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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF PERSONALITY

Course of lectures

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The course of lectures “Social psychology of personality” consists of lectures, questions and tasks for independent work and control for each theme. The general basic provisions of social psychology, including modern concepts, methods and debatable issues; grounds for analyzing the characteristics and characteristics of personality are presented. The course of lectures “Social psychology of personality” addressed to master students of the specialty 1-23 80 03 “Psychology”. It can be useful for psychologists, teachers, students and all those who are interested in the psychology, professional development and personality formation.

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of teaching the discipline is to prepare undergraduates to perform the professional functions of a psychologist, master the basic concepts of social psychology, form undergraduates ideas about the specifics of social psychology of personality as a separate area of psychological knowledge, its subject, main directions and research areas, methodological foundations, research methods, basic social-psychological paradigms, phenomenology, problem areas, the formation of scientific knowledge about the possibilities and limitations of social situations that affect and determine mental phenomena, about the specifics of individual and group behavior.

The tasks of the discipline are:

- study and systematization of knowledge about the personality, its self-awareness, self and self-concept, personal and social identity;
- study of the process, mechanisms and results of socialization, the laws of social development of personality;
- study of knowledge about the social behavior of a person and its regulators.

In the Master's training system, the discipline "Social psychology of personality" is included in the module "Actual problems of social psychology" (a component of a higher education institution). Teaching the discipline is based on the knowledge gained by students in the process of studying such disciplines as "General psychology", "Social psychology", "Methodology, theory and methods of psychological research." The discipline "Social psychology of personality" is the most important academic discipline, its study contributes to the formation of professional skills, self-awareness and personal qualities of a practical psychologist. Socio-psychological knowledge and skills are a structural component of the professional competence of a psychologist. The program is designed to provide the basic psychological competence of future masters in theoretical and practical aspects. The program focuses the attention of undergraduates on psychological problems that are directly related to future professional activities.

SK. Possess fundamental knowledge in the field of social psychology of personality.

As a result of studying the academic discipline, the student must **know**:

- basic theoretical approaches to personality in social psychology, features of the formation and development of the self, personal and social identity of the individual, the foundations and content of the process of socialization, its main mechanisms;

be able to:

- form attitudes and resist influence, predict the consequences of social influence, manage interpersonal and intergroup interactions;

have a skill:

- to use methods of diagnostics of social and psychological characteristics of a person.

In the process of mastering the discipline "Social psychology of personality", the master's degree student forms and demonstrates the following competencies:

Forms of current certification in the academic discipline: credit.

This manual includes: a course of lectures on all topics of the discipline, the basic concepts of the topic, questions and assignments on each of the topics, a list of references (main, additional), appendices. The materials of the appendices can be used for independent work.

MODULE 1 MODERN APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING PERSONALITY IN FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC PSYCHOLOGY

Lecture 1. Problems of personality in foreign social psychology. Part 1

Lecture plan:

1. Specifics of personal problems in social psychology. The main theoretical approaches to the consideration of personality and their originality. Development of ideas about personality in social psychology.

2. Biological approach (Alexander). Psychodynamic approach to personality analysis (3. Freud, O. Kernberg, X. Kohut).

3. Behaviorist approach to personality (B. Skinner). Factor approach and its uniqueness (R. Cattell, X Eysenck).

Basic concepts: personality, approaches to the study of personality, determinants of personality's development

1. Specifics of personal problems in social psychology. The main theoretical approaches to the consideration of personality and their originality. Development of ideas about personality in social psychology.

Personality is defined as the characteristic sets of behaviors, cognitions, and emotional patterns that evolve from biological and environmental factors. While there is no generally agreed upon definition of personality, most theories focus on motivation and psychological interactions with one's environment.

Personality is one of the most essential categories of psychology. The range of theoretical approaches to it is extremely wide. The most complete picture of them can be obtained from the recently published works of a number of foreign researchers (L. Kjell, D. Ziegler, 1997; L. Pervin, O. John, 2000, and others).

In determining the specifics of the socio-psychological approach to the study of personality, we can rely on the definition of the subject of social psychology, as well as on the understanding of personality proposed by A.N. Leontiev. Social psychology does not specifically investigate the question of the social conditioning of the individual, not because this question is not important to it, but because it is solved by the entire psychological science, and primarily by general psychology. Social psychology, first of all, finds out how, in which specific groups, a person, on the one hand, assimilates social influences (through which system of her activity) and, on the other hand, how, in which specific groups she realizes her social essence (through which specific types of joint activity).

We can say that for social psychology, the main reference point in the study of personality is the relationship between the individual and the group

(not just the person in the group, but the result that is obtained from the relationship of the person with a specific group). On the basis of such differences between the socio-psychological approach from the sociological and general psychological approach, it is possible to isolate the problem of personality in social psychology.

The most important thing is to identify those patterns that govern the behavior and activities of an individual included in a particular social group.

Traditionally, personality problems are associated with the study of its structure, processes and development. What is personality (structure), how does the personality affect behavior (process), why does the individual have such personality traits (development) – all these issues are solved differently in different theoretical traditions: psychodynamic, cognitive, interactionist and constructivist.

2. Biological approach (Alexander). Psychodynamic approach to personality analysis (3. Freud, O. Kernberg, X. Kohut).

Biological approach (Alexander). The concept of specific emotional conflict, developed by the founder of the Chicago Psychoanalytic Institute, Franz Alexander (F. Alexander, 1934), is based on the ideas of psychoanalysis. Alexander's work is based on systematic studies of psychosomatic relationships. The biological approach emphasizes that social behavior is supported by physiological and genetic processes, and proves that it is based on genetic tendencies that are selected in the course of evolution. Behavior is determined by the structure of the nervous system, which is made up of millions of cells. The nervous system receives information from the external and internal environment.

The psychodynamic approach owes much to the developments of Z. Freud. He introduced the concept of unconscious mental activity and drew attention to the fact that not everything in human behavior is realized and can be rationally explained. He asserted the fact of the presence of the unconscious, which in many cases has a significant impact on self-awareness and self-realization of a person. In the socio-psychological aspect of the study of personality, the ideas of the dependence of the personality on the influence of the immediate social environment, or primary educators, are presented. They determine both the attitude towards the world and the attitude towards oneself in the pupil. Within the framework of the theory of object relations (M. Klein, O. Kernberg, H. Kohut, etc.), the idea of emotional valence was developed, which is determined by the nature of relationships with significant others.

M. Klein highlighted the tendency inherent in children to divide the world into good and bad, considering life as a struggle between positive feelings – love and negative feelings – hate. This conflict leads to the splitting of the world into benevolent and undesirable components. The individual originality of such a split is determined by the specifics of the treatment of the child by the primary caregivers. The dominance of the negative component leads to an attitude

towards the outside world as hostile. And what is broadcasted by it is perceived as potentially dangerous, and vice versa.

O. Kernberg characterizes the relationship between the child and the primary caregivers as bipolar representations, each of which is created by the image of the child by itself, the image of significant others (mother) and the feelings formed between them in the process of relationships. If the child experiences a state of deprivation, this contributes to a negative coloration of bipolar representations, otherwise – positive. Bipolar representations are internalized or metabolized as a result of experienced interactions. These internalizations determine different types of consequences for different age periods of a child's development.

The developmental theory of Kohut notes the fact of weak differentiation in newborns of their own personality from the personality of others. Newborns are characterized by a weak stage of differentiation of representations, which is called the stage of the fragmented self. In the second year of life, the "nuclear self" begins to develop, the core of the sense of self, which has a bipolar structure. If educators are not empathic, focused on the actualization of their own needs, and not the needs of the child, he is formed with a defective self, which can lead him to inadequacy, low self-esteem, stimulating a desperate desire to be accepted and adored, the desire for a sense of his own identity.

3. Behaviorist approach to personality (B. Skinner). Factor approach and its uniqueness (R. Cattell, X Eysenck).

Scientists conventionally talk about the **behaviorist approach** to the study of personality, meaning not the study of personality as such, but a kind of explanation by the representatives of behaviorism of those types of human behavior, which in psychology are usually explained by referring to the concept of "personality".

In **modern behaviorist theory** that arose in the second half of the 20th century. attention is drawn to human behavior in society and its determinants associated with learning. Within the framework of this behaviorist doctrine, two theories have developed that differently explain the acquisition by a person and changes in various forms of social behavior: the theory of operant learning by B. Skinner and the theory of social learning by A. Bandura.

B. Skinner's theory of operant learning asserts that a person acquires new types of social behavior in the following way. Faced with a new situation for which a person does not have ready-made forms of successful adaptive behavior, he tries on his own initiative to behave differently in it in order to solve the problem that arose before him. Some of the new actions are positive, some are not, i.e. turn out to be unsuccessful or unsuccessful. Among those actions that in this situation give a positive effect, there are those in which this effect is maximal with minimal effort. These actions are further reinforced due to the obtained effect, are retained in the memory (in the experience) of the

individual and, first of all, are reproduced in similar and similar social situations.

The factor approach and its uniqueness (R. Cattell, G. Eysenck).

The most popular factorial theories of personality were developed by Cattell and Eysenck. These personality theories have focused on empirical studies of individual personality differences.

RB Cattell's theory is based on the "theory of traits" and building on their basis a personality profile. The motivational construct of the space of the personal sphere is dynamic traits, the structure of which forms the essence of the personality (the trait is described as a "mental structure" responsible for the observed behavior, its regularity and consistency).

Personality is a set of traits that allows you to predict a person's actions in a given situation. It is associated with both external and internal behavior of the individual. The purpose of psychological research of personality is to establish the laws by which people behave in typical social situations.

In the structure of personality, Cattell distinguished between surface and baseline features. Surface traits are clusters of open, externally variables that accompany each other in a number of behavioral acts. Baseline traits underlie superficial behavioral traits, are more stable, important, provide a deep assessment of behavior and are determined only by the method of factor analysis. Any isolated trait is an aggregate product of environmental and heredity factors, but with a predominance of one of the sides ("traits formed by the environment" and "constitutional traits").

On a functional basis, Cattell divides traits into dynamic, providing activity in achieving the goal, traits-abilities, determining the effectiveness of achieving the goal; temperamental, associated with a constitutional factor, manifested in speed, energy, emotional reactivity. Cattell attributed the more volatile personality structures to states and roles.

Kettell identified sixteen parameters by which one can assess personality (isolation – openness, seriousness – frivolity, shyness – insolence, quick wits – stupidity, etc.). According to Cattell, a person's answers to the questionnaire allow one to build a profile of his personality in accordance with the properties he has displayed.

The theory of G.Yu. Eysenck is structured according to a hierarchical type and includes a description of a three-factor model of psychodynamic properties (extraversion – introversion, neuroticism and psychoticism). Eysenck attributes these properties to the types of the general level of the hierarchical organization of the personality structure. At the next level are traits, below – the level of habitual reactions, actually observed behavior.

Cattell's second-order factors correspond to the first two factors of Eysenck, who, when studying personality, also used assessment methods, questionnaires, situational tests, physiological measurements, and also took into account the role of heredity.

Eysenck's significant contribution to the field of factor analysis was the development of a criterion analysis technique, which made it possible to identify as much as possible specific criteria groups of signs, for example, to differentiate the contingent by neuroticism. No less important conceptual position of Eysenck is the idea that the hereditary factor determines the differences in people in the parameters of the reactivity of the autonomic nervous system, the speed and strength of conditioned reactions, that is, in genotypic and phenotypic indicators, as the basis of individual differences in the manifestations of neuroticism, psychoticism and extraversion – introversion.

Questions and tasks

1. Define the concept of "personality" in social psychology.
2. What approaches in social psychology of personality have you known about today?
3. Describe the relationship of social psychology with other scientific disciplines.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Read the article written by Aihnoa Arranz about nowadays social psychology (Appendix A). Write a summary of the article.

Lecture 2. Problems of personality in foreign social psychology. Part 2

Lecture plan:

1. Social-cognitive-scientific tradition in the consideration of personality problems (J. Rotter; A. Bandura; W. Mischel). Cognitive tradition in the study of personality problems: informational and procedural consideration of personality.

2. Personality in the interactionist tradition is an attempt to combine person – centered and situation-centered approaches (G. Mead, M. Kuhn). Consideration of the individual in the tradition of the system-activity approach.

3. Humanistic approach to personality (A. Maslow, K. Rogers). Existential-phenomenological consideration of personality problems (M. Donaldson, V. Frankl).

Basic concepts: social-cognitive-scientific tradition, cognitive tradition, interactionist tradition, system-activity approach, humanistic approach, existential-phenomenological approach.

1. Social-cognitive-scientific tradition in the consideration of personality problems (J. Rotter; A. Bandura; W. Mischel). Cognitive

tradition in the study of personality problems: informational and procedural consideration of personality.

The socio-cognitive-behavioral approach is represented by names such as J. Rotter, A. Bandura and W. Mischel. Rotter believes that people create expectations of reality by controlling the relation between their behavior and reinforcement. He introduces the concept of a locus of control. He highlights the external and internal locus of control. A person with external control, sees the cause of everything that happens in his life, in the external environment (fate, other people, etc.). A person with internal control, considers himself as the cause of everything that happens to him.

A. Bandura considered the expected effectiveness of behavior as the leading determinant of development. If the expected effectiveness is high, the level of activity towards achieving the goal is also high. Later, he investigated the role of the social environment in the formation of personality's behavior. In his research, he proved the importance of the example of behavior that the social environment (adults) demonstrates for the formation of the child's behavior.

W. Mischel believed that instead of finding out how the environment affects the development of a person, it is necessary to investigate how the person himself realizes the situation. Mischel not only shifted the emphasis to the inner activity of the individual in organizing social interaction, but also proposed a number of basic provisions.

The cognitive approach focuses on a computer metaphor in personality research. Scientists focus on social and cognitive activity. They explore how a person creates his own ideas about himself and the world around him. J. Kelly, defined personality as a system of constructs that an individual uses to understand himself and the environment. The personality relies on these constructs and gets the ability to predict events in his life.

2. Personality in the interactionist tradition is an attempt to combine person – centered and situation-centered approaches (G. Mead, M. Kuhn). Consideration of the individual in the tradition of the system-activity approach.

