PSYCHOLOGY: OTHERS

# Chapter 14: Relational Influences

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| Conflict | * occurs when there is a perception that two parties (whether individuals or groups) have incompatible ideas, goals or behaviours or when an individual’s needs are not met * Even though the beliefs and or ideas may not actually be incompatible it is the perception that this is the case is sufficient to result to conflict * When people are involved in conflict they become enmeshed in a social process that is potentially destructive and can produce results no one wants |
| Mirror- Image Perceptions | * arise when people are in conflict. * Each party tends to form reciprocal (mutual) and distorted views of one another that are remarkably alike; for example, each may view itself as moral and peace-loving and the other as incompetent, untrustworthy and aggressive. * Can be seen in a wide range of conflicts: disagreements between siblings, family custody disputes and international disputes * They are therefore biased perceptions which can lead to an escalation in hostility when biased attributions are made for behaviour * People assume ‘our’ motives are positive and ‘their’ motives are negative * For example: internationally there is a dispute about nuclear arms where ‘we’ need them for protection and ‘they’ wanted them for aggression |
| Types of SOLUTIONS to solve Conflict | * Imposed Solutions * Distributive Solutions * Integrative Solutions |
| Imposed Solutions | * Dictated solutions * Sometimes one party is stronger and will impose/dictate a solution * At other times a third party may impose a solution * For example: when a mother settles a dispute between two brothers as to who can use the family car on Saturday night * Imposed solutions usually lead to one party winning * Usually leads to one party being dissatisfied and the underlying conflict continues to be unresolved |
| Distributive Solutions | * Involve compromise or mutual concessions known as a half-half solution so both parties get something but they may not feel completely happy with the outcome * For example: in industrial disputes where wages must be set at a level somewhere between that desired by employers and employees |
| Integrative Solutions | * Often called win-win situations because both sides can benefit from the decision reached * This is more difficult to find as it involves understanding both parties’ motives, values and goals * Tries to ensure that the motives of each party are addressed rather than focusing on explicit demands |
| Folett 1940 experiment | * A classic example of the difference between the three types of solutions in a dispute between two sisters over an orange * The sisters chose a distributive solution as they agreed to compromise and cut the orange in half: resulting in one drinking the juice and throwing the peel away whilst the other used the peel in a cake and threw the juice away * The integrative solution in this scenario would’ve been one sister have all the juice and the other have all the peel however this was overlooked. |
| TECHNIQUES for resolving conflicts | * All techniques for helping individuals and groups to resolve conflict have one factor in common they all involve getting the parties talking to each other * If parties are to attempt to find solutions to conflict they must communicate * In ideal solutions communication is directly between the parties involved * If situation is so explosive than an intermediary (counsellor or mediator) is required  1. Counselling 2. Negotiation 3. Mediation and Arbitration |

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| Counselling | * One or both parties to conflict may work with a counsellor in an effort to develop skills to help them deal with conflict or to solve the conflict directly * Whilst counsellors usually work in theoretical bases they will be trying to help their client/s to solve their own problems rather than provide them with solutions * For example: this method is often used when conflict arises within families * Relationships within families usually break down due to poor communication * So counsellors will often help their clients improve their listening skills so they can actually hear what the other party is saying * This will also help clients develop assertiveness, so they can express their opinions and concerns clearly and forcefully without becoming aggressive |
| Negotiation | * Involves parties who have some shared and opposing views coming together to try and reach an agreement * Successful negotiation arrives at an integrative solution but at times negotiation breaks down because the parties fail to understand each other’s positions and goals * The parties can be countries trying to reach a trade agreement or friends trying to find an agreement on what movie to watch Saturday Night |
| Leigh Thompson and Reid Hastie (1990) | * Investigated the process of negotiation in a study involving participants who were assigned a role of a buyer or seller of a car * Found negotiators entered the negotiation expecting the other party’s interests to be completely opposed to their own * Learned about the potential for joint gain during negotiations, the better the realisation was reached the better the outcome for both parties * However a substantial number of negotiators failed to realise they had completely common interests so they ended up settling for solutions which were less than ideal |
| Mediation and Arbitration | * Involve bringing in third parties to help settle conflict * Mediators help parties in a dispute to focus on the issues and suggestions to reach a voluntary solution usually integrative or distributive * Arbitration involves the third party has the right to hand down a decision after listening to both parties present their arguments leading to an imposed solution |
| Benefits of Third Party Intervention | * Mediators can arrange times, venues and agendas for meetings so that these do not add fuel to a conflict * A skilful mediator can improve relationships between parties helping them see common ground, bring fresh ideas about perspectives and stop parties from getting themselves to vulnerable positions |
| Divorce Mediation (Robert Emery and Colleagues, 2005) | * Conducted longitudinal research on the effectiveness of mediation as opposed to adversarial settlement in court for parting parents * Over a 12 year period they followed the progress of parting couples who had been randomly allocated to mediation or a court settlement group they found mediation can: * Settle a large percentage of cases otherwise headed to court * Possibly speed settlement, save money and increase compliance with agreements * Increase party satisfaction * Lead to improved relationships between non-residential parents and children * Lead to improved relationships between divorced parents * Emery and colleagues attributed these positive outcomes to helping parents see the need for commitments to ongoing, long-term parenting cooperation, providing an opportunity to address underlying emotional issues and helping parents establish business like relationships |
| Effects on Divorce on Children | * Some research indicates an increased risk for a variety of negative outcomes in children whose parents have divorced whilst others have found evidence of overwhelming resilience in such children (Emery, Sbarra &Grover 2005, Kelly&Emery, 2003) * Researchers who have looked at mental health aspects have reported in finding resilient children who are dealing with their lives successfully and have no higher incidence of depression than children in intact families * Researchers who have looked at emotional pain have found that most children with divorced parents report substantial and ongoing pain mentioning things such as wondering if their father still loves them or feeling that they have had a tougher childhood then other children * The presence or absence of negative outcomes can be correct it all depends on how we define and measure outcomes * Effects of divorce also depends on the timeframe of study * Shortly after report a higher level of negative outcomes than those who have looked at outcomes over a longer time * Other possible variables include: ages of children, remarriage, the degree of conflict between parents and the amount on contact with both parents |
| Socialisation | * The process by where we acquire the beliefs, values and behaviours that are thought to be important and appropriate to function effectively as a member of society. * How we do this and what are the most important influences on us at different stages in our lives are of interest to developmental and social psychologists |

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| Agents of Socialisation | * Factors that affect our socialisation * **.** Eg. Family, school, friends, mass media, clubs, religious institutions |
| Attachment | * Is defined as a close emotional tie between a child has with a parent or caregiver (generally mother) * Studies suggest that there is a sensitive period during which such bonding should occur if children fail to establish attachment with an adult at a young age negative effects can arise eg. Poor social and emotional development * It is also claimed that disruptions to attachment can lead to similar poor outcomes. Studies to support this are those of: Harry Harlow, John Bowlby, Mary Ainsworth |
| Attachment in Monkeys (Harlow, 1959) | * Conduced some experiments to measure to measure the development of attachment of infant rhesus monkeys to their mothers * He believed such emotional bonds were important for subsequent healthy development so he studied the role of nursing in attachment in eight different rhesus monkeys which had been separated from their mother at birth * His aim was to find out whether ‘provision of food’ or ‘contact-comfort’ is more important in the formation of infant-mother attachment. * He hypothesised that if an infant’s attachment to its mother was based primarily on feeding, the infant monkeys should have preferred and become attached to whichever surrogate mother had the bottle. |
| Harlow’s experiment | * The monkeys were each reared separately in a cage the contained two surrogate mothers which were substitutes for their real mother and similar in size but made of wire mesh * One was covered in cloth and the other was left uncovered * A baby’s bottle was attached to where the mother’s breast would be * Half of the animals were in cages with feeding bottle placed on the wire surrogate and the other half were in cages with the feeding bottle on the cloth surrogate. * Harlow then measured the amount of time the infant monkeys spent on each surrogate mother. |
| Harlow’s Experiment Results | * Regardless of which surrogate provided the nourishment (milk in bottle), the infant monkeys spent more time with the cloth surrogate than the wire surrogate. * By the age of about three weeks, all of the monkeys were spending around 15 hours a day in contact with the cloth surrogate. No animal spent more than 1-2 hours in any 24- hour period on the wire surrogate (all animals drank similar amounts and gained similar weight regardless of which mother had the bottle) * To test whether the monkeys had preference for the cloth surrogate, Harlow created a stressful condition. Various frightening objects were placed repeatedly in the monkey’s cages eg. mechanical spider, teddy bear making loud drumming noise. * Harlow found infant monkeys sought first contact with the cloth surrogate, regardless of whether or not it had the feed bottle. |
| Harlow’s Experiment Conclusions | * Harlow concluded that ‘contact comfort’ (provided by the softness of the cloth covering) was more important than food in the formation of an infant rhesus monkey’s attachment to its mother. * This was surprising as he had hypothesized the infant monkeys would become most attached to which ever surrogate mother provided it with food however the results highlighted attachment was developed through bonding/comfort and therefore psychological needs are important as well as basic/primary needs - food. * Harlow then generalised the animal behaviour to human mother-infant bond however this should be treated cautiously |
| Attachment in Humans (John Bowlby, 1953) | * An English psychologist and psychiatrist who studied the predisposition of infant’s for a constant contact with their mothers * Believed that the earliest bonds formed by children with their caregivers had a tremendous impact that continued throughout life. * Theorised that children who were close to their mothers would have avoided predators and grownup to have children on their own as attachment served to keep the infant close to their mother * Believed there was an optimum time (sensitive period) when infants became imprinted by early contact with their mothers * Imprinting : refers to the precise and permanent learning that occurs very early on in an infant’s life to dorm a bond usually with its mother the bond is termed attachment * Believed mothers have a biological need to be close to their child which is why mothers respond to cries and smiles * First theory to consider the pair and not just the infant   Bowlby assumed children who do not experience a warm relationship will not be able to form healthy relationships in adulthood as the process of infant bonding was essential for attachments in adulthood   * Primary bond that was much more important than any other (usually with mother ) and is different to other attachments |
| Monotropy | * Attachment as a close bond with just one attachment figure * The child behaves in ways to elicit contact or proximity to the caregiver * When children experienced heightened arousal and they signal their caregiver (crying, smiling or movement are examples of this signalling behaviour) and the caregivers respond to the child’s behaviour creating a reciprocal pattern of interaction * Bowlby suggested the nature of monotropy meant failure to imitate or a breakdown of maternal attachment would lead to serious negative consequences * Bowlby may not dispute that young children form multiple relationships he still contends that the attachment to the mother is unique in that it is the first to appear and remains strongest of all |

