

HSS206 - POST MTE

Group

Balance Theory suggests we join groups to keep our attitudes "balanced." We are drawn to people who share our values, so we join groups they belong to.

Exchange Theory is a cost-benefit analysis. We join a group if we expect the "rewards" (like support, security, or status) will be greater than the "costs" (like time, effort, or disagreements).

- **Social Identity:**
 - **Exact Definition:** "The group acts as a source of identity," giving us a "Self-concept and self-knowledge," "Existential security," and a "Social network and support system."
 - **Related Terms:** The slide mentions this can be through "**Common-Bond Groups**" or "**Common-Identity Groups**."
 - **Common-Bond Groups:** These are groups formed based on the attachments *between members* (e.g., a close group of friends, a family).
 - **Common-Identity Groups:** These are groups formed because members share a "common identity" or category (e.g., students from IIT Roorkee, fans of a sports team).
- **Self-Enhancement:** This is the "goal of increasing the positivity of one's self-image." A "Relation with strong and credible group boosts one's own public image." Our "Self-esteem gets tied to what- ever happens to the group."
- **Social Change:** Groups form to achieve "Social change," which in turn creates a "Politicized collective identity."

- **Ingroup & Outgroup:** This dynamic leads to "Ingroup favouritism," which is "When we see members of our group as better than other people, and people not in our group as all the same."

What is a group?

"Two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives."

- Members "Are motivated to join."
- They "Perceive the group as a unified unit of interacting people."
- They "Contribute in various amounts" and "Reach agreements and have disagreements through various forms of interaction."
- Can be a "Formal group" or "Informal group."

Difference between Group and Team

- **Work group:**
 - Members "Primarily share ideas and information."
 - They "Make decisions to help each group member perform within his or her area of responsibility."
 - They are "More-or-less independent."
- **Work Team:**
 - "A group whose performance is interdependent."
 - It is "Coherent and dependent" and "Formed with specific purpose."
 - Its "Output is greater (or less !!) than the sum of the individual inputs."

Tuckman's Group Lifecycle

- **Forming:** This is the initial "getting to know you" stage. Group members are often polite, uncertain, and trying to understand the

group's purpose, rules, and who everyone is. There is a high reliance on the leader for guidance.

- **Storming:** This is the conflict stage. As members get more comfortable, their personalities and opinions start to clash. There can be disagreements about the group's goals, leadership, or individual roles. This stage is often where the "pecking order" is established.
- **Norming:** In this stage, the conflict is resolved, and the group finds its harmony. Members agree on "norms" (acceptable standards of behavior), a clear structure emerges, and a sense of group identity and cohesion develops. They start to trust and help each other.
- **Performing:** This is the final, fully functional stage. The group's structure is set and accepted. The group's energy has moved from figuring itself out to focusing entirely on achieving its common goal or "performing" its task.

Group Properties

Group Property 1: Roles

A "**Role**" is "A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit." This is the "part" you play, with examples like "CEO, Treasurer, Security guard, [or] Prime Minister."

Here are the key concepts that define your role:

- **Multiple roles:** This is a simple acknowledgment that we all occupy more than one role at a time (e.g., you can be a student, a child, and a team leader).
- **Role Perception:** This is "Our view of how we're supposed to act in a given situation." It's your personal, internal definition of your role.
- **Role expectations:** This is "The way others believe you should act in a given context." This is the *external* definition of your role, coming from the group.
- **Role Assimilation:** This term is listed but not defined. It's the process by which you internalize your role to the point that it becomes part of

your identity. You don't just "play" the role; your attitudes and actions start to genuinely align with it.

- **Role conflict:** This is the friction that occurs when expectations clash. The presentation lists several types:
 - **Multiple expectation conflict:** When different members of your group (or different groups) have competing expectations of you.
 - **Inter-role conflict:** When the expectations of two of your *different* roles clash (e.g., your role as a student to study for an exam conflicts with your role as a friend to help someone in crisis).
 - **Perception - expectation conflict:** This is the one I missed. It's the conflict that arises when *your* "role perception" (what you think you should do) clashes with the group's "role expectations" (what *they* think you should do).

Group Property 2: Norms

"**Norms**" are the "Acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the group's members." They are the unwritten rules that tell you "How to behave," "What to expect," and the "Limits of acceptance."