The interactionist approach is an attempt to combine the situational and personal aspects of social behavior. The basic category is "interaction". J.G. Mead believes that a person becomes a social being only when he includes other people in his inner world. A person correlates his own actions with the possible reactions of other people to them. Human behavior is determined by the structure of his personality, his social role. An important achievement of Mead is creating of the role theory of personality. According to this theory, the essence of the personality is determined and manifested through the social roles it performs. The social activity of an individual is a set of his social roles. M. Kuhn claims that personality development is influenced by his significant social environment. He says that if we know the individual's reference group, we can

predict the self-esteem of the individual. And if we know a person's self-esteem, we can predict her behavior.

In the activity approach, a person is considered through an analysis of the types of activities that a person implements in society. The principle of object and subject determination of human activity is important. Object determination – various types of physical stimulation that directly affect different human senses. It provides a person's orientation in the world. Scientists explain subject determination as follows: objects of the external world do not directly affect a person. But only in certain activities. At the same time they become subjects of activity. And using them as subjects of activity develops a person's personality. The personality is an active "element" in the developing system of social relations. The personality develops and manifests different systemic qualities when he is involved in various activities.

3. Humanistic approach to personality (A. Maslow, K. Rogers). Existential-phenomenological consideration of personality problems (M. Donaldson, V. Frankl).

Self-actualization is a central concept for humanistic psychology. In the humanistic theory of personality, there are two main directions. The first, "phenomenological", is presented in the views of the American psychologist K. Rogers. The founder of the second, "motivational" direction is the American researcher A. Maslow.

K. Rogers believed that the most important motive of a person's life is actualization, that is, the striving to develop the best qualities of his personality. The striving for actualization is innate. The core, the center of personality, is the self-concept. A person's behavior is consistent with his self-concept. K. Rogers says that self-acceptance makes easier to accept others. At the same time, the ability to be accepted by others helps a person to accept himself. This cycle is the main way of personal growth.

A. Maslow connected his work with the problems of personal growth and development. A. Maslow identified two types of needs that underlie the development of personality: "deficit", which cease after their satisfaction, and "growth", which, on the contrary, only intensify after their implementation. In total, according to Maslow, there are five levels of motivation:

- 1) physiological (needs for food, sleep);
- 2) safety (need for an apartment, work);
- 3) love/belonging, reflecting the needs of one person in another person, for example, in creating a family;
- 4) esteem (the need for self-esteem, competence, dignity);
- 5) self-actualization (meta needs for creativity, beauty, integrity, etc.).



Figure 1 – Hierarchy of Needs by A. Maslow

The needs of the first two levels are deficient, the third level of needs is considered intermediate, at the fourth and fifth levels there are growth needs.

The existential-phenomenological approach analyzes the significance of life experiences for a person. Scientists of this direction believe that a person does not just reflect the world, but experiences it. He is aware of his interdependence and relationship with others. M. Donaldson singled out the models of the mind that are created during the development of the individual. These patterns are characteristic for certain periods of development. They describe how a person at a certain age forms an idea of himself and others.

V. Frankl calls the main striving of a person the striving to find the meaning of his existence. If this desire remains unfulfilled, then a person feels frustration or an existential vacuum. The meaning is available to any person, regardless of gender, age, intelligence, character, environment and religious beliefs. There's no singular universal and collective meaning for us all. Meaning is unique to individuals and their situations, and it behooves on them to find out what it is.

Questions and tasks

1. What approaches in social psychology of personality have you known about today?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Group discussion of the article about social psychology (Appendix A).

Lecture 3. Problems of personality in Russian (Belarusian) social psychology

Lecture plan:

1. Basic concepts of personality (V.N. Myasishchev, B.F. Lomov). Socio-psychological problems of the individual from the position of the attitude theory (SH.A. Nadirashvili; V.A. Yadov).

2. An integrated approach to the study of personality (B.G. Ananyev). The activity approach to psychology of personality (A.N. Leontiev).

3. Structural-dynamic approach in personality psychology (A.G. Kovalev; K.K. Platonov). Integrative-eclectic approach to the problem of personality (V.A. Yanchuk).

Basic concepts: attitude theory, integrated approach, structural-dynamic approach, integrative-eclectic approach

1. Basic concepts of personality (V.N. Myasishchev, B.F. Lomov). Socio-psychological problems of the individual from the position of the attitude theory (SH.A. Nadirashvili; V.A. Yadov).

1. There are various socio-psychological theories of personality: domestic (Russian, Belarusian), American, European, Eastern. The founder of the psychology of relationships in Russia was A.F. Lazursky. However, the psychology of relationships gained its fame largely thanks to the works of V.N. Myasishchev. The starting point for psychology of personality, according to Myasishchev, is the characterization of the essence of a person as a result of social relations. Social relations exist in two forms: as objective relations and as subjective relations. In the system of relations, the central place is occupied by a person's relationship to society, a collective, a group, and to himself. The most important and meaningful relationships are formed in interpersonal interaction. To understand the personality, it is important to investigate the nature of the prevailing relationships, varying in degree or level of development.

In the structure of relationship V.N. Myasishchev distinguishes "emotional", "evaluative" (cognitive, cognitive) and "conative" (behavioral) sides. Each side of the relationship is determined by the nature of the individual's interaction with the environment and people.

- The emotional component forms the emotional attitude of the individual to the objects of the environment, people and himself.

- Cognitive (evaluative) promotes perception and evaluation (awareness, understanding, explanation) of objects of the environment, people and oneself.

- The behavioral (conative) component influences the choice of strategies and tactics of personality's behavior in relation to significant (valuable) objects of the environment, people and oneself.

A significant step in the development of personality psychology is the concept of B.F. Lomov. In the study of personality B.F. Lomov implements a systematic approach. According to Lomov, in order to reveal the objective basis of the mental properties of a person, an analysis of the “individual-society” relationship is necessary. In this system, social relations are the basis. The individual as a member of society is included in the system of social relations. Lomov's ideas about subjective relationships are of particular importance for the social psychology of personality. These relationships reflect how a person relates to the events and phenomena of the world in which he lives. In this case, we are talking about value orientations, attachments, likes, dislikes, interests, etc., everything that expresses the subjective position of the individual, the assessment of events, and persons, that participate in them.

For the development of social psychology of personality the central ideas of the theory of attitudes by D.N. Uznadze are important. Attitude is a state of readiness to perform certain actions to satisfy needs. The behavior and activity of the subject follow from the presence of his needs. A certain situation is necessary to satisfy them.

Sh.A. Nadirashvili, attempts were made to integrate the ideas of D.N. Uznadze with different approaches to personality. Sh.A. Nadirashvili highlighted the social level of mental activity, which is carried out at the level of the individual. The source of a person's social behavior is social attitudes (attitudes of social behavior), that are formed on the basis of social needs and ideas about acceptable behavior. Social attitudes are fixed in the self-consciousness of the individual, in his “psychological self-portrait”.

The concept of V.A. Yadov is based on the idea of dispositional (attitude) mechanisms for regulating the social behavior of the individual. This means that the behavior of a person is regulated by his dispositional system. However, in each specific situation, depending on its goal, the leading role belongs to a certain level of dispositions. Personality dispositions are a product of a “collision” of needs and situations in which needs are satisfied, that forms the corresponding hierarchy (system) of dispositions.

The first, lower level is formed by elementary fixed attitudes. They are formed on the basis of the needs of physical existence and the simplest situations.

The second level of the dispositional system is socially fixed attitudes or social attitudes. The leading factors in their formation are social needs associated with the inclusion of a person in primary groups and the corresponding social situations.

The third level of the system is the general (dominant) orientation of the interests of the individual. It is formed on the basis of higher social needs. For some people, the dominant focus of interests is in the sphere of professional activity, for others – of families, for others – of leisure (hobbies), etc.

The highest level of the dispositional system is formed by the system of value orientations towards the goals of life and the way of achieving them. It is formed on the basis of the highest social needs of the individual. This level has the decisive role in self-regulation of behavior.

All elements and levels of the dispositional system are not isolated from each other, they closely interact with each other. The most important function of the dispositional system is to regulate the social behavior of the individual.

2. An integrated approach to the study of personality (B.G. Ananyev). The activity approach to psychology of personality (A.N. Leontiev).

An integrated approach is one of the methodological foundations of the social psychology of personality. It was formulated and implemented by B.G. Ananyev. According to Ananyev, in the study of a human as a person, the "personality status" is particularly emphasized, i.e. his position in society (economic, political, legal, etc.). Important are the concepts such as:

- social functions – functions performed by an individual, depending on his position in society and the historical era;
- motivation of the behavior and activities of the individual, depending on the goals and values that form the inner world;
- worldview and the whole set of relationships of the individual to the surrounding world (nature, society, work, other people, oneself);
- character and inclinations.

This entire complex system of subjective properties and qualities of a person, his socio-psychological phenomena determines his activity and behavior.

According to B.G. Ananyev, the unity of the biological and the social in a person is ensured through the unity of such macro-characteristics as an individual, personality, subject and individuality.

The bearer of the biological in human is the individual. Human as an individual is a set of natural, genetically determined properties, the development of which is carried out in the course of ontogenesis. As a result, a person's biological maturity occurs. The social is represented in a human by such characteristics as a personality and a subject of activity. At the same time, there is no opposition between biological and social, because the individual is socialized in the course of individual life and acquires new properties. On the other hand, a human can become a person and a subject of activity only on the basis of certain individual structures.

The activity approach to psychology of personality was developed by A.N. Leontiev. The key to a scientific understanding of the personality of A.N. Leontiev considered as "the study of the process of the emergence and transformation of a person's personality in his activities that taking place in specific social conditions." According to A.N. Leontiev, a human's personality is

created by social relations, into which the individual enters during his activities. The category of the subject's activity comes to the fore.

A.N. Leontiev identified 3 main personality parameters:

- the breadth of human connections with the world (through his activities);
- the degree of hierarchy of these connections, transformed into a hierarchy of meaning-forming motives (motives-goals);
- the general structure of these connections (motives-goals).

The process of personality's formation, according to A.N. Leontiev, is the process of "formation of a coherent system of personal meanings."

3. Structural-dynamic approach in personality psychology (A.G. Kovalev; K.K. Platonov). Integrative-eclectic approach to the problem of personality (V.A. Yanchuk).

Structural-dynamic approach in personality psychology. Personality in the works of A.G. Kovalev is an integral formation of mental processes, mental states and mental properties.

Mental processes form the foundation of human mental life. Mental processes form mental states that characterize the functional level of mental activity. Mental properties are formed from mental processes, that function on the background of mental states. Mental properties characterize a stable, relatively constant level of activity characteristic of a given person. In turn, the level of activity determines the social value of an individual and constitutes the internal subjective conditions for human development. In the process of development, mental properties are associated with each other and complex structures are forming. As such structures, A.G. Kovalev considers temperament (a system of natural properties of a person), orientation (a system of needs, interests and ideals), abilities (intellectual, volitional and emotional properties), character (a system of relationships and ways of behavior).

K.K. Platonov views personality as a dynamic system, i.e. a system that develops in time, changing the composition of its elements and the connections between them, while maintaining the function.

In this system, the author identifies 4 personality substructures.

1. Substructure of orientation and personality relationships. They are manifested in the form of moral traits. They do not have innate inclinations and they are being formed through education. This substructure includes desires, interests, inclinations, aspirations, ideals, beliefs, worldview. All of them are forms of orientation's manifestation, in which the relationship of the individual is manifested.

2. A substructure of experience, which combines knowledge, skills, abilities and habits acquired through training, but with a noticeable influence of biologically and even genetically determined personality traits.

3. A substructure of individual characteristics of mental processes or functions of memory, emotions, sensations, thinking, perception, feelings, will.

4. A substructure of biopsychic properties, which includes sex and age characteristics of a person, typological properties of a person (temperament).

According to K.K. Platonov, all known personality traits can be put into these substructures.

V.A. Yanchuk. An integrative-eclectic approach to the analysis of socio-psychological phenomenology presupposes comprehension of the nature of the phenomenon through the combination of various traditions, logics and tools, while maintaining their autonomy in subsequent development. Its essence lies in a detailed qualitative analysis, involving the inclusion of research into all aspects of the complexity of the phenomenon.

Questions and tasks

1. What approaches in social psychology of personality have you known about today?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Make a scheme of all the approaches in the social psychology of personality that you learned in the 3 previous lectures.

MODULE 2 SELF-AWARENESS, SELF AND SELF-CONCEPT

Lecture 4. The concept of the self. The self and self-awareness

Lecture plan:

1. The self of personality as a system-forming category of social psychology. Theoretical concepts of the self.
2. The ratio of the categories "self-awareness" and "self". The structure of self-awareness.
3. Levels and units of self-awareness (V.V .Stolin). Self-relation of personality: components, content characteristics, functions and time dimensions N.I. Sarjveladze).

Basic concepts: *self, ego, Self-concept, self-awareness, Self-relation.*

1. The self of personality as a system-forming category of social psychology. Theoretical concepts of the self.

The term "self" or "ego" has been used in relation to:

- "internal nature", or "essential nature" of man (Fromm);
- the practice and content of self-awareness (Chein, 1944);
- a set of attitudes related to "I", "Me" or "Mine", experience (James);
- individual identity and unity of personal character (Erickson, 1956),
- a number of thought processes operating in the interests of promoting internal drives (Freud, 1933);
- just to the personality;
- universality of ideas and feelings of the individual in relation to himself.

The use of the term "self" is multifaceted. It is often identified with the concepts of "ego" and "Self-concept ", which are reflected in existing definitions.

According to F. Bruno, the self 1) is a unique human essence, represented in space and time; 2) represents a kind of ego of the personality; 3) represents a sense of one's own identity, a reflection of one's own being throughout the entire history of a person's life.

A complete understanding of the self must include

- physical body,
- socially defined identity (i.e. roles and relationships),
- personality and knowledge of a person about himself (i.e. Self-concept),
- should also be understood as an active decision-making agent initiating action (R.F. Baumeister, 1995).

In recent years, in the Western psychological tradition, the self is understood as a complex, dynamic unity that reflects the realized behavior, mediates and regulates it (Kilhstorm, Cantor, 1984; Markus, Wurf, 1987; Pervin, 1990).

The most commonly associated concept with the self is self-concept. Attempts to identify these related concepts are erroneous. The self includes all aspects of the human being, including the unconscious ones. The self-concept contains only aspects that are perceived by a person, they serve as guidelines for self-esteem, self-development, etc.

The description of the self should contain the following 4 areas.

- 1 – parts (content of the self);
- 2 – relationships between parts (structure of the self);
- 3 – ways of describing all parts as a whole (dimensions of the self);
- 4 – the boundaries of the object (ego-extension).

