96 102 110 119 127 134 141 148
3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral) Psychopathology (Concept, Mental Status Examination, Classification) Psychopathology (Causes) Psychotherapies (Psychoanalysis, Person-Centered, Gestalt, Existential) Psychotherapies (Act, Behavior Therapy, REBT, CBT, MBCT) Psychotherapies (Play Therapy, Positive Psychotherapy, Transactional Analysis, DBT,	96 102 110 119 127 134 141 148 156
3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11.	Developmental Processes (Successful Aging) Theories of Development (Psychoanalytical) Theories of Development (Behavioristic and Cognitive) Aspects of Development (Sensory-Motor, Cognitive, Language) Aspects of Development (Emotional, Social, Moral) Psychopathology (Concept, Mental Status Examination, Classification) Psychopathology (Causes) Psychotherapies (Psychoanalysis, Person-Centered, Gestalt, Existential) Psychotherapies (Act, Behavior Therapy, REBT, CBT, MBCT) Psychotherapies (Play Therapy, Positive Psychotherapy, Transactional Analysis, DBT, Art Therapy, Performing Art Therapy, Family Therapy)	96 102 110 119 127 134 141 148 156 166

	UNIT - X : Emerging Areas	
16.	Issues of Gender (Cultural Bias, Discrimination, Stigma, Marginalization)	202
17.	Issues of Poverty (Cultural Bias, Discrimination, Stigma, Marginalization, Social Suffering)	209
18.	Issues of Disability (Cultural Bias, Discrimination, Stigma, Marginalization, Social Suffering)	216
19.	Issues of Migration (Cultural Bias, Discrimination, Stigma, Marginalization, Social Suffering)	224
20.	Child Abuse and Domestic Violence	231
21.	Peace Psychology (Violence, Non-Violence, Conflict Resolution at Macro Level)	239
22.	Peace Psychology (Role of Media in Conflict Resolution)	248
23.	Wellbeing and Self-Growth (Types of Wellbeing, Character Strengths)	254
24.	Wellbeing and Self-Growth (Resilience, Post-Traumatic Growth)	261
25.	Health (Health Promoting and Health Compromising Behaviors, Lifestyle and Chronic Diseases)	269
26.	Health (Psychoneuroimmunology: Cancer, HIV/AIDS)	277
27.	Psychology and Technology Interface (Digital Learning, Digital Etiquette, Cyberbullying, Cyber Pornography, Parental Mediation)	285



Social Psychology

Nature, Scope, and History of Social Psychology

Introduction

Social Psychology, is a pivotal area that examines how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the presence, actions, or imagined presence of others. This unit explores the dynamics of social interactions, group processes, and societal influences, making it essential for understanding human behavior in social contexts. This first part introduces the **nature**, **scope**, and **history** of social psychology, providing a foundational overview of its definition, key areas, interdisciplinary connections, and historical development.

Nature of Social Psychology

Definition

Social Psychology is the scientific study of how individuals' **thoughts**, **feelings**, and **behaviors** are influenced by the **actual**, **imagined**, **or implied presence** of others (Allport, 1985). It focuses on the interplay between individual psychology and social contexts, emphasizing social interactions and societal influences.

Key Characteristics:

- o **Scientific**: Relies on empirical methods (e.g., experiments, surveys).
- Individual-Social Interface: Examines individual behavior within social settings.
- o **Dynamic**: Considers bidirectional influences (e.g., person affects group, group affects person).
- Contextual: Accounts for cultural, situational, and environmental factors.
- **Example**: A student conforms to classroom norms due to peer influence, reflecting social psychology's focus on social impact.

Core Elements

Thoughts:

- Cognitive processes like perceptions, attitudes, and attributions.
- o Example: Forming stereotypes about a group based on media exposure.

Feelings:

- o Emotional responses shaped by social interactions (e.g., empathy, jealousy).
- Example: Feeling pride when a team succeeds.

Behaviors:

- Actions influenced by social contexts (e.g., conformity, aggression).
- Example: Helping a stranger due to social norms.

objectives

- Understand Social Influence: How individuals are shaped by others (e.g., persuasion, obedience).
- Explain Social Behavior: Why people act in specific ways (e.g., altruism, prejudice).
- **Predict outcomes**: Anticipate responses in social settings (e.g., group dynamics).
- Apply Knowledge: Address real-world issues (e.g., reducing conflict, promoting health).

Scope of Social Psychology

The scope of social psychology is broad, encompassing diverse topics and interdisciplinary connections that explore social behavior across contexts.

Key Areas

• Social Perception:

- How individuals form impressions of others (e.g., attributions, stereotypes).
- o Includes communication, non-verbal cues, and biases.
- o Example: Judging someone's competence based on their appearance.

Attitudes:

- o Formation, change, and cultural influences on beliefs and evaluations.
- Example: Changing attitudes toward recycling through campaigns.

Social Influence:

- o Processes like conformity, compliance, obedience, and persuasion.
- o Example: Following fashion trends due to peer pressure.

Group Dynamics:

- o Behavior in groups, including cohesion, leadership, and decision-making.
- o Example: Groupthink in corporate boards leading to poor decisions.