- **Feeling Rules:** Norms don't just guide actions; they also "shape the experience of emotions." These "Feeling Rules" are the "Expectations about the appropriate emotions to display or express" (e.g., "look professional on a video call," "be enthusiastic at a rally").
- **Individualism vs. Collectivism:** This concept is listed as it deeply affects a group's norms.
 - **Individualistic** cultures (common in the West) have norms that prioritize individual rights, personal achievement, and self-expression.
 - **Collectivistic** cultures (common in Asia and South America) have norms that prioritize group harmony, loyalty, and conformity to the group's goals.

- **Conformity:** This is the pressure to follow a group's norms. The presentation points to "Asch's conformity study" as the classic example, which showed people will often agree with a clearly wrong answer just to fit in.
- **Reference group:** This is any group you use as a standard for your own behavior. It refers to "Important groups to which individuals belong or hope to belong."

Group Property 3: Status

"Status" is "A socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members." It's your "pecking order" or level of importance.

The presentation addresses "How do people acquire status?" using the **"Status characteristics theory"**. This theory states your status is derived from three sources:

1. "The power a person wields over others."
2. "A person's ability to contribute to a group's goals."
3. "An individual's personal characteristics."

The main effect of status is that the "Rules of the game change." High-status individuals are given more "Liberty to follow norms"—or even to break them without the same consequences as lower-status members.

Group Property 4: Size and Dynamics

This property is primarily concerned with **"Social loafing"**.

- **Definition:** "The tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually." This is the "slacker" effect in a group project.
- **Causes:** This happens because of a "Diffusion of responsibility" (you feel less personally accountable) and "Acting in an exploitive manner" (you realize you can get away with doing less and still get the credit).

- **Prevention:** To "How to prevent social loafing," the presentation gives a clear list:
 - "Set group goals"
 - "Increase intergroup competition"
 - "Engage in peer evaluations"
 - "Select members who have high motivation and prefer to work in groups"
 - "Base group rewards in part on each member's unique contributions"

Group Property 5: Cohesiveness

"**Cohesiveness**" is the glue of the group. It's "The degree to which members are attracted to each other and motivated to stay in the group."

- **Factors That Increase Group Cohesiveness:**
 - "Agreement on group goals"
 - "Frequency of interaction"
 - "Personal attractiveness"
 - "Intergroup competition"
 - "Favourable evaluation"
- **Factors That Decrease Group Cohesiveness:**
 - "Disagreement on goals"
 - "Large group size"
 - "Unpleasant experiences"
 - "Intragroup competition"
 - "Domination by one or more members"
- **A Warning:** "A highly cohesive group is analogous to a time bomb in the hands of management." This is because extreme cohesion can lead to *groupthink*, where no one dares to disagree.
- **Entitativity:** This is a related concept, defined as "The extent to which a group is perceived as being a coherent entity." A group has high

entitativity when "Members interact... often," "The group is important... to its members," they "share common goals," and "perceive themselves as similar." For example, the presentation's table shows "Families" have very high entitativity, while "Region of country" is very low.

Group Property 6: Diversity

"Diversity" is the "Degree to which members of the group are similar to, or different from, one another."

- **Types of Diversity:**

- **Surface level diversity:** "Observable characteristics such as national origin, race, and gender."
- **Deep level diversity:** "Underlying attitudes, values, and opinions."
- **Effects of Diversity:** Diversity has two main effects: it "appears to increase group conflict," but it is also "linked to creativity and performance."
- **Faultline:** This is a major risk of diversity. A "Faultline" is "Perceived divisions that split groups into two or more subgroups." These splits are "Based on individual differences such as sex, race, age, work experience, and education." For example, a faultline could form between the "older, experienced" members and the "new, younger" members, splitting the group in two.

Group Dysfunction

1. Social Loafing

- **Definition:** "The tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually."
- **Causes:** "Diffusion of responsibility" and "Acting in an exploitive manner."
- **Prevention:**

- "Set group goals"
- "Increase intergroup competition"
- "Engage in peer evaluations"
- "Select members who have high motivation"
- "Base group rewards in part on each member's unique contributions"

2. Groupthink

- **Definition:** "A deterioration of mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment that results from in group pressures" and "Pressures on individual members to conform and reach consensus."
- **Symptoms:**
 - "Those who oppose the group are stereotyped as evil, weak, or stupid."
 - "Self-censorship of any deviation from the apparent group consensus."
 - "Members... to discount warnings."
 - "The group ignores questionable ethical or moral issues."
 - "The illusion of invulnerability."
 - "Illusion of unanimity - silence is interpreted as consent."
 - "Self-appointed mindguards who protect the group from adverse information."