The development of the self occurs throughout a person's life under the influence of a large number of both internal and external factors of various levels.

2. The rate of the categories "self-awareness" and "self". The structure of self-awareness.

The most famous model of the structure of self-awareness in modern science was proposed by K.G. Jung. It is based on the opposition of conscious and unconscious elements of the human psyche. Jung identifies two levels. The first (the subject of the entire human psyche) is the "self", which unites both conscious and unconscious processes. It's like a total personality. The second level is a form of manifestation of selfhood on the surface of consciousness, a conscious subject, a conscious I.

The Self is the archetype of the psychical totality or the wholeness. It is not identical with the ego but placed itself somehow above or in other words in the midst between ego-consciousness and unconscious.

The realization of the Self is the ultimate goal of the individuation process. Jung has noticed that in some cases the course of his patients' psychotherapy does not interrupt with a better adaptation to reality, but continues from itself, aiming at a target that is not present in the ego. This target is the Self.

The Self is actually a conjunction (union) of the consciousness and unconscious.

The realization of the unity between the opposites on the personal level is precisely the purpose of the individuation process.

But perhaps the most important aspect of the Self is its numinosity (capable to rise intense feelings of awe).

According to Jung, the experience of the Self on the empirical, personal, level is similar to a religious revelation. The Self being, psychologically speaking, the equivalent of the concept of supreme deity or God.

The identifying of the ego with the Self can lead to inflation or, in Jung's words, to «a sort of nebulous superman with a puffed-up ego» («*On the Nature of the Psyche*», CW 8, par. 430).

The concept of "Self-concept" appeared in foreign psychological literature in the last decades of the XX century. It is actively used in modern psychology. However, in the literature there is no single interpretation of this concept. The concept of "self-awareness" is the closest to it in meaning. The relationship between the concepts of "Self-concept" and "self-awareness" is still not precisely defined. They are often used as synonyms. At the same time, there is a tendency to consider the Self-concept as a result, the final product of the processes of self-awareness.

The structure of self-awareness includes:

1. awareness of near and distant goals, motives of my I ("I am as an acting subject");
2. awareness of their real and desired qualities (real I and ideal I);
3. cognitive, cognitive ideas about oneself ("I am as an observed object");
4. emotional, sensual self-image.

Thus, self-awareness includes:

- self-knowledge (the intellectual aspect of knowing oneself);
- self-attitude (emotional attitude towards oneself).

3. Levels and units of self-awareness (V.V. Stolin). Self-relation of personality: components, content characteristics, functions and time dimensions N.I. Sarjveladze).

Despite the wide variety of approaches to the problem of self-attitude, according to S.R. Pantileev, none of the above approaches has yet provided a satisfactory and well-grounded solution to the problem. He identifies only two positions that are accepted by most researchers:

1) there is some generalized self-attitude (self respect, self-esteem)/ It is a holistic, one-dimensional and universal formation. It expresses the degree of positivity of the individual's attitude to his own idea of himself.

2) this generalized self-attitude is integrated from private self-assessments.

He sees more acceptable consideration of this psychological problem, relying on the theoretical and practical works of such authors as N.I.Sardzhveladze and V.V. Stolin from the perspective of the activity approach of A.N. Leontiev.

According to the definition of N.I.Sardzhveladze, personality is a system formation that has a certain status in the system of social relations, and an attitudinal relation to the social environment/ And a special way of relating to oneself and characterized by a special formation -- a substructure of self-attitude. So, we can conclude that the essence of the personality is derived from the system of his relations, i.e. not personality traits determine the nature of the subject's connection with the world, but on the contrary, the peculiarities of this connection determine personal characteristics. Thus, self-attitude is a structural unit of the general system of human relations.

V.V. Stolin says that the unit of self-awareness of a person is the conflicting meaning of "I". It reflects the clash of various life relationships of the subject, the clash of his motives and activities.

This clash is carried out by actions. The actions are the starting point for the formation of a contradictory attitude towards oneself. In turn, the meaning of "I" triggers further work of self-awareness, taking place in the cognitive and emotional spheres.

Thus, the unit of self-awareness (the conflicting meaning of "I") is not just a part of the content of self-awareness, it is a process, inner movement, inner work.

Self-awareness levels:

- 1 Reflection of the subject in the system of his organic activity.
2. Reflection of the subject in the system of his collective objective activity and relations determined by it.
3. Reflection of the subject in the system of his personal development, associated with the plurality of his activities.

According to these 3 levels, the units of self-awareness can also be distinguished:

1. At the level of organic self-awareness, this unit has a sensory-perceptual nature.
2. At the level of individual self-awareness – perceived self-assessment and, accordingly, self-esteem, age, gender and social identity.
3. at the level of personal self-awareness, this unit is a conflict meaning, by colliding in an act of some personal qualities with others, clarifying for the personality the meaning of its own properties and signaling this in the form of an emotional-value attitude towards oneself.

Questions and tasks

1. Give a description of the self, according to F. Bruno.
2. Describe the model of the structure of self-awareness by K.G. Jung.
3. When the concept of "Self-concept" appeared in foreign psychological literature?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Write down 10-15 concepts of the course in the dictionary.

Lecture 5. Self-concept and its structure

Lecture plan:

1. The relationship of the self and Self-concept. The image I as a substructure of personality. The Self-concept as a structure of self-attitudes. Sources of formation and development of the Self-concept.

2. Self-concept in the structure of the self. The structure and content of the Self-concept.

3. Formation and development of the self. Stages of the genesis of the self. Age dynamics of the self.

Basic concepts: self, Self-concept, image of I

1. The relationship of the self and Self-concept. The image of I as a substructure of personality. The Self-concept as a structure of self-attitudes. Sources of formation and development of the Self-concept.

In modern social psychology, such phenomena as "self", "Self-concept", "I", "socialization", "social cognition", "social explanation", "social identity" are included in the logic of considering personal problems. In particular, scientific works indicate that the concepts "I or Ego", "self", "self-awareness", "Self-concept", "Self-image" are used as similar in content, but reflect different content aspects of the human I, depending on theoretical views of the author.

Understanding the self-concept as a structure of attitudes reflects its structural and dynamic nature.

The image of I (the structure of the idea of oneself) is made up of the cognitive components of attitudes (role, status, property, value and other characteristics of a person). All of them are included in the image of I with different weights, that is, they form a hierarchy from the point of view of subjective significance.

The second component, dynamic, procedural, is the emotional-evaluative component. The sources of the individual's value judgments about himself are:

- 1) sociocultural standards and norms of the social environment,
 - 2) social reactions of other people to an individual (their subjective interpretation);
 - 3) individual criteria and standards assimilated by the individual in life.
- In fact, the individual implements two self-assessment processes: 1) comparing the "Self-real" with the "Ideal self", 2) comparing the "Self-real" with the "Social self".

The term of "Self-concept" in foreign scientific literature is defined as a multi-aspect phenomenon – as a set of images, schemes. In the Russian special literature, it is noted that the self-concept is a relatively stable, more or less conscious, experienced as a unique system of the individual's ideas about himself, on the basis of which he builds his interaction with other people and refers to himself. The self-concept in Russian social psychology is investigated in social relationships: ideas about oneself are investigated within the framework of the social environment; self-image based on identity with a particular social group; based on social desirability, etc.

Of the many sources for the formation of the self-concept of a person, the following are the most important, although their significance changes in different periods of a person's life:

1. The idea of your body.
2. Language – as a developing ability to express in words and form ideas about oneself and other people.
3. Subjective interpretation of feedback from significant others about yourself.
4. Identification with an acceptable model of the sex role and the assimilation of stereotypes associated with this role (male–female).
5. The practice of raising children in the family.

The specificity of the formation of the self-concept of a person occurs when the experience of solving life problems is accumulated. And when they are evaluated by other people in the process of social interaction, communication and activity.

2. Self-concept in the structure of the self. The structure and content of the Self-concept.

Understanding of the self includes:

- physical body,
- socially defined identity (i.e. roles and relationships),
- personality and knowledge of a person about himself (ie Self-concept),
- should also be understood as an active agent, making decisions, initiating actions (R.F. Baumeister, 1995).

Therefore, the self-concept is a component of the self.

Self-concept is made up of one's self-schemas, and interacts with self-esteem, self-knowledge, and the social self to form the self as a whole. It includes the past, present, and future selves, where future selves (or possible selves) represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, or what they are afraid of becoming. Possible selves may function as incentives for certain behavior.

Structural components of the self-concept.

Traditionally, psychologists distinguish three *modalities* of Self-concept: Self-real, Ideal self, Social self.

Self-real – this is the idea associated with how the individual perceives himself, his idea of what he really is.

Ideal self – attitudes associated with the idea of what he would like to be.

Social self – attitudes associated with the individual's ideas about how he is seen and what others think of him.

The self-concept as a system of attitudes towards one's personality has a complex *structure*, in which three components are distinguished: cognitive, emotional-evaluative and behavioral.

1) The cognitive component is the main characteristics of self-perception and self-description of a person, which make up a person's idea of himself. This component is often called the "Image of I".

The components of the "Image of I" are: physical-self, psychic- self, social self.

The physical-self includes a person's perceptions of his appearance.

Psychic-self – a person's idea of his own characteristics of cognitive activity, mental properties.

Social self – a person's idea of his social roles, social status, social expectations.

2) The emotional-evaluative component is the self-assessment of the “Image of I”. It can be underestimated or overestimated, low or high, adequate and inadequate.

3) The behavioral component of the self-concept is human behavior (or potential behavior) that can be caused by the “Image of I” and self-esteem of the individual.

Self-concept, possessing relative stability, determines rather stable patterns of human behavior.

The content of the self-concept is understood as the perceived individual elements of reality, included by a person in the self-concept and expressed in a verbal form. It correlates with the social environment and other spheres of the personality's life. The substantive part of the self-concept is presented in the knowledge about oneself, diverse in composition and in the form of expression (sensory or abstract-logical), reflecting the emotional-sensual, behavioral and value-normative aspects of the self-concept of the personality.

3. Formation and development of the self. Stages of the genesis of the self. Age dynamics of the self.

The generally accepted point of view is that the image of one's own self is initially inseparable from the image of the primary educator. Stern put forward the hypothesis that at the age of 9 months the child's “Image of I” is presented only in the form of separate life episodes of his social interactions, presented in the form of “small, connected pieces of lived life experiences”. Repetitive episodes are organized and reproduced pre-verbally as generalized representations of interactions. Through various kinds of combinations of verbal and non-verbal reactions, the primary educator forms the infant's reactions, fixing them. Stern calls these fixations "affective attitudes."

Most researchers adhere to the point of view of J. Mead that one can speak about the self-concept itself only when the ability to understand the role of others appears. In this context, we can say that the working self-concept of the child's personality begins to take shape after one year (Bowlby 1969).

With the acquisition of language, the process of differentiation of the self-concept begins. The importance of language for the development of the self-concept is obvious, since the development of the child's ability to symbolically reflect the world helps him to distinguish himself from this world ("I", "mine", etc.) and gives the first impetus to the development of the self-concept. From this moment on, a number of self-schemes begin to form in the child. By the age of 7-8, we can talk about the presence of a stable, well-differentiated self-concept in a child.

Damon and Hart consider the process of self-concept formation as a stage-by-stage, highlighting a number of successive stages of self-understanding. In early childhood, self-understanding usually focuses on the characteristics of one's own condition, preferences and dislikes. In middle childhood, children prefer to use social comparison with respect to significant others, describing themselves in a certain frame of reference. In early adulthood, the emphasis is shifted to interpersonal characteristics, and finally, in old age – to worldview, philosophy and morality.

M. Rosenberg, emphasizing the fully interpersonal nature of the self throughout its formation and development, notes, at the same time, age-related changes in its form. In children, a characteristic feature is the inclusion of others in self-descriptions, while adults are more inclined to include interpersonal feelings and interactions with other people in the descriptions of themselves.

In general, characterizing the age-related dynamics of the self-concept development, the following is noted:

- an increase in the number of descriptive categories;
- increasing flexibility and certainty in their use, increasing the level of selectivity, consistency, complexity and integration of information;
- the use of ever more subtle estimates and connections between them;
- an increase in the ability to analyze and explain human behavior, an increase in attention to the presentation of material, a desire to make it more convincing.

Questions and tasks

1. What are the sources of the individual's value judgments about himself?
2. Describe three basic modalities of Self-concept.
3. What three components in the self-concept's structure are distinguished?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Make a scheme of the age genesis of the self.

MODULE 3 SOCIAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PERSONAL IDENTITY

Lecture 6. Social and personal identity and its development

Lecture plan:

1. Personal and social identity.
2. Theoretical approaches to personal identity.
3. Identity types. Development of identity. Crises of identity (E. Erickson).

Basic concepts: social identity, personal identity, identity types, identity crisis, development of identity.

1. Personal and social identity.

As an individual, we are sharing several types of identities present in our personal and social life. According to them, we identify ourselves and classify to the roles and models in the society. From the perspective of social interaction, our personal identities influence our behavior towards other people and could even create the behavior of the whole group where we belong to. The examples of identities which we can daily observe are based on age, gender, ethnicity, nation, political views, social status, occupation, etc.

Henri Tajfel defined **social identity** as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his membership of a social group (or groups), together with the value and emotional significance attached to this".

The consequence of the personal/social identity distinction of SCT was threefold.

First it disputed the notion of a unitary or fixed self-structure ("the" self concept).

Second, it explicitly avoided the privileging of either personal or group identity (group identity does not have to be nested within a more general individual self-concept), seeing them as dependent on context (an interactionist position).

Third, just as there may be multiple social identities or group self-categorizations corresponding to situated group memberships, in principle there may also be multiple "personal" identities corresponding to the range of situations, roles, and relationships in which individuals find themselves.

This last point has rarely been stated and is perhaps least generally understood. Even among users of SCT, personal identity is still widely seen as a unitary construct, the global sum of the individual's characteristics, at least those residual characteristics not tied to particular group memberships.

The **key difference** between these two types is that while **personal identity gives prominence to the individual and identifies him as different**

from others in the society, social identity identifies him as a member of the society.

Personal identity can simply be understood as the sense of self that an individual develops as he grows older. This is not something that is static but something that is ever changing as the individual experiences new dimensions in life. However when it comes to basic personal identity creation, the individual tries to comprehend who he is, where does he belong, what is important to him, etc. Every person has a form of the identity of himself. Based on this he has a way of seeing himself.

