

Chapter 1 : Stereotypes: Definition, Nature and Causes |Psychology

The principles of social psychology, including the ABCs—“affect, behavior, and cognition”—apply to the study of stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination, and social psychologists have expended substantial research efforts studying these concepts (Figure).

Stereotyped beliefs are held by a group commonly called the ingroup and involve an agenda that benefits the ingroup at the expense of the stereotyped group commonly called the outgroup or target group. Stereotypes help the ingroup members feel good about their group and themselves relative to the target group. Relatedly, stereotypes maintain sociopolitical hierarchies in society. They can serve as a justification for believing that certain groups are superior to others and as a rationale for oppressing target groups. While the phenomenon of stereotyping has been defined and explored primarily in social and cognitive psychology, it has many implications for counseling and has been taken up and discussed by many scholars in counseling psychology. These discussions often focus on the sociopolitical aspects of stereotypes, including the relevance of stereotypes to prejudice and to counseling training, competence, and process. The term evolved to become associated with the act of stamping out the same image or text over and over; by the beginning of the 20th century, it connoted rigid, repetitive behavior. Soon thereafter it was applied to cognitive processes of categorization that were consistent and predictable. Early discussions of categorizing objects asserted that stereotypes were useful but also resulted in a certain number of errors. When applied to the social domain in the 1950s, stereotype came to denote the misattributions commonly applied to ethnic groups. Thus, stereotypes became linked to prejudice and discrimination and were often considered negative. At this time stereotypes ceased to involve exclusively errors in cognition and became a social phenomenon resulting more from cultural influences than from individual experience. In the latter 1950s and the 1960s scholars began exploring the cognitive processes of stereotyping, relating stereotypes to cognitive schemata or theories. Using general principles of cognitive processing to illuminate how stereotyping occurs, the discussion at times ignored the sociopolitical context of the phenomenon. In contrast, when the field of counseling took up the term in examining the impact of prejudice and ethnocentrism on counseling process and training, scholars consistently focused on the sociopolitical underpinnings of stereotyping. Perspectives on Stereotyping In discussing stereotyping, counseling scholars often draw heavily on conceptualizations generated by other fields. Stereotyping as a Social-Cognitive Phenomenon Stereotypes have been explored a great deal in terms of the cognitive processes of attending to, organizing, and interpreting social information or stimuli encountered in everyday life. Social psychologists have done the majority of this work, applying principles of cognitive psychology to social stereotyping. The premise is that people do not have the capacity or resources to consider and analyze every new stimulus as if it were the first piece of information ever received. To process all incoming stimuli efficiently and effectively, people create sorting mechanisms, expectations, and assumptions, often called cognitive schemata. Schemata are systems that help people make sense of the complex sets of stimuli that constantly confront them. Schemata are organizing principles that prioritize what to focus on and that categorize and organize the information for interpretation. For example, we have a schema that helps us efficiently differentiate a table from a chair based on multiple expectations about the attributes of each of these objects. From a social-cognitive perspective, stereotypes are a type of schema—“rules and expectations we have about people from different groups. Schemata often become automatic and unconscious. Thus, stereotype holders are not often aware of the expectations and assumptions that influence their thinking, emotions, and behavior. When asked explicitly, they deny holding these stereotypes, but the stereotypes manifest their influence in implicit ways. Implicit messages that give rise to stereotypes are broadcast by societal institutions. For example, the media do not explicitly state that Whites or men are superior to people of color or women, but they present a preponderance of heroic characters that are White men, while presenting people of color and women in secondary and supporting roles. This imbalance in portrayals communicates stereotypes about racial and gender hierarchy, including that White men have greater abilities and are more important than people of color and women. As a result, many members of the society unconsciously hold such stereotypes. To

understand stereotypes, social-cognitive scholars have drawn on rules for how unconscious cognitive sorting and organizing processes function. For instance, based on rules of human cognition, groups that stand out e. Even though the connection does not exist in reality, the distinctiveness of both the group and the trait creates fertile ground for them to be paired in a stereotype. Of course, stereotyping is a social as well as a cognitive process. The culture, characteristics, and views of the ingroup are important in the development of stereotypes. Fertile ground for a stereotype is increased if the target group is viewed as deviating from the ingroup on the trait in question. It is also increased when the trait is one that the ingroup deems important to its identity. Thus, the stereotype that Black and Latino males are criminals can serve to make Whites feel more valuable and powerful by creating a false contrast on an attribute or status that is important in White culture. Stereotypes also have an emotional component. If an ingroup has strong negative feelings about a trait they perceive in a target group, a stereotype is likely to develop. Greater negative feelings toward the group can result in more negative stereotypes about the group. In fact, simply putting people in a bad mood has been shown to elicit more stereotyped judgments of others. This emotional component of stereotyping contributes to a vicious cycle. When ingroup members experience what they perceive as a negative encounter with target group members, they develop negative feelings about the target group and what they perceive as its undesirable traits. This gives rise to increased negative feelings and expectations stereotypes, which influence their interpretation of and reaction to future encounters, resulting in further affirmation of the stereotype. The social-cognitive approach also helps explain why stereotypes are rigid and hard to change. People are more likely to process accurately and remember information that is consistent with stereotypes they hold. Many studies have shown that stereotype-consistent information is easily remembered and readily accepted without question. People also tend to remember but with a different purpose information that is contrary to the stereotypes they hold. They pay very close attention primarily to figure out how to explain or interpret the information so that their stereotype remains unchallenged. The new information may be distorted or misperceived to fit the stereotype. Of course, new information can cause a person to modify or even abandon a stereotype, but this happens only rarely. From a cognitive perspective, people tend to see what fits with what they expect, and they often misperceive what is there, to fit their expectations. This happens in categorizing or characterizing objects as well as people. When this cognitive tendency is added to the emotional component of stereotypes and to the individual and group dividends gained by maintaining a stereotype, it is clear why contrary information often does not produce a change in a stereotype. One way in which evidence contrary to a stereotype is absorbed without threatening the hold of the belief involves the process of subtyping. People create a slightly different subcategory of the larger target group to hold an individual member of the group who presents with traits that are inconsistent with the stereotype. For example, to absorb the fact that many Blacks are successful and law-abiding, Whites create subtypes Black businessperson, educated Black, while maintaining the general negative stereotype that Blacks are criminals. Contrary information may also be processed as extreme: The perceiver may tend to exaggerate the level of the unexpected trait or behavior. Thus, a woman who is competitive or ambitious is seen as extremely and negatively so, whereas a man with the same level of these traits is seen as normal. Similarly, stereotypes may create what is called a shifting standard for judging the behavior of individuals from different groups. For example, if a teacher who holds the stereotyped expectation that Blacks are less intelligent than Whites sees the same test score from a Black and a White student, the Black student may be perceived as highly intelligent and the White student as of average intelligence. Due to the stereotype, the teacher maintains a lower standard for considering a Black student intelligent than for considering a White student intelligent. The Black student will be perceived as very smart for a Black person. The social-cognitive perspective helps counselors understand the functioning and even some of the motivation behind stereotypes, but it is also limited because it more or less views stereotyping in a political vacuum, as if no power hierarchy of social groups existed. Stereotypes play a role in rationalizing and maintaining this hierarchy, and the hierarchy influences the nature of stereotypes. Stereotyping as a Sociopolitical Phenomenon Counselors draw upon the social-cognitive approach to stereotypes but often integrate it into a larger context. Sociopolitical factors and cognitive factors interact in both developing and maintaining stereotypes. Stereotypes emerge from the sociocultural context and are driven by power