3. Groupshift (Group Polarization)

- **Definition:** The group "Gets polarised towards an extreme position." It's a "Special case of group-think."
- **How it Happens:** "Members are more comfortable... willing to express extreme versions," "Group decisions are free of responsibility," and "People on the fringes take more extreme position."

- **Risky Shift Phenomenon:** A specific example where "A group may make more risky decisions than the individual members would on their own."

Power and Influence

Power refers to a capacity that A has to influence the behavior of B so B acts in accordance with A's wishes.

Bases of Power

This slide details the *sources* from which power is derived:

- **Coercive Power:** "A power base that is dependent on fear of the negative results from failing to comply." (Power through punishment).
- **Reward Power:** "Compliance achieved based on the ability to distribute rewards that others view as valuable." (Power through giving rewards).
- **Legitimate Power:** "The power a person receives as a result of his or her position in the formal hierarchy of an organization." (Power from a formal title or position).
- **Expert Power:** "Influence based on special skills or knowledge." (Power from being an expert).
- **Referent Power:** "Influence based on identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits." (Power from being liked, respected, or admired).

Dependence: The Key to Power

- **Dependence:** "Probably the most important aspect of power is that it is a function of dependence."
- **The general Dependence Postulate:** "The greater B's dependence on A, the more power A has over B."
- **What Creates Dependence?** Your dependence on someone (and thus their power over you) increases based on three factors:

1. **Importance:** The resource they control is important to you.
2. **Scarcity:** The resource they control is rare.
3. **Non-substitutability:** You have no other viable options or substitutes for that resource.

Attribution

The process through which we seek to identify the causes of others' behavior and so gain knowledge of their stable traits and **dispositions**.

- **Internal Attribution (Dispositional):** The cause is something about the person, rooted in their personality or traits.
- **External Attribution (Situational):** The cause is something about the situation or the environment.

$$\textit{Disposition} = \textit{Behaviour} - \textit{Situation}$$

Correspondent Inference Theory

A theory describing how we use others' behavior as a basis for inferring their stable dispositions.

- **Behavior is Freely Chosen:** If someone *chooses* to do something with no one forcing them, we strongly believe it reflects their true self.
- **Behavior is Low in Social Desirability:** When someone does something that goes against social norms or what's expected, we *really* notice. Since they're not just "going with the flow," we assume their action is driven by a strong internal belief or trait. (e.g., If someone starts singing loudly in a quiet library, you don't think "the situation made them do it"; you think "is inconsiderate").
- **Behavior has NonCommon Effects:** If someone chooses between two things that are almost identical, their choice doesn't tell us much.

But if they pick an option with a very *unique* feature, we assume that unique feature is what they wanted. (e.g., If someone chooses a job that pays less but is the *only* one that lets them work outdoors, we infer they "value nature" or "hate being in an office").

Covariation Theory

We judge a person's behavior by three criteria:

- **Consensus:** The extent to which other people react to a given stimulus or event in the same manner as the person we are evaluating
- **Consistency:** The extent to which the person in question reacts to the stimulus or event in the same way on other occasions, over time
- **Distinctiveness:** The extent to which the person reacts in the same manner to other, different stimuli or events

By these criteria, we derive:

- **Internal Attribution:** conditions in which consensus and distinctiveness are low, but consistency is high.
- **External Attribution:** consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness are all high.

Casual Dimensions

- **Stable factors:** "Are the causal factors... likely to be stable over time, or... likely to change?"
 - "Personality traits and temperament - tend to be quite stable."
 - "motives, health, and fatigue can change over time."
- **Controllable factors:** "Can individuals change or influence them if they wish to do so."
 - "Individuals can, if they wish, learn to hold."

- "Laws or social norms" are (uncontrollable).

Biases and Errors

Correspondent Bias

This is the "tendency for people to over-emphasize dispositional or personality-based explanations for behaviors observed in others while under-emphasizing situational explanations". It's also known as the

Fundamental Attribution Error or **Over-attribution effect**.