Unlike in the case of personal identity where attention is paid to the differences of the individual from others, in social identity, a collective approach is established. According to Richard Jenkins, social identity can be understood as our understanding of who are and of who other people are and reciprocally other people's understanding of themselves and others. This highlights that social identity is created as the individual interacts with others and identifies himself as part of the society.



Figure 1 – Correlation of concepts of Personal, Social and Collective identity

2. Theoretical approaches to personal identity.

In the past, when societies were rather stable, the term of identity in psychological science was connected to self-efficacy and self verification (Stets, & Burke, 2000) as a related issue of personal estimation and identification of self. This approach is known as an identity theory which seeks to explain multiple self/personal identities, their development through the time, how they interact with each other, and how they affect the human behavior. **The identity theory** and research were based on the **ego psychoanalytic theory** of E.H. Erikson and currently developed by Jane Kroger. Gradually, the "identity has become the watchword of the times" Shotter in social and behavioral science and the self-reflection is seen in a broad social and political context.

As Cooley pointed out the individual and society are two sides of the same coin, thus the identity refers to „the set of meanings that define who one is when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person”. The personal self-efficacy and self-verification were later in behavioral sciences supplemented by cognitive processes like categorization, class, group identity, depersonalization or self-esteem.

In comparison with the identity theory, the **social identity theory** (SIT) is based on a **cognitive recognition** of self in a wide societal structure. “Identifying ourselves, or others, is a matter of meaning, and meaning always involves interaction: agreement and disagreement, convention and innovation, communication and negotiation“ (Jenkins, 2008). In the contrast with the development from personal to social identity, there are still some scientists who claim that all human identities are social identities.

Nevertheless, the social identity has evolved into the popular and one of the most researchable topics in social sciences explaining the basic group/collective conflicts.

The social identity theory was first described by H. Tajfel (1978) as a social-psychological theory explaining group processes and behavior. In comparison with other social and psychological theories, the social identity theory directly addresses social group behavior and feelings of belonging to the group.

Consequently, Tajfel (1979) structures “the definition of a group alongside a cognitive component (knowing about the group membership), an evaluative component (positive or negative evaluation of group membership) and an emotional component (positive or negative emotions associated with the group membership and its evaluation)” (Trepte, 2013). Based on these understandings Tajfel underlined four principles of social identity theory: social categorization, social comparison, social identity and self-esteem.

3. Identity types. Development of identity. Crises of identity (E. Erickson).

Identity types. Considering the problem of the relationship between social determination of identity and individual freedom, J. Mead singles out unconscious and conscious identity.

The unconscious is based on unconsciously accepted norms and habits; it is a set of expectations, accepted by a person, coming from the social group to which he belongs.

Conscious identity arises when a person begins to reflect on himself and his behavior. The importance of cognitive processes is emphasized here, since the transition from unconscious to conscious identity is possible only with reflection. A person is aware of his identity, reflecting on himself with the help of the language acquired in social interaction.

The relationship between social determination and self-determination of a person is solved by J. Mead through the aspects of identity "I" and "me". "Me" describes a person as a being determined by socially given conventions and habits. It is, as it were, a representative of society in an individual: it consists of internalized "generalized others". "I" describes a person as a creature that is able to respond to a social situation in its own individual, unique way.

I. Hoffman distinguishes three types of identity:

1) social – typification of the personality by other people based on the attributes of the social group to which he belongs;

2) personal – we are talking about the individual characteristics of a person:
1) the unique characteristics of a given person (for example, fingerprints; 2) a unique combination of facts from the history of his life;

3) self-identity – an individual's subjective feeling of his life situation, continuity and originality. Personal identity is also a social phenomenon: its perception occurs on the condition that his interaction partner knows information about the facts of a person's life.

In psychology, **identity crisis** is the failure to achieve ego identity during adolescence. The term was coined by German psychologist Eric Ericson.

The stage of psychological development which identity crisis may occur is called the identity cohesion vs. role confusion. During this stage, adolescents are faced with physical growth, sexual maturity, and integrating ideas of themselves and about what others think of them. Adolescents therefore form their self-image and endure the task of resolving the crisis of their basic ego identity. Successful resolution of the crisis depends on one's progress through previous developmental stages centering on issues such as trust, autonomy, and initiative.

Development of identity.

James Marcia's research on identity statuses of adolescents also applies to Erikson's framework of identity crises in adolescents. To investigate identity, J. Marcia developed a semi-structured interview method: based on the analysis of a tape recording of an interview, a group of experts assigned an individual one of the following statuses:

Identity foreclosure is an identity status which Marcia claimed is an identity developed by an individual without much choice. "The foreclosure status is when a commitment is made without exploring alternatives. Often these commitments are based on parental ideas and beliefs that are accepted without question". Identity foreclosure can contribute to identity crises in adolescents when the "security blanket" of their assumed identity is removed. These "foreclosed individuals often go into crisis, not knowing what to do without being able to rely on the norms, rules, and situations to which they have been accustomed." An example of this would be a son of a farmer who learns that his father is selling the farm, and whose identity as an heir to a farm and the lifestyle and identity of a farmer has been shaken by that news.

Identity diffusion is a Marcian identity status that can lead to identity crises in adolescents. Identity diffusion can be described as "the apathetic state that represents the relative lack of both exploration and commitment". Identity diffusion can overlap with diagnoses such as schizophrenia and depression, and can best be described as a lack of identity structure. An example of an identity crisis emerging from this status is an adolescent who becomes reclusive after his identity as a star athlete is destroyed by a serious injury.

Identity moratorium is the status that Marcia theorizes lasts the longest in individuals, is the most volatile, and can be best described as "the active exploration of alternatives". Individuals experiencing identity moratorium can be very open-minded and thoughtful but also in crisis over their identity. An example of this would be a college student who lacks conviction in their future after changing majors multiple times but still cannot seem to find their passion.

Identity achievement is the resolution to many identity crises. Identity achievement occurs when the adolescent has explored and committed to important aspects of their identity.

Questions and tasks

1. Give the definition of social identity by Henry Tajfel.
2. Describe the identity statuses, defined by James Marcia.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Write down 10-15 concepts of the course in the dictionary.

Lecture 7. Social psychology of gender.

Gender identity of the individual

Lecture plan:

1. Social psychology of gender and sexual behavior of the individual.
Gender identity of the individual.
2. The identity and gender groups.
3. Socio-psychological characteristics of the concepts of masculinity and femininity.

Basic concepts: gender, gender identity, gender groups, femininity and masculinity.

1. Social psychology of gender and sexual behavior of the individual. Gender identity of the individual.

The social psychology of gender has grown to become a thriving, scientifically sound research theme that encompasses a wide variety of topics

and questions. The story of how this came to be has been told from a number of perspectives.

Psychology of gender begins in early 20th century Freudian personality theory and even deeper roots in androcentric paternalism of 19th century science (Shields, 1975, 1982; Shields & Bhatia, 2009), feminist psychologists have shaped how sex and gender are scientifically defined, theorized, and studied. Over the course of the second half of the 20th century, feminist psychologists challenged psychology's long-standing equation of female with defect and the psychology of gender with cataloging sex differences (Marecek, Kimmel, Crawford, & Hare-Mustin, 2003; Rutherford & Granek, 2010).

Scientists identify three intertwined streams of investigation from which the contemporary psychology of gender grew: (a) research focusing on gender identity as a feature of personality, (b) research on behavioral sex differences, and (c) research on gender roles and the study of gender in social context.

Gender and gender identity are both related to one's femininity or masculinity, but when you look for the difference, of course, there is a subtle difference between gender and gender identity. Gender characterizes one's male or female roles and also it differentiates the males from females, based on many features. These features may include biological sex, socially accepted gender roles, social structures, and gender identity. On the other hand, gender identity is one's awareness of his or her gender and having a private sense of being a man or a woman. Let us look at these terms and the differences between them in more detail.

Gender gives somebody the roles in the society and it differentiates females from males. Gender identifies different tasks pertaining to different sexes. These tasks change from one society to another and also depending on the values and beliefs of the particular society. Almost all societies have different social and cultural roles for males and females separately. Gender is acquired by a small child by looking at or observing his or her environment. The child may look at the elders and try to follow them, and punishments and rewards related to different behavioral patterns may give them an opportunity to learn about them and what is expected from them.

While the term "sex" is mostly associated with biology, gender is used in social sciences. Thus, *gender is not really about biological differences but social differences between the two sexes*. However, one's sex does have an effect towards his/her gender characteristics and socially defined gender roles.

Gender identity is a person's private sense of being a man or a woman. By accepting the socially defined gender roles and behaviors, a person can be said to have developed a certain kind of gender identity about him or her. This is the basis of the formation of the social identity of a person. It is said that a child forms his or her gender identity between three to five years. Further, once the identity is formed, it is said to be very rigid and difficult to change. Child's

identification of gender may be affected by the influence of others, social expectations, and the child's own personal interests.

Small children of three or four years may identify themselves as a girl or a boy, but he or she may not be fully aware of the social implications of gender and gender roles. There are cases with gender identity disorders where the biological sex of a person does not adhere to the socially defined gender roles or identities. However, gender identity helps a person to get used to his or her society and to adjust accordingly.

2. The identity and gender groups.

Gender groups are groups distinguished according to such demographic characteristic as gender, that is, according to the principle: men and women. Gender groups have a very solid tradition of their study, in particular in American social psychology.

The definition of gender characteristics of men and women includes a set of social roles "prescribed" by society to representatives of both sexes.

Gender is studied at three levels: 1) individual (gender identity is studied as a person's subjective attribution of himself to a group of men – women); 2) structural (the position of men and women in the structure of public institutions is studied); 3) symbolic (the images of a "real man" and "a real woman" are investigated).

Gender research today is a widely ramified network of research carried out by various disciplines, primarily gender sociology. Its subject are the regularities of differentiation of male and female social roles, the sexual division of labor, cultural symbols and socio-psychological stereotypes of "masculinity" and "femininity" and their influence on various aspects of social behavior and social life.

At the same time, in recent years, gender psychology has acquired independent significance, which covers a wide range of psychological problems: sex (gender) and the human brain, gender differences in the cognitive sphere, gender and emotions.

In socio-psychological research, questions are concentrated around three groups of problems: gender identification, gender stereotypes, gender roles.

The first block of studies reveals the predominant distribution among men and women of specific characteristics called femininity and masculinity. The origins of this approach are in the popular work of O. Weininger "Gender and Character" (1991), in which it was proposed to interpret the "feminine" as base and unworthy, and the success of women in the social sphere – only as a result of their having a greater share of "masculine" ... Later, a number of researchers opposed this interpretation under the influence of the spread of the ideas of feminism.

Feminist ideas have influenced gender psychology, in particular the study of the psychological characteristics of men and women. The personal

characteristics of men and women are considered in relation to the characteristics of the behavior of gender groups. The forms of aggression, sexual behavior and, in a broader sense, behavior in choosing a partner characteristic of men and women are described.

Much closer to the study of the psychology of large groups in social psychology is the study of the specifics of gender roles. One of the problems here is family roles, and therefore gender psychology merges with family problems in social psychology. The features of the socialization of boys and girls, their specificity in various cultures, the role of adult men and women in the family are investigated.

3. Socio-psychological characteristics of the concepts of masculinity and femininity.

Femininity and masculinity, or one's *gender identity* (Burke et al. 1988; Spence 1985), refer to the degree to which persons see themselves as masculine or feminine given what it means to be a man or woman in society. Femininity and masculinity are rooted in the social (one's gender) rather than the biological (one's sex). Societal members decide what being male or female means (e.g., dominant or passive, brave or emotional), and males will generally respond by defining themselves as masculine while females will generally define themselves as feminine.

It is important to distinguish *gender identity* from other gender-related concepts such as *gender roles*, which are shared expectations of behavior given one's gender. For example, gender roles might include women investing in the domestic role and men investing in the worker role (Eagly 1987). The concept of gender identity is also different from *gender stereotypes*, which are shared views of personality traits often tied to one's gender, such as instrumentality in men and expressiveness in women (Spence and Helmreich 1978). And gender identity is different from *gender attitudes*, which are the views of others or situations commonly associated with one's gender, such as men thinking in terms of justice and women thinking in terms of care (Gilligan 1982). Although gender roles, gender stereotypes, and gender attitudes influence one's gender identity, they are not the same as gender identity (Katz 1986; Spence and Sawin 1985).

From a sociological perspective, gender identity involves all the meanings that are applied to oneself on the basis of one's gender identification. In turn, these self-meanings are a source of motivation for gender-related behavior (Burke 1980).

Beginning at birth, self-meanings regarding one's gender are formed in social situations, stemming from ongoing interaction with significant others such as parents, peers, and educators (Katz 1986). Although individuals draw upon the shared cultural conceptions of what it means to be male or female that are transmitted through institutions such as religion or the educational system, they

may come to see themselves as departing from the masculine or feminine cultural model. A person may label herself female, but instead of seeing herself in a stereotypical female manner, such as being expressive, warm, and submissive (Ashmore et al. 1986), she may view herself in a somewhat stereotypically masculine manner, such as being somewhat instrumental, rational, and dominant. The point is that people view themselves along a feminine–masculine continuum, some seeing themselves more feminine, some as more masculine, and some as a mixture of the two. It is this self-perception along the feminine–masculine continuum that is their gender identity, and it is this that guides their behavior.

Questions and tasks

1. What three intertwined streams of investigation from which the contemporary psychology of gender grew do scientists identify?
2. Describe gender psychology's features.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Describe your understanding of masculinity, femininity and androgyny (*find information by yourself*).

MODULE 4 SOCIALIZATION OF A PERSON

Lecture 8. Socialization: content, stages, mechanisms

Lecture plan:

1. Basics and content of socialization. Socialization as inculturation, internalization and adaptation.
2. The structure of the socialization process and its different stages. Stages of the socialization process: adaptation, individualization and integration.
3. Mechanisms of socialization. Socialization institutions and mechanisms of their influence: family, school, informal and formal environments, mass communication.

Basic concepts: socialization, socialization of a person, stages of socialization, personality socialization mechanisms, institutions of personal socialization.

1. Basics and content of socialization. Socialization as inculturation, internalization and adaptation.

Socialization concept. *Socialization* is a process and a result of human social development. *Socialization of a person* is a two-way process of assimilation by a person of the social experience of the society to which he belongs, on the one hand. And active creation of systems of social ties and relations in which he develops, on the other hand.

