1. LEADERSHIP AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

A social identity theory of leadership is described that views leadership as a group process generated by social categorization and prototype-based depersonalization processes associated with social identity.

- At the end of the course, students will examine the fundamentals of leadership apply it within organizations to achieve integrated management of people.Tendency to personify leaders in terms of unique properties or characteristics. Social Psychology tells us that people tend to attribute others behaviour to underlying traits.It is not the mere possession of some combination of traits, and other social psychologists have suggested that the search for the leadership personality is simplistic The great person theory of leadership , in which effective leaders have special personalities, is generally not well supported. Everyone has the capacity, more or less, to be an effective leader if the situation is right. Some leadership behaviours or personal qualities may be more effective than others. Within Social Psychology leadership reflects task or situational demands. Autocratic leadership Organised, gave orders, aloof, focussed on task in hand-Democratic leadership-Calls for suggestions, discussed plans, behaves like other members-Laissez-faire leadership-Leaves the group to its own devices, very low level of intervention-Contingency theory maintains that the leadership effectiveness of particular leadership styles is contingent on situational factors. Some styles are better suited to some situations or tasks than others. A leader of a country, is different to a leader of an organisation, to a leader on the football field, to a leader in a student workgroup. Fiedler's contingency theory (like Bales, 1950) distinguished between task-orientated leaders (value group success, get self-esteem from accomplishment) and relationship orientated leaders (relaxed, friendly, sociable). Where the task is very well or very poorly structured (high versus low situational control), task-oriented leaders do best; otherwise, socio-emotional leaders are best. Transactional leaders appeal to self-interest, transformational leader inspire followers. Three components to transformation leadership: Individualised consideration: Attention to needs of follower's needs, abilities and aspirations to help raise and improve these. Intellectual stimulation:

Challenging followers' basic thinking, assumptions and practices to help them develop new practices and thinking. Charismatic/inspiring leadership: provides the energy, reasoning, and sense of urgency that transforms followers.

1.1 THE PERSONALITY AS A SOCIAL PHENOMENON

A social identity theory of leadership is described that views leadership as a group process generated by social categorization and prototype-based depersonalization processes associated with social identity. At the end of the course, students will examine the fundamentals of leadership apply it within organizations to achieve integrated management of people. According to psychologist Gordon Allport, social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of other human being (1985).Social psychology looks at a wide range of social topics, including group behavior, social perception, leadership, nonverbal behavior, conformity, aggression, and prejudice. It is important to note that social psychology is not just about looking at social influences. Social perception and social interaction are also vital to understanding social behavior. While Plato referred to the idea of the "crowd mind" and concepts such as social loafing and social facilitation were introduced in the late-1800s, it wasn't until after World War II that research on social psychology began in earnest. The horrors of the Holocaust led researchers to study the effects of social influence, conformity and obedience. The U.S. government also became interested in applying social psychological concepts to influencing citizens. Social psychology has continued to grow throughout the twentieth century, inspiring research that has contributed to our understanding of social experience and behavior. Our social world makes up such a tremendous part of our lives, so it is no wonder that this topic is so fascinating. How Is Social Psychology Different From Other Disciplines?

It is important to understand how social psychology differs from other disciplines. Social psychology is often confused with folk wisdom, personality psychology, and sociology. What makes social psychology different? Unlike folk wisdom, which relies on anecdotal observations and subjective interpretation, social psychology employs scientific methods and the empirical study of social

phenomena. Researchers do not just make guesses or assumptions about how people behave; they devise and carry out experiments that help point out relationships between different variables. While personality psychology focuses on individual traits, characteristics and thoughts, social psychology is focused on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that the social environment and group interactions have on attitudes and behaviors. Finally, it is important to distinguish between social psychology and sociology. While there are many similarities between the two, sociology tends to looks at social behavior and influences at a very broad-based level. Sociologists are interested in the institutions and cultures that influence how people behave. Psychologists instead focus on situational variables that affect social behavior. While psychology and sociology both study similar topics, they are looking at these topics from different perspectives.

