PSYCHOLOGY HONOURS
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Application of Social Psychology to the Legal System

Social Psychology refers to the branch of psychology that deals with analyzing the human behaviors based on the interactions with others in society as well as the social contexts of the conduct. Simply, it deals with how people act or behave according to their social interactions. On the other hand, the criminal justice system is the branch of the law that deals with controlling criminal activities in society through imposing penalties on the offenders of the specific laws. The following article seeks to analyze how the social psychology plays a role in the criminal justice system. In specific, one needs to examine how the social psychology influences the jury decision making.

Social psychology is the scientific study of how people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others (Allport 1998). By this definition, scientific refers to the empirical method of investigation. The terms thoughts, feelings, and behaviors include all of the psychological variables that are measurable in a human being. The statement that others may be imagined or implied suggests that we are prone to social influence even when no other people are present, such as when watching television, or following internalized cultural norms.

Social psychology is an empirical science that attempts to answer a variety of questions about human behavior by testing hypotheses, both in the laboratory and in the field. Such approach to the field focuses on the individual, and attempts to explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals are influenced by other people.

Major Applicative Fields of Social Psychology

BUSINESS
HEALTH

EDUCATION

LAW

ENVIRONMENT

A relatively recent field, social psychology has nonetheless had a significant impact not only on the academic worlds of psychology, sociology, and the social sciences in general, but has also influenced public understanding and expectation of human social behavior. By studying how people behave under extreme social influences, or lack thereof, great advances have been made in understanding human nature. Human beings are essentially social beings, and thus, social interaction is vital to the health of each person. Through investigating the factors that affect social life and how social interactions affect individual psychological development and mental health, a greater understanding of how humankind as a whole can live together in harmony is emerging.

Criminal justice system plays a critical role in every society. It identifies the particular offenders, arrest them prosecute them and adjudge them either guilty or innocent for conviction. Nonetheless, it entails a very delicate process to avoid convicting innocent parties. The judge of the jury has the mandate to ensure that the offenders are punished accordingly to the law and their offenses without disregarding their inherent fundamental rights and freedoms as human beings. Consequently, the criminal justice system entails a rigorous process. In the United States, the role of determining whether an individual is guilty or innocent of a crime lies with the jury. The jury selection entails a very rigorous process of selecting persons of utmost integrity and irrevocable rationale for rendering independent and sober determinations. Nonetheless, as social psychologists assert the process of jury decision-making is one that is significantly affected by the social interactions of the jury with either themselves or the society. In the subsequent paragraphs, I will discuss how the social interactions influence the jury decision-making.

According to various commentators like Asch, the size of the jury greatly influences the outcome of their decision (Asch). Indeed, he asserts that the less the number of jurors the more the likelihood of an outcome against the defendant. In contrast, where the number of jurors is high the defendant stands a position of getting some favors from the jurors. Ordinarily, the size of the jury ranges from 6 to 12 members. As Asch opines a jury of six persons has a high probability of entering a vote of guilty to a person even if he or she is guilty (Asch). Indeed, he asserts that the jurors seem to enter a unanimous decision with no one dissenting. On the other hand, a jury of 12 jurors has significantly high possibility of multiple dissentment from the members. One of the reasoning behind the occurrence is that in a small-sized jury, a person will be afraid of going against the majority and thus conforming to their decisions (Asch). However, where a jury comprises of 12 jurors, the probability of two or three persons exercising their independence of mind is very high.

Furthermore, quite often the jury outcomes are highly determined by the type of case. According to commentators, certain types of crimes such as murder and sexual offenses result to the offender being held guilty even if it is imprudent to do so (Fiedler and Joseph). One of the principal arguments for the position is the fact that such cases generate some generic prejudice against the accused persons (Fiedler and Joseph). Consequently, the jurors acquire some form of bias against the individual. Subsequently, their minds tend to lean more to the nature of the crime as opposed to the facts of the case and the applicable law. They simply do not exercise any form of mental independence. Besides, the situation is explained based on the cognitive theory, which proposes that a human mind under stress tends to have a reduced rational decision-making. Frequently, these types of cases tend to elicit a lot of publicity and following and hence, the resulting pressure on the jurors.