• Intergroup Relations:

- o Interactions between groups, including prejudice, conflict, and cooperation.
- Example: Reducing intergroup bias through shared goals.

Prosocial Behavior:

- o Altruism, helping, and factors promoting positive actions.
- o Example: Bystander intervention in emergencies.

Aggression:

- o Causes, types, and prevention of hostile or instrumental aggression.
- Example: Media violence influencing aggressive behavior.

Applied Social Psychology:

- Applications in health, environment, law, and spatial behavior (e.g., crowding).
- o Example: Promoting eco-friendly behaviors through social norms.

Interdisciplinary Connections

- **Sociology**: Studies societal structures, while social psychology focuses on individual behavior within them.
- Anthropology: Examines cultural influences, complementing social psychology's cultural analyses.
- Cognitive Psychology: Shares interest in perception, memory, and decision-making.
- **Neuroscience**: Explores biological bases of social behavior (e.g., mirror neurons in empathy).
- **Economics**: overlaps in studying decision-making and group behavior (e.g., game theory).
- **Political Science**: Analyzes power, leadership, and intergroup conflict.

Table: Scope of Social Psychology

Area	Focus	Example		
Social Perception	Impressions, attributions,	Judging trustworthiness from facial		
	communication	cues		
Attitudes	Formation, change, cultural	Persuasion campaigns for health		
	influences	behaviors		
Social Influence	Conformity, obedience, persuasion	Following group norms in a meeting		

Group Dynamics		Cohesion, making	leadership,	decision-	Team collaboration on a project	
Intergroup Relations		Prejudice, conflict, cooperation			Reducing bias in diverse teams	
Prosocial Behavior		Altruism, helping, bystander effect		er effect	Donating to charity	
Aggression		Causes, types, prevention			Managing road rage	
Applied S	Social Health, environment, law, spatial		Promoting recycling laws			
Psychology		behavior				

History of Social Psychology

Early Beginnings (Pre-1900)

Philosophical Roots:

- o Aristotle (4th Century BCE): Described humans as "social animals," emphasizing group living.
- o **Thomas Hobbes (1651)**: Discussed social contracts and group behavior.
- o **John Stuart Mill (19th Century)**: Explored individual-social interactions in utilitarianism.

Early Studies:

 Norman Triplett (1898): Conducted the first social psychology experiment on social facilitation, observing faster cycling in groups vs. alone.

Formative Period (1900–1940s)

Foundational Works:

- William McDougall (1908): Published An Introduction to Social Psychology, emphasizing instincts.
- o **E. A. Ross (1908)**: Focused on social influences in Social Psychology.

Key Developments:

- Floyd Allport (1924): Established social psychology as a scientific discipline, advocating experimental methods.
- Kurt Lewin (1930s): Introduced Field Theory, emphasizing situational dynamics.

Milestones:

- Emergence of experimental designs (e.g., group studies).
- o Focus on attitudes, stereotypes, and social influence.

Post-WWII Growth (1940s-1960s)

Influential Events:

 World War II spurred research on propaganda, leadership, and prejudice (e.g., Adorno's authoritarian personality).

Key Figures:

- Leon Festinger (1957): Developed Cognitive Dissonance Theory, explaining attitude-behavior conflicts.
- Stanley Milgram (1960s): Conducted obedience experiments, highlighting social influence.
- Muzafer Sherif (1930s–1950s): Studied group norms and intergroup conflict (e.g., Robbers Cave Experiment).

Developments:

- o Rise of experimental social psychology (e.g., lab-based studies).
- Focus on conformity, obedience, and group dynamics.

Modern Era (1970s-Present)

Paradigm Shifts:

- Social Cognition (1980s): Emphasis on cognitive processes (e.g., schemas, heuristics).
- Sociobiology (1970s): Evolutionary explanations for social behavior (e.g., Wilson's work).
- Cultural Psychology (1990s): Cross-cultural perspectives on social behavior.

Key Advances:

- o Tajfel's Social Identity Theory (1970s): Explained intergroup behavior.
- o Cialdini's Persuasion Principles (1980s): Identified influence techniques.
- Neurosocial Psychology (2000s): Integrated brain imaging (e.g., fMRI) to study social processes.

Current Trends:

- o Applied focus (health, environment, law).
- Diversity and inclusion research.
- Technology's impact (e.g., social media).

Table: Historical Milestones in Social Psychology

Period	Key Figures	Milestones	Focus
Pre-1900	Aristotle, Hobbes, Mill	Philosophical roots, social	Social nature of humans
		instincts	
1900–1940s	Triplett, McDougall,	First experiments, Field Theory	Social facilitation, group
	Lewin		dynamics
1940s-1960s	Festinger, Milgram,	Cognitive dissonance,	Attitudes, influence,
	Sherif	obedience, conflict	groups
1970s-	Tajfel, Cialdini, Fiske	Social cognition, cultural	Cognition, culture, applied
Present		psychology	issues

Applications

- Education: Understanding peer influence on learning.
- Clinical Psychology: Addressing social factors in mental health (e.g., prejudice).
- Workplace: Enhancing team dynamics and leadership.
- Public Policy: Designing interventions for social issues (e.g., reducing aggression).