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| Maternal Deprivation | * The term used to refer to the separation from or loss of the mother as well as failure to develop attachment * Bowlby claimed that mother is ineffective if delayed until after 12 months so this critical period exists if attachment is broken child will suffer irreversible long term consequences * Long term consequences : * Delinquency * Reduced intelligence * Increased aggression * Depression * Affectionless psychopathy |
| Internal Working Model | * Child’s attachment relationship to his or her primary caregiver leads to the development of an internal working model or a cognitive framework compromising of mental representations for understanding the world, self and others * People’s interaction with others is guided by their memories and expectations from their internal model and help evaluate their contact with others * According to Bowlby the internal working model acts as a prototype for future relationships * The model consists of:  1. A model of others being trustworthy 2. A model of the self as valuable 3. A model of the self as effective when interacting with others  * These elements guide future social and emotional behaviour |
| Bowlby Criticism | * Rutter (1972) points out several indicators of attachment ( protest or distress when attached person leaves) have been shown in a variety of attachment figures – fathers, siblings * Bowlby did not distinguish between deprivation and privation (complete lack of an attachment bond than it’s loss) * Rutter stresses that the quality of an attachment bond is the most important factor rather than deprivation during a critical period * Bowlby oversimplified the concept of maternal deprivation as he referred to it as the separation from an attached figure, loss of an attached figure and failure to develop attachment to any figure * Rutter argued that if a child fails to development an emotional bond it is due to privation whereas deprivation refers to the loss / damage on an attachment |
| Bowlby Support | * Harlow’s research: showed that monkeys reared in isolation from their mother suffered emotional and social problems in an older age as the monkeys never formed an attachment (privation) and grew up to be aggressive and had problems interacting with other monkeys supports Bowlby’s maternal deprivation theory * Ainsworth’s Strange Situation * Attachment in other Cultures |
| The Strange Situation | * Mary Ainsworth and Sylvia Bell (1970) developed a way to measure attachment known as the Strange Situation which involves the infant in a series of episodes with their mother and a stranger * which resulted in three types of attachment * Intensity of the behaviour could be heightened or reduced by changing the environmental conditions * Separation: could bring a strong response with the child crying and showing signs of distress |
| Steps in the Strange Situation | 1. Child and mother enter room with toys and infant can explore room and play  2. Stranger enters  3. Mother leaves  4. Stranger interacts with child  5. Mother reenters room and reassures child, encouraging them to play again  6. Stranger leaves room  7. Mother leaves room  8. Strange reenters and interacts with child  9. Mother returns and comforts child |
| Three Types of Attachment | * Type A: ANXIOUS AVOIDANT showed their insecurity by ignoring their mothers and failing to look at her and not trying to be close to her * Type B: SECURE INFANTS: used their mother as a secure base from which to explore the room * Type B: ANXIOUS RESISTANT showed their insecurity by resisting their mothers, such as by clinging to her but also kicking and pushing away * Ainsworth found that the type of attachment formed between mother and child depended on how sensitive and responsive the mother was to her child’s signals |
| Van Ijzendoor and Kroonenberg (1988) | * Carried out an analysis of studies involving 32 samples from 8 different countries to look for similarities and differences between cultures * Found evidence of all three types of attachment in all culture and interestingly they found the differences within cultures were greater than differences between cultures * There was also a range of levels of each attachment type within different studies in the same countries (eg. Many type A in one study but not the other) * Differences within cultures were greater than differences between cultures - However when they analysed countries ‘as a whole’ they noticed: * Type A –was most common in Western Europe * Type B – was most common in all countries * Type C – was most common in Japan and Israel |

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| Abraham Sagi and Colleagues (1994) | * Suggested early child-rearing practices (which are culture dependant) can lead to differences in the proportions of each attachment type. * Was interested in the Israeli kibbutzim raising of children which involves communal housing and caretaking * They suggested, due to past research, there would be high levels of Type C (anxious-resistant attachment) due to the babies sleeping arrangements from 6 weeks (sleeping in Infant house) which they suggested would lead to insecure attachment. * When they investigated this using the ‘strange situation’ they found: * Traditional Kibbutzim (sleep at infant house) – babies had high levels of anxiousresistant attachment (52%) * Home-based kibbutzim (sleep at home) babies had lower levels of anxiousresistant attachment (20%) * To avoid bias observers were unaware of which type of kibbutz each mother and child pair were from |
| Criticism of the Strange Situation | * Various researchers question weather it was measuring attachment of the strangeness of the situation * Durkin 1995: Japanese children find the separation part of the Situation particularly stressful because they are rarely separated from their mothers * However children who spend much of their day in childcare in Western Cultures, maybe unperturbed by their mother leaving the room   Highlights   * Ainsworth viewed how sensitive mother was to child’s signals and the nature of the relationship shown through child’s behaviour when stressed. Lead to conclusions about different types of attachment mothers have with their children * Child rearing practices (which can depend on culture) can impact behaviour/attachment type of children |
| Parenting | * Parent- Child interactions work in both directions they are reciprocal * While parents do influence their children, children themselves also influence how their parents react to them and raise them * For Example: the temperament of infants whether they are ‘easy’ or ‘difficult’ babies make a big difference to how parents respond to them * Something simple as mutual eye contact has been found to be important in early interactions |
| Cox and Colleague (1989) | * Other relations within the family such as that between the parents will also affect parenting * Cox found that mothers with a close relationship with their partner are more likely to be patient and nurturing in their relationships with children |
| Two aspects of parenting which have be found to be important in determining the development of children/adolescents as individuals and members of society | * RESPONSIVENESS: level of support and affection shown by the parent * The degree to which they smile at, praise and encourage their children * CONTROL: the extent that parents supervise and regulate their children’s behaviour |
| Diana Baumrind | * Noted the these two major parenting dimensions of responsiveness and control and be combined into four different styles of parenting  1. Authoritarian 2. Authoritative 3. Permissive 4. Uninvolved |
| Authoritarian | Parents demand obedience, set rules with few explanations, not interested in alternative viewpoint of child. Parents are both demanding and strict with high expectations of compliance to parental rules and demands and often use power or withdrawal of love to enforce rules. |
| Authoritative | Parents set limits, and demands are reasonable, children understand reason for rules. Parents are responsive to children’s viewpoint and try to involve children in decision making processes as they grow older. Parents are warm and responsive and expect children to follow rules and act age-appropriate.  = Seen as best approach for most positive outcome of child. |