In summary, the interactions of the social psychology are very evident in the jury decision-making as discussed above. In particular, the interplay occurs in relationship to the size of the jury and the nature of the case under determination.

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An introduction to the concept of Legal Psychology :

Legal psychology involves empirical, psychological research of the law, legal institutions, and people who come into contact with the law. Legal psychologists typically take basic social and cognitive principles and apply them to issues in the legal system such as eyewitness memory, jury decision-making, investigations, and interviewing. The term "legal psychology" has only recently come into usage, primarily as a way to differentiate the experimental focus of legal psychology from the clinically-oriented forensic psychology.

Together, legal psychology and forensic psychology form the field more generally recognized as "psychology and law". Following earlier efforts by psychologists to address legal issues, psychology and law became a field of study in the 1960s as part of an effort to enhance justice, though that originating concern has lessened over time.[1] The multidisciplinary American Psychological Association's Division 41, the American Psychology-Law Society, is active with the goal of promoting the contributions of psychology to the understanding of law and legal systems through research, as well as providing education to psychologists in legal issues and providing education to legal personnel on psychological issues. Further, its mandate is to

inform the psychological and legal communities and the public at large of current research, educational, and service in the area of psychology and law.[2] There are similar societies in Britain and Europe.

Generally speaking, any research that combines psychological principles with legal applications or contexts could be considered legal psychology (although research involving clinical psychology, e.g., mental illness, competency, insanity defense, offender profiling, etc., is typically categorized as forensic psychology, and not legal psychology). For a time, legal psychology researchers were primarily focused on issues related to eyewitness testimony and jury decision-making; so much so, that the editor of *Law and Human Behavior*, the premier legal psychology journal, implored researchers to expand the scope of their research and move on to other areas.[3]

There are several legal psychology journals, including *Law and Human Behavior*, *Psychology, Public Policy and Law*, *Psychology, Crime, and Law*, and *Journal of Psychiatry, Psychology and Law* that focus on general topics of criminology, and the criminal justice system. In addition, research by legal psychologists is regularly published in more general journals that cover both basic and applied research areas.

In March 1893 J. McKeen Cattell posted questions to fifty-six of his students at Columbia University, the questions he asked his students were comparable to those asked in a court of justice. What he found was that it was reasonable to conclude eyewitness accounts of events were unreliable. His students were all sure they were mostly correct, even when they weren't, and some were hesitant when they were in fact correct. He could not figure out specifically why each student had inaccurate testimonies. Cattell suggested that "an unscrupulous attorney" could discredit a witness who is being truthful by asking "cunningly selected questions". Although a jury, or the judge, should know how normal errors are in eyewitness testimonies given different conditions. However, even Cattell was shocked by the level of incorrectness displayed by his students. Cattell's research has been depicted as the foundation of forensic psychology in the United States. His research is still widely considered a prevailing research interest in legal psychology.[4] It has been thought that in America psychologists have been used as expert witnesses in court testimonies since the early 1920s. Consultation within civil courts was most common, during this time criminal courts rarely consulted with psychologists. Psychologists were not considered medical experts, those who were like, physicians and psychiatrists, in the past were the ones consulted for criminal testimonies. This could be because in criminal cases, the defendant's mental state almost never mattered "As a general rule, only medical men—that is, persons licensed by law to practice the profession of medicine—can testify as experts on the question of insanity; and the propriety of this general limitation is too patent to permit discussion".[5]

Legal psychologists typically hold a PhD in some area of psychology (e.g., clinical psychology, social psychology, cognitive psychology, etc.), and apply their knowledge of that field to the law. Although formal legal training (such as a JD or Master of Legal Studies degree) can be beneficial, most legal psychologists hold only the PhD. In fact, some argue[*citation needed*] that specialized legal training dilutes the psychological empiricism of the researcher. For instance, to understand how eyewitness memory "works", a psychologist

should be concerned with memory processes as a whole, instead of only the aspects relevant to the law (e.g., lineups, accuracy of testimony).