Criticisms

- WEIRD Bias: over-reliance on Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, Democratic samples.
- Lab-Based Limits: Experiments may lack ecological validity.
- Cultural oversight: Early theories ignored cultural diversity.
- Ethical Concerns: Historical experiments (e.g., Milgram) raised ethical issues.

Empirical Evidence

- **Triplett (1898)**: Social facilitation validated in cycling experiments.
- Lewin (1935): Field Theory supported by group dynamics studies.
- **Festinger (1957)**: Cognitive dissonance confirmed in attitude change research.
- Milgram (1963): obedience experiments showed social influence power.
- Tajfel (1970): Minimal group experiments supported social identity.

PYQs

2019 June, Paper 2:

Social psychology is defined as the study of:"

A. Individual cognition,

B. Social influence on behavior,

C. Biological drives,

D. Personality traits.

Answer: B. Social influence on behavior.

Explanation: Focuses on how others shape thoughts, feelings, behaviors.

2020 November, Paper 2:

The first social psychology experiment was conducted by:"

A. Lewin, B. Triplett,
C. Festinger, D. Milgram.

Answer: B. Triplett.

Explanation: Triplett's 1898 cycling study pioneered the field.

2018 July, Paper 2:

Field Theory was proposed by:"

A. Allport, B. Lewin, C. Sherif, D. Tajfel.

Answer: B. Lewin.

Explanation: Lewin introduced Field Theory in the 1930s.

Practice MCQs

1. Social psychology primarily studies:

A. Individual cognition B. Social influence

C. Biological instincts D. Personality disorders

Answer: B. Social influence

Explanation: Examines how others shape behavior.

2. The first social psychology experiment studied:

A. Cognitive dissonance B. Social facilitation

C. obedience D. Prejudice

Answer: B. Social facilitation

Explanation: Triplett's 1898 cycling study.

3. Field Theory emphasized:

A. Unconscious motives B. Situational dynamics

C. Evolutionary drives D. Cognitive schemas

Answer: B. Situational dynamics

Explanation: Lewin's theory focused on life space.

4. Social cognition is a modern focus of:

A. Early 1900s B. 1950s C. 1980s D. 1930s

Answer: C. 1980s

Explanation: Emerged with cognitive revolution.

5. An interdisciplinary link of social psychology is with:

A. Physics B. Sociology C. Chemistry D. Geology

Answer: B. Sociology

Explanation: Shares focus on social structures.

Conclusion

This part provided a comprehensive exploration of the **Nature**, **Scope**, and **History of Social Psychology**, covering definitions, key areas, interdisciplinary connections, historical milestones, and key figures. It included detailed explanations, empirical evidence, applications, PYQs, and exam trends, supported by tables.

Traditional Theoretical Perspectives

Introduction

This second part in the series for Unit 8 of the UGC NET JRF Psychology syllabus delves into **Traditional Theoretical Perspectives** in social psychology, focusing on **Field Theory** and **Cognitive Dissonance**. These foundational frameworks provide critical insights into how individuals' behaviors, thoughts, and emotions are shaped by social and psychological forces. **Field Theory**, developed by Kurt Lewin, emphasizes the dynamic interplay of individual and environmental factors in a psychological field, while **Cognitive Dissonance**, proposed by Leon Festinger, explains how inconsistencies between attitudes and behaviors create psychological tension, driving attitude or behavior change.

Field Theory

Historical Context

- **Proposed by: Kurt Lewin** (1890–1947).
- Background: A German-American psychologist, Lewin developed Field Theory in the 1930s, drawing
 from Gestalt psychology and physics. His work revolutionized social psychology by emphasizing the
 dynamic interplay of individual and environmental factors, moving away from static trait-based
 explanations of behavior. Lewin's experiences as a Jewish scholar fleeing Nazi Germany shaped his
 focus on social issues like prejudice and group dynamics.

Core Principles

Field Theory posits that behavior is a function of the **person** and their **environment**, interacting within a dynamic **psychological field** or **life space**. It views social behavior as the outcome of forces operating in a given moment.

- **Key Equation**: B = f(P, E), where:
 - o **B**: Behavior.
 - o **P**: Person (e.g., motives, personality, needs).
 - E: Environment (e.g., social norms, physical setting).

Life Space:

- o The psychological field encompassing all factors influencing an individual at a given time.
- o Includes **regions** (goals, barriers), **forces** (motivations, obstacles), and **tensions** (unresolved needs).
- Example: A student's decision to study (behavior) depends on their ambition (person) and exam pressure (environment).

Key Concepts:

- Forces: Push or pull behavior toward or away from goals (e.g., desire for success vs. fear of failure).
- o Valence: Attractiveness (positive) or repulsiveness (negative) of a goal.
- o **Tension**: Psychological discomfort from unmet needs, driving behavior.
- Equilibrium: Balance of forces; behavior changes to restore balance.
- Dynamic Nature: Life space is fluid, changing with new experiences or goals.
- **Example**: An employee's productivity increases in a supportive team (positive environment) but decreases under a critical boss (negative environment).

Key Components

- Person Factors:
 - Needs, goals, beliefs, personality, past experiences.
 - Example: A competitive personality drives assertive behavior in group discussions.