Example (from Jones & Harris, 1967): Participants read essays about "Castro's rule in Cuba". Even when they were told that a writer was *instructed* to write a pro-Castro essay (a "No Choice" situational constraint), they "did not correct their inference" and still assumed the essay reflected the writer's true beliefs.

Actor-Observer Effect

This is the "Tendency to attribute our own behavior to situational (external) causes" "But the behavior of others to dispositional (internal) causes".

Example: "When we see another person trip and fall, we tend to attribute it to his or her clumsiness" (internal). "If we trip, however, we are more likely to attribute our fall to situational causes" (external).

Self-Serving Bias

This is the tendency to attribute our own positive outcomes to internal causes and our negative outcomes to external factors.

Example: If your professor gives you an "A+" on a paper, you attribute this outstanding success to internal causes. If you get an "F grade," you attribute this negative outcome to external factors.

Action Identification

This refers to how "Our interpretation of actions is different". We can interpret an act in "differing degrees of abstraction".

Example: Seeing "Someone... putting change in jar".

- **Low abstraction:** You view the action "concretely," as "little more than the actions themselves," and "make few attributions about their intentions".
- **High abstraction:** The "Action has greater meaning". It "reflects much more the person's goals, characteristics, and intentions" (e.g., you identify it as "saving for the future").

Attitude

Attitudes are global evaluations toward some object or issue.

formation of attitude. Favourable and unfavorable evaluations of various aspects of the social world.

Attitude is formed by learning associations and the process of learning associations is called conditioning.

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is the process of learning associations. It involves pairing a neutral stimulus with a meaningful one until the neutral stimulus alone can produce a similar response.

In this process:

- **Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS)** is a stimulus that can evoke an unconditioned response the first time it is presented (e.g., meat powder).
- **Unconditioned Response (UCR)** is the response evoked by an unconditioned stimulus (e.g., salivation).
- **Conditioned Stimulus (CS)** is the stimulus that is repeatedly paired with an unconditioned stimulus (e.g., bell).

- **Conditioned Response (CR)** is the response to the conditioned stimulus (e.g., salivation to the bell).

There are three phases of conditioning:

Phase I (Before Conditioning): The UCS (meat powder) naturally produces UCR (salivation), while the Neutral Stimulus (bell) produces no salivation.

Phase II (During Conditioning): The bell is rung just before presenting meat repeatedly (NS + UCS → UCR).

Phase III (After Conditioning): The bell alone (now CS) produces salivation (CR). This process is called *acquisition*.

Stimulus generalization occurs when stimuli similar to a conditioned stimulus evoke conditioned responses. For example, a person might develop a phobia—an irrational fear of neutral objects—through learned responses to similar situations.

In attitude formation, conditioning works in different ways. The **direct route** involves pairing a liked celebrity with a brand so that a memory link forms between them. The **indirect route** involves repeatedly showing the celebrity with the product, so thinking about one brings the other to mind.

Subliminal conditioning refers to classical conditioning of attitudes by exposure to stimuli below conscious awareness. In the **Walsh and Kiviniemi (2014)** experiment, students viewed photos of apples and bananas while other photos—known to induce positive or negative feelings—were flashed briefly. These subliminal images influenced participants' fruit-eating preferences.

The **mere exposure effect** (Robert Zajonc, 1968) is the tendency for people to like things simply because they see them repeatedly. Even patients with advanced Alzheimer's disease or amnesia, who cannot consciously remember seeing stimuli, still form new attitudes through repeated exposure. In another study, female students liked the mirror image of their photograph more than the true one, while their friends preferred the true print. This happened because people prefer what they see more often—their mirror reflection.

Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning is a process through which organisms learn to repeat behaviors that yield positive outcomes or permit them to avoid or escape from negative outcomes.

Reinforcement is the application or removal of a stimulus to increase the strength of a specific behavior.

- **Positive reinforcers** are stimuli that strengthen responses that precede them. Primary reinforcers are innate and natural, such as food when we are hungry or water when we are thirsty. Conditioned reinforcers acquire their capacity to act as positive reinforcers through association with primary reinforcers, such as money, status, grades, trophies, and praise from others.
- **Negative reinforcers** are stimuli that strengthen responses that permit an organism to avoid or escape from their presence.

Punishment is the application or removal of a stimulus so as to decrease the strength of a behavior. An unpleasant outcome follows the undesired behavior.