Roles of a legal psychologist

Academics and research

Many legal psychologists work as professors in university psychology departments, criminal justice departments or law schools. Like other professors, legal psychologists generally conduct and publish empirical research, teach various classes, and mentor graduate and undergraduate students. Many legal psychologists also conduct research in a more general area of psychology (e.g., social, clinical, cognitive) with only a tangential legal focus. Those legal psychologists who work in law schools almost always hold a JD in addition to a PhD

Expert witnesses

Psychologists specifically trained in legal issues, as well as those with no formal training, are often called by legal parties to testify as expert witnesses. In criminal trials, an expert witness may be called to testify about eyewitness memory, mistaken identity, competence to stand trial, the propensity of a death-qualified jury to also be "pro-guilt", etc. Psychologists who focus on clinical issues often testify specifically about a defendant's competence, intelligence, etc. More general testimony about perceptual issues (e.g., adequacy of police sirens) may also come up in trial.

Experts, particularly psychology experts, are often accused of being "hired guns" or "stating the obvious".Eyewitness memory experts, such as Elizabeth Loftus, are often discounted by judges and lawyers with no empirical training because their research utilizes undergraduate students and "unrealistic" scenarios.If both sides have psychological witnesses, jurors may have the daunting task of assessing difficult scientific information.

Policy making and legislative guidance

Psychologists employed at public policy centers may attempt to influence legislative policy or may be called upon by state (or national) lawmakers to address some policy issue through empirical research. A psychologist working in public policy might suggest laws or help to evaluate a new legal practice (e.g., eyewitness lineups).[6]

Advisory roles

Legal psychologists may hold advisory roles in court systems. They may advise legal decision makers, particularly judges, on psychological findings pertaining to issues in a case. The psychologist who acts as a court adviser provides similar input to one acting as an expert witness, but acts out of the domain of an adversarial system.[7]

Amicus briefs

Psychologists can provide an amicus brief to the court. The American Psychological Association has provided briefs concerning mental illness, retardation and other factors. The amicus brief usually contains an opinion backed by scientific citations and statistics. The impact of an amicus brief by a psychological association is questionable. For instance, Justice Powell[8] once called a reliance on statistics "numerology" and discounted results of several empirical studies. Judges who have no formal scientific training also may critique experimental methods, and some feel that judges only cite an amicus brief when the brief supports the judge's personal beliefs.

Trial consulting

Some legal psychologists work in trial consulting. No special training nor certification is needed to be a trial consultant, though an advanced degree is generally welcomed by those who would hire the trial consultant. The American Society of Trial Consultants does have a code of ethics for members, but there are no legally binding ethical rules for consultants.[9]

Some psychologists who work in academics are hired as trial consultants when their expertise can be useful to a particular case. Other psychologists/consultants work for or with established trial consultant firms. The practice of law firms hiring "in-house" trial consultants is becoming more popular, but these consultants usually can also be used by the firms as practicing attorneys.

Trial consultants perform a variety of services for lawyers, such as picking jurors (usually relying on in-house or published statistical studies) or performing "mock trials" with focus groups. Trial consultants work on all stages of a case from helping to organize testimony, preparing witnesses to testify, picking juries, and even arranging "shadow jurors" to watch the trial unfold and provide input on the trial. There is some debate on whether the work of a trial consultant is protected under attorney-client privilege, especially when the consultant is hired by a party in the case and not by an attorney.

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3. **^** *Michael J. Saks (1986). The Law Does Not Live on Eyewitness Testimony Alone. Law and Human Behavior, 10, 279-280.*

4. **^** Irving Weiner; Randy Otto (2013). *The Handbook of Forensic Psychology, 4th Edition.*

5. **^** Irving Weiner; Randy Otto (2013). *The Handbook of Forensic Psychology, 4th Edition.*

6. **^** *Examples of legal psychologists in these positions can be found at the American Bar Foundation (Website) and Federal Judicial Center (Website), among others.*

7. **^** *See, e.g.,* <u>*Court Appointed Scientific Expert Program*</u> <u>*Archived*</u> *2008-02-29 at the* <u>*Wayback Machine,*</u> <u>*American Association for the Advancement of Science*</u>
8. **^** <u>*Ballew v. Georgia*</u>
9. **^** *An overview of the trial consulting process is provided by the* <u>*American Society of Trial Consultants,*</u> <u>*ASTC Website*</u> .