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| Permissive | Parental acceptance of child and few rules or guidelines are set by parent = lenient. Children not closely monitored and parents rarely control behaviours. Children are allowed to express themselves as they please. Sometimes referred to as ‘indulgent parenting’ as the parents are non-directive and lenient |
| Uninvolved Parenting | parents reject children or are too busy with their own lives and don’t have time or energy for their children. Very lax approach to parenting, no limits set, no enforcement of behavior and little interest in child.  = Seen as most unfavoured approach due to resulting negative outcomes for child. |
| Baumrind (1971) | * Studied child/parent relationships over a number of years. * Found children of authoritative parents:are more achievement orientated and have better social skills than children of authoritarian and permissive as adolescence are relatively confident and tended to stay clear of drug abuse and other problem behaviours. * Other research suggests children of uninvolved parents have the most negative outcomes as:At age 3, children were prone to temper tantrums and showed high level of tantrumsBy adolescence they are more likely to be involved in delinquent behavior and criminal acts |
| Family | two of more people, with at least one aged over 15, who are related by blood, marriage, adoption, step or fostering, usually residing in the same household. |
| Types of Family | **Intact family** – a couple with at least one natural or foster child to both the parents and no step children exist.  **Step family** – couple containing one or more children, where the children are the step children of one of the couples and the couple have no natural or foster children of their own.  **One-parent family** – lone parent with dependant or non-dependant child/ren who usually reside in the household  **Blended families** – couple with two or more children, with at least one of which are their natural or foster child and at least one is the step-child of one of the couples.  **Child** – person of any age who is the natural, step of fostered son or daughter of a couple or parent  **Dependent Children:** All family members under 15 years of age, family members 15-19 attending school and 15-24 attending tertiary educational full time  **Non-dependent Children:** in a couple or one parent families son and daughters who are over 25 and who are not full time students |
| Family in the 21st Century | * Values and practices have changed over time. Once the majority of families were considered ‘intact’ families however now there are many one parent families, blended families and step families. * Therefore the definition of family is complex and changes to family structure have occurred in recent times. * These changes have occurred due to changes in the levels of: * Parent separation * Divorce ( approximately 33% of marriages) * Re-partnering + Remarriage |
| Divorce | * In 1975 the Family Law Act was passed – outlined Couples no longer needed to show [grounds for divorce,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grounds_for_divorce) but instead, just that their relationship had suffered an irreconcilable breakdown and this could be demonstrated by 12 months of separation. * This lead to a large increase in the rate of divorces and changes to what we now know as ‘family’ eg. Intact, blended etc. * There are no also many children living in split homes – living part time with each parent. |
| Historical Changes within families | * Parents/families have historically assumed responsibility for the care of their children   Changes have however occurred in relation to  **Women in workforce:**   * Fathers are no longer always considered bread winner in the family * Mothers are no longer always the ‘stay at home’ parent who cares for the dependant children – often no parent is at home and responsible for day to day care and increase need for childcare * Increased employment of women in the workforce (1980’s 40% women in paid workforce, now ~70%), although many women work part time and are poorly paid in comparison to males.   Children in families:   * Parents (married or not) are having fewer children and therefore decreased number of children in families and extended families are decreasing in size   Mobility of Workforce:   * Increased mobility of workforce has lead to many families not living close by to each other and improved communication has meant we can keep in regular contact if do live long distances from family.   Changes within families have affected children and parent-child relationships. |

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| Stanley Richardson and Prior (2004) | * suggested **five areas of change** in Australia that have impacted negatively on children’s health and development.   They are:   * Fewer children in families and people living longer * Economic changes and a focus on competition and profit * Women in the workforce and the impact this has on the care of children eg. Need for childcare * Changes in family structure * Increased technology which has lead to decreased ‘play’ and exercise |
| Grandparents | * Traditionally grandparents were retired and seen as ‘knowledgeable and loving’ and told stories about ‘old days’. * Now they are more likely to have own very active lives and some even are very active in providing care for their grandchildren. * This has lead to grandparents being considered more often in the court of law when considering what might be best for children and who has custody of children when parents may not be available or fit to care for their children. * Peterson (2004) described five styles of grandparenting * Research suggest if grandparents are alive, most children have some regular contact with their grandparents and interaction decrease as children age. |
| Conclusions about family | * There is a correlation (relationship) between parenting styles and a child’s social and emotional development however it isn’t suggested that one causes the other but instead the following might be possible: * Parenting styles cause child behaviour and socialisation * Parenting styles can impact levels of attachment and development of social and emotional interaction abilities - A child’s behaviour causes a particular parenting style * Something else (another variable) causes parenting style and/or child behaviour |

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| Peterson’s 5 styles of grand parenting | * Formal grand parenting: provide special outing and activities at birthdays and other occasions = over 65 * Fun seeking: typically aged around 50 and enjoying playing and other informal activities with young children * Remote: have little social or psychological investment with grandchildren = physical distance * Parent- Surrogate: take over child care responsibilities when parents are absent * Fonts of wisdom: maintain family traditions and provide links with previous generations, storytellers and impart wisdom, memories and skills to new generations. |

Chapter 15: Communication

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| Communication | * Involves the transmission of a message from one person to another * The imparting or exchanging of information by speaking, writing or using some other medium * Exactly what is communicated depends not only on the content of the message but also on how the content in conveyed * Our use of different media- visual, spoken or written can effect the way messages are received * Different communication styles can also have a major impact on how effective we are at getting our message across |
| How can you communicate with others? | * Writing, phoning, social networks * Verbal Skills * Tone, volume, lip reading * Body language or non-verbal cues to communication * Culturally appropriate eye contact, posture, facial expressions, personal space, sign language |
| Factors that can impede communication | * Language barriers * Assumption * Cultural barriers * Psychological barriers * Presentation of information * Physical Barriers * Disorders: hearing impairment, Autism spectrum disorder * Approximately 10% of school children have a communication problem in which their language can be described as delayed or disordered |
| Active Listening | * Giving your full attention to someone and really hearing them * Listening with eyes, ears and heart * Example: nodding, making eye contact, reframing/rephrasing/ asking for clarification * Active listening is NOT * Interrupting someone * ‘One up man ship’ which is topping their story, talking about your own problems when they are trying to tell you theirs * Being judgemental such as ‘I told you so and ‘that was a stupid thing to do’ |
| Communication Styles | * Impacted by culture and social aspects of language such as gender, socio-economic background and culture (depends on the culture in which we were raised) * Involve aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, accents and types of ideas we try to express * Contribute to our identity and impact how we are judged by others * Thought of as an attribute * Much of our identity is tied up in how we speak * Part of our self-image |
| Key theorists in the area of communication | * Basil Bernstein (1924-2000) * Sociolinguistic theory of language codes * Restricted and elaborated codes * William Labov (1927-) * American Linguist, widely regarded as the founder of discipline of variationist sociolinguistics * Deborah Tannen (1945-) * Gender difference in communication |
| Basil Bernstein (1971) | * Sociologist who worked to increase our understanding of the relationship between language style and social class * Hoped to prevent the wastage of working class educational potential * His work was often misunderstood and incorrectly labelled a form of cultural deficit theory= nothing could be more inaccurate * Suggested people in upper and middle classes use different language conventions to those in lower working classes * Theory shows how the language people use in everyday conversation both reflects and shapes the assumptions of a certain social group * Relationships established within a social group affect the way the group uses language and the type of speech that is used * Relationship between language and social class |
| Bernstein’s Restricted vs Elaborated codes | * Restricted code: used by people from lower/ working class which relied on preserving traditional roles and ways of interacting * Elaborated Code: middle class also used a restricted code but wanted to develop ideas in relation to their personal experiences so in addition used an elaborative code in their interactions * Code: Stephen Littlejohn in ‘Theories of Human Communication’ (2002) defines a code as ‘ a set of organising principles behind the language employed by members of a social group |

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| Restricted Code Features | * Short and simple sentences are used with much information conveyed non-verbally * Much of the meaning only makes sense if the context is known * Few descriptive words are used * Commands are frequently used to gain compliance * ‘here and now’ is stressed * Abstract ideas are rarely expressed |
| Elaborated Code Features | * Complex precise sentences are used * Meaning is clear from the sentence alone * More use is made of descriptive words * Explanations are usually used to gain compliance * Events in the past or future are referred to * Abstract ideas, future possibilities and so are expressed easily and often |
| Bernstein’s influence on education | * Working/ lower class children have a language ‘deficit’ as they did not use an elaborated code and only used inferior restricted code which limited their ability to benefit from education * His theory had major influence on education programs for young children in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s with various projects to help poor children overcome their educational disadvantage such as headstart |
| William Labov (1970) | * Professor of Linguistics at the University of Pennsylvania * Strongly contrasted Bernstein’s idea of a language deficit * In the 1970’s he worked with black children from New York who spoke Black English Vernacular or BEV which is now called ‘African-American’ English Vernacular * Considered BEV just as complex and governed as standard English but it should be considered different not deficient * Example: English : “he doesn’t know anything BEV: “ he don’t know anything * Pointed out that several European languages used double negatives in the same way as BEV * Linguists now accept that language styles are simply differences in language use, rather than one style being superior to another, prejudices against particular styles still exist in most communities |
| Ian Malcom and Colleagues (2003) | * Aboriginal English vs Standard Australian English (SAE) * Consider Australian Aboriginal children are still expected to submit to an education that only recognises standard English and in which teachers have little appreciation of differences not only in speaking style but also listening style * For Example: news telling sessions in class are common in classrooms based on the expectations the only one person speaks and the listeners remain still and attentively listen to the speaker, expectations that are foreign to an aboriginal child’s understanding of news sharing * Malcom & Colleagues pointed out that it is important to understand and respect differences in communication styles for effective interactions |
| Gender Differences in Communication Style – Deborah Tannen 1990 | * DT is a university professor of linguistics at Georgetown University and author of many books an articles about how the language of everyday conversations affects relationships * Men and women use different typical styles of communication * From childhood boys and girls learn different approaches to language and communication= Tanner calls these ‘genderlects’ * Women= rapport talk * Men= report talk |
| Report Talk | * A style focused on exchanging information with little emotional input, similar to public speaking and holds attention of audience, holding centre stage/ status * Type used in public speaking * When telling jokes or stories or imparting information they are comfortable with holding centre stage * Talk as a way of gaining and holding attention of their audience and to negotiate and maintain status |
| Rapport Talk | * A communication style meant to promote relationships and emotional connection, develops understandings * Use of ‘mm’ ;yeah’ to show listening * Use hedges to soften requests * Based on establishing relationships, developing understanding and negotiating differences * Tannen considered women enjoyed private conversation more then men and this requires sharing experiences |