differentials between groups. As noted earlier, the distinctions between groups that are inherent in stereotyping can make the ingroup feel better about itself. To push further on this point, counseling has tended to look at the role of stereotypes in reinforcing power hierarchies between reference groups. From the sociopolitical perspective, stereotypes grow out of a need to rationalize oppression and subjugation rather than simply out of cognitive processes and errors. For example, in the service of enslavement and genocide, stereotypes emerged that Blacks were childlike and Native Americans savage. Thus, sociopolitical expediencies influence the traits misattributed to a group. Sociopolitical influence is illustrated by the change in stereotypes held about Blacks before and after slavery was abolished. Before abolition, Blacks were stereotyped as docile, dependent, and incapable of independent thought or action, that is, a group seen as benefiting from enslavement. The belief in these traits played a role in justifying brutal treatment of Blacks by Whites both by law and custom. Such change suggests that stereotypes may not originate in experience. An initial negative encounter with a target group may not be necessary for a stereotype to develop. Some argue that sociopolitical forces give rise to stereotypes first, and then social-cognitive processes come into play, contributing to their maintenance and rigidity. Power differentials between groups, and the need to rationalize them, may be the starting point for the vicious cycle discussed earlier. Implications for Counseling Impact of Stereotypes on the Counseling Process Among other things, counseling involves evaluating clients and their experiences, to gain an empathic understanding and choose appropriate interventions. Stereotypes have a deleterious effect on this process in several ways. If a counselor expects a female client to be weak and submissive, the counselor is more likely to ignore or misinterpret information suggesting the opposite. The counselor will misunderstand the client and impose this expectation on her. Counseling scholars have noted that this is a form of oppression and must be avoided in counseling practice. Even when counselors recognize information contrary to a stereotype, they may distort the information and the relationship. Holding this lower standard for certain groups has broad implications in areas within the counseling realm. At the individual level a school counselor may not encourage a Black student to pursue college, and at the institutional level, the allocation of resources to these groups will match the low standard of performance expected from them. Stereotyping can lead to nongenuine and condescending relations between counselor and client. Because it is socially unacceptable to stereotype openly, White guidance counselors may evaluate the performance of Black students less critically in an attempt to avoid being perceived as stereotyping. Although this behavior may even come out of a desire to counteract racism though it may also arise out of a motivation not to appear prejudiced, in essence it perpetuates prejudice and the stereotype by implying that the target group should be held to a lower standard. Most people are not aware of the stereotypes they hold. Because stereotypes are unconscious, a counselor will perceive the aforementioned evaluations of clients as objective and perhaps not even linked to group membership. Thus, communication of the stereotype from counselor to client may be implicit and highly subtle, making it hard for either party to identify and counter. In fact, stereotypes often set off subtle, unconscious interactive patterns between the stereotype holder counselor and the target client. The client may well respond to these cues in ways that the counselor interprets negatively according to the stereotype.

Chapter 2 : Prejudice and Stereotyping - Psychology - Oxford Bibliographies

*The Principles of Psychology. Stereotyped [Herbert Spencer] on racedaydvl.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. This is an EXACT reproduction of a book published before*

Explicit stereotypes[edit] Explicit stereotypes are those people are willing to verbalize and admit to other individuals. It also refers to stereotypes that one is aware that one holds, and is aware that one is using to judge people. People can attempt to consciously control the use of explicit stereotypes, even though their attempt to control may not be fully effective. In fact, almost half of all gamers are female. The duplicate printing plate, or the stereotype, is used for printing instead of the original. Outside of printing, the first reference to "stereotype" was in , as a noun that meant image perpetuated without change. Four types of stereotypes resulting from combinations of perceived warmth and competence. Stereotype content refers to the attributes that people think characterize a group. Studies of stereotype content examine what people think of others, rather than the reasons and mechanisms involved in stereotyping. Warmth and competence are respectively predicted by lack of competition and status. Groups that do not compete with the in-group for the same resources e. The groups within each of the four combinations of high and low levels of warmth and competence elicit distinct emotions. This model was empirically tested on a variety of national and international samples and was found to reliably predict stereotype content. This idea has been refuted by contemporary studies that suggest the ubiquity of stereotypes and it was suggested to regard stereotypes as collective group beliefs, meaning that people who belong to the same social group share the same set of stereotypes. Yzerbyt argued that the cognitive functions of stereotyping are best understood in relation to its social functions, and vice versa. They are a form of categorization that helps to simplify and systematize information. Thus, information is more easily identified, recalled, predicted, and reacted to. Between stereotypes, objects or people are as different from each other as possible. Second, categorized information is more specific than non-categorized information, as categorization accentuates properties that are shared by all members of a group. Third, people can readily describe objects in a category because objects in the same category have distinct characteristics. Finally, people can take for granted the characteristics of a particular category because the category itself may be an arbitrary grouping. A complementary perspective theorizes how stereotypes function as time- and energy-savers that allow people to act more efficiently. As mentioned previously, stereotypes can be used to explain social events. Justification purposes[edit] People create stereotypes of an outgroup to justify the actions that their in-group has committed or plans to commit towards that outgroup. This stereotype was used to justify European colonialism in Turkey, India, and China. Intergroup differentiation[edit] An assumption is that people want their ingroup to have a positive image relative to outgroups, and so people want to differentiate their ingroup from relevant outgroups in a desirable way. A person can embrace a stereotype to avoid humiliation such as failing a task and blaming it on a stereotype. Turner proposed in [29] that if ingroup members disagree on an outgroup stereotype, then one of three possible collective actions follow: First, ingroup members may negotiate with each other and conclude that they have different outgroup stereotypes because they are stereotyping different subgroups of an outgroup e. Second, ingroup members may negotiate with each other, but conclude that they are disagreeing because of categorical differences amongst themselves. Accordingly, in this context, it is better to categorise ingroup members under different categories e. Finally, ingroup members may influence each other to arrive at a common outgroup stereotype. Formation[edit] Different disciplines give different accounts of how stereotypes develop: As for sociologists, they may focus on the relations among different groups in a social structure. They suggest that stereotypes are the result of conflict, poor parenting, and inadequate mental and emotional development. Once stereotypes have formed, there are two main factors that explain their persistence. First, the cognitive effects of schematic processing see schema make it so that when a member of a group behaves as we expect, the behavior confirms and even strengthens existing stereotypes. Second, the affective or emotional aspects of prejudice render logical arguments against stereotypes ineffective in countering the power of emotional responses. Correspondence bias can play an important role in stereotype