1.2CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

The interaction of the individual with his society and culture is responsible for the formation of most of his behavior patterns. Socialization is based on the rewarding of behavior which approximates the culture pattern and the punishing of deviant behavior, a process in which favorable and unfavorable responses from others are the most frequent incentives. Variations in response to a definite situation normally fall within a limited series of behaviors which constitute a real culture pattern. Increasingly, researchers from a variety of business disciplines are finding that trust can lower transaction costs, facilitate interorganizational relationships, and enhance manager-subordinate relationships. At the same time, we see a growing trend toward globalization in establishing alliances, managing and hiring employees, and entering new markets. These trends suggest a need to view the concept of trust from the perspective of national culture. Drawing on theories from several disciplines, we develop a framework that identifies and describes five cognitive trust-building processes that help explain how trust develops in business contexts. We include a series of research propositions demonstrating how societal norms and values influence application of the trust-building processes, and we discuss implications for theory and practice.Culture needs to be made more central

to the understanding of personality and psychopathology. New anthropological views describe cultural influences on personality and psychopathology by focusing on the effect of social change in local contexts on sociosomatic and sociopsychological processes. This view discloses the cultural biases built into dominant North American professional models of diagnosis and contrasts with past uses of culture in cross-cultural research. Examples from Chinese and Puerto Rican societies illustrate how indigenous interpersonal models of personality and psychopathology that focus on social processes can augment the cross-cultural validity of clinical formulations.

1.3 GROUP WORK AND PROBLEM SOLVING

Groups of individuals can bring a broad range of ideas, knowledge and skills to bear on a problem. This creates a stimulating interaction of diverse ideas which results in a wider range and better quality of solutions. During our study and work life we will often be expected to work as a part of a group. Group work often leaves many feeling frustrated. I have at many times heard the complaint "It would have been quicker if I had just done it myself .So when should we use a group to address a particular problem and what are the major advantages and disadvantages of using groups to solve a problem. A large amount of problem solving takes place in group settings. Meetings and informal discussions are often used to air different ideas and points of view to help solve problems for which the participants have either shared responsibility or a contribution to make. However, most of the time we do not take full advantage of these situations. Used at the right time and in the right way, group problem solving can be the most effective way of solving some problems. When people are working together it's inevitable that they will be influenced by each other. This can have a significant effect on the efficiency of group problem solving. Most people working in a group unconsciously perceive the situation as competitive. This generates behaviour which is destructive and drains the creative energy of the group. For example, we often perceive disagreement with our ideas as a put-down. The natural reaction is to regain our self-esteem, often by trying to sabotage the ideas of those who disagreed with us. Instead of looking for ways to improve on their ideas we choose to destroy them. Eager to express our own ideas, we may totally ignore what others are suggesting. Power-seekers may use ploys such as highlighting flaws in others' arguments, barbed questions and displays of expertise to show their supremacy. These types of

behaviour create an atmosphere which is incompatible with effective problem solving. There is a strong tendency for individuals in a group to want to conform to the consensus. This can be for a variety of reasons, including the need to feel liked, valued or respected, and tends to make people censor their ideas accordingly. The comparative status of the individuals present also has an important influence. Senior members often want to maintain their image of being knowledgeable, while junior members want to avoid appearing the inexperienced 'upstart'. Because agreement on ideas can be gained quickly in a group setting, groups tend to select and approve solutions quickly, without exploring all the possibilities. Most traditional meetings and group discussions convened to solve problems are ineffectively directed. Sometimes there is no effective leader to give direction to the discussion, with the result that it wanders aimlessly. Even when there is strong leadership, the group leader or chairman often exerts undue pressure on the direction and content of the discussion. In addition, the ideas aired during a meeting are not usually recorded, apart from the minutes and individual note-taking, with the result that many ideas are forgotten and cannot act as a constant stimulus to the discussion. Group problem solving is a relatively slow process compared with working alone. It requires individuals to come together at an agreed time, usually for about one hour, and this can cause organisational problems as well as impatience amongst participants to 'get it over with' as quickly as possible. Simply because of the number of people involved, each with differing experience, knowledge, points of view and values, a larger number and variety of ideas for solving a problem can be produced. The exchange of ideas can act as a stimulus to the imagination, encouraging individuals to explore ideas they would not otherwise consider. The shared responsibility of a group in arriving at decisions can. Encourage individuals to explore seemingly unrealistic ideas and to challenge accepted ways of doing things. Individual biases and prejudices can be challenged by the, group forcing the individual to reconize them. Group pressure can also encourage individuals to accept that change is needed. Shared responsibility makes individuals more willing to take risks. The discussion of different points of view also helps the group to be more realistic in assessing the risks associated with particular courses of action. When goals are agreed it gives a common purpose to the group, within which individuals can gain a feeling of self-determination and recognition through their contribution. Individuals who have contributed to finding a solution feel a greater commitment to its successful implementation.