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| Friction between men and women | * Occur because of a lack of understanding of differences in communication styles * Women coming to couples counselling frequently complain that their partners do not listen to what they say or do not talk to them anymore * Tannen considers if men and women simply understand the differences in each other’s reasons for talking, a lot of anguish can be avoided |
| Different forms in expression used by men and women and to link them to power differences between the sexes | * Women have been shown to use more confirmatory noises like ‘mm’ and ‘yeah’ to indicate that they are listening * Also use more indirect requests then men * For Example: a man might say shut the door, a women is more likely to say ‘would you mind closing the door’ * Type of behaviour occurs when women are interacting with each other as when men and women are together * Another grammatical form that is considered common in women’s speech is a ‘hedge’ * Used to soften a request or statement * For example: ‘Please shut the door if you don’t mind’ = hedge is last four words * Dallos (1996) noted hedges used by both men and women are more correctly thought of as strategic devices, rather than as signs of powerlessness = used to achieve an end |
| Persuasion | * Is a form of communication that we experience everyday * Involves trying to change the beliefs, feeling and behaviour of another * Whatever the specific purpose of our attempts at persuasion, we need to know what affects the listener’s reactions if we want to be successful * Occurs when without a duress as people are influenced by the way others communicate messages * Examples: a child in a supermarket trying to convince their mother she should buy him some lollies * Opposing political parties trying to convince voters to support them * Advertisers assuring an audience that their brand of beer is the best |
| Petty and Cacioppo (1961) | * State there are two routes to persuasion: central and peripheral * Attitudes that are changed through the central route to persuasion will have different effects from attitudes changed via the peripheral route * 1986: attitude changes mostly from processing issue-relevant arguments (central route) will show greater temporal persistence, greater prediction of behaviour and greater resistance to counter persuasion that attitude changes which result from peripheral cues’ * Clear that persuaders would want to know how to make attitude change last longer, have a greater influence on behaviour and be more resistant to change * Central processing has advantages, receivers do not always have the motivation and ability to think about the content of the message * Need to understand both of these processes of persuasion |
| Central Route to Persuasion | * Consists of thoughtful consideration of the content of the message by the receiver as an active participant in the process of persuasion * Central Processing can only occur when the receiver has both the motivation and ability to think about the message and its content * Therefore if the listener does not care about the topic or does not understand the persuasive message he or she will almost certainly lack the motivation to process it |
| Peripheral Route to Persuasion | * Occurs when the listener decided whether to agree with the message based on cues other than the content of the message * For example: a listener may agree with a message because the source appear to be an expert or is attractive * Peripheral cues like source expertise or a great deal of content in one message are a short-cut * Receivers engages in peripheral processing are more passive than those doing central processing |
| Features/ Types of Persuasive Communication | * Source of the message * Nature of the communication * Characteristics of the audience |
| Source of the message = who is telling us information? | * Trustworthy people are seen as able to persuade others * Research also suggests that we are we are more likely to be accept the word of someone we consider has expertise in an area even without assessing the validity of their claim * Advertisers count on this * Fast talkers are seen as experts as they appear to be more intelligent and knowledgeable as long as the gist of the message can be understood * Believed to be because it is more difficult for listeners to evaluate the content of all that is said so the audience just thinks the message they are delivering must be credible, due to the fast presentation of the message (Smith and Shaffer, 1995) * Trustworthiness is another characteristic that persuades us * Politicians are well aware of this and in an election campaign will often try to convince us that their opponents are untrustworthy, by referring to broken political promises and so on |

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| Nature of the communication: presenting an argument | * When people understand a message and respond favourably to it they are likely to be persuaded by it (keep it simple) * However being exposed to a message does not necessarily mean we understand it * Messages that provoke emotional responses and change our thinking are also likely to persuade us * Carefully considering the argument being presented * Research indicates that much persuasive information is misunderstood although comprehension of printed advertisements and information is higher than for information presented on television * For this reason, those using broadcast media for persuasion need to remember to ‘keep it simple’ * We do not simply absorb information we react to it and interact with it * Messages often aim to provoke an emotional response as well as to change our thinking if our reactions are unfavourable, we are unlikely to be persuaded |
| Some advertisements make no appeal at all to our reason but aim straight at the emotions | * Many advertisements for products ranging from rum to lottery tickets are created to try to make us feel good in the hope we will buy the product * However the research evidence linking good mood and ability to be persuaded in mixed * Reasoning appears to be that when people are in a good mood they are less likely to carefully process information and will therefore not be swayed by a rational argument but they still might buy a product on impulse * However more likely to be convinced by a supposed expert * So it depends on how the advertisement is understood by listeners/viewers as to whether their good mood or not or their view of the speaker as being an expert or is not likely to lead them to being persuaded by the message |
| Some attempts at persuasion rely on inducing fear | * We see this in political campaigns, in parent’s warnings and health campaigns * Research shows for this to be successful, it must arouse sufficient anxiety or we miss the message by becoming too emotional * High levels of fear can lead to the avoidance of the message and can stop us from being able to process the content of the message properly |
| Characteristics of the audience | * Gaining attention * Considers who is trying to be persuaded * Some advertisements aim to grab the attention of the audience quickly so we focus on it * If you want to gain the attention of someone you also need to consider how you present the information in an appropriate and timely manner |
| The content or presentation style of our message will change depending on a range of characteristics of the audience | * We must think about these and target them appropriately * Age, personality, level of education, relationship to us, personality * We know this as at an intuitive level and in this instance there is research to back our hunches |
| Individuals differ in how carefully they will evaluate an argument | * Research has shown that some people enjoy examining issues, checking for inconsistencies and weighing up the pro’s and cons in a debate * Such people are said to have a high need for cognition (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982) * Much more likely to be persuaded by strong arguments and unmoved by weak ones * In contrast people who are low in their need for cognition are less likely to take the strength of an argument into account and are likely to be more swayed by factors such as the expertise or trustworthiness of the person presenting the message |
| Zhu Yunxia (2000-2001) | * Advertisers working across cultures generally try to be aware of cultural differences in what people find persuasive * Seen in the invitations sent by Zhu Yunxia to a trade fair that were examined * Letters were sent to people in mainland China, Australia, New Zealand and the United States with the goal of inviting people to the trade fair * Invitations to people in Western cultures appeared strongly to logic * Invitations to people in China appealed to both logic and emotions * The letters were also written in a very formal and respectful way |
| Min-Sun Kim and colleagues (1998) | * Examined cultural differences and they way attempts at persuasion are evaluated * Based their study on known differences between individualistic and collective cultures with students from mainland United States, Korea and Hawaii as representatives of each culture * Hypothesised that participants who valued interdependence would be most likely to use hint strategies and consider them to be effective means of persuasion * Conversely they expected the participants who valued independence would consider direct statements as they best methods of making requests * Their hypotheses were supported for first attempt requests, however if confronted with non-compliance all participants reported they would be likely to resort to more direct requests for their second attempts |

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| Features and limitations of theories of language development | * Language and social skills or interactions impact our ability to communicate * Communication and social interactions assist us in learning language and how to use it * Researchers about language consider three main types of knowledge they must acquire: * Knowledge about what to say (content of language) * Knowledge about how to say it ( the form of language) * Knowledge about the use of language * All these components even signed language, have these components * Children learning a spoken language must learn to discriminate and produce the sounds of their language * Those learning sign language must learn to discriminate and produce the hand shapes and movements of signs * All these components change as an infant develops |
| Language of a 12 month old child | * Content is usually made up of single words * Maybe used in different ways and accompanied by different gestures to have different meanings * For example: ‘daddy’ can mean ‘there’s daddy’ or ‘where’s daddy ? and daddy accompanied by raised arms might mean ‘pick me up daddy’ |
| Language of two, three and four year olds | * 2 years: children are combining two words mostly in fixed form * For example: a child says ‘more milk’ instead of ‘milk more’ * Between two and three years language expands at an amazing rate so by the time a child turns three they would be speaking in complete sentences * The form of these sentences will often be different to adult forms for example a four year old may say: * ‘ I buyed all of those things with all my money’ |
| Knowledge about how language is used also changes as children dramatically grow | * If children do not learn to use language that takes into account the person they are speaking with then their intended message does not get across effectively * A study in which four year old children were asked to introduce a new toy to either a two year old/ adult showed that a child can use different content and forms of expression to take into account the listener’s level of understanding * When talking to the two year old four year olds used shorter sentences and words such as ‘watch’ or ‘look’ * When talking to the adult they used longer more complex sentences and were more polite |
| Politeness | * Expected in most cultures especially if the speaker is asking for something * This value is learnt * For example: young children use blunt requests such as ‘gimme’ only to be told with ‘ say please’ or ‘what’s the magic word?’ * At a later stage children learn that an indirect approach can sometimes work most better * For example: ‘gee I’m hungry mum’ or ‘what you’re cooking smells great’ can be more effective then ‘can I please have some cake?’ |
| Language is Innate – Noah Chomsky (1968) | * Proposed that humans have a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which is a black box hardwired for language * This suggested language was biologically determined (genetic) * Therefore learn our native language easily and produce speech in it (unlike animals) * Worked by receiving as input the native language around the child and generated sentences in the same language as the output * Suggested all humans had the same ability to develop language, irrespective of socio-economic difference |
| Chomsky’s Universal Rules | * Assumed there were universal rules that could distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences * Surface structure rules described the grammatical structure of each spoken language * Deep structure rules enable the generation or production of grammatical sentences * Grammatical sentences: ability to learn grammar and is hardwired to our brain (such as verbs, past tense) * Ungrammatical sentences: LAD HELPS TO COPE WITH THIS such as slang words * Claimed that people are genetically predisposed to learn this universal grammar * LAD could dead with surface structure language received and make sure children’s output increasingly approximated the language of native speakers |
| LAD evidence | * Studies that show parents do not provide reliable feedback on whether their children’s developing language is grammatical or not * So correction is not given but children still learn to talk in grammatical sentences |