formation. The students that argued in favor of euthanasia came from the same law department or from different departments. Participants reported that group membership, i. Law students were perceived to be more in favor of euthanasia than students from different departments despite the fact that a pretest had revealed that subjects had no preexisting expectations about attitudes toward euthanasia and the department that students belong to. The attribution error created the new stereotype that law students are more likely to support euthanasia. Participants listened to descriptions of two fictitious groups of Pacific Islanders, one of which was described as being higher in status than the other. Subjects who scored high on the measure of correspondence bias stereotyped the poor, women, and the fictitious lower-status Pacific Islanders as incompetent whereas they stereotyped the wealthy, men, and the high-status Pacific Islanders as competent. The correspondence bias was a significant predictor of stereotyping even after controlling for other measures that have been linked to beliefs about low status groups, the just-world hypothesis and social dominance orientation. The underlying reason is that rare, infrequent events are distinctive and salient and, when paired, become even more so. The heightened salience results in more attention and more effective encoding, which strengthens the belief that the events are correlated. Black people, for instance, are a minority group in the United States and interaction with blacks is a relatively infrequent event for an average white American. Similarly, undesirable behavior e. Since both events "blackness" and "undesirable behavior" are distinctive in the sense that they are infrequent, the combination of the two leads observers to overestimate the rate of co-occurrence. Subjects were instructed to read descriptions of behaviors performed by members of groups A and B. Negative behaviors outnumbered positive actions and group B was smaller than group A, making negative behaviors and membership in group B relatively infrequent and distinctive. Participants were then asked who had performed a set of actions: Results showed that subjects overestimated the frequency with which both distinctive events, membership in group B and negative behavior, co-occurred, and evaluated group B more negatively. This despite the fact the proportion of positive to negative behaviors was equivalent for both groups and that there was no actual correlation between group membership and behaviors. If stereotypes are defined by social values, then stereotypes only change as per changes in social values. This explanation posits that stereotypes are shared because group members are motivated to behave in certain ways, and stereotypes reflect those behaviours. This explanation assumes that when it is important for people to acknowledge both their ingroup and outgroup, they will emphasise their difference from outgroup members, and their similarity to ingroup members. Patricia Devine, for example, suggested that stereotypes are automatically activated in the presence of a member or some symbolic equivalent of a stereotyped group and that the unintentional activation of the stereotype is equally strong for high- and low-prejudice persons. Words related to the cultural stereotype of blacks were presented subliminally. Results showed that participants who received a high proportion of racial words rated the target person in the story as significantly more hostile than participants who were presented with a lower proportion of words related to the stereotype. This effect held true for both high- and low-prejudice subjects as measured by the Modern Racism Scale. Thus, the racial stereotype was activated even for low-prejudice individuals who did not personally endorse it. They argued that if only the neutral category labels were presented, people high and low in prejudice would respond differently. They found that high-prejudice participants increased their ratings of the target person on the negative stereotypic dimensions and decreased them on the positive dimension whereas low-prejudice subjects tended in the opposite direction. In a study by Kawakami et al. After this training period, subjects showed reduced stereotype activation. Subjects primed with the stereotype walked significantly more slowly than the control group although the test did not include any words specifically referring to slowness, thus acting in a way that the stereotype suggests that elderly people will act. In another experiment, Bargh, Chen, and Burrows also found that because the stereotype about blacks includes the notion of aggression, subliminal exposure to black faces increased the likelihood that randomly selected white college students reacted with more aggression and hostility than participants who subconsciously viewed a white face. In a series of experiments, black and white participants played a video game, in which a black or white person was shown holding a gun or a harmless object e. Participants had to decide as quickly as possible whether to shoot the target. When the target person was armed, both black and white participants were faster in deciding to shoot the target when he was black than

when he was white. When the target was unarmed, the participants avoided shooting him more quickly when he was white. Time pressure made the shooter bias even more pronounced. It features Bettie Page as the model. Stereotypes can be efficient shortcuts and sense-making tools. They can, however, keep people from processing new or unexpected information about each individual, thus biasing the impression formation process. This means that at least some stereotypes are inaccurate. Based on that, the authors argued that some aspects of ethnic and gender stereotypes are accurate while stereotypes concerning political affiliation and nationality are much less accurate.

Chapter 3 : The Principles of Psychology. Stereotyped: racedaydvl.com: Herbert Spencer: Books

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Explain the formation of stereotypes and their effect on behaviour. Introduction Introduce the idea of stereotypes Our social world is very complex and thus presents us with too much information. Since our capacity to process information is limited, our social world needs to be simplified. One way to avoid this information overload is through social categorisation. The information is used in social categorisation is stereotypes. Define Stereotypes A "stereotype" is a mental representation and a form of social categorization made about specific individuals or a group and its members. Once a set of characteristics is used to describe a group of people, those characteristics are often attributed to all members of the group, thus affecting the behaviour of the people or individual who hold the stereotype, and those who are labelled by a stereotype. Gender, race, political stance, and personality contribute to the stereotypes we place on others, but they are generally based on race and gender. For example, white people can't dance; black people are stupid and uncivilized; Jewish people are greedy; women are organized, etc. However, some positive stereotypes may exist such as, Asians are intelligent; Christians are good people; women are bad drivers; old people have grey hair, etc. Stereotypes are similar to schemas Stereotypes are now also argued to be a schema process that conditions those who hold the stereotype and also those labelled after the stereotype, as they are organized internal representations of individuals and or groups, therefore guiding how people act towards them. However, this does not explain how it actually happens. Introduce stereotype threat, as a result of categorization Through categorization and by being part of thoughts resistant to change, stereotypes have a tremendous potential to affect a certain group's behaviour negatively, which can be explained by stereotype threat. Stereotype threat occurs when one is in a situation where there is a threat of being judged or treated stereotypically, or a fear of doing something that would inadvertently confirm that stereotype. Steele claims that the stereotypes" of prejudice is the cause of spotlight anxiety, an emotional stress that inhibits a stereotype-targeted individual's performance. Addressed students who were affected by "emotional distress" and pressure that may undermine their school performance Findings: Those that were under the stereotype threat often under-performed, which can therefore naturally "limit their educational prospects. This shows how behaviour can be affected by stereotypes in that it manipulates how people think and therefore act. Connection of study to question: Stereotype threat can affect the members of any social or cultural group, if the members believe in the stereotype. Therefore believing in such stereotypes can harm the performance of these groups, cause them to underperform and fulfil the stereotype. Aronson and Steele Other study you could use for stereotype threat Aim: To investigate the effect of stereotype threat on performance in a test. Gave a 30 minute verbal test to African American and European-American participants. Tested two groups of the participants and told one group that it was an articulation test whilst the other group was told it was a laboratory task. African Americans scored lower than the European Americans when they were told it was an articulation test but when told it was a laboratory test the African Americans scored higher than the European Americans. Shows that stereotype threat can affect an individual's performance in a task. Grain of truth hypothesis Supporting Researcher 2: Campbell Campbell states that there are two keys to stereotypes and are formed through, personal experiences with the groups and people we stereotype gate keepers parents, media, other members of our culture This is what forms his grain of truth hypothesis, in which he argued that experiences are generalized and passed on to groups, as a result of an experience shared with an individual of the group or stereotype that are categorized to. However, this theory has been criticized, since errors in attribution are common. Cognitive bias may be relevant to stereotypes After illusory correlations are formed, people actively seek to confirm and support their beliefs by looking for evidence in a "biased" way, which is known as confirmation bias. Illusory correlation comes in many forms such as culturally based prejudice about social groups. Method Researchers asked participants to read descriptions about two made-up groups Group A and Group B. Descriptions were based on a number of positive and negative behaviours. Group A majority group