- **Positive punishment** occurs when behaviors are followed by aversive stimulus events (punishers).
- **Negative punishment** occurs when the rate of a behavior is weakened or decreased by the aversiveness of loss of potential reinforcements.

Shaping is a technique in which closer and closer approximations of desired behavior are required for the delivery of positive reinforcement.

Chaining is a procedure that establishes a sequence of responses, which lead to a reward following the final response in the chain.

Instrumental Conditioning

Instrumental conditioning refers to the process through which attitudes are shaped and changed by social rewards or punishments. Individuals

learn what attitudes are acceptable and are likely to be reinforced by others in their social environment.

In a study by **Levitan and Visser (2009)**, researchers assessed the political attitudes of students at the University of Chicago when they arrived and tracked which social networks they joined over the next two months. The students who entered networks with more diverse attitudes toward affirmative action showed greater change in their attitudes during that period.

This shows that entering new social networks can be highly influential, especially when they expose individuals to strong arguments they have not previously encountered. The desire to fit in with others and to be rewarded for holding similar attitudes acts as a powerful motivator for attitude formation and change.

Observational Learning

Observational learning is a process in which individuals acquire attitudes or behaviors simply by observing others. People learn what to think, feel, or do by watching the actions and reactions of those around them.

It involves **social comparison**, which is the tendency to compare ourselves with others to determine whether our view of social reality is correct or not. Through this process, individuals evaluate their own attitudes and behaviors in relation to others.

Reference groups play an important role in observational learning. These are people we value and identify with, and their opinions strongly influence our own attitudes.

In a study by **Fleming and Petty (2000)**, students who were either high or low in identification with their gender group were introduced to a new snack product described as either “women’s favorite snack food” or “men’s favorite snack food.” The results showed that identification with the reference group influenced participants’ preferences for the product.

This demonstrates that people tend to adopt attitudes and behaviors modeled by those they identify with, highlighting the power of

observation and social influence in shaping attitudes.

Attitude-Behavior Link

The relationship between attitude and behavior is an important area in social psychology because people's expressed attitudes do not always match their actual behavior.

One of the earliest studies on this topic was conducted by **LaPiere (1934)**. He traveled across the United States for two years with a young Chinese couple, visiting 184 restaurants and 66 hotels. In most cases, they were treated courteously. After the trip, LaPiere wrote to all these businesses asking whether they would serve Chinese customers. About 92% of restaurants and 91% of hotels replied that they would not. This study revealed a major inconsistency between expressed attitudes and actual behavior, showing that what people say and what they do can differ greatly.

Attitude-behavior consistency depends on several factors:

- **Attitude extremity:** The extent to which an individual feels strongly about an issue. Stronger attitudes are more likely to predict consistent behavior.
- **Vested interest:** The extent to which the attitude is relevant to the concerns of the person who holds it. People are more likely to think deeply about and act on issues that personally affect them.
- **Attitude clarity:** When there is no ambivalence in an attitude and the person feels clear about what attitude to hold, their behavior is more consistent with that attitude.
- **Attitude correctness:** The extent to which an individual feels their attitude is the valid or proper one to hold. The stronger this belief, the more consistently they act in line with it.
- **Personal experience:** Direct experience with the attitude object produces stronger attitudes that have a greater influence on behavior.

According to **Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action (1976)**, behavior is determined by behavioral intention, which depends on both personal attitudes and subjective norms (beliefs about how others expect one to behave). Later, Ajzen expanded this into the **Theory of Planned Behavior**, which adds *perceived behavioral control*—the individual's belief in their ability to perform the behavior. This theory explains how attitudes influence actions, particularly when behavior is under partial volitional control.

Sometimes, people act in ways that contradict their attitudes. This creates **cognitive dissonance**, an unpleasant psychological state that occurs when attitudes and behavior are inconsistent. To reduce this discomfort, individuals may change their attitudes, justify their behavior, or minimize the importance of the inconsistency. Cognitive dissonance thus helps explain why people sometimes adjust their beliefs to align with their actions.

Overall, attitudes can guide behavior, but their influence depends on strength, clarity, personal relevance, social expectations, and the perceived control a person has over their actions.

Relationships

Study of why do people like or dislike each other, whether it is on the basis of similarity, physical attractiveness or are they pleasant and fun to be with.