==Application of Social Psychology to People at Work==

Research on organizational behavior is fundamentally an application of social psychology theory and phenomena. While much of organizational psychology is inherently grounded in social psychological research, these two disciplines are largely disconnected from one another. More visibility of the commonalities may encourage discussion, collaboration, and integration between these two fields—an integration that will only benefit each discipline.

Gordon Allport defined social psychology as a field that utilizes 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 beings."*

Social psychology examines human behavior in the company of other people, their attitudes, social <u>motivation</u>, the behavior of small <u>social group</u>, work teams, power, <u>social communication</u>, conflict and cooperation among people and many other topics. Social psychology focuses on human behavior in organizations and at work - related disciplines are work and organizational psychology.

Understanding the linkage between Social Psychology & Industrial Psychology & Human Resources

Social psychology, broadly speaking, deals with how an individual's (or group's) behavior influences, or is influenced by, the behavior of other individuals or groups. While the setting (or environment) within which those social interactions take place is an important contextual determinant of social behavior, the field of social psychology as a whole is not focused on any one particular setting. Industrial psychology, on the other hand, is focused on the workplace. An important part of the workplace is the other people in that setting. So, for example, when an industrial psychologist investigates the relationships among individuals in the workplace, he or she is "doing" social psychology. Also, many of the theoretical models of behavior utilized by industrial psychologists have their origin in social psychology.

Social psychologists study how social influence, social perception and social interaction influence individual and group behavior.

Some social psychologists focus on conducting research on human behavior. Others focus on the practical application of social psychology by helping organizations hire and train employees; evaluating educational programs to determine if intervention strategies are working; searching for ways to encourage people to reduce pollution; or offering advice to businesses or employees who need help with conflict mediation.

Because social psychologists are trained to combine their knowledge of human behavior with scientific research methods, job options and work settings are diverse. Many social psychologists choose to work in educational environments such as colleges and universities where they conduct research, teach classes and run social psychology laboratories. Other social psychologists work for government offices, nonprofit organizations, hospitals, social service agencies and private corporations. The range of career options for a social psychologist is so varied it may include research, marketing, politics or even technology design.

The applicative value of social psychology to people at work may be analysed by assessing the following domains :

Understanding what motivates an organization 's employees is central to the study of I–O psychology. Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within and outside of individuals, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration. Motivation involves providing someone with an incentive to do something; proper incentives should outweigh the cost of the actions required to achieve them.

Motivation can be intrinsic (consisting of internal factors within a person, such as the desire to succeed) or extrinsic (consisting of external factors, such as monetary incentives). Motivation also involves three psychological processes: arousal (which initiated action), direction (the path taken to accomplish goals), and intensity (the vigor and amount of energy employees put into reaching the goal).

Job satisfaction reflects employees' overall assessment of their job through emotions, behaviors, and attitudes about their work experience. Satisfaction with one's job has theoretical and practical utility linked to important job outcomes, such as attitudinal variables, absenteeism, employee turnover, and job performance.

Theories of Workplace Motivation

There are many theories about what motivates employees to work. Some are drawn from the larger field of psychology while others are specific to I–O psychology. Below are several theories.

Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory of motivation proposes that people believe there is a relationship between effort, performance, and outcome. The outcome in expectancy theory is often a reward given for the desired behavior. Under this theory, individuals place a value on the reward and then put forth the effort they believe is worthy of such a reward. An example of expectancy theory in the workplace would be a manager offering a car as a bonus (the reward) to the salesperson who makes the year's greatest number of sales (the effort).