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| Chomsky limitations | * Paid little attention to the social environment in which the child was developing, except to acknowledge the primary linguistic input came in from language being used is family + community * Children were innately predisposed to learn how to talk or how to understand the language around them |
| Learning is learned-Jerome Bruner (1983) | * By contrast the children’s language development takes place through parents talking to children * Involves participation in shared activities where words and meanings develop in routines and activities regularly undertaken like shopping + washing dishes * Bruner suggest that adults assist children in learning language by talking, routine, activities and guidance |
| Bruner’s longitudinal study | * Participants were two boys from three months of age until they were about 24 months * Described the processes through which language was learned * Children learn language to communicate and at the same time learn linguistic code * Bruner proposed a Language Acquisition Support System (LASS) which essentially described how parents (mainly mothers) guided and supported their children’s emerging language through interaction * Not only did children learn to talk but they learned language of the particular social, historical and cultural group in which they were growing up |
| LASS requires LAD | * And vice versa * Language can only develop through interaction with others * There is a child component containing the innate propensity to learn language * An adult components providing the necessary social and instructional frameworks to encourage talk and facilitate the learning of language |
| Scaffolding | * Proposed that adults, the parent or mother provided suitable interactional frameworks to allow language to develop * Contains an instructional part in the form of framework that encourages learning * Through the use of extremely well-known, familiar and comfortable routines and activities, she can push the child a little beyond his or her current capabilities to talk more, use new words and learn new meanings= called formats by Bruner * Activities such as meal and bath time and familiar games like ‘peek a boo’ * Activities are tightly structured and offer rich opportunities * for mothers to raise expectations about a child’s language development * Encourages learning by continually challenging or pushing a child to complete a familiar task or routine to increase their knowledge |
| Reference | * Language development supported through mother-child instructions i * How people manage to direct each other’s attention by linguistic means * Develops out of non-linguistic methods of directing attention such as pointing or turning your head to look at someone * In young children: sounds accompany these gestures and eventually the sounds come to replace the gestures * Highly context sensitive and takes place in time and space using words such as ‘here’ , ‘this’ and ‘today’ |
| Joint Attention | * First established through eye contact between an infant and their mother * Sustained eye contact is often taken by parents as the first sign that the infant recognises them and it leads to primitive conversations mainly from the parents end * Early eye contact: mothers and infants develop primitive vocal turn taking, the child looking and making a noise, the mother looking and talking * Once this routine is firmly established mothers introduce objects for the infant to look at * For example: she may be holding a brightly coloured object between her line of sight and that of her young child and look at the object * Infant will follow in suit * Routines themselves are accompanied by talk and gradually over time the objects looked at are moved further away * Looking also gets replaced with pointing so infants gradually associate names of objects with terms to describe their place in time and space * Mothers are using this routine to enhance opportunities for their children to learn language |
| Book reading | * Example of growth of reference * Format with a routine structure required the mother and child to sit down together and ‘read’ * Early books are picture books and much of the reading consists in the mother pointing at things in the pictures and naming or commenting on them * Garton and Pratt (1998, 2004) by taking time book reading appears as a format children are able to take turns and know many of the conventions of conversations * Book reading shows most clearly how mothers use the format to help children achieve more with their language |

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| Scaffolding and Reference | * Both involve structure and routine and are language learning lessons where parent, supports, scaffolds and encourages child to strive for greater and more accurate language use * Provides the context and constraints within which the child can demonstrated their current language attainment * Encouraging further achievement, supporting the child’s attempts to use language * Becomes more particular I what she finds acceptable in language behaviour as the child grows older |

**Chapter 18: Others: Social Psychology**

# Influence of Groups on Behaviour

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| Social Psychology | The Scientific Study of the nature and causes on individual behaviour in group situations |

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| Influence of Groups on Behaviour | * Our behaviour is influenced by others sometimes for the better and sometimes for the worse * Examples: * Do you play a better game of tennis when you have an audience or when no one is watching * A dance routine you perform in your bedroom- could you perform is as well on stage in the school auditorium? |
| Impact of the presence of others on behaviour | * Social Facilitation * Social Inhibition |
| Social Facilitation | Definition: the boost in performance due to the presence of others   * 1898: Norman Triplett noticed that cyclists rode faster when they raced against each other than when they raced against the clock * Hypothesised that the presence of others boosted performance * Tested this idea by asking adolescents to wind in a reel as quickly as they could * Found that their performance was better when they were with another person who was also winding a reel in comparison to doing the task alone * Later research showed that the presence of others did not always have this helpful effect |
| Social Inhibition | * Definition: reduced performance due to the presence of others * With complex tasks the presence of others either as observers or as people doing the same task often led to worse performance * Different effects of the presence of others can be understood when we consider being watched increases our level of arousal * Yerkes and Dodson discovered many years ago people generally perform best at moderate levels of arousal * Performance drops off when they are no sufficiently aroused and when they are over aroused= Upside down U shaped for optimal arousal level * The optimal level of arousal for best performance varies depending on the type of task we undertake * With simple or well learned tasks we perform better with a relatively high level of arousal * For difficult or new tasks we perform better at lower arousal levels |
| Diffusion of Responsibility | Definition: The effects group membership can have more dramatic consequences  Scenario:   * In 1964, New York there was a brutal murder which received a lot of publicity, Kitty Genovese was walking home when a man attacked her with a knife * She fought the man off and screamed loudly for help. No one came to her assistance but the man found her again. Again she fought him off when he attacked her. * It took 30 minutes for her to die. The reason that case received so much publicity was because 28 people heard her scream from the safety of their rooms yet no one phoned the police The media asked why? |
| Diffusion of Responsibility- Bibb Latane and John Darley (1968) | * Investigated why none of the 38 people that heard a woman being attacked in the streets of New York went to her aid or call the police * Individual students were placed in small rooms * Told to take part in a discussion using a microphone and headphones * Some students were lead to believe that they were going to have the discussion with one other person, the others believed they would have a small group discussion * One student was an accomplice of the researchers and told the others he was epileptic * Suddenly he made noises that sounded as if he was having an epileptic fit * Darley and Latane wanted to see how many students would try and get help for him |
| Darley and Latane Results | * The percentage of participants who went for help depended on the number of students they thought were in the discussion group * All participants who thought they and the epileptic were the only members of the group went for help with 85% going in the first 80 seconds * Only 62% of students who thought that there were six people in the discussion group went for help with only 32% going quickly * This research showed the bystander effect which is said to be due to the diffusion of responsibility |
| Bystander effect | The more people who are present in an emergency, the less likely it is that each person will try to help |
| Diffusion of Responsibility | If a person is alone he or she accepts responsibility.  If several people are present, each assumes that the other will do something so he or she does not need to take responsibility |

# Social Influence

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| Groups | * **Group** = any collection of 2+ people who **interact** with and **influence** one another and who **share a common purpose** * a gathering of people who have minimal direct interaction |
| Social Influence | * Happens when we change our behaviour in response to other people * The effects of the presence of the actions of others leads us to change our ABCs- thoughts, feelings or behaviours * The impact of social influence maybe constructive (helpful), destructive (harmful) or neutral (have no effect) |
| Platow et.al 2005 (Australian Study) | * Shown that the influence of groups to which we belong is stronger if we identify with the group * University students listened to a tape of a stand-up comedian telling jokes * Half of the students heard the tape accompanied by ‘canned laughter’ * Half heard the jokes without the laughter * In addition, half of each group was told that the tapes had been recorded at a show attended by students from their university- a group they identified with * Other half was told that the tapes had been recorded at a show put on for members of a political group – a group unimportant to the students |
| Platow et.al 2005 (Australian Study)RESULTS | * Students who heard the jokes accompanied by canned laughter supposedly from their fellow students rated them as funnier than the students who thought the laughter came from members of a group that was of no importance to them or heard no laughter at all |
| Peers | * Usually important to us and can influence us greatly * They are the people who interact with us on fairly equal terms * They have similar status * They are usually of similar age and have similar interests * A peer and a friend are not the same thing * For Example: a student attending high school may have many peers but have few friends |
| Peer Groups | * Have their own social norms that can cover things such as style of dress, taste in music and attitudes towards things such as alcohol, sex before marriage and bullying * They may also have their own slang terms or expressions that are not understood by others outside |
| Peer Pressure | * Research studies show the influence of the peer group starts to increase around middle childhood and continues until middle adolescence * Starts to decline as the influence of close friends on adolescences behaviour increases * Pressure from the group for individuals in the group to think, feel or behave in certain ways whether they want to or not * Brown and colleagues (1986) Carried out a study to look at peer pressure on adolescences |
| Peers and Parents | * Many people think that peers always try to exert pressure in the opposite direction to parents * Although this might be the case in superficial areas such as dress and taste in music * Research shows that parents and peer groups often agree in more important areas such as decisions about education and careers and in judgements about what is right and wrong behaviour |
| Not all people react in the same way to peer pressure | * People who are ‘fringe’ members of a group or are less sure of their standing in the group are more likely to be influenced by peer pressure than other members who have higher standing * They try to gain favour with other members of the group by acting the way they think the group would approve (Kaplan, 2004) |