“ twice as many members than B; performed 18 positive and 8 negative behaviours. Group B minority “ performed 9 positive and 4 negative behaviours. Asked to attribute behaviours to group. Although there was no correlation between group membership and the types of behaviours exhibited by the groups, in that the proportion of negative and positive was the same for both groups, the participants did seem to have an illusory correlation. More of the undesirable behaviours were attributed to the minority Group B, than the majority of Group A. The findings are based on the idea that distinctive information draws attention. This study shows that Evidence for illusory correlation, as the p's had formed an illusionary correlation between the size of the group Other Shorter Supporting Study 3: Snyder and Swann “ study of confirmation bias Method In a research study by Snyder and Swann , female participants were told that they would meet a person who was either introverted or extroverted. They were asked to prepare a set of questions for the person they were going to meet. The study showed that the participants wrote questions that were consistent with whom they were expecting to meet. Researchers concluded that the questions asked confirmed participants' stereotypes of each personality type. Connection to question Evidence for illusory correlation. This belief is biased, because we pay attention to behaviours that confirm what they believe about a group and ignore those behaviours contrary to their beliefs. Conclusion These studies show the formation of stereotypes according to the social cognitive theory, social categorization, grain of truth hypothesis and illusory correlation. Shows how stereotypes simplify our social world and how as the studies demonstrate, stereotypes are widely held to evaluate generalise a group of people. Stereotypes may lead to discrimination and prejudice and affect the behaviour of those who create the stereotype and also those who are stereotyped. From this, it can be concluded that stereotypes most often negatively affect our behaviour; however more research has to be made in order to investigate how stereotypes are formed and how they affect behaviour.

Chapter 4 : Stereotype - Counseling Psychology - IResearchNet

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Lustina, Readings About the Social Animal, 8th edition, ed. Aronson In , Claude Steele and Joshua Aronson performed the first experiments demonstrating that stereotype threat can undermine intellectual performance. As would be expected based on national averages, the African-American students did not perform as well on the test. Steele and Aronson split students into three groups: All three groups received the same test. Adjusted for previous SAT scores, subjects in the non-diagnostic-challenge condition performed significantly better than those in the non-diagnostic-only condition and those in the diagnostic condition. In the first experiment, the race-by-condition interaction was marginally significant. However, the second study reported in the same paper found a significant interaction effect of race and condition. This suggested that placement in the diagnostic condition significantly impacted African Americans compared with European Americans. Supporting this conclusion, they found that African-American students who regarded the test as a measure of intelligence had more thoughts related to negative stereotypes of their group. Steele and Aronson measured this through a word completion task. They found that African Americans who thought the test measured intelligence were more likely to complete word fragments using words associated with relevant negative stereotypes e. If a task is framed to be neutral, stereotype threat is not likely to occur; however, if tasks are framed in terms of active stereotypes, participants are likely to perform worse on the task. For example, a study on chess players revealed that female players performed more poorly than expected when they were told they would be playing against a male opponent. In contrast, women who were told that their opponent was female performed as would be predicted by past ratings of performance. Researchers Vishal Gupta, Daniel Turban, and Nachiket Bhawe extended stereotype threat research to entrepreneurship , a traditionally male-stereotyped profession. However, when entrepreneurship is presented as a gender-neutral profession, men and women express a similar level of interest in becoming entrepreneurs. When it was described as a test of athletic ability, European-American students performed worse, but when the description mentioned intelligence, African-American students performed worse. Data from Osborne Individuals who highly identify with a particular group appear to be more vulnerable to experiencing stereotype threat than individuals who do not identify strongly with the stereotyped group. The mere presence of other people can evoke stereotype threat. The study compared children that were 6â€”7 years old with children that were 8â€”9 years old from multiple elementary schools. Separate groups of children were given directions in an evaluative way and other groups were given directions in a non-evaluative way. The "evaluative" group received instructions that are usually given with the Raven Matrices test, while the "non-evaluative" group was given directions which made it seem as if the children were simply playing a game. The results showed that third graders performed better on the test than the first graders did, which was expected. However, the lower socioeconomic status children did worse on the test when they received directions in an evaluative way than the higher socioeconomic status children did when they received directions in an evaluative way. These results suggested that the framing of the directions given to the children may have a greater effect on performance than socioeconomic status. This was shown by the differences in performance based on which type of instructions they received. This information can be useful in classroom settings to help improve the performance of students of lower socioeconomic status. A study was done on 99 senior citizens ranging in age from 60â€”75 years. These seniors were given multiple tests on certain factors and categories such as memory and physical abilities, and were also asked to evaluate how physically fit they believe themselves to be. Additionally, they were asked to read articles that contained both positive and negative outlooks about seniors, and they watched someone reading the same articles. The goal of this study was to see if priming the participants before the tests would affect performance. The results showed that the control group performed better than those that were primed with either negative or positive words prior to the tests. The control group seemed to feel more confident in their abilities than the other two groups. Scheepers and Ellemers tested the following hypothesis: As predicted, participants in the low status condition showed higher blood pressure immediately after the