Environmental Factors:

- o Social norms, group dynamics, physical settings, cultural context.
- o Example: A collaborative workplace encourages teamwork.

Life Space Structure:

- Regions: Represent goals or states (e.g., career success, family harmony).
- Paths: Routes to goals, with barriers or facilitators.
- o **Boundaries**: Permeability determines access to regions (e.g., rigid norms restrict behavior).

Mechanisms

- Force Interaction: Behavior results from the vector sum of forces (e.g., motivation vs. fear).
- Tension Resolution: Unmet needs create tension, motivating action to reduce it.
- Field Dynamics: Changes in one part of the life space (e.g., new social norm) affect the whole.
- Cognitive Appraisal: Individuals perceive and interpret environmental forces, shaping behavior.
- **Neural Basis**: Prefrontal cortex integrates personal and environmental cues, amygdala processes emotional valence.

Applications

• Group Dynamics:

Analyzing team behavior through forces (e.g., cohesion vs. conflict).

Leadership:

o Designing environments to align follower goals (e.g., supportive leadership).

Education:

Creating motivating classroom settings (e.g., collaborative tasks).

Clinical Psychology:

 Addressing maladaptive behaviors by altering life space (e.g., reducing negative social influences).

organizational Psychology:

o Managing workplace stress by modifying environmental forces (e.g., flexible policies).

Social Interventions:

Reducing prejudice by fostering cooperative environments.

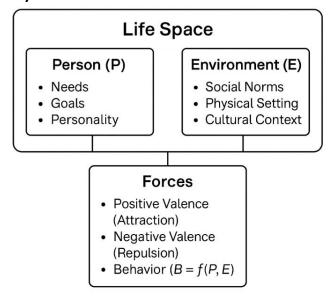
Criticisms

- Abstractness: Life space and forces are conceptual, hard to measure empirically.
- Complexity: Dynamic interactions challenging to quantify.
- Cultural Bias: Early applications focused on Western contexts, less attention to cultural variations.
- Limited Predictive Power: Broad framework, less specific for precise predictions.

Empirical Evidence

- **Lewin (1936)**: Experiments on group atmospheres (autocratic vs. democratic) showed environmental impact on behavior.
- Lewin, Lippitt, & White (1939): Leadership style studies validated Field Theory in group dynamics.
- Barker (1968): Ecological psychology extended Lewin's environmental focus.
- **Deutsch (1949)**: Cooperative vs. competitive settings supported force interactions.
- Modern Studies (2000s): organizational research applies Field Theory to team performance.

Diagram: Lewin's Field Theory



Cognitive Dissonance

Historical Context

- Proposed by: Leon Festinger (1919–1989).
- Background: An American social psychologist, Festinger developed Cognitive Dissonance Theory in 1957, building on his work in social influence and attitude change. The theory emerged during the post-WWII era, when social psychology focused on understanding persuasion, conformity, and attitude-behavior relationships. Festinger's insights were influenced by his mentor, Kurt Lewin, and the cognitive revolution.

Core Principles

Cognitive Dissonance Theory posits that individuals experience **psychological discomfort** (dissonance) when holding **inconsistent cognitions** (e.g., beliefs, attitudes, behaviors), motivating them to reduce this tension by changing attitudes, behaviors, or perceptions.

- **Key Concept**: Dissonance is an aversive state driving cognitive or behavioral change.
- Core Assumption: Humans strive for cognitive consistency to maintain psychological balance.
- **Example**: A smoker who believes smoking is harmful (attitude) but continues smoking (behavior) experiences dissonance, prompting quitting (behavior change) or rationalizing (attitude change, e.g., "smoking isn't that bad").

• Key Components:

- o **Cognitions**: Beliefs, attitudes, or knowledge.
- o **Dissonance**: Tension from inconsistency (e.g., attitude-behavior mismatch).
- o Consonance: Harmony when cognitions align.

Dissonance Magnitude:

- o Increases with importance of cognitions (e.g., core beliefs).
- Depends on number of dissonant cognitions (e.g., multiple conflicting beliefs).

Reduction Strategies:

- Change behavior to align with attitude (e.g., quit smoking).
- Change attitude to align with behavior (e.g., downplay smoking risks).
- Add consonant cognitions (e.g., "I exercise, so smoking is okay").
- Ignore or deny dissonance (e.g., avoid health warnings).

Mechanisms

- Cognitive Tension: Inconsistency activates arousal, detected by amygdala and anterior cingulate cortex
- Motivational Drive: Dissonance creates psychological discomfort, motivating resolution.
- Cognitive Restructuring: Prefrontal cortex reappraises or rationalizes to reduce tension.
- Behavioral Adjustment: Actions align with beliefs to restore consonance.
- **Social Influence**: External cues (e.g., group norms) shape dissonance reduction.

Applications

Persuasion:

Designing campaigns to create dissonance (e.g., anti-smoking ads highlighting health risks).

Attitude Change:

o Encouraging behavior change through dissonance (e.g., recycling campaigns).

Clinical Psychology:

o Addressing maladaptive beliefs in therapy (e.g., CBT for dissonance-driven anxiety).