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| Group Polarisation | When individuals are in groups with others who hold similar attitudes or beliefs, discussion within the group tends to strengthen opinions |
| David Myers and George Bishop (1970) | * Found that when students who were low in racial prejudice, spoke together about racial issues their attitudes became even more accepting * However when highly prejudice students talked about the same issues, they became even more prejudiced |
| Group Polarisation can help us understand the processes that can lead to actions such as those of suicide bombers | * Terrorists are members of groups whose beliefs become stronger and more firmly entrenched as a result of discussion with like-minded people * Clark McCauley (2002) noted that a terrorist mentally does not come out of thin air, rather it arises when people with grievance get together and talk in a group in which there are no moderating influences |
| Conformity | * Changing behaviour in response to group pressure * Behaviour can completely change when we are with a group who see the world differently from us * Occurs very few people like standing out and looking different from others |
| Normative Social Influence | * When we conform to group standards in order to be part of a group and be accepted by the group * Friendship groups in particular exert strong influence on the ways we dress, speak and behave * Breaking social norms can result in disapproval and even exclusion from the group |
| Solomon Asch’s Study (1955) | * Experiment was set up as a simple judgement task * In groups of eight to 10 participants seated around a table and were shown two cards * On one there was a set of three lines of different lengths * On the other there was a single line * One by one participants were asked which of the three lines was the same length as the single standard line * However unknown to the real participant the others in the groups were not real participants but stooges- confederates of the experimenter * There were 18 composition trials * For the first few trials everyone agreed about which line was the same length as the standard, giving the obviously correct answer * But on 12 of the 18 trials the confederates all agreed to an answer that was in correct * Asch found that 75% of his participants agreed with the confederates on at least one trial and 50% echoed on 6 or more trials * Only a quarter of the people in the study actually stuck with the evidence of their senses all the time |
| Society requires that some conformity exists so that norms and standards can be established and agreed upon; otherwise behaviour would be unpredicted | * Children are socialised into group norms and expected behaviours in different situations and parents and teachers are supposed to teach children what is expected * Such authority figures can reflect the social context and the relevant group, social and cultural norms * Consequently conformity means that people will assume the behaviour of others in any particular social group without explicitly being told how to behave or act |
| Informational Social Influence | * On the other hand, we also often conform when we are in strange situations with people we do not know well or in situations that are new to us * We take our cues on how to behave from watching the people around us * Learning from other’s knowledge or not give offence |
| Factors that influence the extent which we are likely to conform to group pressure | 1. Group Size 2. Degree of Unanimity 3. Culture |
| Group Size | * Conformity increases with group size up to a group of four * After that the group size has little influence |
| Degree of Unanimity | * Greater importance * When others in the group our unanimous (agree completely) it is difficult to stand out * Asch found that if only one confederate disagreed with the others the amount of conformity of the real participant was greatly reduced * The presence of another person who share’s one’s views or who at least doesn’t agree with the others in the group strengthens resistance to conformity |
| Culture | * British psychologists Rod Bond and Peter Smith (1996) compared data from 133 Asch type studies carried out in 17 countries * Found evidence for cultural differences in conformity * Higher levels of conformity were found in collectivist cultures * Lower levels of conformity were found in individualist cultures * These findings are understandable when we remember that achieving group goals is highly valued in collectivist cultures whereas being independent and achieving personal goals is valued in individualist cultures |
| Ethical Issues in Conformity Studies | * Participants do not truly give informed consent * Debriefing may cause embarrassment, humiliation and possibly low self esteem |

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| Obedience | * When an authority figure asks us to do something there is the explicit expectation that we will obey or face negative consequences * Causes a change in behaviour in situations when obedience is expected |
| Compliance | * involves changing one's behaviour in response to a request, but it does not necessarily involve an authority figure |
| Stanley Milgram’s experiment 1963 | * Aim: to study obedience to authority and was partly derived from interest in and questions about why S.S officers obey superior officers to gas millions of Jews during WW2- such obedience to authority resulted in millions of deaths- why did it occur? * Milgram recruited a 40 men to take part on his research on the effects of punishment on learning with financial inducement for participation * From a range of occupations and education levels * They were told payment could be made for turning up and they could leave at any time * The men arrive in pairs and were allocated roles * One of the pair was the teacher, the other was the learner * The learner had to learn lists of pairs of words and the teacher had to administer an electric shock each time the learner gave the wrong answer * After the teacher had watched the learner be attached to all the wires necessary for shock, he was taken into another room and was shown the shock equipment. He was told to administer progressively larger shocks for every mistake made |
| Milgrams Descriptive Labels on Shock Equipment | * Slight Shock – 15 volts * Strong Shock -135 volts * Danger Severe Shock – 375 V * XXX- 435 and 4450 V |
| Milgram conducted several versions of the experiment | * Typically the learner kept making mistakes and the teacher would administer larger shocks even when the teacher could hear the learner groan or screech * 150 Volts: learner would scream and say they had to get out the experiment as they had heart troubles however the experimenter kept cool and asked the teacher to keep administering the shocks. As voltage increased so did the learners distress and the experimenter continued to encourage the teacher to continue |
| Milgram Results | * 26 out of 40 participants administered 450 volts even believing they hurt someone else * All participants administered 300 Volts but 5 refused to continue as learner was now silent * In some of the experiments, the learner (or victim) was right there in the same room. This made it less likely that participants would proceed to the end and deliver the maximum shocks. * The whole experiment was a deception, the learner was an actor who had been trained to react to the shocks * No actual shocks were given, it was all a hoax * Participants were debriefed and reassured that despite what had happened their behaviour as a teacher was normal |
| Ethical Issues in Obedience Studies | * Full and informed consent was not obtained prior to the experiment. Informed consent procedures should ensure the participants health and well being, and the participant must be informed about their rights and permission to withdraw from the experiment whenever they choose to do so. * Milgram did not obtain informed consent; this would have meant that participants didn’t have full knowledge of the real purpose and nature of the experiment. * Deception was also a key feature of the experiment as participants were introduced to someone they believed to be another participant, who in fact was a confederate * Mental health and wellbeing of participants were not adequately safeguarded * Withdrawal rights were not fully explained, and the fact that they were paid to be part of the experiment placed a certain obligation on participants not to end participation |
| Main Factors influencing Obedience to Authority | * Immediacy or proximity to the victim who was not seen * Subsequent studies had situations where the teacher could see the learner and obedience dropped * Immediacy or proximity to of the experimenter was also influential * Removing the experimenter from the same room as the teacher reduced obedience * Authority of experimenter * In Milgram’s experiment the experimenter was a white lab coat Caucasian university professor conducting the experiment in a non-university setting reduced obedience |
| Conclusions drawn from Milgram why people obey authority | * Belief in legitimate authority * Commitment to successful achievement in experiment * Lack of disobedient role models: conducting the experiment in social isolation meant social norms were not present * Lack of personal responsibility * Milgram as the experimenter assured teachers that they were not responsible for the distress of the learner * In effect, teachers were acting on orders removing any personal responsibility for what happened * Also suggest that soldiers would much be willing to fire a rocket or bomb a city than shoot civilians at close range |

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| Status | * the importance of an individual’s position in the group, as perceived by group members * An individual’s status can have an important effect on their behaviour towards others in a group * A person’s status will also determine the amount of power that they have within the group. |
| Power | * the ability to control/influence the ABCs of another person or group. * Interaction between any two or more individuals usually involves power to some degree. * Power has an effect on individuals, even if they are unaware of it. * There are many situations where one individual will deliberately use their power to influence others.   TYPES OF POWER   * The type of power used by an individual usually depends on the individual’s role as well as the specific situation * The status of an individual may also affect the type of power used in a specific situation. |
| Roles and Expectations | * Regardless of whether a role is temporary (eg student) or permanent (eg male), once the role is taken on, there is usually an expectation that the individual will behave in a way that is consistent with that role - these are called *role expectations* * Role expectations have a strong influence on an individual's behavior within a group, especially when the role involves power and status |
| Zimbardo’s Stanford Prison Experiment (1971) on the role of individuals power and status determining their social behaviour | * Conducted in 1971 by Phillip Zimbardo at Stanford University in California * Zimbardo was interested in finding out the psychological effects of either being a prison guard or a prisoner * 24 male university students who were healthy average young men with no psychological problems * with 12 students being assigned the role of prisoner + the other 12 assigned the role of guards. * He simulated a prison environment in the basement of the university, complete with cells, security doors; drab surroundings without windows or light * Guards were issued with uniforms, dark glasses, whistles and were instructed to enforce rules * Prisoners were stripped, sprayed for lice, issued with smocks with numbers on them and were made to share small cells with two other inmates |
| Stanford Prison Experiment Results | * Guards– became aggressive, authoritarian, tormented prisoners, acted brutally and viciously towards the prisoners * Guards developed rules to keep the prisoners in their place and after suppressing an attempted rebellion, they became increasingly brutal towards the prisoners, humiliating them and subjecting ring leaders to solitary confinement * Prisoners – became rebellious, then traumatized, passive, dehumanized, showing signs of hysteria, confusion, anxiety and depression * Four prisoners had to be released over the first four days of the study as a result of severe negative reactions such as hysteria, crying * After 6 days the experiment was halted * Assigned roles had become a reality for those involved * Zimbardo was concerned he was becoming the prison superintendent becoming more concerned for the security of his prison than for the participants * The results of the study indicated that the behavior of normal, well educated men can be significantly affected when a role they are given involves power and status * Behaviour in prison guards and prisoners were not simply a function of prisoners being criminals as in this instance they were not but in the social environment of the prison and the roles the participants influenced the way both guards and prisoners behaved |
| Theories of Social Psychology- Early Views: William McDougall (1908) | * Suggested social behaviour was innate, stemming from instincts = Incorrect * Discussed ‘group mind’ – social institutions become part of people and people within them share common dispositions to think, feel and act. = still lives on today |
| Floyd Allports views on Social Psych | * Attacked McDougall * Argued social behaviour is derived from the behaviour and actions of others (behaviourist approach) * Introduced ideas such as: * Social conformity * Facial expression of emotions * Influence of an audience on behaviour * Lead to recognition of ‘Social Psychology’ as an area of study and experimental social psychology (investigating human behaviour |
| Allport’s work lead to understandings of | * Social Norms: rules that describe how people ought to behave or think they ought to behave * Conformity: changing behaviour and attitude in response to group pressure * Attribution Theory: states people infer the causes behind the behaviour of other * Theory of Cognitive Dissonance: states people dislike inconsistency and seek to reduce it and to find evidence that supports their own view |