Need to Belong

People have a fundamental, strong, and pervasive motivation to form and maintain at least a certain minimum number of social relationships. A person wants a framework of mutual concern and caring that extends into the past and future, along with a series of non-negative interactions.

To be accepted by others is fundamental to our psychological well-being. A review of medical research by **Lynch (1979)** found that mortality rates

for all major causes of death were higher among people who lacked social bonds than for people who were well connected to others.

Being “left out” by others hurts. It leaves people with the sense that they have lost control and makes them feel both sad and angry.

There are some people, however, who claim to have little or no need for emotional attachments to others and tend to avoid close relationships.

Attachment style refers to the ways in which we form emotional bonds and regulate our emotions in close relationships. It also reflects the degree of security an individual feels in interpersonal relationships. These attachment styles are based on two basic attitudes about the self: **self-esteem** and **interpersonal trust**.

There are four basic attachment styles that describe how people form and maintain emotional bonds in close relationships:

- **Secure Attachment Style:** Characterized by high self-esteem and high interpersonal trust. Individuals with this style feel comfortable with intimacy and are able to maintain healthy, balanced relationships.
- **Fearful-Avoidant Attachment Style:** Involves low self-esteem and low interpersonal trust. People with this style often avoid close relationships because they fear rejection and doubt their own worth.
- **Preoccupied Attachment Style:** Marked by low self-esteem but high interpersonal trust. Such individuals strongly desire closeness but often worry about being rejected or unloved.
- **Dismissing Attachment Style:** Involves high self-esteem but low interpersonal trust. These individuals prefer independence and often avoid emotional closeness, valuing self-reliance over intimacy.

Sources of Attraction

The external sources of attraction include **proximity, familiarity, and physical beauty**. These factors play an important role in determining who we like and form relationships with.

Proximity refers to the physical closeness between two individuals with respect to where they live, where they sit in a classroom, or where they work. The **repeated exposure effect** states that frequent contact with any mildly negative, neutral, or positive stimulus results in an increasingly positive evaluation of that stimulus. This leads to positive affect and the development of mutual attraction.

Familiarity also influences attraction through repeated exposure. In an experiment by **Moreland and Topolinski (2010)**, four female assistants attended a class a different number of times during the semester. The first assistant attended 15 times, the second 10 times, the third 5 times, and the fourth did not attend at all. At the end of the semester, students were shown slides of the four assistants and asked how much they liked each one. The results showed that the more often a particular assistant attended class, the more she was liked. This and many other experiments confirmed that repeated exposure has a positive effect on attraction.

Physical beauty is another powerful source of attraction. Physical features play an important role in how people perceive each other. The color **red** has been associated with increased attractiveness, at least for women. Heterosexual males are more likely to be attracted to females who possess facial markers indicating pubertal maturation, such as large eyes and a narrow jawline, which reflect lower levels of androgen exposure.

In a study by **Langlois and Roggman (1990)**, composite images were used to study attractiveness. They combined multiple facial photographs into a single image using computer digitizing techniques. The study found that an **average face** is seen as more attractive than the individual faces that were averaged. Moreover, as the number of faces contributing to the composite increases, the attractiveness of the composite also increases.