Education:

o Promoting learning by resolving attitude-behavior conflicts (e.g., studying vs. procrastination).

Marketing:

o Influencing consumer behavior (e.g., post-purchase dissonance reduction via warranties).

Social Issues:

o Reducing prejudice by highlighting inconsistent beliefs (e.g., equality vs. bias).

Criticisms

- Measurement Challenges: Dissonance is subjective, hard to quantify directly.
- Cultural Bias: Cognitive consistency valued in individualistic cultures, less in collectivist ones.
- **Alternative Explanations**: Self-perception theory (Bem) suggests behavior shapes attitudes without dissonance.
- Empirical Debate: Some studies question dissonance's universal applicability.

Empirical Evidence

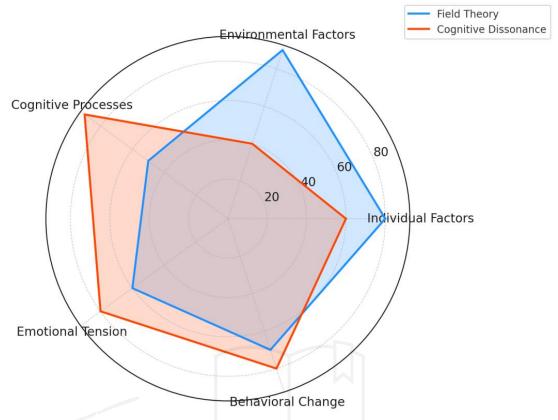
- **Festinger & Carlsmith (1959)**: Classic experiment showed participants paid 1(vs..20) to lie about a boring task reported more positive attitudes, reducing dissonance.
- **Aronson & Mills (1959)**: Severe initiation increased group liking, justifying effort.
- Brehm (1956): Post-decision dissonance showed preference for chosen options.
- Harmon-Jones (2000): Neuroimaging confirmed anterior cingulate activation during dissonance.
- Cooper & Fazio (1984): Dissonance stronger when behavior has negative consequences.

Table: Comparison of Field Theory and Cognitive Dissonance

Theory	Proposer	Core Idea	Key Concepts	Applications	Criticisms
Field Theory	Lewin	Behavior =	Life space,	Group	Abstract,
	(1930s)	f(Person,	forces, valence,	dynamics,	complex
		Environment)	tension	leadership	
Cognitive	Festinger	Tension from	Dissonance,	Persuasion,	Measurement
Dissonance	(1957)	inconsistent	consonance,	attitude	issues,
		cognitions	reduction	change	cultural bias
			strategies		

Chart: Influence of Theories on Social Behavior

Influence of Field Theory and Cognitive Dissonance on Social Behavior



Explanation: The radar chart shows Field Theory's emphasis on environmental and individual factors, while Cognitive Dissonance focuses on cognitive processes and emotional tension, both driving behavioral change.

PYQs

2019 June, Paper 2:

Field Theory's core equation is:"

A. B = f(P, E),

1 the topper in you B. $E = MC^2$,

C. A = B + C

D. D = A - B.

Answer: A. B = f(P, E).

Explanation: Behavior is a function of person and environment.

2020 November, Paper 2:

Cognitive dissonance is resolved by:"

A. Ignoring stimuli,

B. Changing attitudes,

C. Avoiding groups,

D. Seeking rewards.

Answer: B. Changing attitudes.

Explanation: Attitude change reduces dissonance.

2018 July, Paper 2:

Lewin's life space includes:"

A. Unconscious drives,

B. Forces and regions,

C. Instincts.

D. Archetypes.

Answer: B. Forces and regions.

Explanation: Life space comprises dynamic forces and goal regions.

Practice MCQs

1. Field Theory was proposed by:

A. Festinger B. Lewin
C. Milgram D. Tajfel

Answer: B. Lewin

Explanation: Lewin developed Field Theory in the 1930s.

2. In Field Theory, behavior is a function of:

A. Instincts and drives

B. Person and environment

C. Attitudes and beliefs

D. Rewards and punishments

Answer: B. Person and environment

Explanation: B = f(P, E).

3. Cognitive dissonance occurs when:

A. Cognitions are consistentB. Behaviors align with attitudesC. Cognitions are inconsistentD. Environments are stable

Answer: C. Cognitions are inconsistent

Explanation: Inconsistency creates psychological tension.

4. A smoker reduces dissonance by:

A. Ignoring health risks B. Quitting smoking C. Avoiding social norms D. Seeking rewards

Answer: B. Quitting smoking

Explanation: Aligns behavior with health beliefs.

5. Lewin's concept of valence refers to:

A. Cognitive tension

B. Goal attractiveness
C. Group norms

D. Behavioral habits

Answer: B. Goal attractiveness

Explanation: Valence is the appeal of a goal.

Conclusion

This part provided a comprehensive exploration of **Field Theory** (Lewin) and **Cognitive Dissonance** (Festinger), covering core principles, mechanisms, applications, criticisms, empirical evidence, PYQs, and exam trends, supported by tables, diagrams, and charts.