A person not only perceives social experience and masters it, but also actively transforms it into his own values and attitudes. At the same time, the person is subjectively included in various social ties, in the performance of various role functions, thereby transforming the social world around him and himself.

Socialization as inculturation. Any culture carries a normative image of a person that exists at the level of individual and social consciousness. It is this image of a person in culture that determines the characteristics of socialization: whether its various institutions will support the formation of certain individual characteristics of a person. As one of the leading tasks of socialization, the task of intergenerational transmission of culture is singled out, that is, the task of transferring from generation to generation all the peculiarities inherent in a particular culture. At the same time, socialization is the process of a person entering the culture of his people (inculturation).

The American cultural anthropologist M. Herskovitz introduced the concept of inculturation into scientific use. The process of inculturation begins from the moment of birth – with the acquisition of the first skills by the child

and the development of speech, and ends with death. It is carried out mainly not in specialized institutions of socialization, but under the guidance of elders on their own experience. The final result of the process of inculturation is a person who is competent in culture: in language, rituals, values, etc.

Socialization as internalization. The process of socialization can be considered from the point of view of the content that is inherent in the social influence on the personality, and, consequently, the mechanisms of transmission of social experience: in this case, socialization acts as internalization. In the socio-psychological literature on the problem of socialization, we can find two interpretations of the concept of internalization: in a broad sense, it is understood as a synonym for socialization, in a narrow sense – as a particular version of it, as a set of motivational and cognitive processes through which external social requirements become internal requirements personality. In that case the *content* of social experience assimilated by an individual is investigated.

To understand ***socialization as adaptation***, it is important not to emphasize its procedural characteristics (for example, stages), but to analyze the socialization process in terms of its possible results. The leading task of socialization is the adaptation of a person to society, which ensures his successful functioning. The process of achieving human compliance with the requirements of the social environment is defined as a process of social adaptation.

2. The structure of the socialization process and its different stages. Stages of the socialization process: adaptation, individualization and integration.

Personal development as a process of mastering an individual's social experience is represented by two conditional phases.

1. The phase of general socialization of the individual. Consists in the formation and consolidation of the basic social and psychological values of a person: labor, moral, aesthetic, political, legal, environmental, family and household, etc.

2. Phase of professional socialization of the individual. The process of mastering a particular profession or specialty by a person is carried out.

Both phases are interconnected and complement each other.

There are five main stages of socialization. Each of them has its own characteristic features.

1. Primary socialization – the stage of adaptation to the social environment (from birth to teenage). A feature of this stage is that children uncritically assimilate social experience through imitation and adaptation to the surrounding social reality. It is enough to pay attention to what and how children play at this age.

2. The stage of individualization – striving for isolation. A critical attitude, sometimes even nihilistic, to social norms is manifested, a desire to distinguish oneself from others, to show the uniqueness and originality of one's "I". At this

stage, intermediate socialization is distinguished (teenage). It is characterized by an insufficiently conscious desire for self-determination, clarification of the relationship between the "I" and the surrounding social reality, the instability of the worldview and character.

Adolescence (18-25 years old) is a stable conceptual socialization. Finally, stable personality traits the character are formed.

3. The stage of integration – the desire to find their place in society. The success of integration is determined by the correspondence of the basic properties (qualities) of an individual to social expectations. If they match, then the integration is relatively successful. If not, the following outcomes are possible:

- strengthening the aggressiveness of the individual in relation to the social environment in order to preserve his uniqueness, his "I";

- rejection of their individuality and originality, the desire to become like everyone else;

- conformism, external agreement with the requirements of the social environment, but an internal desire to preserve their individuality. In fact, there is a split personality into an internal and external I, leading to an exacerbation of intrapersonal contradictions.

4. The labor stage of socialization is the longest stage, covering the entire period of a person's labor activity, in fact, the period of a person's working capacity.

A feature of this stage is that the person not only continues to assimilate social experience, but develops it and reproduced through active and purposeful interaction with the surrounding social environment through various forms of activity.

5. The stage of post-labor activity – the stage of advanced age. The peculiarity lies in the predominance of the function of transferring social experience to the younger generation.

3. Mechanisms of socialization. Socialization institutions and mechanisms of their influence: family, school, informal and formal environments, mass communication.

Personality socialization mechanisms.

The traditional mechanism of socialization is a person's assimilation of norms, standards of behavior, attitudes that are characteristic of his family and his immediate environment. This assimilation occurs, as a rule, on an unconscious level with the help of imprinting, uncritical perception of the prevailing stereotypes.

The institutional mechanism of socialization operates in the process of human interaction with the institutions of society, with various organizations. These are organizations that are both specially created for socialization and that

implement socializing functions in parallel with their main functions (production, social, club and other structures, as well as mass media).

The stylized mechanism of socialization operates within the subculture. In general, a subculture is understood to mean that complex of values, norms, moral and psychological traits and behavioral manifestations that are typical for people of a certain age or a specific professional and cultural stratum. This is a specific lifestyle of a particular age, professional or social group.

The interpersonal mechanism of socialization functions in the process of a person's interaction with persons subjectively significant for him and is a psychological mechanism of interpersonal transfer due to empathy and identification. Significant persons can be parents, a beloved teacher, a respected adult, a co-worker, a friend, or a peer of the same or opposite sex.

The reflexive mechanism of socialization is associated with an internal dialogue, in which a person considers, evaluates, accepts or rejects certain values inherent in various institutions of society, family, peers, significant persons, etc.

Institutions of personal socialization.

1. Family (has a double socializing effect, the essence of which is that not only parents raise their children, but with the appearance of children, parents acquire new social roles).

2. Educational system (from preschool institutions to schools, universities and institutions of postgraduate training. In this system, the main socializing influence is carried out. Here that the foundations of the individual as a citizen are laid).

3. Institutions of labor activity (including the spheres of material production, service, management, power structures, etc. Here a person, joining the labor collective, receives and then develops the skills of professional activity and business communication. Socialization here also has the character of mutual influence: not only the leader influences the subordinates, but also the subordinates influence the leader).

4. Institutes of the spiritual sphere (philosophy, science, religion, art, mass culture, mass-media).

Questions and tasks

1. Give the concept of socialization.
2. What does socialization of a person mean?
3. Characterize stages of socialization.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Make a scheme of influence of socialization institutes' according to stages of socialization of personality.

Lecture 9. Social experience of the individual, its structure, features of formation and manifestation

Lecture plan:

1. Social experience of personality: features of formation and manifestation.
2. The structure, content of social experience.
3. Development and features of the construction of social experience.

***Basic concepts:** social experience, functions of social experience, structure and content of social experience.*

1. Social experience of personality: features of formation and manifestation.

General concept of social experience. Social experience is a socially developed and inherited by a social subject a way of holistic spiritual and practical acquisition of the world, nature and human relations.

The social way of life has led to the fact that human development occurs not through the manifestation of the inherent species experience, but through the appropriation of external, social experience. Integral development of human society is impossible without continuity and preservation of historical memory. All our life, activities, behavior, knowledge are based on the experience of older generations.

The main source that forms a person is his social experience. A child, acting on the objects and phenomena around him, changes them. He adapts them to his needs and requirements. At the same time, he acquires knowledge about them and about himself as a transforming force. In turn, the surrounding world, acting on the child, limits or enhances his activity, gives it a certain direction.

Of course, the child himself is not able to master the culture, for this he would have to repeat the entire path of human development. In this process, adults come to his aid. Leading the activities of children, they convey in an abbreviated, generalized and accessible form the experience of mankind, accumulated over thousands of years. As a result, children's experience acquires a new quality, expressed in a complex theoretical and practical form.

The behavior of each person is individual, peculiar. At the same time, it carries common features that, in their orientation, express certain social relations, and in their form, a certain level of culture. A child, entering into active relationships with people, himself seizes social experience, asserts himself as a person.

Functions of social experience. Only with a theoretical analysis it is possible to allocate the various functions of social experience. However, we must remember that this allocation is conditional, in real life they are all fused

together. V.S. Karagodin (2012) made a complete classification of the functions of social experience.

He identifies four main functions:

- 1) pragmatic (goal-setting, regulation and control of activities);
- 2) epistemological (obtaining, categorizing, assessing and substantiating knowledge);
- 3) worldview and ideological (upbringing and moral);
- 4) socially regulating (communication, social adaptation and regulation).

The degree to which these functions are performed depends, first of all, on the level of development of the social subject itself, on the experience he has already accumulated.

2. The structure, content of social experience.

Depending on which social subject the experience belongs to, the following types can be distinguished:

- 1) universal (or historical);
- 2) group (macro and micro);
- 3) individual.

It is necessary to consider individual experience not as a separate fragment of historical experience, as an independent part of it, and as important as this whole. Individual and historical social experience is a unified system where historical experience *is in* an individual or already developed, or even in a potential form.

Social experience can be defined as a form of spiritual and practical mastering of reality. It is genetically related to human activities. Activity is a way, condition and form of expression of social experience. As a result, it contains not only intellectual, emotional components, but also the very scheme of activity. Social experience is always the experience of activity, taken from the side of real manifestations of subjects. Experience determines the actions of subjects to achieve the set goal, reduces the likelihood of repeating mistakes.

Experience always affects the activity of a person, although this influence is not always realized. The experienced person seeks to refrain from actions that lead to undesirable consequences for him.

Many researchers point out that social experience belongs to the entire personality, and not only to its consciousness. In consciousness, experience is reflected only in general terms, and in full – in practical activity. The knowledge, that is formed on the basis of experience, is well remembered, does not require special training, it is a sensually perceived scheme of activity.

Experience is associated with the peculiarity of the process of experiencing, understanding what is happening, with the individuality of a person. However, it is not a chaotic collection of social factors. The content of social experience includes such a reflection of reality, which is aimed at identifying the leading

tendency, which is consistently repeated in it. Therefore, it acts as a typified generalization of social phenomena. Generalizations that arise in social experience are fused with the actions of the subject, form "manual knowledge" about the object and the methods of action with it.

3. Development and features of the construction of social experience.

A person acquires his social experience by in the process of practical activity.

This process occurs in a child in two interrelated ways:

1) spontaneously, in everyday life. He is included in acts of behavior, activity, communication with other people, where the appropriation of social experience takes place;

2) purposefully, in a specially organized educational process, in accordance with the socio-economic, political structure of society, its ideology and culture.

From an early age, in the process of socialization, the child uses in his behavior, along with the means represented by the present moment, his past experience as well. L.S. Vygotsky noted that children gradually develop a generalized scheme of actions with age, which does not depend on the specific conditions of the situation. Social values of society are formalized in the form of rules, norms, traditions. They are necessary in order to regulate behavior and must be fixed in consciousness. This fixation takes place not in an objective form, but ideally, in the form of schemes of social experience. On their basis, in everyday life, the child develops stereotypes of behavior that help him master the principles of activity.

In the early stages of acquisition the activity, the child needs the help of an adult. However, when interacting with an adult, an inevitable separation of activities occurs. The teacher sets goals, monitors and evaluates the child's actions. That is, with the participation of an adult, the child cannot fully master the social experience, since part of the activity remains with the adult. To master the activity fully, the child needs interaction with peers. J. Piaget singled out relationships with peers and contrasted them with relationships with adults. The relationship between a child and an adult will always be hierarchical and asymmetrical. In the peer group, the relationship is equal and symmetrical. Only in this way, the child can overcome egocentrism; he develops tolerance, the ability to understand the point of view of another, criticality.

In the process of interacting with other people, in the younger schoolchild self-esteem begins to form, essential prerequisites for the moral development of the personality are created, his value orientations are formed. In other words, the adult conveys the entire operational composition of the activity, but remains the holder of meanings and goals. When cooperating with peers, the situation of equal communication gives the child the experience of control and evaluative actions and statements. When children interact in everyday life, they

develop the ability to work together: plan, distribute responsibilities, help each other, work at a common pace, be responsible for completing tasks.

The value orientations that have developed in society are the prerequisites for the child's social experience. Social experience enriches and orientates a person to the choice of values, and values, in turn, enrich and shape social experience. Thus, social experience determines the content side of personality values, and the values themselves color the accumulating social experience. Social experience arises in the process of activity, when the social significance and personal meaning is given. It characterizes the results of activity as socially significant, gives them a value character. In the process of accumulating social experience, the choice of values occurs, as well as their differentiation, that is, the value orientations of a person are formed.

Questions and tasks

1. Give the concept of social experience.
2. What types of social experience do you know?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Write down basic concepts of the lecture in the dictionary.

MODULE 5 REGULATION OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOR OF A PERSON

Lecture 10. Social behavior and its regulators. The concept and structure of social attitudes

Lecture plan:

1. The concept of social behavior and its regulators. Values and value orientations.
2. Social attitude as a latent variable. Measuring attitudes: (self-reports, Likert rating scale. semantic differential).
3. Social attitude as a functional system. Motivational functions of attitudes: cognitive, instrumental, expressive, ego-protective.

Basic concepts: social behavior of a person, social behavior regulating factors, value orientations, social attitude, attitudes functions.

1. The concept of social behavior and its regulators. Values and value orientations.

Social behavior of a person is a complex social and socio-psychological phenomenon. The result of social behavior is the formation and development of interactions and relationships of a person with other people, with communities of different sizes. Its emergence and development is determined by certain factors and is carried out according to certain patterns. Personality's behavior is included in a wide system of social regulation.

The functions of social regulation are: the formation, assessment, maintenance, protection and reproduction of the norms, rules, mechanisms, means necessary for the subjects of regulation, which ensure the existence and reproduction of the type of interaction, relationships, communication, activity, consciousness and behavior of the individual as a member of society. The subjects of the regulation of the social behavior of an individual in the broad sense of the word are society, small groups and the personality itself.

In the broad sense of the word, the regulators of personality behavior are the “world of things”, “the world of people” and “the world of ideas”. By belonging to the subjects of regulation, we can single out social, socio-psychological and personal factors of regulation.

Social behavior regulating factors. The personality is included in a complex system of social relations. All types of relations: industrial, moral, legal, political, religious, ideological determine the real, objective, due and dependent relations of people and groups in society. To implement these relations, there are various types of regulators.

Common socio-psychological phenomena that regulate social behavior include: traditions, prejudices, fashion, tastes, communication, rumors, advertising, stereotypes.

The personal components of regulators include: social prestige, position, status, authority, conviction, attitude, social desirability.

Value orientations is a concept that expresses the positive or negative significance for an individual of objects or phenomena of social reality.