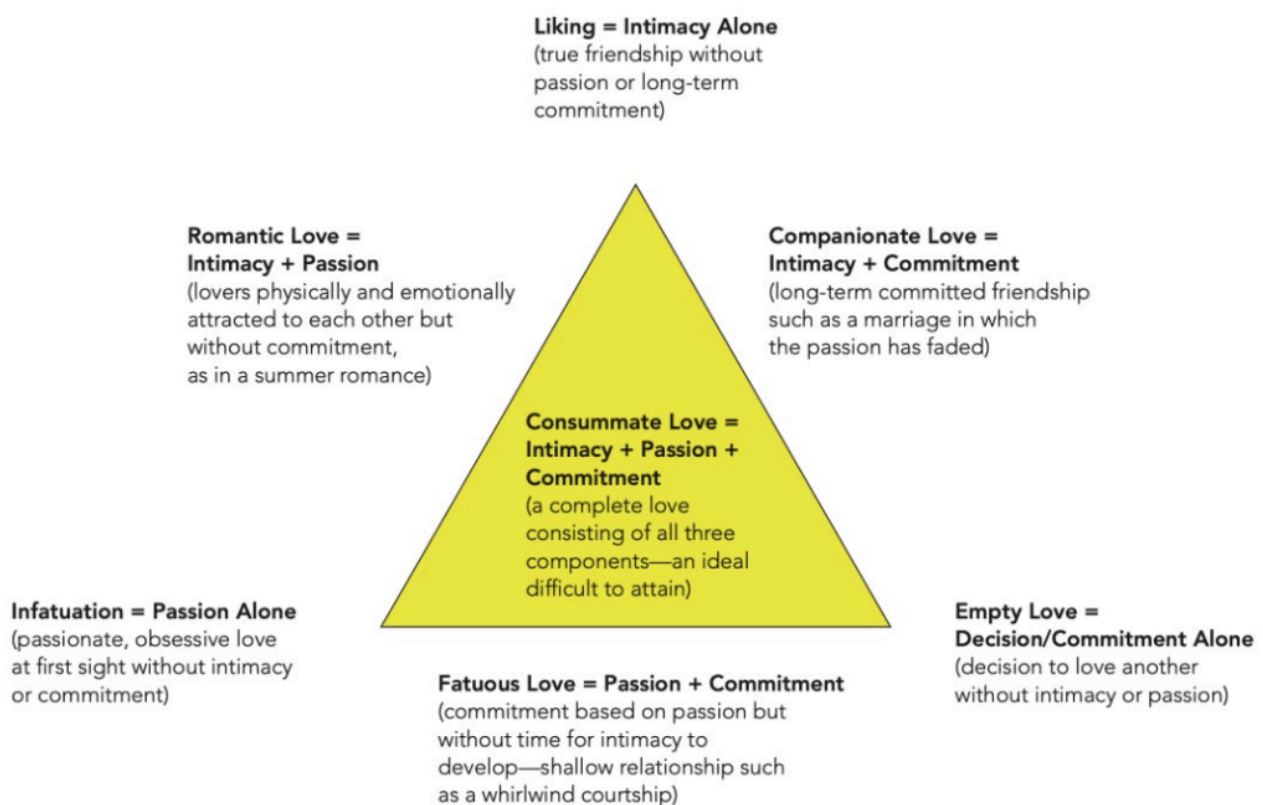
Overall, proximity creates opportunities for interaction, familiarity builds comfort through repeated exposure, and physical beauty strongly influences initial attraction and preference.

The **similarity–dissimilarity effect** refers to the consistent finding that people respond positively to indications that another person is similar to

themselves and negatively to indications that another person is dissimilar from themselves.

- **Attitude similarity** is the extent to which two individuals share the same attitudes. People who have similar beliefs, opinions, or values tend to feel more comfortable and attracted to each other.
- The **proportion of similarity** is calculated by dividing the number of topics on which two people express similar views by the total number of topics on which they have communicated. This proportion can be used to predict the level of attraction between them.

In general, the greater the similarity between two individuals, the stronger the attraction; while dissimilarity often leads to reduced liking and emotional distance.



The **Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation – Behavior (FIRO-B)** is a model that explains how people interact with others and what they seek from their interpersonal relationships. It focuses on understanding relationship preferences and behaviors that influence how individuals form and maintain social connections.

FIRO-B categorizes relationship preferences into **three main dimensions**:

1. **Inclusion:** The need to be part of a group and to include others. It reflects the desire for belonging, participation, and social interaction.
2. **Control:** The need for influence, leadership, and responsibility in relationships. It involves the desire to have authority, make decisions, or be guided by others.
3. **Affection:** The need for closeness, warmth, and personal connection with others. It represents emotional ties, caring, and mutual support.

Each of these dimensions has **two aspects of behavior**:

- **Expressed Behavior:** How much an individual initiates inclusion, control, and affection toward others. It shows the outward behavior a person displays in relationships.
- **Wanted Behavior:** How much an individual wants others to include, control, or show affection toward them. It indicates the level of interpersonal behavior a person prefers to receive from others.

FIRO-B helps in understanding compatibility and differences among individuals by identifying how people balance their expressed and wanted behaviors. It is widely used in organizational settings for team building, leadership development, and improving interpersonal communication.

Overall, FIRO-B highlights that successful and satisfying relationships depend on understanding both how we behave toward others and how we want others to behave toward us across the dimensions of inclusion, control, and affection.