1.4 BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL ATTITUDES

Attitudes and actions are very closely related, and are often consistent, because they influence each other in both superficial and deliberate ways. How actions influence attitudes depends on the level of processing: people can make simple action-to-attitude inferences (usually through self-perception processes), or can make deeper considerations of the implications of their actions (through cognitive dissonance processes). Self-perception theory states that actions influence attitudes because people infer their attitudes by observing their own behavior and the situations in which their behavior occurs. Attitudes are evaluations people make about objects, ideas, events, or other people. Attitudes can be positive or negative. Explicit attitudes are conscious beliefs that can guide decisions and behavior. Implicit attitudes are unconscious beliefs that can still influence decisions and behavior. Attitudes can include up to three components: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral. Example: Jane believes that smoking is unhealthy, feels disgusted when people smoke around her, and avoids being in situations where people smoke. Dimensions of Attitudes

Researchers study three dimensions of attitude: strength, accessibility, and ambivalence. Attitude strength: Strong attitudes are those that are firmly held and that highly influence behavior. Attitudes that are important to a person tend to be strong. Attitudes that people have a vested interest in also tend to be strong. Furthermore, people tend to have stronger attitudes about things, events, ideas, or people they have considerable knowledge and information about. Attitude accessibility: The accessibility of an attitude refers to the ease with which it comes to mind. In general, highly accessible attitudes tend to be stronger. Attitude ambivalence: Ambivalence of an attitude refers to the ratio of positive and negative evaluations that make up that attitude. The ambivalence of an attitude increases as the positive and negative evaluations get more and more equal. The Influence of Attitudes on Behavior does not always reflect attitudes. However, attitudes do determine behavior in some situations: If there are few outside influences, attitude guides behavior. Example: Wyatt has an attitude that eating junk food is unhealthy. When he is at home, he does not eat chips or candy. However, when he is at parties, he indulges in these foods. Behavior is guided by attitudes specific to that

behavior. Example: Megan might have a general attitude of respect toward seniors, but that would not prevent her from being disrespectful to an elderly woman who cuts her off at a stop sign. However, if Megan has an easygoing attitude about being cut off at stop signs, she is not likely to swear at someone who cuts her off. Behavior is guided by attitudes that come to mind easily.

down, while others rebelled or became passively resigned to the situation. The internalization of roles by the two groups of students was so extreme that Zimbardo had to terminate the study after only six days.

Attitude Change

Researchers have proposed three theories to account for attitude change: learning theory, dissonance theory, and the elaboration likelihood model.

Learning Theory

Learning theory says that attitudes can be formed and changed through the use of learning principles such as classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and observational learning: Classical conditioning: The emotional component of attitudes can be formed through classical conditioning. For example, in a billboard ad, a clothing company pairs a sweater with an attractive model who elicits a pleasant emotional response. This can make people form a positive attitude about the sweater and the clothing company. Operant conditioning: If someone gets a positive response from others when she expresses an attitude, that attitude will be reinforced and will tend to get stronger. On the other hand, if she gets a negative response from others, that attitude tends to get weaker. Observational learning: Seeing others display a particular attitude and watching people be reinforced for expressing a particular attitude can make someone adopt those attitudes. Dissonance Theory Leon Festinger's dissonance theory proposes that people change their attitudes when they have attitudes that are inconsistent with each other. Festinger said that people experience cognitive dissonance when they have related cognitions that conflict with one another. Cognitive dissonance results in a state of unpleasant tension. People try to reduce the tension by changing their attitudes.Example: Sydney is against capital punishment. She participates in a debate competition and is assigned to a team that has to argue for capital punishment. Subsequently, she is more amenable to the idea of capital punishment.

The phenomenon called justification of effort also results from cognitive dissonance. Justification of effort refers to the idea that if people work hard to reach a goal, they are likely to value the goal more. They justify working hard by believing that the goal is valuable. The Elaboration Likelihood Model The elaboration likelihood model holds that attitude change is more permanent if the elaborate and thought-provoking persuasive messages are used to change the attitude. Basically, if someone can provide a thorough, thought-provoking persuasive message to change an attitude, he is more likely to succeed than if he provides a neutral or shallow persuasive message.