In psychology, value orientations are considered as a component of personality's orientation. Value orientations are the leading and system-forming characteristic of personality's orientation, its core. **Value orientations are** a unique system of values inherent in each person.

Values are the most stable component of personality's orientation. Values are the persistent beliefs of a person that a certain type of behavior or meaning of existence is personally and socially preferable to others (Rokeach).

The functions of value orientations:

1. Motivating function – values set goals that we strive to achieve.
2. Regulation of the activity and behavior of the individual. Value orientations affect the choice, the decision-making process.

2. Social attitude as a latent variable. Measuring attitudes: (self-reports, Likert rating scale. semantic differential).

Social attitude is a state of psychological readiness of a person to behave in a certain way, based on past social experience and regulating the social behavior of a person. G. Allport introduced the concept of "attitude" into social psychology.

Attitude, as a rule, is associated with some kind of interest, needs of a person. But it takes on a concrete form, direction only when the object of interest is clearly recognized.

Methods for measuring social attitudes.

Self-assessment scale. This is the simplest scale for measuring the installation. It can be constructed in the form of an ordinary question or in the form of a certain number axis with positive and negative gradations.

When constructing a scale of self-assessment in the form of a question, its positions are necessarily arranged symmetrically and consist of an equal number of positive and negative assessments, separated by a "neutral" position.

The main disadvantage of the self-assessment scale is its high degree of subjectivity.

The Likert scale is widely used in the preparation of psychological tests, sociological and socio-psychological questionnaires. The Likert scale construction technique consists of 6 stages.

First step. For expert assessment, from 50 to 100 judgments are selected. A questionnaire is drawn up from the selected judgments.

Second step. A representative sample of experts is selected.

Step three. Expert assessment of judgments. The assessor must rate each judgment on a scale of 5-7 points. Likert used a 5-point scale. If the expert evaluates the judgment as positive, then the maximum score express the highest approval. If he assesses the judgment as negative, then the minimum score express the highest disapproval.

Fourth step. Data processing procedure according to a special procedure in 2 stages.

Fifth step. Questionnaire survey of respondents. The respondents should evaluate the judgments of the questionnaire in the same way as the experts did.

Sixth step. Mathematical processing and analysis of the opinions and attitudes of the respondents in relation to the studied object or phenomenon.

Osgood's Semantic Differential Method. It is based on the principle of association between a concept that denotes an object of assessment and certain verbal antonyms that characterize the direction and intensity of the assessment. The semantic differential allows to transfer the response of the respondent to a certain stimulus into an evaluative, subjective attitude to an object, phenomenon, event that is associated with this sign. The experimental procedure using this technique is as follows. A concept is presented to the subject, and he must mark the number that corresponds to his idea of the concept as a semantic unit on a scale indicated by adjectives – antonyms. Examples of such combinations: beautiful – terrible politics, humane – inhuman act, etc.

3. Social attitude as a functional system. Motivational functions of attitudes: cognitive, instrumental, expressive, ego-protective.

Attitude as a functional system has a complex structure.

In 1942, M. Smith defined a three-component structure of attitudes, in which the following components are distinguished:

- a) cognitive component (awareness of the object of a social attitude);
- b) affective, emotional component (emotional assessment of the object, identification of feelings of sympathy or antipathy towards him, attitude, experience);
- c) behavioral (conative) component (consistent behavior in relation to the object, motives, intentions, desires).

All elements of the structure are in close relationship with each other, and a change in one of them entails a change in others.

There is a classic list of **attitudes functions** proposed by Katz in 1960.

1) Cognitive. Attitudes allow us to categorize incoming information. They save our energy – thanks to them, there is no need to spend time and effort anew each time evaluating the object. They provide an opportunity to simplify, categorize and better understand the complex world around us.

2) Instrumental (utilitarian) function. "Correct" attitudes help to achieve the desired goal. Political correctness is an example of expressing attitudes from

utilitarian considerations. This function is closely related to the possibility of using attitudes for self-localization of the person within the social matrix.

3) Expressive function. People are often willing to express attitudes that reflect their core values or form the core of their self-image. This can be aimed both at asserting the validity of one's own self-understanding, and at publicly demonstrating belonging to a reference group. T-shirts with the names of rock bands or international organizations, scarves in the colors of your favorite team, labels with the names of fashion designers on clothes are examples of expressing attitudes in order to communicate something about oneself.

4) Ego-protective function. Attitudes of this type are often hostile to the object and difficult to change. They protect the individual from negative feelings towards themselves or their group by projecting them onto another group.

Questions and tasks

1. Give a concept of social behavior of a person.
2. Give a concept of social attitude.
3. Give the concept of value orientations.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2.

- A. Make a list of your basic value orientations.
- B. Assess your value orientations by *The Rokeach Value Survey* (Appendix B, <https://agilityportal.io/blog/rokeach-value-survey-example-results-more>).
- C. Compare results.

Lecture 11. Formation of attitudes

Lecture plan:

1. Classical and instrumental conditioning of attitudes. Pro – and counter-attitudinal behavior and its effect on attitudes. K. Hovland's theory of learning.

2. Components of the persuasion process. The theory of the central and peripheral pathway of persuasion (R. Petty and J. Cacioppo).

3. Audience engagement as a mediating factor of persuasion. Discussions and research on the impact of mass media on the audience.

Basic concepts: classical conditioning, operant or instrumental conditioning, persuasion, mass media

1. Classical and instrumental conditioning of attitudes. Pro – and counter-attitudinal behavior and its effect on attitudes. K. Hovland's theory of learning.

Classical and instrumental conditioning of attitudes.

According to behavioral learning theories, the majority of our reactions, including attitudes, are formed in a certain context. And, therefore, they are formed in accordance with the principle of *classical conditioning*, discovered by I.P. Pavlov. Through classical conditioning, neutral stimuli, which initially do not elicit specific responses, gradually become capable of doing so by combining them with stimuli that elicit the appropriate response. *Let's take smoking as an example.* By itself, tobacco smoke is initially an unconditioned stimulus that causes an unpleasant sensation. Why then do children and adults acquire the habit of smoking? Probably, the whole point is that along with the unconditioned stimulus, another or other conditioned stimuli are acting here. These include the influence of the so-called social models – elders, peers, etc. In this case, an initially unpleasant stimulus that causes coughing, nausea and dizziness may be associated with adulthood (and that means with independence, higher status), masculinity. Thus, in this case, the law of association is triggered. Such mechanism is characteristic of classical conditioning.

In classical conditioning, the organism plays a passive role. He does not control the reaction, which initially arises through the unconditioned, and later through the conditioned response. On the other hand, with *operant or instrumental conditioning*, the organism first of all shows a reaction before it takes hold.

Operant conditioning is a form of learning through positive or negative reinforcement. If a child borrowed the attitude of his parents or friends and expressed it, then, as a rule, he receives operant reinforcement in the form of praise, approval, or some other reward. Then, in order to receive a reward, a person learns to assimilate and express those attitudes that others like, and receives positive reinforcement from them. And a child learns to ignore the views and attitudes, unpleasant to his social environment, fearing to be punished – negative reinforcement.

Pro- and counter-attitudinal behavior and its impact on attitudes.

Pro-attitudinal behavior – behavior corresponding to one's own attitudes. This behavior reinforces previously formed attitudes.

Counter-attitudinal actions are human behavior that is inconsistent with his attitudes. Such actions will entail a change in attitudes only when the person cannot find sufficient justification for the committed action. *For example*, if you cast your vote in favor of a politician you have no sympathy for, just because your boss insisted on it, you are unlikely to experience the stress that forces you to change your attitude towards politics for the better, because you probably won't feel like you have a choice given the pressure from your boss.

K. Howland's learning theory.

According to this approach, there are no qualitative differences in the acquisition of any skills: from motor, speech, social-behavioral skills to the skills of acquiring social values in the form of attitudes. In all cases, the same principle applies – reinforcement.

The first necessary condition and stage in the named model is attention. We pay attention to not all convincing messages (incentives). If the message does not attract attention, the process of persuasion, that is, the formation or change of attitude, will not take place.

If the message has attracted attention, then the second condition, or stage, begins to operate – understanding. If a person does not understand what they are trying to convince him of, then there is no need to expect him to agree with the agent of influence. Therefore, the message should be bright and attractive, but also understandable.

The third condition and stage of the discussed model is agreement with the message, without which neither the formation nor the change of attitudes is possible. Well-founded threats, intimidation, or promises of rewards are best for motivating people to agree with the influencer.

2. Components of the persuasion process. The theory of the central and peripheral pathway of persuasion (R. Petty and J. Cacioppo).

Constituents of the persuasion process.

K. Howland and his colleagues identified the following components of the persuasion process:

1) Agent of influence (source of the message). The trust, generated by the source of information, can become the main incentive for a person to form a new attitude or change an old one. The authority of the agent of influence contributes not so much to persuasion as to suggestion. Other characteristics of the influencer that cause trust in the audience: attractiveness, charm, similarity to the recipient.

2) The message itself. The message itself, depending on its content, on how it is formulated and in what form it is presented, can also either convince or inspire. But it may not have any effect at all.

3) The conditions in which the message is transmitted (context). Any social situation, in the context of which communication takes place, is a distraction. Interference, noise, of course, interfere with attentively perceiving and pondering the message, thus making it difficult to activate the central information processing process. But, on the other hand, it is precisely this circumstance that can facilitate the process of suggestion.

4) The recipient, that is, the individual to whom the message is intended. People differ from each other, among other things, also by the degree of susceptibility to influence, or the measure of suggestibility. The personal

characteristics of the recipients in interaction with other factors predetermine whether a change in their attitudes will occur or not.

The effectiveness of the process of influence depends both on the characteristics of each of the named elements and on their combination, that is, on those specific situations in which the agent of influence tried to convince the recipient

The theory of the central and peripheral path of persuasion (R. Petty and J. Cachoppo).

Richard Petty and John Cachoppo concluded that the process of persuasion never takes place in its pure form (along with persuasion, there is always suggestion in it). Persuasion and suggestion always run in parallel, hence the name of their theory. At the same time, Petty and Cachoppo the central process call the process of persuasion itself, while the process of suggestion they called peripheral. They created a model that gives possibility to clarify which of the two principles – persuasion or suggestion – will have a predominant influence in each specific case of the implication of the agent of influence on the individual. Therefore, the theory of Petty and Cachoppo was called the probability refinement model.

According to the theory of probability refinement, in order for a person to perceive a persuasive message in a systematic way (that is, according to the scheme of a central process), he must have both a need and an opportunity for this. Only in this case he will ponder the problem, listen to evidence or reject it, agree or disagree with the arguments of the agent of influence.

The peripheral process is an uncritical, thoughtless way of perceiving information. When a person does not have the time, ability or need to think about information, he relies on the emotions that a source of information evokes in him, the topic of the message or the form of its presentation. Obviously, it is for this kind of perception most advertising plots are designed.

3. Audience engagement as a mediating factor of persuasion. Discussions and research on the impact of mass media on the audience.

Audience engagement as a mediating persuasion factor.

If the audience is interested in receiving information, they will take the message more carefully and seriously. *For example*, the effectiveness of a marketing campaign can be measured by the reaction of people: the more consumers paid attention to it, the more chances that a product, service or brand will be talked about. Mass discussion of the product, in turn, leads to increased sales.

Discussion and research on the impact of mass media on the audience.

Researchers study audiences after influence of mass media to assess changes in cognition, belief systems and attitudes, as well as emotional, physiological, and behavioral effects. In the late 1970s, researchers studied the

role of mass media in forming of social realities. Scientists concluded that mass media form images in a stereotyped and predictable way, and the audience creates or receives their perception of real social reality and their role in it by interacting with realities created by the media (S. Milgram, P. Lazarfeld).

With the spread of the Internet, research on mass communication has expanded, for example, scientists have studied the influence of mass communication on user behavior, comparing these effects with face-to-face communication effects – T. Postmes, M. Lea, R. Spears, S.D. Reicher, A. Yu. Peterova. With the emergence of dynamic user-generated content on websites and the development of social media, research on the impact of mass communications on audiences. New media tools are being actively and successfully used by political figures during various election campaigns.

Questions and tasks

1. What a classical conditioning is?
2. What an operant conditioning is?

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Give your example of classical and instrumental conditioning.

Lecture 12. The influence of attitudes on behavior and behavior on attitudes

Lecture plan:

1. Influence of attitudes on behavior and mediating factors. The theory of planned behavior (M. Fishbein and A. Eisen) and its experimental verification. Ways to strengthen the conditioning of behavior by attitudes.

2. Influence of behavior on attitudes and its theoretical explanations. The theory of equilibrium (F. Haider). Cognitive dissonance (L. Festinger): concept, causes and conditions of occurrence, methods of resolution. Effects of insufficient and over-sufficient justification.

3. The theory of self-perception (D. Boehm) as a theory of attribution. An attributive approach to changing behavior and attitudes. Impression management theory (J. Tedeschi). Self-presentation. Self-monitoring. General logic for developing theories that explain the influence of behavior on attitudes. Ways to change attitudes by changing behavior: from a small request to a large one; from a large request to a small one. Methods "foot-in-the-door", "door-in-the-face".

Basic concepts: attitudes, social behavior of a person, influence of attitudes on behavior, influence of behavior on attitudes.

1. Influence of attitudes on behavior and mediating factors. The theory of planned behavior (M. Fishbein and A. Eisen) and its experimental verification. Ways to strengthen the conditioning of behavior by attitudes.

The influence of attitudes on behavior and mediating factors.

The problem of the relationship between behavior and attitudes is one of the most controversial throughout the history of the study of attitudes. At the beginning of the study of social attitudes, there was no doubt that people's attitudes could be used to predict their actions. Further research refuted this theory.

A. Aizen and M. Fishbein developed 4 criteria by which the levels of behavior and attitudes should be compared:

- 1) element of action;
- 2) element of purpose;
- 3) element of context (situation);
- 4) element of time.

For example, in one experiment, respondents were asked about their attitudes towards religion and frequency of church attendance. The correlation between attitude and actual behavior was very low. But when respondents were asked about their attitudes toward frequent and actual temple attendance, a high degree of correlation was found.

A. Aizen and M. Fishbein developed *the theory of planned behavior*. The authors of the theory suggested that human intentions have the main influence on behavior. At the same time, the intentions themselves are determined by two factors: *the first is* the attitude towards behavior, and *the second factor is* the subjective norms of human behavior (the perception of social influence). Attitude towards behavior is determined by the expected result (in particular, the degree of probability of achieving this result) and the assessment of its benefits for the person.