status feedback, while participants in the high-status condition showed a spike in blood pressure while anticipating the second round of the task. In , Scheepers et al. Two experiments were carried out in order to test this hypothesis. The first experiment looked at power priming and the second experiment related to role play. Both results from these two experiments provided evidence in support for the hypothesis. However, in certain situations, stereotype activation can also lead to performance enhancement through stereotype lift or stereotype boost. Stereotype lift increases performance when people are exposed to negative stereotypes about another group. Although stereotype boost is similar to stereotype lift in enhancing performance, stereotype lift is the result of a negative outgroup stereotype, whereas stereotype boost occurs due to activation of a positive ingroup stereotype. Conversely, these participants did worse on the math test when instead their gender identityâ€”which is associated with stereotypes of inferior quantitative skillsâ€”was made salient, which is consistent with stereotype threat. In one case, the effect was only reproduced after excluding participants who were unaware of stereotypes about the mathematical abilities of Asians or women, [33] while the other replication failed to reproduce the original results even considering several moderating variables. Steele and Aronson originally speculated that attempts to suppress stereotype-related thoughts lead to anxiety and the narrowing of attention. This could contribute to the observed deficits in performance. In , Toni Schmader, Michael Johns, and Chad Forbes published an integrated model of stereotype threat that focused on three interrelated factors: When a large portion of these resources are spent focusing on anxiety and performance pressure, the individual is likely to perform worse on the task at hand. Supporting an explanation in terms of stress arousal, one study found that African Americans under stereotype threat exhibit larger increases in arterial blood pressure. With regard to performance monitoring and vigilance, studies of brain activity have supported the idea that stereotype threat increases both of these processes. Forbes and colleagues recorded electroencephalogram EEG signals that measure electrical activity along the scalp, and found that individuals experiencing stereotype threat were more vigilant for performance-related stimuli. Another study used functional magnetic resonance imaging fMRI to investigate brain activity associated with stereotype threat. The researchers found that women experiencing stereotype threat while taking a math test showed heightened activation in the ventral stream of the anterior cingulate cortex ACC , a neural region thought to be associated with social and emotional processing. A study conducted by Boucher, Rydell, Loo, and Rydell has shown that stereotype threat not only affects performance, but can also affect the ability to learn new information. In the study, undergraduate men and women had a session of learning followed by an assessment of what they learned. Some participants were given information intended to induce stereotype threat, and some of these participants were later given "gender fair" information, which it was predicted would reduce or remove stereotype threat. As a result, participants were split into four separate conditions: The results of the study showed that the women who were presented with the "gender fair" information performed better on the math related test than the women who were not presented with this information. This study also showed that it was more beneficial to women for the "gender fair" information to be presented prior to learning rather than after learning. These results suggest that eliminating stereotype threat prior to taking mathematical tests can help women perform better, and that eliminating stereotype threat prior to mathematical learning can help women learn better. However, research has also shown that stereotype threat can cause individuals to blame themselves for perceived failures, [48] self-handicap , [2] discount the value and validity of performance tasks, [49] distance themselves from negatively stereotyped groups, [50] and disengage from situations that are perceived as threatening. For example, a woman may stop seeing herself as "a math person" after experiencing a series of situations in which she experienced stereotype threat. This disidentification is thought to be a psychological coping strategy to maintain self-esteem in the face of failure. Although much of the research on stereotype threat has examined the effects of coping with negative stereotype on academic performance, recently there has been an emphasis on how coping with stereotype threat could "spillover" to dampen self-control and thereby affect a much broader category of behaviors, even in non-stereotyped domains. For example, women might overeat, be more aggressive, make more risky decisions, [53] and show less endurance during physical exercise. Perceived discrimination has been extensively investigated in terms of its effects on mental health, with a particular emphasis on depression. There are many ways to combat the effects of

stereotype threat. In one study, teaching college women about stereotype threat and its effects on performance was sufficient to eliminate the predicted gender gap on a difficult math test. However, other research has found the opposite effect. It was found that "women who properly understood the meaning of the information provided, and thus became knowledgeable about stereotype threat, performed significantly worse at a calculus task". If people believe that they can improve their performance based on effort, they are more likely to believe that they can overcome negative stereotypes and perform well. In , researchers Geoffrey L. For the written assignment group, white students performed worse than minority students. For the clinical assessment, both groups improved their performance maintaining the racial difference. Greg Walton and Geoffrey Cohen were able to boost the grades of African-American college students, as well as eliminate the racial achievement gap over the first year of college, by telling participants that concerns about social belonging tend to lessen over time. If minority college students are welcomed into the world of academia, they are less likely to be influenced by the negative stereotypes of poor minority performance on academic tasks. Construct environments and have the physical objects in the environment not reflect one majority group. In this study, removing stereotypical computer science objects and replacing them with non-stereotypical objects increased female participation in computer science to an equal level as male peers. In one study, women in the STEM related field were shown a video of a conference with either a balanced or unbalanced ratio of men to women. The women viewing an unbalanced ratio reported a lower sense of belonging and less desire to participate. Decreasing cues that reflect only a majority group and increasing cues of minority groups can create environments that mitigate against stereotype threat. Researchers also proved that encouraging women to think about their multiple roles and identities by creating self-concept map did equally well as men on a math portion of the GRE. Furthermore, women who did not create a self-concept map did significantly worse on the math test than men did. Research indicates that students have a lower sense of belonging at institutions where they are the minority. However, developing friendships with other racial groups alleviated against a sense of not belonging. One study found that having students reexamine their situation or anxiety can help their executive resources attentional control, working memory, etc. As a result, students are more likely to implement alternative study strategies and seek help from others. According to Paul R. Hardison, and Michael J. Cullen, both the media and scholarly literature have wrongly concluded that eliminating stereotype threat could completely eliminate differences in test performance between European Americans and African Americans. In subsequent correspondence between Sackett et al. Jensen criticised stereotype threat theory on the basis that it invokes an additional mechanism to explain effects which could be, according to him, explained by other, well-known, and well-established theories, such as test anxiety and especially the Yerkesâ€”Dodson law. Geary reviewed the evidence for the stereotype threat explanation of the achievement gap in mathematics between men and women. They concluded that the relevant stereotype threat research has many methodological problems, such as not having a control group, and that the stereotype threat literature on this topic misrepresents itself as "well established". They concluded that the evidence is in fact very weak. Flore and Wicherts concluded the reported effect is small, but also that the field is inflated by publication bias. They argue that, correcting for this, the most likely true effect size is near zero see meta-analytic plot, highlighting both the restriction of large effect to low-powered studies, and the plot asymmetry which occurs when publication bias is active.