Traditional Theoretical Perspectives (Part 2)

Introduction

Traditional Theoretical Perspectives in social psychology, focusing on **Sociobiology** and **Psychodynamic Approaches**. These perspectives provide distinct lenses for understanding social behavior, emphasizing evolutionary and unconscious influences, respectively. **Sociobiology**, rooted in evolutionary biology, explains social behaviors as adaptations shaped by natural selection, while **Psychodynamic Approaches**, derived from Freudian and Neo-Freudian theories, highlight unconscious motives, conflicts, and early experiences in shaping social interactions.

Sociobiology

Historical Context

- Proposed by: Edward o. Wilson (1975).
- Background: Sociobiology emerged in the 1970s as a synthesis of evolutionary biology, ethology, and social science, formalized by Wilson's seminal work, Sociobiology: The New Synthesis. It built on Darwin's theory of natural selection and earlier ethological studies (e.g., Lorenz, Tinbergen), applying evolutionary principles to social behaviors across species, including humans. The approach sparked controversy for its application to human behavior, with critics arguing it overemphasized biology over culture.

Core Principles

Sociobiology posits that social behaviors are **evolutionary adaptations** shaped by **natural selection** to enhance survival and reproductive success. These behaviors are influenced by genetic predispositions that maximize fitness.

- **Key Concept**: Social behaviors (e.g., altruism, aggression) are products of evolutionary pressures, selected for their contribution to gene survival.
- **Central Tenet**: **Inclusive Fitness**—behaviors increase the survival of an individual's genes, directly (own offspring) or indirectly (relatives' offspring).
- **Example**: A person risks their life to save a sibling, increasing the survival of shared genes (kin selection).

Key Concepts:

- o **Kin Selection**: Behaviors favoring genetic relatives (e.g., parental care, sibling cooperation).
- o **Reciprocal Altruism**: Helping others with expectation of future return (e.g., sharing resources).
- o **Sexual Selection**: Behaviors enhancing mate attraction or competition (e.g., displays of strength).
- o **Group Selection**: Behaviors benefiting group survival, debated in sociobiology.
- Genetic Basis: Social behaviors linked to genes, expressed through neural and hormonal mechanisms.
- **Example**: Aggression in males may enhance mate competition, increasing reproductive success.

Key Components

Inclusive Fitness:

- o Proposed by **W.D. Hamilton** (1964), explains altruism toward kin.
- Formula: rB > C, where r = genetic relatedness, B = benefit to recipient, C = cost to actor.
- Example: Bees sacrifice themselves for hive survival, protecting related genes.

Reciprocal Altruism:

- Proposed by Robert Trivers (1971), explains cooperation among non-kin.
- Requires repeated interactions and mutual benefit.
- Example: Humans share food, expecting reciprocity later.

Sexual Selection:

- o Intrasexual (competition within sex) and intersexual (mate choice).
- Example: Peacocks' tails attract mates, despite survival costs.

Behavioral Strategies:

- Fixed (e.g., instincts) or flexible (e.g., conditional cooperation).
- Example: Conditional aggression in territorial disputes.

Mechanisms

- **Genetic Transmission**: Genes coding for social behaviors (e.g., oxytocin for bonding) passed through generations.
- Neural Basis: Limbic system (e.g., amygdala) mediates social responses like aggression.
- Hormonal Regulation: Testosterone drives competitive behaviors; oxytocin promotes cooperation.
- Environmental Triggers: Social cues (e.g., threat, mate availability) activate evolved behaviors.
- Evolutionary Feedback: Successful behaviors increase gene frequency.

Applications

• Prosocial Behavior:

Explaining altruism through kin selection and reciprocity.

Aggression:

o Understanding territorial or mate-related aggression as survival strategies.

Mate Selection:

• Analyzing partner preferences (e.g., symmetry as health indicator).

Group Dynamics:

Studying cooperation in groups as evolutionary advantage.

Clinical Psychology:

Addressing maladaptive behaviors (e.g., excessive aggression) via evolutionary lens.

Social Policy:

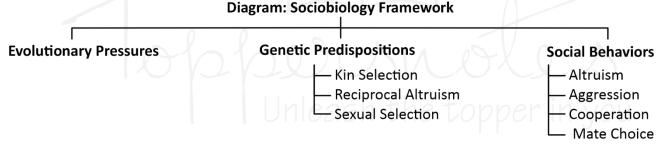
Designing interventions for cooperation (e.g., community programs).

Criticisms

- Reductionism: overemphasizes biology, neglecting culture and learning.
- **Controversy**: Human applications criticized for justifying stereotypes (e.g., gender roles).
- **Empirical Challenges**: Hard to test evolutionary hypotheses directly.
- Cultural Bias: Early sociobiology focused on Western behaviors, less cross-cultural.
- Ethical Concerns: Misuse in eugenics or social Darwinism.

Empirical Evidence

- Hamilton (1964): Mathematical models supported kin selection in altruistic behaviors.
- Trivers (1971): Reciprocal altruism observed in primates and humans.
- Buss (1989): Cross-cultural studies showed universal mate preferences (e.g., youth, health).
- Wilson (1975): Sociobiological principles validated in animal social systems.
- Cosmides & Tooby (1992): Evolutionary psychology experiments supported adaptive behaviors.