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| Attribution Theory | * Explains how people infer the reasons behind the behaviour of others * We must decide to which of the possible causes of actions should be attributed * Example questions relating to attribution * Is your neighbour altruistic for donating $50 to charity * Did someone pressure her? * Does she believe in the work of the agency? |
| Internal or Dispositional Attribution | If we infer something about the person- their attitude or personality is responsible for behaviour |
| External or Situational Attribution | If we conclude that some external cause such as peer pressure or threats is responsible for behaviour |
| Fritz Heider -1958 | * Originator of the attribution theory * We usually take an individual’s behaviour at face value and do not sufficiently consider the surrounding circumstances * Fundamental Attribution Error: we favour dispositional attributions for behaviours |
| Jones and Harris 1967 | * Provided strong support for this attribution bias: Fundamental Attribution Error * Conducted a series of experiments where they asked students to judge the true attitude of a person reading limited information presented in either and essay or speech on a controversial topic * In one of their studies students read what was portrayed as the opening statements of ‘ Castro’s Cub is a legitimate number of the family or nations’ * Speeches either supported or opposed this position * Participants were informed that the debaters were assigned to which side they were to take, they still inferred that the debater held an attitude towards Castro that was close to the one they argued in the debated= dispositional attribution was stronger than the situational one |
| Crick and Dodge 1994 | * Looked at attributions when studying aggressive behaviour differentiating between * Reactive Aggression: an angry response to frustration or provocation * Proactive Aggression: which is a deliberate attempt to get a desired goal * Found that children showing reactive aggression are likely to show attribution bias and interpret situations with hostile when no hostility is need * Based on previous experiences |
| De Michelle and Colleagues (1998) | Suggested when explaining our own behavior we have a **self serving bias** – tendency to distort the facts and make situational (external) attributions as the reason for behavior to maintain self esteem  For Example: if we should not buy a new bag because we used our savings to do so, therefore we succumb to self serving bias, placing the blame on the shop assistant pressuring us to and protecting our self esteem |
| Kelley’s Theory of Casual Attribution | * Proposed by Horald Kelley in 1973 and develops Heider’s theory further * Suggests people make casual explanations and answer questions about why something happened * Suggested people making attributions use three types of information: * **Time factors**   **-Person**  **- Entities (other relevant information)** |
| Casual Attribution Scenario | * Harry failed his maths exam: * **Time factors –** have you always failed tests in the pat or usually passed them * **Person Factors –** do you like maths?was harry lazy? Did you study night before or play pokemon go? * **Entities (other relevant information) –** Was it a hard test? Did many other people fail? * If we knew that Harry was a hard-working competent student, then he usually passed math’s and that he was just one of the many in the class whom failed this one we can attribute his failure to the test being difficult |

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| Kelley acknowledged issues with the attribution theory | * Why prior belief about information such as stereotypes affect the intake of information about possible competing causes of behaviour and events? * Does not explain why some people prefer simple casual explanations over the ones that take into account all of the person time entity and information * Most people jump to the conclusion that Harry in unintelligent |
| Cognitive Dissonance Theory- Leon Festinger 1957 | * Looked at the relationship between cognition (beliefs and attitudes) and behaviour from different perspectives * Interested in the fact that people experience discomfort of psychological tension when they hold two beliefs that are in in conflict or when they behave in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs * Considered that people attempt to reduce this dissonance by changing the belief or attitude or by changing the behaviour * Acquiring new information that outweighs the dissonance belief * Reducing the importance of the thought/belief/attitude |
| Smoker Example- Cognitive Dissonance | * A smoker who believes that smoking is bad for his health may decide that evidence against smoking being a health hazard is flawed or inconclusive ( a change in belief) or he may join a quit program ( A change in behaviour) |
| Cognitive Dissonance Research (Festinger and Carlsmith 1959) | * **Aim** investigated if making people perform a dull task would create cognitive dissonance through forced compliance behaviour. * **Method**In their laboratory experiment, they used 71 male students as participants to perform a series of dull tasks (such as turning pegs in a peg board for an hour). * They were then paid either $1 or $20 to tell a waiting participant (a confederate) that the tasks were really interesting. Almost all of the participants agreed to walk into the waiting room and persuade the confederate that the boring experiment would be fun. * **Results** When the participants were asked to evaluate the experiment, the participants who were paid only $1 rated the tedious task as more fun and enjoyable than the participants who were paid $20 to lie. * **Conclusion** Being paid only $1 is not sufficient incentive for lying and so those who were paid $1 experienced dissonance. They could only overcome that dissonance by coming to believe that the tasks really were interesting and enjoyable. Being paid $20 provides a reason for turning pegs and there is therefore no dissonance * Small incentive led individuals to believe what they had said whereas those paid a larger amount had a compensating reason for changing their belief * The dissonance and hence attitude change in greatest when there are no compensating reasons for the change |

Chapter 19: Community, Culture and Values

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| Gusfield (1975) Community | * Two Major uses:   + Territorial and geographical- neighbourhood, town, city, location   + Relational- concerned with “quality of character of human relationship without reference to location”   McMillan and Chavis – include both these notions in their notions of community |
| Importance of Communities | * Due to changes to family structure (eg. Fragmentation, smaller, isolation) there has been an increased emphasis on the importance of communities so families are supported by those around and close to them. * Therefore view of community is changing and this has affected children’s development and child rearing practices * Neighbourhoods, villages and communities and the programs they offer can: * Provide support in times of need such eg. * Build relationships between families eg. * Developing a strong sense of community gives families and children support, opportunities, and positively influences wellbeing |
| Sense of Community (1968) | * McMillan and Chavis proposed four criteria that had to be met for an individual to feel a sense of community:  1. Membership 2. Influence 3. Integration and the fulfilment of needs 4. Shared emotional connection |
| Membership | * Provides a feeling of belonging or being a part of something bigger than yourself * It establishes boundaries that divides those who belong from those who do not |
| 5 Major Components of Membership | 1. Boundaries, physical and otherwise eg.  * Language differences can be ingroup slang or professional jargon, most of us have experience inclusion or exclusion cause by language * Boundaries can be important in neighbourhood communities sometimes obvious such as gates/fences or subtle such as gangs graffiti to mark territory * Boundaries are important by providing a sense of safety separating us from them and indicating who can be trusted  1. Emotional safety- understand etiquiette of how to behave in the group 2. Sense of belonging and identification- fits in the group, belongs there, acceptance by the group, willingness to sacrifice for the group eg. 3. Personal investment- earned ones place in the group, investment = more meaningful and valuable.  * Pranks performed on new recruits were deigned for initiation into group membership  1. Common symbol system- maintains groups boundaries, value on the symbol by all who use it. eg. dress, fashion, logo’s, group name  * Groups often use dress, rituals or language to indicate who is in a group |
| Influence | * Research based n group cohesiveness   A sense of mattering, two way relationship:   1. In order to be attracted to the group need to have some influence over what the group does 2. Refers to a sense of mattering or making a difference in the group   Research suggests people are attracted to a community in which they have influence and in order for cohesiveness, conformity must occur.   * Research found that people who acknowledge other’s opinions and needs are often more influential than those who try to dominate and ignore their wishes |
| Integration and Fulfilment of Needs | * Membership of a group must be rewarding * 1 rewarding aspect is status and group success brings members closer together * Feeling that members needs will be met by the resources received through membership of the group * Positive reinforcement/reward received through membership of the community * Strong community is able to fit people together so that people meet others needs while they meet their own. * Success brings community together and this occurs through organisation of roles and tasks and knowing members strengths and weaknesses to achieve an outcome. * Members must make sure that crucial tasks are not left undone and that they are not competing for resources or status |
| Research on Integration and Fulfilment of Needs | * 1978, Aronson and colleagues showed that students in cooperative classrooms who work together to achieve group goals and receive their marks on the basis of the class product actually learn better than students in competitive or individualistic classrooms * Employers have also adopted this type of approach to improve group productivity by providing bonuses to employees when group production targets are so rewards for individuals are dependent on outcomes by the group * McMillan revised 1996 proposed individuals can have their needs met by being members of a group of people with shared values, think and feel similarly to themselves and with whom they can safely be themselves |
| Shared Emotional Connection | * Refers to the feeling that we might have of being connected to another person through a common emotional response to a shared activity or event= a shared history * History if forged not only from being together over a period of time but also by the quality and importance of the interaction |
| 7 features of shared emotional connection | 1. Contact hypothesis = more people interact closer they become 2. Quality of interaction = more positive the experience the greater the bond. 3. Closure to events = tasks are resolved 4. Shared event hypothesis = crisis 5. Investment = donate time, money, energy 6. Effect of honour and humiliation = reward or humiliation 7. Spiritual bond   These experiences provide a sense of community |