Chapter 5 : Stereotype threat - Wikipedia

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Prejudice refers to the attitudes and feelings—whether positive or negative and whether conscious or non-conscious—that people have about members of other groups. In contrast, stereotypes have traditionally been defined as specific beliefs about a group, such as descriptions of what members of a particular group look like, how they behave, or their abilities. As such, stereotypes are cognitive representations of how members of a group are similar to one another and different from members of other groups. Prejudice and stereotyping are generally considered to be the product of adaptive processes that simplify an otherwise complex world so that people can devote more cognitive resources to other tasks. However, despite any cognitively adaptive function they may serve, using these mental shortcuts when making decisions about other individuals can have serious negative ramifications. The horrible mistreatment of particular groups of people in recent history, such as that of Jews, African Americans, women, and homosexuals, has been the major impetus for the study of prejudice and stereotyping. Thus, the original conceptions and experiments were concerned almost entirely with conscious, negative attitudes and explicitly discriminatory actions. However, as the social acceptability of prejudice and stereotypes has changed, the manifestations of prejudice and stereotypes have also changed. In response to these changes, and given that people who reject prejudice and stereotyping can still unwittingly internalize stereotypic representations, the study of prejudice and stereotyping has recently moved to include beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that could be considered positive and not obviously or overtly prejudiced. Importantly, even when prejudice and stereotypes are ostensibly positive. Because of these new conceptions of bias, there have also been methodological adaptations in the study of prejudice and stereotyping that move beyond the conscious attitudes and behaviors of individuals to measure their implicit prejudice and stereotypes as well. This article gives a quick tour through the social psychological study of prejudice and stereotyping to inform the reader about its theoretical background, measurement, and interventions aimed to reduce prejudice.

General Overviews There are several books and chapters that offer a broad view of the social psychological research on prejudice and stereotyping. There are two texts that are excellent for undergraduates. First, Whitley and Kite covers the general field of research on stereotyping and prejudice, providing an excellent primer for theory and research on the causes and consequences of prejudice and stereotyping. Second, Stangor is a collection of key social psychological readings on stereotypes and prejudice. The key readings text is especially useful, as it can be assigned in sections for a general class or used in its entirety for a class specifically on prejudice. Beyond the introductory text and primer for key readings, though potentially unsuitable for undergraduate use, there are three chapters from the *Handbook of Social Psychology* that are useful for researchers who want to get an understanding of the progression of research and focus of current theory and research. Although there is some overlap in the content of the three handbook chapters, each chapter makes a notably unique contribution that warrants their inclusion. Fiske provides a history and thorough review of influential perspectives on prejudice and stereotyping. Expanding on Fiske, Yzerbyt and Demoulin provides an additional in-depth perspective on theories of how groups are created and sustained. Dovidio and Gaertner focuses on the bases of group-based biases and provides a thorough consideration of theory and research on stereotype change and prejudice reduction. Finally, in addition to the aforementioned chapters, Dovidio, et al. In *Handbook of social psychology*. Edited by Susan T. Focuses mainly on the psychological foundations of intergroup bias and how to resolve those biases in order to reduce prejudice. There are discussions about the categorization process, explicit versus implicit biases and what mediates and moderates those biases.

Chapter 6 : racedaydvl.com: Stereotype

Similarly, when stereotypes are activated, children with low socioeconomic status perform more poorly in math than do those with high socioeconomic status, and psychology students perform more poorly than do natural science students (Brown, Croizet, Bohner, Fournet, & Payne,).

Topics covered will include object recognition, attention, memory, concepts, language, imagery, problem solving and reasoning and the neural bases of cognitive processes. Theories of classical and operant conditioning will be explored, in addition to selected theories which explore the interaction between learning, memory and motivation. Additionally, basic neuroanatomy and neurochemistry underlying various learning processes will also be introduced. PSYC or H. Select 3 credits from the following courses: Focus topics include brain neuroanatomy, neural communication, sensory processes, motivation, emotion, and arousal. Students will develop an introductory understanding of the principles of biological evolution and will learn to apply that understanding toward the study of the human experience. Particular attention will be paid to addressing common misunderstandings of the field of evolutionary psychology, and to understand the fundamental differences between the evolutionary approach and traditional social science approaches. Students in sensation and perception will explore the value of each sense in the perceptual world and will be encouraged to consider what life would be like without each sense. Perceptual illusions will be employed in order to encourage students to delve into the neural underpinnings of sensory perception. Through studying the pathways from sensations to perceptions, students will gain an appreciation of the fragility of perceptions. Students in this course will examine the theory of psychophysiology as well as common psychophysiological techniques. Unlike many studies of development, this course is structured around issues of development rather than examination of development from a chronological perspective. This structure will allow the student to more completely grasp life-span issues. Family, social roles, lifestyle, psychological disorders, mental abilities, and death and dying will be examined. Topics include physical, emotional, social, intellectual, moral, and personality development, as well as the importance of the home, school, and community. Emphasis will be placed on the ability to observe and describe child behavior and to understand the principles and processes that govern growth and development in the early childhood years. Implications of knowledge of child development for parental behavior, professional practices, and social policy will also be considered. Various other related counseling professions are discussed throughout the course. Current issues and personality research. Case studies supplement and illustrate theory and research. Topics such as self-perception, judgment and decision-making, rationalization, attitude change, conformity, social influence, obedience, attraction, love, aggression, violence, altruism, deception, nonverbal communication, and prejudice will be covered. Finally, the course explores the impact of both implicit and explicit prejudice.

Chapter 7 : Stereotype - Wikipedia

1. Definition of Stereotypes. Stereotypes have been defined as a false classificatory concept to which as a rule a strong emotional feeling tone of likes or dislikes, approval or disapproval is attached.

Social psychology is about understanding individual behavior in a social context. It therefore looks at human behavior as influenced by other people and the social context in which this occurs. Social psychology is to do with the way these feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions and goals are constructed and how such psychological factors, in turn, influence our interactions with others. Topics examined in social psychology include: History of Social Psychology Early Influences Aristotle believed that humans were naturally sociable, a necessity which allows us to live together an individual centered approach , whilst Plato felt that the state controlled the individual and encouraged social responsibility through social context a socio-centered approach. This led to the idea of a group mind, important in the study of social psychology. It emphasized the notion that personality develops because of cultural and community influences, especially through language, which is both a social product of the community as well as a means of encouraging particular social thought in the individual. Early Texts Texts focusing on social psychology first emerged at the start of the 20th century. The first notable book in English was published by McDougall in *An Introduction to Social Psychology* , which included chapters on emotion and sentiment, morality, character and religion, quite different to those incorporated in the field today. This belief is not the principle upheld in modern social psychology, however. His book also dealt with topics still evident today, such as emotion, conformity and the effects of an audience on others. Murchison published The first handbook on social psychology was published by Murchison in A text by Klineberg looked at the interaction between social context and personality development by the s a number of texts were available on the subject. By the study of social norms had developed, looking at how individuals behave according to the rules of society. This was conducted by Sherif Later Developments Much of the key research in social psychology developed following World War II, when people became interested in the behavior of individuals when grouped together and in social situations. Key studies were carried out in several areas. Some studies focused on how attitudes are formed, changed by the social context and measured to ascertain whether change has occurred. Thus the growth years of social psychology occurred during the decades following the s. Bandura Social Learning Theory Bandura introduced the notion that behavior in the social world could be modeled. Children who had seen the adult rewarded were found to be more likely to copy such behavior. We are motivated to reduce this by either changing one of our thoughts, beliefs or attitudes or selectively attending to information which supports one of our beliefs and ignores the other selective exposure hypothesis. Dissonance occurs when there are difficult choices or decisions, or when people participate in behavior that is contrary to their attitude. Dissonance is thus brought about by effort justification when aiming to reach a modest goal , induced compliance when people are forced to comply contrary to their attitude and free choice when weighing up decisions. When the boys were asked to allocate points to others which might be converted into rewards who were either part of their own group or the out-group, they displayed a strong in-group preference. That is, they allocated more points on the set task to boys who they believed to be in the same group as themselves. He believed that these were made based on three areas: When the learner a stooge got the answer wrong, they were told by a scientist that they had to deliver an electric shock. This did not actually happen, although the participant was unaware of this as they had themselves a sample real! They were encouraged to increase the voltage given after each incorrect answer up to a maximum voltage, and it was found that all participants gave shocks up to v, with 65 per cent reaching the highest level of v. It seems that obedience is most likely to occur in an unfamiliar environment and in the presence of an authority figure, especially when covert pressure is put upon people to obey. It is also possible that it occurs because the participant felt that someone other than themselves was responsible for their actions. There was some basic loss of rights for the prisoners, who were unexpectedly arrested, given a uniform and an identification number they were therefore deindividuated. The study showed that conformity to social roles occurred as part of the social interaction, as both groups displayed more negative emotions and hostility and