Psychodynamic Approaches

Historical Context

- **Proposed by**: **Sigmund Freud** (1856–1939) and Neo-Freudians (e.g., Adler, Jung, Horney).
- Background: Psychodynamic approaches to social psychology emerged from Freud's psychoanalytic
 theory in the early 20th century, emphasizing unconscious motives and early experiences. NeoFreudians modified Freud's focus on sexual drives, incorporating social and cultural influences. These
 approaches were applied to social phenomena like prejudice, leadership, and group behavior in the
 mid-20th century, particularly post-WWII to explain authoritarianism and conformity.

Core Principles

Psychodynamic Approaches posit that social behavior is driven by **unconscious motives**, **internal conflicts**, and **early social experiences**, shaped by instinctual drives and interpersonal dynamics.

• **Key Concept**: Unconscious processes (e.g., repressed desires) influence social interactions, often outside awareness.

• Freudian Foundations:

- o **Id**: Instinctual drives (e.g., aggression) influence social behavior.
- Ego: Mediates drives with social norms (e.g., suppressing anger).
- Superego: Internalized societal values guide behavior (e.g., guilt for prejudice).

Neo-Freudian Contributions:

- o Adler: Social interest and inferiority complex drive group behavior.
- Jung: Collective unconscious and archetypes shape social symbols.
- o **Horney**: Basic anxiety from social rejection influences interactions.
- Example: Prejudice against a group may stem from unconscious projection of repressed anger (Freud) or feelings of inferiority (Adler).

Key Concepts:

- o **Unconscious Motives**: Hidden drives (e.g., power, belonging) shape behavior.
- o **Defense Mechanisms**: Protect ego from social conflicts (e.g., projection in prejudice).
- o **Transference**: Projecting past relationships onto current ones (e.g., authority figures).
- Socialization: Early experiences with caregivers shape social patterns.

Key Components

Unconscious Processes:

 Repressed desires or conflicts influence social behavior (e.g., aggression from unresolved oedipal issues).

Defense Mechanisms:

- o **Projection**: Attributing own unacceptable impulses to others (e.g., blaming outgroup).
- Displacement: Redirecting emotions to safer targets (e.g., venting at subordinates).
- Sublimation: Channeling drives into socially acceptable actions (e.g., aggression into sports).

Early Experiences:

o Childhood interactions (e.g., parenting) shape social behavior patterns.

Social Drives:

Instincts for affiliation, power, or aggression drive group interactions.

Mechanisms

- Unconscious Conflict: Id-superego clashes create tension, expressed in social behavior.
- Defense Activation: Ego employs mechanisms to reduce anxiety in social settings.
- Transference Dynamics: Past emotional patterns influence current relationships.
- Neural Basis: Amygdala processes unconscious emotional triggers; prefrontal cortex moderates social responses.
- Socialization Impact: Early experiences form schemas guiding social interactions.

Applications

Prejudice:

Explaining bias as projection of unconscious fears (e.g., scapegoating).

• Leadership:

o Understanding authoritarian leaders via power drives or inferiority complexes.

• Group Dynamics:

Analyzing conformity through unconscious need for acceptance.

Clinical Psychology:

Addressing social anxiety via psychodynamic therapy.

Social Interventions:

Reducing conflict by resolving underlying motives (e.g., group therapy).

Cultural Analysis:

Exploring collective behaviors through archetypes (Jung).

Criticisms

- **Unfalsifiability**: Unconscious motives hard to test empirically.
- overemphasis on Early Life: Neglects later experiences or situational factors.
- Cultural Bias: Freudian theory based on Western patients, less applicable globally.
- **Limited Scope**: Less focus on cognitive or environmental influences.
- Ethical Concerns: Historical reliance on case studies raised validity issues.

Empirical Evidence

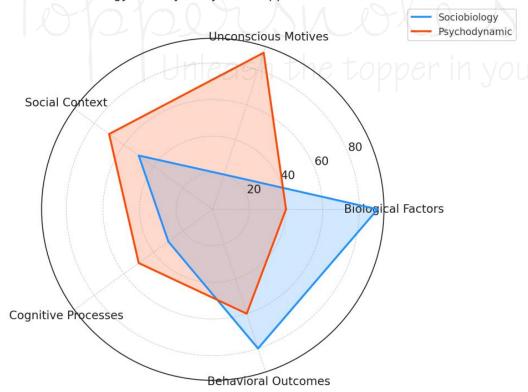
- Freud (1900): Case studies (e.g., Little Hans) linked unconscious motives to social fears.
- Adorno et al. (1950): Authoritarian personality research supported psychodynamic roots of prejudice.
- Horney (1945): Basic anxiety studies explained social withdrawal.
- Westen (1998): Psychodynamic concepts validated in modern therapy.
- Bargh (1997): Unconscious priming experiments supported automatic social motives.