For example, one of Fishbein and Eisen's studies was devoted to the study of voters' intentions to participate in elections. The results of the study showed that behavior was determined by intention if it was associated with the corresponding ideas about the consequences of voting (refusal to vote), perception of the opinion of loved ones and the level of motivation (the significance of the opinions of loved ones). Thus, if all these factors are in accordance with each other, have a close correlation, the intention will predict the real behavior of a person. Ways to enhance the conditioning of behavior by attitudes. The influence of attitudes on behavior is determined by such characteristics as the strength or availability of attitudes. The accessibility of the attachment is determined by the high degree of its awareness by the individual, the presence of extensive knowledge about the object of the attachment. The social attitude becomes most accessible for comprehension and regulation of behavior when it was formed in the direct experience of interaction with an object or repeatedly fixed in the memory of an individual. The strength of an

attitude can be determined by the speed of the evaluative reaction to its object. Whether attitudes will determine human behavior depends not only on the strength of attitudes, but also on the personal and situational factors that mediate their relationship.

2. Influence of behavior on attitudes and its theoretical explanations. The theory of equilibrium (F. Haider). Cognitive dissonance (L. Festinger): concept, causes and conditions of occurrence, methods of resolution. Effects of insufficient and over-sufficient justification.

The influence of behavior on attitudes and its theoretical explanations.

A lot of facts from people's lives, the results of various empirical studies show the existence of a relationship between attitudes and behavior. Let's consider the main theories explaining this phenomenon.

From the point of view of *the theory of cognitive consistency*, an individual strives for harmony of cognitive representations of any knowledge, opinions, beliefs about the environment, about oneself, about someone's behavior. The dissonance of these representations is experienced as something unpleasant that needs to be reduced as much as possible.

This theory is based on *the theory of equilibrium* (F. Haider). A cognitive theory of interpersonal relationships based on the assumption that unbalanced, inconsistent cognitive systems automatically tend to achieve greater balance.

L. Festinger was one of the first to express an idea, unexpected for many psychologists, that not only attitudes affect behavior, but behavior, in turn, affects attitudes. Moreover, the impact of behavior on the attitudinal system is so strong that the behavior can radically change it. Leon Festinger believed that people feel discomfort from any contradiction that exists only within the individual's own cognitive system. To denote the internal contradictions that arise in the mind of a person between different cognitive elements, Festinger introduced the concept of "cognitive dissonance."

According to *the theory of cognitive dissonance*, relationships of one of three types can exist between cognitions: dissonant (contradictory), consonant (consistent), and irrelevant (unrelated). In the smoking example, the cognitions "I like the taste of cigarettes" and "smoking calms" are in a consonant relationship with the cognition "I smoke" and irrelevant with the cognitions regarding rain. The emergence of dissonance makes a person strive to reduce it or get rid of it completely. At the same time, there are several ways to reduce dissonance:

1) A person can change behavior by making it consistent with cognitions (here the influence of attitudes on behavior may appear). At the same time, the dissonance must be strong enough for the changes to remain for a long time.

2) A person can change cognitions that are in dissonance with the implemented behavior (the influence of behavior on attitudes is manifested).

In studies of attitudinal changes under the influence of behavior, conducted within the framework of the theory of cognitive dissonance, *the effect of insufficient justification* was revealed. Reducing dissonance by internally justifying your behavior when external excuses are "insufficient." If external stimulation is not enough to justify our behavior, we reduce dissonance by finding justifications within ourselves.

The over-sufficient justification effect. Its essence is that people explain their own and other people's behavior by the conditions in which it is carried out. Thus, by rewarding people for actions that bring them satisfaction, you can thereby make them explain their behavior by payment, rather than pleasure.

3. The theory of self-perception (D. Boehm) as a theory of attribution. An attributive approach to changing behavior and attitudes. Impression management theory (J. Tedeschi). Self-presentation. Self-monitoring. General logic for developing theories that explain the influence of behavior on attitudes. Ways to change attitudes by changing behavior: from a small request to a large one; from a large request to a small one. Methods "foot-in-the-door", "door-in-the-face ".

The rival theory was the theory of *self-perception*, which was developed by Daril Boehm. Self-perception theory argued that people form judgments about their own attitudes by analyzing their own behavior. They would also do the same by making similar judgments about other people by observing their actions. Boehm's reasoning was as follows: many of the effects of dissonance arise from various inferences that people draw about their attitudes and based on their perception of their behavior. In the course of self-attribution, a person begins to "become aware" of his attitudes, in order to find the reasons or meaning of his behavior. Those. the process of self-attribution, in this case, serves to explain to a person his own behavior. But on the other hand, in the course of self-attribution, a person replenishes his self-concept, not only by forming attitudes about the actions he has performed, but also by forming ideas about himself.

Within the framework of the theory of self-perception, *the theory of impression management* (J. Tedeshi) was developed. According to this theory, a person, for strategic reasons, expresses attitudes that represent him as a consistent personality. For this purpose, he expresses attitudes that correspond to his actions. A person can even simulate attitudes in which he really does not believe. Of course, this implies some insincerity and even hypocrisy, but it gives an opportunity to make an impression.

Another theory that explains the influence of behavior on attitudes is *the theory of self-presentation*. In the tradition of American social psychology, self-presentation is one of the forms of social behavior and is considered as a manifestation of demonstrative behavior in interpersonal communication.

Self-monitoring. Individuals with a high level of self-monitoring adapt well to any situations and people, are able to control their emotions and behavior in order to use this skill to create the desired impression effectively by showing others a suitable image for the occasion.

The general logic behind the development of theories to explain the effect of behavior on attitudes. Social psychologists name three possible reasons.

- The theory of self-presentation – for strategic reasons, a person expresses attitudes that allow him to give the impression of a consistent acting personality.
- The theory of cognitive dissonance – justifying behavior in our own eyes is necessary for us to reduce psychological discomfort.
- The theory of self-perception – our actions expose us (if we are not sure of our feelings or beliefs, then we begin to monitor our behavior).

Ways to change attitudes through behavior change: from a small request to a big one, from a big request to a small one. The foot-in-the-door and door-in-the-face techniques.

Foot-in-the-door technique is a compliance tactic that aims at getting a person to agree to a large request by having them agree to a modest request first.

This technique works by creating a connection between the person asking for a request and the person that is being asked. If a smaller request is granted, then the person who is agreeing feels like they are obligated to keep agreeing to larger requests to stay consistent with the original decision of agreeing. This technique is used in many ways and is a well-researched tactic for getting people to comply with requests. The saying is a reference to a door to door salesman who keeps the door from shutting with his foot, giving the customer no choice but to listen to the sales pitch.

In an early study, a team of psychologists telephoned housewives in California and asked if the women would answer a few questions about the household products they used. Three days later, the psychologists called again. This time, they asked if they could send five or six men into the house to go through cupboards and storage places as part of a 2-hour enumeration of household products. The investigators found these women were more than twice as likely to agree to the 2-hour request than a group of housewives asked only the larger request.

More recently, people were asked to call for a taxi if they became alcohol-impaired. Half of the people had also been asked to sign a petition against drunk driving (which they all did) and half had not. Those who had signed the petition (complied with a small request) were significantly more likely to comply with the larger request of calling a taxi when impaired compared to those who had not been asked to sign the petition.

Numerous experiments have shown that foot-in-the-door tactics work well in persuading people to comply, especially if the request is a pro-social request. Research has shown that foot-in-the-door techniques work over the computer via email, in addition to face-to-face requests.

Door-in-the-face technique is a compliance method commonly studied in social psychology. The persuader attempts to convince the respondent to comply by making a large request that the respondent will most likely turn down, much like a metaphorical slamming of a door in the persuader's face. The respondent is then more likely to agree to a second, more reasonable request, than if that same request is made in isolation. The door-in-the-face technique can be contrasted with the foot-in-the-door technique in which a persuader begins with a small request and gradually increases the demands of each request. Both *the foot-in-the-door* and *door-in-the-face* techniques increase the likelihood a respondent will agree to the second request

In a classic experiment investigating the effectiveness of the door-in-the-face technique, researchers separated participants into three groups. In group 1, experimenters asked participants to volunteer to counsel juvenile delinquents for two hours a week for two years (large request). After their refusal, the group was asked to chaperone juvenile delinquents on a one-day trip to the zoo (small request). Group 2 was given only the small request. In group 3, the experimenter described the large request but asked the participants to perform the small request. 50% of the participants in group 1 agreed to the small request, compared to 17% in group 2 and 25% in group 3. Because compliance for the small request was significantly larger for group 1 than group 2, the door-in-the-face technique was successful. Compliance for the small request was also significantly larger for group 1 than group 3, which demonstrates that mere exposure to the more extreme task does not affect compliance as significantly.

Questions and tasks

1. Describe 4 criteria by which the levels of behavior and attitudes should be compared.

Task 1. Make lecture notes on the studied material.

Task 2. Give your example of Foot-in-the-door technique.

Task 3. Give your example of Door-in-the-face technique.

CREDIT QUESTIONS

1. Specifics of personal problems in social psychology. Development of ideas about personality in social psychology.
2. Biological approach (Alexander). Psychodynamic approach to personality analysis (Z. Freud, O. Kernberg, X. Kohut).
3. Behaviorist approach to personality (B. Skinner). Factor approach and its uniqueness (R. Cattell, X. Eysenck).
4. Social-cognitive-scientific tradition in the consideration of personality problems (J. Rotter; A. Bandura; W. Mischel).
5. Cognitive tradition in the study of personality problems: informational and procedural consideration of personality.
6. Personality in the interactionist tradition is an attempt to combine person – centered and situation-centered approaches (G. Mead, M. Kuhn).
7. Consideration of the individual in the tradition of the system-activity approach.
8. Humanistic approach to personality (A. Maslow, K. Rogers). Existential-phenomenological consideration of personality problems (M. Donaldson, V. Frankl).
9. . Basic concepts of personality (V.N. Myasishchev, B.F. Lomov).
10. Socio-psychological problems of the individual from the position of the installation theory (SH.A. Nadirashvili; V.A. Yadov).
11. An integrated approach to the study of personality (B.G. Ananyev). The activity approach to psychology of personality (A.N. Leont'ev).
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14. The ratio of the categories "self-awareness" and "self". The structure of self-awareness.
15. Levels and units of self-awareness (VV Stolin). Self-relation of personality: components, content characteristics, functions and time dimensions (N.I. Sarjveladze).
16. The relationship of the self and Self-concept. The image I as a substructure of personality. The Self-concept as a structure of self-attitudes.
17. Sources of formation and development of the Self-concept.
18. Self-concept in the structure of the self. The structure and content of the Self-concept.
19. Formation and development of the self.
20. Stages of the genesis of the self. Age dynamics of the self.
21. Personal and social identity.
22. Theoretical approaches to personal identity.

23. Identity types. Development of identity. Crises of identity (E. Erickson).
24. Social psychology of gender and sexual behavior of the individual.
25. Gender identity of the individual.
26. The identity and gender groups.
27. Socio-psychological characteristics of the concepts of masculinity and femininity.
28. Basics and content of socialization. Socialization as inculturation, internalization and adaptation.
29. The structure of the socialization process and its different stages. Stages of the socialization process: adaptation, individualization and integration.
30. Mechanisms of socialization.
31. Socialization institutions and mechanisms of their influence: family, school, informal and formal environments, mass communication.
32. Social experience of personality: features of formation and manifestation.
33. The structure, content of social experience.
34. Development and features of the construction of social experience.
35. The concept of social behavior and its regulators. Values and value orientations.
36. Social attitude as a latent variable. Measuring attitudes: (self-reports, Likert rating scale. semantic differential).
37. Social attitude as a functional system. Motivational functions of attitudes: cognitive, instrumental, expressive, ego-protective.
38. Classical and instrumental conditioning of attitudes. Pro – and counter-attitudinal behavior and its effect on attitudes. K. Hovland's theory of learning.
39. Components of the persuasion process. The theory of the central and peripheral pathway of persuasion (R. Petty and J. Cacioppo).
40. Audience engagement as a mediating factor of persuasion. Discussions and research on the impact of mass media on the audience.
41. Influence of attitudes on behavior and mediating factors. The theory of planned behavior (M. Fishbein and A. Eisen) and its experimental verification. Ways to strengthen the conditioning of behavior by attitudes.
42. Influence of behavior on attitudes and its theoretical explanations. The theory of equilibrium (F. Haider).
43. Cognitive dissonance (L. Festinger): concept, causes and conditions of occurrence, methods of resolution. Effects of insufficient and over-sufficient justification.
44. The theory of self-perception (D. Boehm) as a theory of attribution. An attributive approach to changing behavior and attitudes.
45. Ways to change attitudes by changing behavior: from a small request to a large one; from a large request to a small one. Methods "foot-in-the-door", "door-in-the-face ".

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What is Social Psychology? – Definition

Why is it that people are so determined to fight? What drives some people to donate all their money to charitable causes? Why do we feel so identified with certain groups? If you have asked yourself these questions, you have tried to solve the concerns of social psychologists.

Social psychology is a popular branch of psychology that studies the psychological processes of individuals in society. Social psychology is the study of how social and cognitive processes affect people perceive, influence, and relate to others. Basically, it's trying to understand people in a social context, and understanding the reasons why we behave the way we do in social situations. Social scientists and psychologists study how social influence, social perception and social interaction influence individual and group behavior in interpersonal relationships and the ways that psychology can improve those interactions. Social psychology affects every aspect of our lives, whether we depend on, are influenced by, or react to others. People act differently in different situations because the people around us affect our actions. In broad outline, we can say that it is responsible for explaining how our social relationships make us feel, what we think about them, what are our motivations for relating other people, how we act with other people, etc. This area in psychology was born at the beginning of the 20th century.

Like with any other science, there are some basic assumptions of social psychology. One is that all behavior occurs in a social context, and individuals adhere to these norms even when alone. Another is that other people and the society they create around an individual is a major influence on their behavior, thought processes, and emotions. Social psychology looks at different areas such as social influence, social cognition, social behavior, and social development. Within those areas, social psychologists look at conformity, obedience, attitudes, social identity, relationships, attachment, and discrimination. Social psychologists also look at interpersonal and group dynamics and research social interactions and their influencing factors, such as group behavior, leadership, attitudes, and public perceptions.