Goal-Setting Theory

Goal-setting theory suggests that employees will be more motivated if they have specific goals to meet. A manager applying this to the workplace might assign a specific numerical goal to her workers, such as a target number of sales. There are some drawbacks to applying this theory. It can be detrimental to performance on certain types of tasks, and having too many goals can become distracting and counterproductive.

Social Exchange and Equity Theory

Social-exchange and equity theory examines the impact of exchange on motivation. There are three types of exchange relationships that people perceive they have with organizations: (1) a committed relationship held together by moral obligation, (2) a relationship based on demands and contributions, and (3) a relationship based on inequity, in which a person thinks that they are receiving less than they are giving. A manager who uses social-exchange theory might try to emphasize that the company is more of a family than a workplace in order to achieve the first type of relationship.

Need Theory

McClelland's need theory proposes three main categories of learned human behavior called manifest needs. The three main needs are the need for achievement, power, and affiliation. The amount and type of need varies by individual. People with a high need for achievement are very concerned with doing their best work and setting goals to help them get there. If one does not have a high need for achievement, there is usually a lack in motivation. The need for power takes two forms: socialized power, which benefits a group, and personalized power, which benefits the self. People with a high need for affiliation expect a more personalized relationship with others at work. A manager who applies need theory will want to hire employees with a high need for achievement.

Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory describes two factors, motivation and hygiene, that lead to job satisfaction and productivity in the workplace. Motivation factors include achievement, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Hygiene factors include working conditions, status, technical supervision, policy, and administration. This theory also highlights the importance of rewards systems; simple recognition is often enough to motivate employees and increase job satisfaction.

Job-Characteristics Model

The job-characteristics model (JCM) maintains five important elements that motivate workers and performance: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback. The individual elements are then thought to lead to positive outcomes through three psychological states: experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and the knowledge of results.

Psychological-Empowerment Theory

The psychological-empowerment theory posits that there is a distinction between empowering practices and cognitive motivational states. Empowering practices often occur through a competent manager who empowers employees by practices such as sharing information, creating autonomy, and creating self-managed teams.

Methods of Improving Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has a strong positive correlation with life satisfaction, and as such, improving job satisfaction should be considered a priority. (Interestingly, despite popular and media assumptions to the contrary, studies have shown a nebulous relationship between job satisfaction and employee productivity.) Some of the methods below can improve employee job satisfaction.

Flexible Scheduling

Some research has found that flexible working arrangements, such as flextime and telecommuting, can have positive effects on job satisfaction, but the effects are primarily seen when employees have some control over their schedules. Individuals who telecommute most of the work week are more satisfied with their jobs than are traditional employees who commute to a physical office location.

Professional Development

Career-development programs can provide excitement and satisfaction at various stages by identifying employees' talents early on and providing opportunities for learning. These programs can lead to employee job satisfaction and flexibility. Mentoring benefits and strengthens the employer-employee relationship. For individuals who have a high need for affiliation (as reflected in need theory), mentoring can be a powerful motivator. Identifying talent of employees plays to their strengths and enhances feelings of competency.

Effective Management

Good managers should be able to identify the talents of their employees, make sure they have the resources they need to perform well, respect their opinions, and push them to advance. Managers should develop

relationships and provide an environment that is conducive to development. Effective management skills include encouraging an open climate for dialogue with employees; providing employees with ongoing feedback regarding performance; helping employees understand the strategies of the organization; helping employees identify multiple and realistic options for their career growth and development within the organization; and helping employees compile meaningful, business-driven personal-development plans.

Employee Influence

There are benefits when an organization allows for employee influence. Allowing employees to have a voice in the organization creates intrinsic motivation for them to increase the quality of their performance because they care about the company as a whole. However, extrinsic reward systems also play a role in employee satisfaction, as suggested by expectancy theory. Reward systems include compensation, bonuses, raises, job security, benefits, and various other methods of reward for employees. Sometimes recognition alone is enough of a reward.

Creativity

On the cutting edge of research pertaining to motivation in the workplace is the integration of motivation and creativity. Essentially, according to research by Ambrose and Kulik, the same variables that predict intrinsic motivation are associated with creativity. Allowing employees to choose creative and challenging tasks has been shown to improve motivation.