Table: Comparison of Sociobiology and Psychodynamic Approaches

Perspective	Key Figures	Core Idea	Key Concepts	Applications	Criticisms
Sociobiology	Wilson, Hamilton	Social behaviors as evolutionary	Kin selection, reciprocal	Altruism, aggression	Reductionism, cultural bias
		adaptations	altruism		
Psychodynamic	Freud, Adler, Horney	Unconscious motives drive	Defense mechanisms,	Prejudice, leadership	Unfalsifiable, cultural bias
		social behavior	transference		

Chart: Influence of Perspectives on Social Behavior

Influence of Sociobiology and Psychodynamic Approaches on Social Behavior



Explanation: The radar chart shows Sociobiology's emphasis on biological factors and behavioral outcomes, while Psychodynamic Approaches focus on unconscious motives and social context, with moderate cognitive influence.

PYQs

2019 June, Paper 2:

Sociobiology explains social behavior through:"

A. Cognitive schemas, B. Evolutionary adaptations,

C. Unconscious motives, D. Social norms.

Answer: B. Evolutionary adaptations.

Explanation: Behaviors enhance genetic survival.

2020 November, Paper 2:

Projection is a defense mechanism in which approach?"

A. Sociobiology,

B. Psychodynamic,

C. Cognitive Dissonance, D. Field Theory.

Answer: B. Psychodynamic.

Explanation: Projection attributes unconscious impulses to others.

2018 July, Paper 2:

Kin selection is a concept in:"

A. Psychodynamic, B. Sociobiology, C. Social Cognition, D. Field Theory.

Answer: B. Sociobiology.

Explanation: Explains altruism toward genetic relatives.

Practice MCQs

1. Sociobiology was formalized by:

A. Freud B. Wilson
C. Lewin D. Festinger

Answer: B. Wilson

Explanation: Wilson's 1975 work defined sociobiology.

2. Kin selection explains:

A. Unconscious conflicts

B. Altruism toward relatives

C. Cognitive dissonance D. Group conformity

Answer: B. Altruism toward relatives **Explanation**: Favors genetic survival of kin.

3. In psychodynamic approaches, social behavior is driven by:

A. Evolutionary pressures B. Unconscious motives

C. Environmental forces D. Cognitive schemas

Answer: B. Unconscious motives

Explanation: Hidden drives influence actions.

4. Projection in prejudice involves:

A. Helping kin

B. Attributing own impulses to others

C. Changing attitudes D. Seeking optimal arousal

Answer: B. Attributing own impulses to others

Explanation: A psychodynamic defense mechanism.

5. Reciprocal altruism requires:

A. Unconscious drives

B. Mutual benefit

C. Cognitive consistency

D. Group norms

Answer: B. Mutual benefit

Explanation: Cooperation with expected return.

Conclusion

This part provided a comprehensive exploration of **Sociobiology** (Wilson) and **Psychodynamic Approaches** (Freud, Neo-Freudians), covering core principles, mechanisms, applications, criticisms, empirical evidence, PYQs, and exam trends, supported by tables, diagrams, and charts.

Traditional Theoretical Perspectives (Part 3)

Introduction

This fourth part in the series for Unit 8 of the UGC NET JRF Psychology syllabus continues the exploration of **Traditional Theoretical Perspectives** in social psychology, focusing on **Social Cognition**. Social Cognition is a foundational framework that examines how individuals process, store, and apply information about social situations, influencing their perceptions, judgments, and behaviors. It integrates cognitive psychology with social contexts, emphasizing mental processes like schemas, heuristics, attributions, and biases.

Social Cognition

Historical Context

Background: Social Cognition emerged as a dominant perspective in social psychology during the 1980s, driven by the cognitive revolution in psychology. It built on earlier work in cognitive psychology (e.g., Bartlett's schema theory) and social psychology (e.g., Heider's attribution theory), integrating information-processing models to explain social behavior. The rise of experimental methods and computational metaphors (e.g., mind as a computer) fueled its development.

Key Figures:

- o **Fritz Heider** (1958): Pioneered attribution theory, laying groundwork for Social Cognition.
- Susan Fiske and Shelley Taylor (1984): Authored Social Cognition, formalizing the field.
- Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky (1970s): Developed prospect theory and heuristics, influencing social judgment models.
- o Richard Nisbett and Lee Ross (1980): Highlighted cognitive biases in social perception.

Core Principles

Social Cognition is the study of how individuals **process, store, and apply social information**, focusing on cognitive structures (e.g., schemas) and processes (e.g., attention, memory, judgment) that shape social perceptions and behaviors. It assumes humans are active interpreters of social environments, using mental shortcuts and biases to navigate complex social worlds.

- **Key Concept**: Social behavior is driven by cognitive processes that organize and interpret social stimuli, often automatically or with limited conscious effort.
- **Central Tenet**: People act as "naïve scientists" (Heider), using cognitive tools to make sense of social interactions, but are prone to errors and biases.
- **Example**: Forming a quick impression of a new colleague as "competent" based on their confident handshake reflects schema-driven cognition.

Key Components:

- o **Schemas**: Mental frameworks organizing social information.
- Heuristics: Cognitive shortcuts for quick judgments.
- Attributions: Explanations for causes of behavior.
- o **Biases**: Systematic errors in perception or judgment.
- **Dual-Process Models**: Social Cognition involves **automatic** (fast, unconscious) and **controlled** (deliberate, conscious) processing.
- **Example**: Automatically stereotyping a person (automatic) vs. consciously correcting the stereotype (controlled).