History of Social Psychology

People began thinking about the concept of social psychology as early as our first philosophers, Aristotle and Plato. Aristotle had a more individual centered approach and thought that humans were naturally made to be

sociable, in order for us all to be able to live together. Plato instead based his theory on a socio-centered approach and felt that the environment controlled the individual, stimulating social responsibility through social context. The idea of the “group mind” evolved from Hegel, who introduced the concept that society has links to the developing social brain. This then led to a focus on the “collective mind” in the 1860s, which emphasized the view that an individual’s personality develops because of cultural and community influences, especially language. Wundt is seen as the father of psychology and Völkerpsychologie, in which he studied language, cultural myths, and social customs. He saw language as both a product of cultures, as well as individual cognitive processes.

Some of the first experiments conducted in the vein of social psychology occurred in the late 1800s and early 1900s by Triplett and Ringelmann. Triplett conducted a study on if people would perform better or worse when there were other people present. He was the first to find evidence of social facilitation, which is when people are able to perform tasks better when there are others around them observing. Ringelmann’s study looked at how much effort a person is willing to input into a task or project when working alone versus working with others. His study found the basis for social loafing, which is when an individual puts in less effort when working with other people.

Social psychology was able to branch off from other areas of psychology because of the belief that people’s behavior changes depending on the cognitive processes with which they perceive and interpret the social situation they are in.

What does Social Psychology study?

The issues addressed by social psychologists are as diverse as the immense variety of situations that are presented daily in our social life. These are the main topics studied and an example of a problem associated with each one:

Identity construction: How do we determine which features define us?

Attitudes and Social Psychology: What pushes us to be ecologists?

Cognition in social relations: How do we make judgments about others behaviors?

Communication: What drives us to spread our intimacies in social networks?

Interpersonal relationships: Why do some people attract us and others disgust us?

Culture from a psychosocial perspective: How do we collectively place images that influence our emotions?

Stereotypes in social psychology: Why are blondes said to be dumb?

Conflicts: What can lead someone to bully someone else?

Helping others: Why do some people spend their time volunteering?

The groups: What encourages us to consider ourselves unconditional fans of a certain team?

Social Psychology: Features

1. Social psychology and relations with various disciplines

Sociology is the science most closely related to social psychology. Other fields such as education, economics, philosophy, political science, history, anthropology, or other branches of psychology maintain a two-way relationship that is remarkably enriching with this area of study.

2. Social psychology's focus on psychological processes

Despite the need to combine different perspectives to reveal the insights that this discipline explores, not all sciences related to society are the same. Social psychology is distinguished from other subjects by its particular emphasis on what happens within the minds of individuals and their influence on behavior.

3. Social psychology: scientific approach

The object of study of social psychologists is less tangible than that of other scientists such as chemists or biologists. Even so, there are methods, such as experiments or correlational methods (which consist in observing how certain variables are affected), which enable social psychology experts to develop solid and applicable theories.

4. Social psychology and confusion with common sense

We all have a theory about the aspects that social psychologists study. At times, when the general public reads about social psychology, it thinks that it only deals with cliché and/or subjective opinions. However, these professionals are rigorously demonstrating issues that people are accustomed to discussing based on their personal experiences.

Applications of social psychology

In addition to theory and research, social psychology has many uses that directly affect our daily lives. Applied social psychology tries to improve the quality of life of people in an endless number of dimensions.

Health: It seeks to improve the individual's well-being through tasks such as promoting healthy habits or neutralizing stressful social situations.

Social Problems: Unemployment, immigration or gender violence are issues analyzed by social psychologists, who also design intervention plan in order to resolve conflicts.

Education and social psychology: It focuses on issues such as the perception that people have about the education system or how to improve coexistence among students.

Environment: Social psychology is concerned with the interaction between the environment and people.

Legal area: It addresses issues that connect the world of law with that of psychology, such as prevention of criminal activity.

Organizations: Explore leadership, productivity, relationships among corporate workers, etc.

Politics and social psychology: It questions issues such as the effectiveness of political discourses or the attitudes of citizens towards politicians.

Communication and consumption: Advertising influence, our communicative skills, the union between individuals and brands or behavior in social networks are examples of topics addressed in this field.

In short, the performance of applied social psychology is indispensable in many and varied areas that require progress. Also, social psychologists are concerned with empirically demonstrating the validity of the solutions they propose and implement.

Social Psychology: Experiments

In this section, we will tell you two of the most renowned experiments in social psychology to show you how social psychologists work and their shocking discoveries.

During World War II

Unfortunately, a large impetus for the study of social psychology was World War II and the workings of the Nazi party and Holocaust. Researchers sought to understand the effects of the leaders' influence, and how conformity and obedience played a role in why they were willing to participate in such evil, terrible actions. Researchers were interested in how these attitudes formed and were changed by the social contexts set by the leadership.

Experiment on social facilitation

Norman Triplett is the creator, according to several authors, of the first experiment of social psychology in 1898. He was curious about the speed increase observed in cyclists as they moved in a group. Its objective was to find out how the influence of a subject's performance influenced the presence of other people performing the same activity.

His hypothesis was that our performance increases when we think we are competing with others (in motor tasks). Therefore, Triplett tried to verify the veracity of this affirmation in a laboratory. He asked some children to roll up reels of fishing thread. Some of the participants did it alone and the others accompanied by others who performed the same task. The result was that subjects in the second group were significantly faster.

Stanford Jail Experiment

Philip Zimbardo, an acclaimed social psychologist, devised an experiment that went down in history for its bewildering results. He chose twenty-four students who appeared mentally healthy after an evaluation. Subsequently, he divided the group and randomly performed two groups. One was composed of policemen and the other by prisoners. In addition, he turned the basement of Stanford University into a prison and made sure that the costumes and standards were as realistic as possible.

The participants were randomly assigned to be “prisoners” or “guards,” and were supposed to play out those roles throughout the experiment. Many of the guards grew to be increasingly sadistic towards the prisoners, unsettlingly more so at night when they believed the cameras to be turned off. The experiment had to be shut down after only 6 days, short of the planned 2 weeks, after a riot in the prison, for fear of someone getting seriously hurt. The experiment has been used as a prime example of people accepting and obeying an ideology, especially if they have institutional and societal support for their actions. Unfortunately, we can also see similar effects in the United States after the previous presidential election. There has been a rise in hate crimes, racism, and xenophobia since the election because the perpetrators feel that they have the support of the leaders in government.

The social explanation is that any person can act badly given a particular context. Watch the trailer to a movie based on this experiment.

Social psychology case studies: How can I apply social psychology to my daily life?

Who has never wanted to better understand and predict others behavior? Have you ever considered the motive that drives you to pretend that you feel like doing something for your group? Fortunately, social psychology gives us scientific answers to our daily questions.

Given that we live in society and need to adapt as best we can, a little bit of social psychology in our lives can help us explain teamwork discussions, job stress, the madness of Black-Friday sales or prejudices against people.

Discover these tips and recommendations that will help you apply the principles of social psychology to your routine:

Beware of your cognitive bias

Cognitive biases are deviations from reality that arise when we process information. We do not have enough resources to devote attention to everything around us and our brains tend to think at an amazing speed. For example, in order not to waste time, we tend to confirm our beliefs and to elude data that deny them.

This predisposition is natural and happens frequently. However, sometimes it can lead us to make mistakes, to contemplate our world through inappropriate stereotypes or to have unjustified prejudices. We need to reflect on our opinions and try to be objective.

Learn to influence others

We all need to occasionally influence others to get something. This does not involve manipulating or having evil intentions. Simply, we may want our sister to lend us a dress, make a good impression at a job interview or prevent a friend from making a lousy decision.

Actions like being polite with our interlocutor, doing favors or complimenting are remarkably effective tactics to achieve our purposes. Robert Cialdini is one of the greatest experts in social influence in the world and describes how effective in his book *Influence*.

Connect with today

The media are inexhaustible sources of knowledge about social psychology. The social network scandals, different leaders opinions and its power or comments from our acquaintances provide us with a multitude of data that we must process.

By the way, we must not be satisfied with knowing the reality through a single channel. Taking a holistic approach helps us to better anticipate others behavior and improve our problem-solving ability. Our knowledge will be enriched if we listen to the different versions of the stories and try to interpret different points of view.

Discover the exciting books on social psychology

Some social psychologists, such as Robert Cialdini, Elliot Aronson, or Philip Zimbardo, have written very interesting books for both professionals and non-specialists. Their works give you a practical, enjoyable and affordable approach to unravel the mysteries of our behavior in society.

Social psychology looks at how individuals interact in groups such as this.

Social psychology: Theorists and main authors

The list of fundamental social psychologists who made astonishing and still influential discoveries today is quite extensive. Here we present five essential authors and their most relevant contributions.

Social psychology and Kurt Lewin (1890-1947)

This father of social psychology proclaimed the interaction between each individual and all components of his environment. In fact, he was related to Gestalt psychology. He was especially interested in putting his ideas into practice and one of his maxims was “to understand a system you have to try to change it”.

Lewin created the theory of field, which emphasizes the importance of contemplating people’s vital space. This dimension is formed by the totality of the situation of each individual at a certain moment. Insists on not isolating the different factors that influence us and focusing on the dynamics that happen between them.

Solomon Asch (1907-1996) and social psychology

His main area of study was conformism, which is elemental for life in society. He is the celebrated creator of the “Asch paradigm”, which was demonstrated by a revolutionary experiment. In 1951, this psychologist brought together groups of between five and seven people. One of them was the subject studied and the rest were collaborators of the researcher.

Asch presented two images, in one there was a line and in the other three lines of different lengths. Subsequently, he wondered which line of the second card had the same length as the first. The experiment had been designed so that the individual analyzed was one of the last to respond. The collaborators gave an erroneous answer and it was verified if the participant also would do it.

The answer was tremendously obvious and simple. However, Asch discovered with surprise that after several trials, 50% of individuals were “mistaken” at least half the time. Asch also showed that conservative ratings vary from one culture to another, collectivists are more prone to this phenomenon.

Social Psychology and Stanley Milgram (1933-1984)

Milgram held one of the most terrifying experiments in history. Inspired by the atrocities committed in World War II, he studied obedience to authority and decided to explore the limits of individuals to their superiors.

He selected subjects with normal behavior. He asked the participants in his controversial experiment to administer electric shocks that progressively

increased (although in reality they only reached 45 volts) to another person when he was wrong to answer a question.

The victim was an accomplice of the psychologist and had to fake progressive pain as the power of punishment rose. Despite his desperate cries and entreaties, the scientist who played the role of authority insisted that the subjects continue. Unexpectedly, 65% reached the maximum level, which involved delivering 450 volts to the other “participant”.

The explanations proposed for this grisly fact are that Yale provided credibility for the scientific experiment. Meaning that if Yale backed the experiment the discharges were not harmful or maybe the insistence since children on obeying our superiors (parents, teachers, etc.). How would you react to this situation?

Serge Moscovici (1925-2014) and social psychology

Moscovici set out to investigate how we understand the world around us. It started from that we know the reality from social representations that guide us and allow us to develop next to the others. Communication between people is essential to transmit valuable knowledge and ideas and guide us.

We construct concepts collectively and create common sense shared by all of us. Our ideas are interrelated allowing us to enrich our thoughts and give meaning to the different events that take place in the day to day. What are we without others?

Robert Zajonc (1923-2008)

This social psychologist revealed the “mere exposure effect,” which manifests our tendency to appreciate more of a stimulus after being frequently exposed to it. For example, the first time we hear a song on the radio, it may seem bland. However, if you put it on every time we go out, in the car, on television and also becomes a summer hit, it is likely we end up loving it.

Likewise, Zajonc states that our preferences are not completely rational. Emotions always escort thoughts. This influences us when choosing friends or partners since we like the people we see more often. Advertisers have taken advantage of this phenomenon to create deeper links with brands.

Is it possible to bring individuality to situations with so many rules? Social psychology wants to find out.

Is social psychology for you?

Social psychologists are able to work on challenges that affect everyone socially, such as prejudice, implicit bias, bullying, criminal activity and substance abuse. They are able to do so in roles such as researchers, consultants, professors, strategists, or designers. If you are interested in working in social

psychology, a masters' or Ph.D. is usually necessary. But the hard work can definitely be worth it if you feel like you are making an impactful difference in people's lives.

Thank you very much for reading this article. We hope that social psychology has been inspiring. We invite you to comment if you want to ask us something about this subject or if you feel like making a contribution.

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This article is originally written in Spanish by Aihnoa Arranz, translated by Alejandra Salazar.

The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) is a classification system of values.

Developed by social psychologist Milton Rokeach, the system consists of two sets of values, 18 individual value items in each. One set is called terminal values the other instrumental values.

RVS is based on a 1968 volume (Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values) which presented the philosophical basis for the association of fundamental values with beliefs and attitudes. His value system was instrumentalised into the Rokeach Value Survey in his 1973 book *The Nature of Human Values*.

Terminal Values refer to desirable end-states of existence. These are the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime. These values vary among different groups of people in different cultures.

The terminal values in RVS are:

1.	True Friendship	
2.	Mature Love	
3.	Self-Respect	
4.	Happiness	
5.	Inner Harmony	
6.	Equality	
7.	Freedom	
8.	Pleasure	
9.	Social Recognition	
10.	Wisdom	
11.	Salvation	
12.	Family Security	
13.	National Security	
14.	A Sense of Accomplishment	
15.	A World of Beauty	
16.	A World at Peace	
17.	A Comfortable Life	
18.	An Exciting Life	

Instrumental Values refer to preferable modes of behavior. These are preferable modes of behavior, or means of achieving the terminal values.

The Instrumental Values are:

1.	Cheerfulness	
2.	Ambition	
3.	Love	
4.	Cleanliness	
5.	Self-Control	
6.	Capability	
7.	Courage	
8.	Politeness	
9.	Honesty	
10.	Imagination	
11.	Independence	
12.	Intellect	
13.	Broad-Mindedness	
14.	Logic	
15.	Obedience	
16.	Helpfulness	
17.	Responsibility	
18.	Forgiveness	

The task for participants in the survey is to arrange the 18 terminal values, followed by the 18 instrumental values, into an order “of importance to YOU, as guiding principles in YOUR life” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 27).

The Rokeach Value Survey has been extensively used in empirical work by psychologists, sociologists and marketers. There have been a number of attempts to reduce the 18 instrumental values and 18 terminal values into a set of underlying factors (see for example Feather and Peay, 1975; Johnston, 1995) but without consistent success.

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