Social Psychology & the phenomenon of Group Think at Workplace

Frank A. Clark (1990) puts it :
In the sixties, the U.S. President John F. Kennedy put together one of the intellectually strongest teams of presidential advisors in the history of USA. Yet the U.S. didn't avoid the debacle at the Bay of Pigs, where it shamefully failed in the attempt to remove the Cuban regime of Fidel Castro.

This and other similar failures of a group of top experts in the group decision making process intrigued American psychologist Irving Janis, who came up with the theory of **groupthink**. Janis under certain conditions conceives groupthink as an almost inevitable socio-psychological mechanism that leads the group composed of even extremely **intelligent** people to completely wrong conclusions.

Groupthink can be almost inevitably identified under the following conditions:

a) The situation is not perceived realistically
b) Realistic views have a chance to succeed ("they don't want to be heard")
c) The group is separated from the external environment (isolation from outside stimuli)

d) The group is highly cohesive

e) The group works under the pressure of external threats

f) There is developed very intense stress

g) The group is under pressure because the decision has to be fast

Such situation leads to the development of eight symptoms of groupthink:

a) Develops the illusion of <u>invulnerability</u>

b) Strengthens an unshakeable belief in the morality of group behavior

c) There is a collective rationalization of group decision

d) Develops shared intellectual stereotypes and <u>attitudes</u>, especially to opponents who are ridiculed

e) Applies self-censorship, the group members do not show critical and everyone pretends to agree

f) Succeeds an illusion of unanimity and group members gain a false sense of consensus - nobody outside resists the decision

g) Representatives of other opinions are put under pressure and forced to change their mind

h) There are "guardians of thought" who censor different opinions and negative information from outside

According to Janis groupthink leads to these seven **errors** in decision making:

a) All alternatives are insufficiently explored

b) The group departs from the original <u>objectives</u>

c) The group does not adequately consider the <u>risks</u> of the solution

d) Once rejected **alternatives** have no chance to be re-admitted

e) The collection of <u>information</u> in the group is **unsystematic** and incomplete

f) Group filters information and suppresses undesirable ones

g) There is no alternative plan in case of failure of the solution¨

According to Janis, there are several good ways to avoid the trap of groupthink:

a) Leader entrusts each member of the critical role of the proposals assessor, so that everyone can express objections and doubts

b) Executives in the group must not express their views in advance that their authority does not affect other

c) Several groups working in <u>parallel teams</u> to solve the <u>problem</u> are established

d) All reasonable alternatives are explored, none is previously discarded

e) Each group member has the right to consult the ideas of the group with someone from outside

f) The group may invite to its meetings an outside expert

g) At least one member of the group should play the role of devil's advocate, which systematically comes with counterclaims and disputes the decision of the group. At each <u>meeting</u> it should be a different person

In addition, the following steps can be recommended:

a) Check whether there has been any of the seven errors in decision making
b) Systematically gaining into the group individuals who are known for their nonconformity
c) The group leader decides individually, after having heard the views of the group members

Social Psychology and Social Network Analysis at Workplace

Social Network Analysis understands <u>social network</u> as a system of interconnected nodes (individual participants) through edges (their relationships). It can be said that the analysis builds on the mathematical graph theory and <u>network analysis methods</u>. The result is a map showing graphically all the elements of the examined social system and their relationships (or selected characteristics of the individual relationships graphically expressed in an appropriate manner). The characteristic may be mutual sympathy or antipathy or regular <u>communication</u> and cooperation, which is important for example for the exchange of <u>knowledge</u> and <u>information</u>.

Social Network Analysis is used in <u>knowledge management</u>.

<u>Sociometry</u> is a special type of social network analysis.