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| Impact of significant events on individuals and communities | ‘World Events’ are large scale occasions that affect more than individual however they are often sources of stress for individuals   * True whether an event is positive such as the Olympic games or negative such as a hurricane |
| There are three main factors about events the influence whether or not we experience them as stressful | 1. Predictability 2. Controllability 3. Experience of Threat or Loss |
| Predictability | \* Knowing what to expect  Research suggests unpredictable events are more stressful and have a longer lasting impact than predictable event (Katz and Wykes 1985 in Atkinson et al..1996)  For Example: The Olympic Games are a predicted event as they occur once every four years at a particular date and place, they may cause some stress levels in the athletes competing and the spectators rooting for their favourite athletes however, it is usually in the case of unpredictable events such as terrorist attacks that are more stressful and have a longer lasting impact. |
| Controllability | Having influence over something as reported by Geer & Maisel, 1972  Having no control over events is a major source of stress reported by victims of terrorist attacks and long term residents of refugee camps |
| Experience of Threat or Loss | Whether we experience threat or loss, which means a change to routine due to an event can determine whether we find events stressful or not  For Example: many people find a positive event such as the Olympic Games to be stressful as it involves many changes and unknowns that may be perceived as threatening. Will is disrupt public transport or cause traffic problems? Will it increase the risk of a terrorist attack? |
| Positive Responses to Stressful Events | * Increased Resilience * Post Traumatic Growth |
| Resilience | The capacity to act positively in the face of a difficult or threatening circumstances  Kobasa 1979 suggested **personality** differences could account for different responses to stress   * -She carried out a study where 600 executives and managers were asked to complete two questionnaires * -One was a personality questionnaire, the other measured stressful events and illnesses respondents experienced over three years * The results divided the individuals into two groups: High stress/high illness group and high stress low illness group |
| Kobasa “Hardy Personality” | * When she compared the high stress/high illness to the high stress/low illness she found the latter group: * Saw change as a challenge * Felt more control in their lives * Had a sense of direction in both their work and personal lives * Conclusion was criticised because it was possible that illness was the cause no the result of personality characteristics |

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| Kobasa Second study | * Longitudinal (1982) * Followed executives over a two year period and found those identified at the start of two years as having a hardy personality were less likely to become ill |
| Qualities seen in resilient people | * The capacity for making the most of small windows of opportunity * Having a deep rooted faith in a system of meaning * Having a healthy social support network * Having a wide comfort zone |
| To some extent resilience can be trained | * Challenge based personal development programs such as Outward Bound are based on the premise that personal growth and resilience can be taught by combining challenges with the support of others * By facing situations that are difficult of scary with sufficient support to ensure success we learn that we can deal with something that we earlier would have found impossible |
| Lifestyle of Fly in Fly out workers (FIFO) | * Determine what factors in the individual, family and wider community are implicated in the responses of individuals and their families to the stressors the lifestyle imposes * Work schedules of FIFO means that the partner carries most of the burden of managing the home and children and keeping up ties with family and friends? * How well do couples manage this situation? * Studies by Meredith et al 2014 and Taylor and Simmonds (2009) |
| Taylor and Simmonds (2009) | * Factors associated with family satisfaction and healthy family functioning * Survey suggested that families who showed healthy flexibility neither rigid or chaotic, healthy cohesion and in which communication was good were most satisfied with how their family was functioning |
| Meredith et al 2014 | * Suggested that external factors such as workplace, cultures, rosters and recruitment also impacted workers but stress levels can be reduced through the provision of information during the recruitment process so workers and their families have a better understanding of the challenges they would be facing |
| McMillan and Chavis and FIFO | * A sense of community is a sense of belonging or attachment to their community that individuals have * This sense is important to the psychological well being of people of all ages within a community and affects how well they bounce back after an emergency as their participation in positive activities in the community |
| Trauma and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder | Traumatic events are unexpected and negative incidents that threaten our lives or sense of well being   * Following trauma it is common for people to experience strong physical, cognitive and emotional reactions * Physical: disturbed sleep, nightmares, exhaustion, restlessness, headaches * Cognitive: poor concentration, disturbances to attention and memory. Flashbacks * Emotional: fear, avoidance, anxiety, depression, guilt, withdrawal * Young children may also regress in their behaviour * Wetting the bed, thumbsucking and being scared of the dark * Lose trust in adults who have not been able to protect them from the traumatic event * People vary in the severity of their reactions to their experience depending on the situation, their own resources and the support they receive * While symptoms are common they usually subside with support from family friends and colleagues * However for some people the event maybe so distressing the symptoms continue |

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| Post Traumatic Stress disorder | Official diagnosis requires:   * Person meets specific criteria that includes past experience of actual or perceived threats to life, violence or serious injury * Presence of distressing symptoms such as recurring memories dreams or flashbacks * Persistent avoidance of any stimulus associated with the original traumatic event * Negative changes in thought and moods associated with event * Changes in reactions and responses to stimuli associated with events such as angry outbursts and problems with concentration * Can have a delayed onset with an individual experiencing symptoms years after the traumatic event |
| PTSD Theories | * Some people suffer while others who experienced the same event do not * Several neurological explanations * Different pre trauma factors make some people more susceptible to PTSD * Post trauma factors such as availability of social support contributes to different outcomes   All factors may contribute |
| PTSD treatment | * Red cross relief workers learned critical incident stress management and provide counselling to those who have experienced major disasters as part of their standard support practice in an attempt to reduce the number of PTSD sufferers * Suffers usually treated by psychotherapy and drug therapy |
| Impact of negative events on community well being | * Vulnerable groups * Community resilience |
| Vulnerable groups | * What sections of communities are particularly vulnerable at times of disasters * Buckle (2001) found that the elderly coped better than younger people as their past life experiences in dealing with resource needs and supplied coupled with their reduced expectations of external help led them to deal with crisis more easily * Found after a gas explosion in Esso caused gas supplies in Victoria to be restricted for weeks * Residents had to endure cold shower and chilly nights * Elliot and Pais 2006 found the socially disadvantaged groups poor, black and elderly were most vulnerable after Hurricane Katrina in USA |
| Community Resilience | * Planning services to respond to emergencies need to think beyond vulnerability and try to understand resilience * Pooley (2006) described the idea of community competence has been used to explain resilience in a community * Competent communities are that ones that are able to identify needs and issues, work cooperatively to carry out plans and achieve goals * If people live in a competent community and are said to have a sense of community then it is considered resilient * Effects of community resilient outcomes following a disaster are not direct * Studying cyclones in northwest Australia, Pooley found the competence of a community and individuals feelings of attachment to their community lead them to having an increased sense of self efficacy and social networks leading to reduced stress and increased growth |
| Long Term Effects of Stressful Events- Children of the Great Depression (Elder 1974) | * 1931, Oakland USA: Herbert Stolz and Harold Jones started a study of 167 children aged 11 to 12 years * Physical and psychological and social changes that occurred as the study members moved from childhood to adolescences * Sociometric information was collected, detailed data on home characteristics, fathers occupation and other indications of living levels * Elder used this as a starting point for his longitudinal study * 145 of the original 167 were followed up as adults on at least one of three occasions * 1st: 1953-54 interviews, personality tests and psychiatric assessment * 2nd& 3rd: 1957-58 and 1964 involved interviews and questionaires * Elder found three enduring effects  1. The group that suffered deprivation, life achievement was more dependent on effort and accomplishments outside the education system the those non-deprived 2. Adult health was negatively related to economic hardship but only among the children from working class homes, not for middle class 3. Values among the offspring of deprived families were consistently conservative  * Common value: centrality of family and importance of children in marriage * Another common value was the importance of job security although work in itself did not matter more to people who had experienced deprivation |
| The Hurricane Choir | * March 2005, Hurricane Katrina caused widespread destruction in New Orleans followed by Hurricane Rita and Hurricane Wilma * Had a major negative impact on the mental health of individuals in the community as a whole * 50% of individuals exposed to the Lousiana hurricanes might have clinical or subclinical mental health problems so a need for support was required * The Hurricane Choir project was formed by a small core group of Australian, Canadian and local volunteers * Emphasis on trying to provide intervention that was culturally appropriate and feasible * Plan was the choir made up of hurricane survivors under the leadership of experienced Australian * conductor Martin Meader to work over a 6 month period * Hypothesis participation in the choir would ‘assist hurricane survivors to feel a greater sense of community cohesion and lead to improved perceptions of coping and optimistic thinking’ (Sentiens 2006) * Also reductions in mental health problems in choir members * Obtained the services of a Perth based health group to monitor changes in participants mental health tracking symptoms of depression, anxiety and PSTD * When the project wound up in June 2006 after months of rehersals and many public concerts it was described as success in achieving its aims |