dehumanization became apparent. Prisoners became passive, whilst the guards assumed an active, brutal and dominant role.

Chapter 8 : Stereotypes, Prejudice, and Discrimination

The principles of social psychology, including the ABCs—“affect, behavior, and cognition”—apply to the study of stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination, and social psychologists have expended substantial research efforts studying these.

Stereotypes have been defined as a false classificatory concept to which as a rule a strong emotional feeling tone of likes or dislikes, approval or disapproval is attached. According to Lippmann, stereotypes are individual attitudes so strongly inter conditioned by collective contacts that they become highly standardized and uniform within the group. It largely determines what group of facts we shall see and what light and what shadow we will reflect on them. According to Allport whether favourable or unfavourable, a stereotype is an exaggerated belief asserted with a category. The process of stereotyping, therefore, appears as a tendency to attribute generalized and simplified characters to groups of peoples in the verbal levels. Since, the attempt to see all things freshly and in detail, bit by bit is time taking and exhausting overgeneralization of facts is made through already existing mental pictures and readymade facts. In the great blooming and budding confusion of the outer world, we pick out what our culture has already defined for us. They make it possible for the members of the group to communicate with each other quickly and efficiently about the other groups. Baron and Byrne hold that stereotypes are negative schemata for social groups. They are a type of cognitive framework for interpreting and studying social information. It strongly affects the incoming information and information processing. Information relevant to a particular stereotype is processed and accepted more quickly than information not related to that stereotype. Further, those informations consistent or equivalent to the stereotypes are attended to first and speedily. If someone has the stereotype that Indians are lazy people, at once, he will accept if he receives such an information from the environment. But the reverse he may not easily accept. Even strong stereotypes may lead the person to make determined efforts to refute it. The stereotype is, therefore, to a large degree self confirming inducing the individual to bring supporting information to mind. Evidences for the operation of such negative schematas have been reported by Dovidio, Evans and Tyler and Greenberg and Zeyski Sherif and Sherif have said that group stereotype is a popular term referring to agreement among members of a group on their image of another group and its members. They have operationally defined it in terms of the proportion of group members agreeing on levels or attributions for another group and its members. They further observe that a stereotype may be said to exist when a high proportion agrees on the image of the out group. Psychologically, the phenomena of stereotype or group stereotype is not fundamentally different from the concept of prejudice or attitude. Sherif and Sherif hold that their distinctiveness is derived from the nature of the stimulus situation to which they refer intergroup relations , not from the psychological principles governing concept and attitude formation or their change. From the above definitions and deliberations on stereotypes and its nature, the properties of stereotypes can be summarized in the following manner: Stereotypes may have some stimulus value, but they are unscientific generalizations. Stereotypes are mostly false elements. Stereotypes are overgeneralized ideas. Stereotypes are linked with emotional experience. Stereotypes are shared by the group. They are mostly negative in nature. Stereotypes originate and grow like attitudes, prejudices and other social concepts. Stereotypes are quite rigid and not easily amenable to change. Stereotypes arise out of ingroup outgroup relationship and personal and group conflicts into which a good deal of fantasy is attached. Stereotypes grow out of social interaction and ones past experience. Stereotypes help in solving current problems and adjust with the present situation in a short time by the already formed readymade ideas. Stereotypes are a type of cognitive framework and to a large degree are self confirming inducing the individual to bring supporting information to mind. Informations supporting a particular stereotype are readily accepted and remembered while rejected informations do not go in the line of stereotypes. Through stereotypes unfavourable traits or adjectives are attributed to the outgroup and favourable traits to the ingroup. The idea of stereotype is based on few facts. It has only stimulus value, but no scientific value. It is usually based on partial truths. All the Kabuliwalas are not Sylocks. Only a few of them may be miser and our experience are limited with a few