Related terms and methods:

a) <u>Analytical techniques</u>
b) <u>Organizational Climate</u>
c) <u>Social Network (in Sociology)</u>
d) <u>Sociogram</u>
e) <u>Sociometry</u>

Social Psychology And the Business world and / the world of Entrepreneurship

Psychology is the study of behavior, cognition, and consciousness. Social psychology is understanding an individual's behavior, decisions, and influences in specific social contexts. Business practices employ this knowledge in a wide array of areas ranging from marketing to management, utilizing theory to sell products or to become a more effective team leader.

One major area of focus in social psychology research looks at the various important relationships that are prevalent in the business world, such as those between the corporation and its customer base, upper management to the rest of the corporation, and between peers, to name a few. Social psychologists are also fascinated by power: power dynamics, the effect of power on those in leadership roles, and negotiations between parties. Additionally, psychologists examine business ethics and environment, factors that form a company's culture. All of these topics investigate the construction of feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions, and goals and their influences on human interactions. As social beings, how we make sense of ourselves and wider social networks are enormously important parts of our daily experience.

Among the Berkeley Executive Education faculty, there are many notable psychologists that perform research and implement their peer-reviewed publications into their teaching. Dacher Keltner, faculty member for the Women's Executive Leadership Program, examined the effect of power on those in leadership roles for Harvard Business Review in 2016. "While people usually gain power through traits and actions that advance the interests of others, such as empathy, collaboration, openness, fairness, and sharing," he writes, "when they start to feel powerful or enjoy a position of privilege, those qualities begin to fade. The powerful are more likely than other people to engage in rude, selfish, and unethical behavior. The 19th-century historian and politician, Lord Acton, got it right: "Power does tend to corrupt." Keltner describes this psychological effect as the power paradox, where people rise through the ranks based off their good qualities, but their behavior worsens as they rise. Additionally, the newer the leader, the more likely they are to lose their good attributes. Becoming aware of how power affects those who hold it can be critical to both leaders and their teams. How does one combat these consequences? Keltner says by practicing awareness, empathy and generous action.

Dr. Holly Schroth is the faculty director of our Negotiations and Influence program and #ManagingMillennials program. She is also the author of multiple research articles on negotiations and conflict. In one particular study, she explores the role of anger and strong emotions in the negotiating process. In a recent research article, she looks into teaching strategies for managing and harnessing emotions evoked by conflict during negotiation. She says that there are two kinds of anger: tactical and genuine. There are ways to recognize and utilize such a strong emotion during negotiations. Schroth claims that the ability to manage your own and the other party's anger is a powerful tool.

Dr. Laura Kray is the Warren E. and Carol Speiker Professor of Leadership and the faculty director for our Women's Executive Leadership program. She has published over 60 articles on her work with stereotypes, ethics, and negotiations. One of her research articles from 2017 investigated gender differences during negotiations within a social-cognitive paradigm. Kray and her team used this framework to explain gender differences in ethics, differences that manifest as moral identities in negotiator behavior. The study found that women internalize moral traits in their identities. These moral identities suppress unethical behavior, and financial incentives increase women's, but not men's, unethical negotiating behavior. There are negative

stereotypes surrounding women's ability to negotiate as well as men, and Kray's research could give light to the origin of these stereotypes and possible insight on how to break them down.

Dr. Jennifer Chatman is the Paul J. Cortese Distinguished Professor of Management and faculty director for our Leading-High Performance Culture program. One of her recent research articles asks if leadership has discernible effects on individual behavior and organizational outcomes. She examined the characteristics and behaviors of leaders to understand how they "garner followers, inspire small groups, how (they) capture entire organization's attention and cultivate intense commitment among members to realize organizational goals" (Kray, 2017). These traits were not what you might expect: confidence, dominance, assertiveness, and intelligence did not have much predictive validity. Instead, diagnostic capabilities, breadth and flexibility of behavioral repertoire, and understanding of leadership paradox were good predictors of effective leadership. These qualities allow a leader to create a sense of membership within the group for their subordinates, resulting in a stronger team and stronger organization.

Understanding the psychology of various business practices can lead to improved solutions. Many areas of business use the tools of psychology to understand an individual's behavior within a group, and social psychology may be the tool that can lead to even more efficient, adaptive, and innovative practices.

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