Kabuliwalas. The generalization about the Kabuliwalas can be found out by making a statistical analysis. Stereotype is a major mechanism in sustaining prejudice and it resists change. Stereotypes influence and colour many of our daily and day to day activities, perceptions and behaviour at large. In the great blooming, budding confusion of the outer world, we pick out what our culture has already defined for us and we tend to perceive that which we have picked up in the form of stereotypes for us by our culture. Stereotypes are more or less consistent picture of the head to which our habits, tastes, capacities, comforts and hopes have adjusted themselves. They may not be a complete picture of the world. But they are a picture of the possible world to which we are adopted. In that world, people and things, all have their well known places and do certain expected things. We feel at home there we fit in. We are members, we know the way around. There we find the charm of the familiar, the normal, the dependable, its groups and share where we are accustomed to find them. When the different members of the society interact with the material objects of the external world and with each other, they develop certain ideas, attitudes, and mental pictures towards them. These ideas and attitudes named as cognitive framework developed out of past experience are used for processing and interpreting subsequent social information. But, whatever, mental image one formulates about a person or place, idea or event may not be true. These are called stereotypes. In this modern world, which is passing through conflicts and prejudices, interstate and international tensions, a knowledge of the factor underlying tension and conflicts in the social field may be necessary. It is essential not only to have mere knowledge of stereotype, but knowledge of stereotype based on the findings of scientific studies and systematic investigations. From this stand point studies on national, racial group and linguistic stereotypes have been considered of tremendous importance. Due to the presence of certain fixed mental pictures about others, there is misunderstanding at all levels beginning from familial to national and international level. The groups of people accepted by a group due to some reason or other get favourable reaction and it becomes the ingroup. Sherif and Hovland point out that the attitudes associated with the groups placed in acceptable categories are predominately favourable and attributes associated with reflected groups are largely unfavourable. Thus, the acceptance or rejection of a group is bound up with the nature of stereotypes. As experience shows every human organism has certain static ideas and fixed mental images in his head of himself as well as others. Stereotypes are the picture in the head that filters the news effect what one notices and how one views it. It simply means denoting any false image of others. It is a posture or gesture which does not change. Once they are acquired, stereotypes become fixed conceptions in human mind. If one says, for instance, that Americans are materialistic, Englishmen are formal and diplomatic and Indians are superstitious, he is expressing a stereotyped generalization, a fixed idea about a category of people representing a particular nation or country. Such generalizations are true to the extent that the whole concept may not be wrong, but the truth may be limited to a few people only and it is a case of over generalization which may be due to emotional causes or ingroup outgroup feeling etc. Causes and Development of Stereotypes: Stereotypes develop in the same manner attitude and prejudices develop. Social learning and social perception, group norms and reference groups play a tremendous role in the development of stereotypes. Stereotype is, thus, purely acquired and is solely influence by socio-cultural conditioning. Stereotypes are also based on rumours, stories, anecdotes and sometimes actual experience has tremendous additive value in the formation and development of stereotypes. From the personal point of view stereotypes may have an unconscious self reference. Thus, Allport says that one may imagine his own qualities in a group and hate the group because he is in conflict over the same qualities in himself. Bird says that stereotypes originate more due to the feelings and emotions of the individual with less emphasis in the characteristics of the stimulating circumstances. This shows how stereotypes grow due to social learning and imitation. In the great blooming budding confusion of the outer world, we pick up what our culture has already defined for us and we tend to perceive that which we have picked up in the form of stereotypes for us by our culture. Our perception consists of two types of objects: Perception of the natural object depends upon the objectivity of the stimulus c But we learn from others how to perceive the social objects. Here the perception is subjective, influenced by preconceived nations. In social perception, we have stereotypes on the basis of what are taught by others. We are told about the world before we see it. In perception of natural object, we see things as they are, while in perception of social objects we

see things as we are or we are told about these things well in advance before we actually see them. Emotional concepts and attitudes are more important for the development of stereotypes than knowledge and familiarity. Stereotypes grow out of experience. As already indicated a stereotype is an indiscriminated construct which assimilates varying types of experiences into the same pattern on the basis of a minor resemblance or a fallacious similarity. Stereotypes are so persuasive and important that many investigators have tried to explore their psychological basis. Stereotypes are often based on cognitive processes as per recent views. Recent thinking holds that their functioning results from special processes of thought. As long as a stereotype is in our consciousness an individual is never forced to examine the reasons underlying it. Such stereotypes can be used as an excuse to continue hostility. Inevitably our opinion covers a bigger space, a longer reach of time, a greater number of things than we can entirely observe. They have, therefore, to be pieced together out of which others have reported and what we can imagine. Results of several observations, experiences and studies show that undoubtedly there are group differences in behaviour and attitudes.

Chapter 9 : SCLOA LO | ib psych notes

Racial Stereotypes. Researchers have found that stereotypes exist of different races, cultures or ethnic groups. Although the terms race, culture and ethnic groups have different meanings, we shall take them to mean roughly the same thing at the moment.

Saul McLeod, published, updated Definition: One advantage of a stereotype is that it enables us to respond rapidly to situations because we may have had a similar experience before. One disadvantage is that it makes us ignore differences between individuals; therefore we think things about people that might not be true. The use of stereotypes is a major way in which we simplify our social world; since they reduce the amount of processing. By stereotyping we infer that a person has a whole range of characteristics and abilities that we assume all members of that group have. Stereotypes lead to social categorization, which is one of the reasons for prejudice attitudes. Most stereotypes probably tend to convey a negative impression. Negative stereotypes seem far more common, however. Racial Stereotypes Researchers have found that stereotypes exist of different races, cultures or ethnic groups. Although the terms race, culture and ethnic groups have different meanings, we shall take them to mean roughly the same thing at the moment. The most famous study of racial stereotyping was published by Katz and Braly in when they reported the results of a questionnaire completed by students at Princeton University in the USA. Most students at that time would have been white Americans and the pictures of other ethnic groups included Jews as shrewd and mercenary, Japanese as shrewd and sly, Negroes as lazy and happy-go-lucky and Americans as industrious and intelligent. Not surprisingly, racial stereotypes always seem to favor the race of the holder and belittle other races. It is probably true to say that every ethnic group has racial stereotypes of other groups. There is no evidence for this view, however, and many writers argue that it is merely a way of justifying racist attitudes and behaviors. To investigate stereotypical attitudes of Americans towards different races. Questionnaire method was used to investigate stereotypes. American university students were given a list of nationalities and ethnic groups. They were asked to pick out five or six traits which they thought were typical of each group. There was considerable agreement in the traits selected. White Americans, for example, were seen as industrious, progressive and ambitious. African Americans were seen as lazy, ignorant and musical. Participants were quite ready to rate ethnic groups with whom they had no personal contact. Ethnic stereotypes are widespread, and shared by members of a particular social group. Later studies conducted in and found changes in the stereotypes and the extent to which they are held. In general, stereotypes in the later study tended to be more positive but the belief that particular ethnic groups held particular characteristics still existed. Also, it should be noted that this study has relied entirely on verbal reports and is therefore extremely low in ecological validity. Just because participants in a study will trot out stereotypes when asked does not mean to say that people go around acting on them. People do not necessarily behave as though the stereotypes are true. The limited information that the experiments are given is also likely to create demand characteristics. It is cued by the mere recognition that a negative group stereotype could apply to you in a given situation. It is important to understand that the person may experience a threat even if he or she does not believe the stereotype. Steele and Aronson conducted an experiment involving African American and White college students who took a difficult test using items from an aptitude test American GRE Verbal exam under one of two conditions. In the stereotype threat condition, students were told that their performance on the test would be a good indicator of their underlying intellectual abilities. In the non-threat condition, they were told that the test was simply a problem solving exercise and was not diagnostic of ability. Performance was compared in the two conditions and results showed that African American participants performed less well than their white counterparts in the stereotype threat condition, but in the non-threat condition their performance equaled that of their white counterparts. In another study Shih, Pittinsky, and Ambady, Asian women were subtly reminded with a questionnaire of either their Asian identity or their female identity prior to taking a difficult math test. Students taking the test under stereotype threat might also become inefficient on the test by rereading the questions and the answer choices, as well as rechecking their answers, more than when not under stereotype threat. Racial stereotypes of one

hundred college students. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 28, Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 69 5 , How to reference this article: