

The right expression, but the wrong sender?

The effects of Self-categorization and Politeness on the receiver of verbal Social Control

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Abstract

In a time where citizens are increasingly stimulated to govern their own ‘civil society’, it is important to investigate the effects of social control from citizens towards other citizens. In an experimental field-study and two pilot studies, the effects of self-categorization and politeness strategies during social control were examined on the angry and moral emotions of the receiver. Participants in this study were exposed to preventive informal social control in either a polite or non-polite condition and in either an ingroup or outgroup condition. Results show that polite social control had a direct negative effect on the angry emotions, but not the moral emotions. Social control from an ingroup member did not directly affect angry and moral emotions. However, proof was found that ingroup membership can increase cooperative behaviour after social control. Further implications are discussed.

“Cut it out now [Kappen nou]”. These were the words that the Joes Kloppenburg yelled to four men that were harassing a homeless person, on 17 august of 1996 (Algemeen Dagblad, 2006; Volkskrant, 1996). This is an example of one citizen expressing social control towards other citizens. For Joes, this event had a dramatic outcome. After he expressed social control towards the four men, he became the centre of their aggression and died several hours later of his injuries (Volkskrant, 1996).

With the governance shift from “welfare state” to “participation state” in the Netherlands, citizens seem to have an increased responsibility towards other citizens. They are expected to govern their own ‘civil society’ through participation and not to rely on governmental agencies to create this ‘civil society’ (van der Land, 2014). When citizens are stimulated to govern their own ‘civil society’ some important question arise, one of them being: What are the effects of social controlling behaviour from citizens on a perpetrator of (social) norms?

Earlier studies found that bystander intervention can both inhibit and facilitate violent behaviour (Lee, Gelfand, & Kashima, 2014; Levine, Taylor, & Best, 2011), but few studies investigated the effects of social control on the receiver. A study from Nugier, Niedenthal, Brauer, and Chekroun (2007) forms an exception. They found that the expression of social control intensifies the moral and angry emotions of the receiver, but showed that politeness within the expression of social control reduces the effects from social control on the angry emotions (Nugier, Niedenthal, Brauer, & Chekroun, 2007). The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effects of self-categorization and politeness within social control on the moral and angry emotions of the receiver.

Defining social control and emotions

The term ‘social control’ is a broad concept. The most utilized form of social control is defined as any reaction through which people express their disapproval against counter-

normative behaviour (Brauer & Chaurand, 2010; Chaurand & Brauer, 2008; Nugier et al., 2007). Some researchers differentiate between formal social control (e.g., fines or punishment) and informal social control (e.g., disapproving reactions) (Chaurand & Brauer, 2008). For the purpose of this study, the term ‘social control’ refers to informal social control whereby verbal communication is expressed to show disapproval against counter-normative behaviour. For social control from citizens, this definition is the most occurring, whereby disapproval is verbally expressed without any formal means. The statement; “*Cut it out now*” used by Joes Kloppenburg also falls within this definition.

When social control is expressed, it intensifies the moral and angry emotions of the receiver (Nugier et al., 2007). Moral emotions drive people to do good and avoid doing bad (Kroll & Egan, 2004). They make a person feel responsible for their actions and motivate them to make amends. Making amends is cooperative behaviour and works deescalating (Kennedy & Pronin, 2008). In this study, moral emotions are measured through shame and guilt.

Angry emotions can be directly evoked by social control as well, which in turn can lead to aggression (Nugier et al., 2007). Angry emotions can result in antagonistic tendencies, such as opposition or even assault (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter Schure, 1989), lead to more costly punishments (Seip, van Dijk, & Rotteveel, 2014) and can lead an interpersonal conflict further down the conflict spiral (Kennedy & Pronin, 2008). This can occur when the social control is perceived as unfair or unjust (Nugier et al., 2007; Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2007). In this study, angry emotions are measured through anger and indignation.

Politeness

As mentioned in the introduction, Nugier and colleagues (2007) found that a high degree of politeness within social control can reduce the angry emotions of the receiver. In their study, politeness was evoked by the addition of “excuse me [request] please” within the expression

of social control. However, they did not further clarify and operationalize the construct ‘politeness’. Earlier studies have demonstrated that verbal expressions are at least partially dependent on e.g. cultural aspects (Hatipoğlu, 2007; Van Mulken, 1996), social context (Hatipoğlu, 2007) and identity of the speaker (Graham, 2007) to be perceived as polite.

To offer a more comprehensible understanding of politeness, this study adopts the Politeness Theory (PT) from Brown and Levinson (1987) as a framework for further analysis. According to the PT framework, the public self-image of every person can be roughly divided into the negative face and the positive face. The negative face is the need to have an unhindered freedom of action and the positive face is the need to that one’s wants, actions or values are thought of as desirable (Fraser, 1990). Politeness, then, is roughly an attempt from the speaker to show concern for the positive and negative face of the receiver (Fraser, 1990; Hatipoğlu, 2007).

During a request, both the positive and negative face needs are threatened. Every request has an expectation to comply (negative face threat) and refusal of the request is a threat to the desirability of one’s action in the eyes of others (positive face threat) (Jansen & Janssen, 2010). With social control, the attack on the positive face is intensified. Even when the receiver of social control complies, the positive face is still threatened by the expression of disapproval against earlier counter-normative behaviour.

In this study, the definition of politeness is adopted from the PT framework, as stated in the paper of Hatipoglu (2007) as ‘the use of verbal strategies that take into account the hearer’s feelings by showing concern for his/her face needs’ (Hatipoğlu, 2007). For the remainder of this paper, (non-)polite social control is defined as ‘verbal communication to show disapproval against counter-normative behaviour with (no) consideration for the face needs of the receiver’.

Several studies found specific strategies that can increase the degree of politeness. To

show consideration for the negative face, strategies such as indirectness, vagueness (Jansen & Janssen, 2010) hedges, minimization, formalization (Morand, 2000) can be used. These strategies can create an illusion of choice, or at least minimize the request, and therefore minimize the perceived imposition for a receiver of social control.

Consideration for the positive face can be shown when reasons are given within a request or social control, e.g. by showing that the request is not founded on a negative personal basis and by treating the receiver as a rational individual (Jansen & Janssen, 2010). Furthermore, ‘giving understanding’ and ‘claiming a common point of view’ are examples of other strategies that can enhance the degree of positive politeness (Morand, 2000).

Politeness on emotions

“*Cut it out now*”, the words used by Joes Kloppenburg, did not show consideration for the face needs of the receivers. Impoliteness, defined in Culpeper, Bousfield, and Wichmann (2003, p. 1546) as ‘communicative strategies that are designed to attack face, and thereby cause social conflict and disharmony’, is more than the absence of politeness strategies. Rather than just not showing consideration for one’s face, impoliteness suggest an attack on one’s face (Culpeper, Bousfield, & Wichmann, 2003). “*Cut it out now*”, then, comprehends neither politeness nor impoliteness. No consideration was shown to save face of the four men, but no explicit communicative strategies to attack their face were used either. Such communication, which does not fall within the definition of politeness or impoliteness, will be addressed in this study as non-politeness.

In the study of Nugier and colleagues (2007), participants perceived less angry emotions when they were exposed to a case whereby social control was expressed in a polite manner, in contrast to an impolite manner. This effect was at least partially mediated by the finding that participants judged polite social control as more legitimate, which also reduced the participants’ angry emotions (Nugier et al., 2007).

For polite social control versus non-polite social control the same findings are expected as were found in the study from Nugier and colleagues (2007) for polite social control versus impolite social control. Specifically, polite social control is expected to have a direct negative effect on the angry emotions of the receiver, in contrast to non-polite social control (H_1). Furthermore, polite social control, in contrast to non-polite social control, is expected to have an indirect negative effect on the angry emotions of the receiver, through a higher degree of perceived legitimacy by the receiver (H_2).

Self-categorization theory on politeness

The spokesman of the police stated the following about the four men that attacked Joes Kloppenburg, whom himself was a student: “*They were not students, but guys from the nightlife*” (Volkskrant, 1996). Earlier responses, or even pre-assumptions about others, can shape the degree of politeness within social control (Graham, 2007). Positive politeness strategies are often based on including the other verbally into your category, such as the usage of “we” instead of “I”, the usage of ingroup names or claiming a common point of view (Morand, 2000). Feelings of “we” or “I” can also be explained through the self-categorization theory.

The self-categorization theory explains why and when people feel connected to a group. It makes a distinction between the personal (the “I”) and the social (the “we”) identity of an individual. How individuals view themselves in a social group relies on the context. People can be viewed as an ingroup based on a shared attribute (for example, students) that other people, whom will be more likely to be considered as an outgroup, do not share (non-students). The more specific the ingroup relative to the outgroup, the stronger the identification (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994).

Would the outcome be different if an acquaintance from the four men had yelled: “*Cut it out now*”? Based on the previous section, it is expected that when social control is

expressed from an ingroup member, in contrast to an outgroup member, it will be perceived as more polite by the receiver (H₃). In this case it would not be a linguistic process, but an implicit effect of self-categorization.

Self-categorization on social control

Many important conditions for intervening behaviour can be explained through the self-categorization theory (Turner & Reynolds, 2011). When other bystanders, victims or perpetrators of social norms are categorized as an ingroup, individuals are more likely to intervene (Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002; Nugier, Chekroun, Pierre, & Niedenthal, 2009). Joes Kloppenburg, for instance, was accompanied by two of his friends, which could have led him to intervene.

Nugier and colleagues (2009) found that individuals expected an ingroup perpetrator to experience more moral emotions during deviant behaviour, which increased their chance to express social control (Nugier et al., 2009). The effects of social controlling behaviour from an ingroup member towards a perpetrator of social norms have never been directly tested. Although, there is evidence that individuals are better at persuading other ingroup members verbally of their views.

A study from McGarry and Handrick (1974) found that identification with the speaker has a positive influence on verbal persuasion (McGarry & Hendrick, 1974). When other individuals are perceived as an ingroup, they are perceived as more credible. Behaviour is also directly influenced by other ingroup members. Helping behaviour and cooperation generally increases when others are perceived as ingroup members (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005; Nier et al., 2001). Furthermore, Gino, Ayal, and Ariely (2009) found that observing unethical behaviour from ingroup members increases the likelihood of acting unethically. This does not apply when an outgroup member is observed in an unethical act (Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009).

When social controlling behaviour occurs, the receiver gets an indication of his counter-normative behaviour. Nugier and colleagues (2007) found that individuals who surpass social norms experience moral emotions based on the deviancy of their act; the more deviant they judge the act, the more moral emotions they experience (Nugier et al., 2007). With the notion that ingroup members are better at persuading a receiver of social control that a given behaviour is deviant, it is expected that verbal social control from an ingroup member, in contrast to an outgroup member, will evoke more moral emotions on the receiver through an increased sense of their own norm-deviancy (H₄).

Politeness on self-categorization

With the earlier notion that politeness strategies are often based on stressing a shared ingroup, an overall increase of ingroup feelings due to politeness strategies is expected. However, the black sheep effects states that ingroup members are judged more extreme in both favourable and unfavourable manners (Marques, Yzerbyt, & Leyens, 1988). Thus, the expected increase of ingroup feelings due to politeness is likely to increase more when an ingroup member expresses social control, in contrast to an outgroup member, but possible negative effects from non-politeness on ingroup feelings are also expected to increase when an ingroup member expresses social control, in contrast to an outgroup member (H₅).

Pilot study I

The first pilot study was designed to investigate the effects of self-categorization by wearing different clothing to inhibit or facilitate ingroup feelings.

Participants

49 Dutch-speaking students from the University of Twente were approached to participate in this pilot study, and 40 students (16 male and 24 female) agreed to fill out the questionnaire.

The mean age of the participants was 22.50 ($SD = 2.22$).

Design

This pilot study was executed in a canteen on the university campus. Participants were exposed to one of the conditions in the 2 (Sweater: University versus Grey) x 2 (Work clothing: Present versus Absent) design. A sweater from the University of Twente was used to represent the ingroup condition and a grey sweater was used to represent the neutral condition. The presence of a reflecting jacket and work-shoes was used to represent the outgroup condition, and the absence of this additional clothing represented the neutral condition. The degree of ingroup feelings was measured on the basis of the IOS (Inclusion of Other in Self) scale, in which the participants can choose between different visual representations of the self in contrast with the other. Schubert and Otten (2002) used a successfully adapted IOS scale to assess ingroup feelings between groups. This scale was adapted and translated to fit this study (Schubert & Otten, 2002). The stereotype content model was used to assess the warmth and competence of the experimenter. An successful abbreviated questionnaire regarding warmth and competence was translated and adapted to fit the context of this study (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). For the full questionnaire used in this pilot study, see appendix I.

Procedure

During lunchbreaks, between 11 AM and 16 PM, Dutch-speaking students who were unfamiliar with the experimenter were approached to take part in this study. During this study, the experimenter wore clothing from the sweater conditions and the work clothing conditions. First the experimenter asked the following question translated to: “*excuse me, can anyone of you tell me what time it is?*”. After one of the students told the time, the following question was asked: “*I have another question, would you participate in a short questionnaire consisting of nine closed questions?*”. Finally, the students who chose to participate filled out the questionnaire.

Results and discussion

This pilot study was mainly conducted to check if the different manipulations affected the degree of ingroup feelings towards the experimenter. With ingroup feelings towards the experimenter as the dependent variable and the sweater conditions and work clothing conditions as factors, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that the work clothing conditions affected the degree of ingroup feelings, $F(1, 38) = 17.64, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .33$. The presence of work clothing evoked less ingroup feelings than the absence of work clothing, ($M = 1.20, SD = 0.41$ versus $M = 1.90, SD = 0.64$). This effect was not found for the sweater conditions, $F(1, 38) = 0.36, p = .552$, but a marginal interaction was found, $F(1, 38) = 3.24, p = .080$, partial $\eta^2 = .08$.

To further investigate this interaction effect, graphically shown in figure 1, planned comparisons were conducted. In the university sweater condition, the absence of work clothing evoked significant more ingroup feelings than the presence of work clothing ($M = 1.10, SD = 0.32$ versus $M = 2.10, SD = 0.57$), $F(1, 36) = 18.00, p < .001$. However, in the grey sweater condition, no significant difference was found between the work clothing conditions, $F(1, 36) = 2.88, p = .098$.

These results show that the presence of work clothing mainly affected the university sweater condition, but not the grey sweater condition. A descriptive overview of these results can be found in table 1.

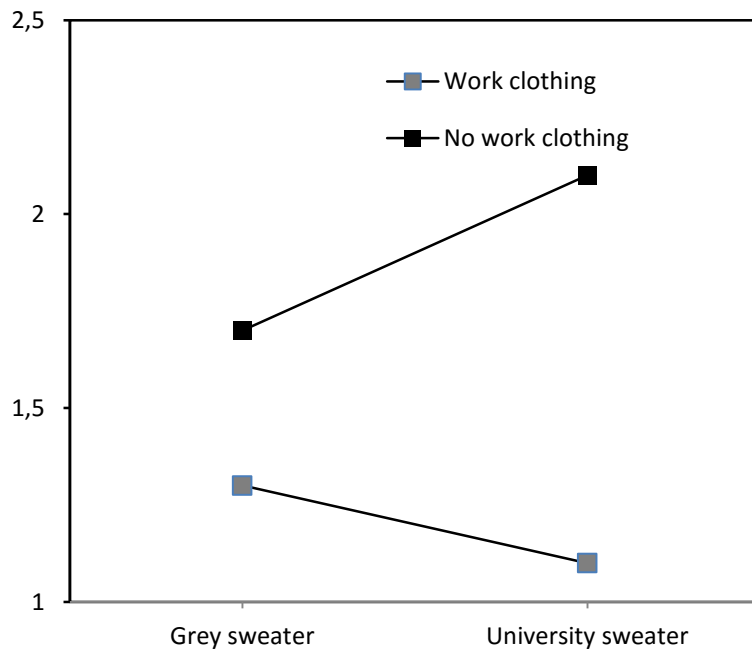


Figure 1 Interaction effect of the experimental conditions ($N=40$) on the degree of ingroup feelings (1-7)

Table 1 results of the first pilot study per condition ($N=40$), based on the degree of ingroup feelings towards the experimenter (ranging from 1 through 7)

Sweater	Work clothing					
	Present			Absent		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Grey	10	1.30	0.48	10	1.70	0.67
University of Twente	10	1.10	0.32	10	2.10	0.57

To check for effects from the manipulations on the judged degree of warmth and competence of the experimenter, several two-way ANOVAs were conducted with warmth and competence from the stereotype content model separately as a dependent variable and the sweater conditions and work clothing conditions as factors.

The sweater conditions did not affect judgements of the participants regarding the warmth of the experimenter, $F(1, 38) = 0.51$ $p = .497$, nor did the work clothing conditions, $F(1, 38) = 1.15$ $p = 2.19$, with no interaction found, $F(1, 38) = 0.51$ $p = .497$. Additionally, the sweater conditions did not affect judgements of the participant regarding the competence of the experimenter, $F(1, 38) = 1.52$, $p = .226$, nor did the work clothing conditions, $F(1, 38) = 1.52$, $p = .226$, with no interaction found $F(1, 38) = 1.52$, $p = .226$.

The main goal of this pilot study was to determine whether the manipulations would succeed in affecting ingroup feelings. This pilot study found that the presence of work clothing in a study-like context evoked less ingroup feelings than the absence of work clothing. This is consistent with the expectations, because work clothing represents an outgroup for “students”.

No significant results were found with regard to the stereotype content model. A possible explanation might be found in the low means of ingroup feelings in general. The results might differ when participants experienced more ingroup feelings towards the experimenter. The finding that the presence of work clothing reduced ingroup feelings was expected. However, the sweater conditions did not affect ingroup feelings. A possible explanation might be that the presence of work clothing is an overarching manipulation and represents an outgroup for students in itself, regardless of the sweater.

On the basis of this pilot study, a University of Twente sweater versus a grey sweater with work clothing are deemed as the most useful self-categorization manipulation for the purpose of the main study.

Pilot study II

Pilot study II was designed to investigate the effectiveness of politeness strategies within social control.

Participants

All participants were approached through social networking sites. From this pool, 56 Dutch speaking participants (35 male, 21 female) agreed to fill out the online questionnaire. The average age of the participants was 28.82 with a standard deviation of 8.68.

Design

In this pilot study, four manipulations were tested through a 2 (Negative Politeness: Present versus Absent) x 2 (Positive Politeness: Present versus Absent) design. To determine the effects of each manipulation, participants were asked to what degree they perceived politeness.

Additional questions were constructed to differentiate between positive and negative politeness. Participants estimated the degree of inappropriateness the social controller judged their fictional behaviour to be and the degree of restrictiveness that the social control entailed. Furthermore, questions regarding the legitimacy of the social control and participants' own judgement on the degree of deviancy of their fictional behaviour were asked to investigate the effects of different kinds of politeness.

Procedure

All participants received the following case in Dutch, before they filled out the questionnaire. The Dutch version of this case can be found in appendix II:

“You just bought lunch at a lunch & dinner room and are looking for a place to eat. In the back you notice an empty table. However, next to this table there is a sign that says; “This table is exclusively reserved for dinner guests”. The lunch and dinner

room is quite full and dinner is yet to be served, so you decide to eat your sandwich at this table anyway. After a few minutes a man turns around from the table next to you and says “Hello, it is not allowed to lunch at this table. Could you sit at another table? [with possible additions of negative politeness and/or positive politeness]”.

In the conditions with negative politeness present, the techniques ‘minimizing’, ‘stating the request as a general rule’ and ‘apologizing’ were used to minimize the perceived restriction for the receiver of social control. In these conditions the man stated “Sorry to disturb you, but according to the rules it is not allowed to eat lunch at this table. Could you maybe sit at another table?”.

In the conditions with positive politeness present, a reason was added to justify the social control and show concern for the positive face needs of the receiver. In these conditions the man stated “Hello, it is not allowed to lunch at this table. These tables are exclusively for people that want to dine, so they can sit at a clean table. Could you sit at another table?”. After reading the case, participants filled out the questionnaire

Results and discussion

The main goal of this pilot study was to investigate if the different conditions affected the degree of perceived politeness. With overall judgement of politeness as the dependent variable and the negative politeness conditions and positive politeness conditions as factors, a two-way ANOVA found no effect of the negative politeness conditions, $F(1, 55) = 0.86, p = .358$, neither of the positive politeness conditions, $F(1, 55) = 1.94, p = .169$, nor of an interaction, $F(1, 55) = 0.67, p = 0.67, p = .417$.

However, an independent t-test revealed a marginal significant difference between the condition with both negative and positive politeness versus the condition with the absence of negative and positive politeness, $t(27) = 1.89, p = .069$. Social controlling behaviour with positive and negative politeness strategies was judged as more polite ($M = 2.93, SD = 0.80$)

than social controlling behaviour with no politeness strategies ($M = 2.36$, $SD = 0.84$). A descriptive overview of this pilot study, regarding the degree of perceived politeness can be found in Table 2.

Table 2 results of the second pilot study per condition ($N=56$), based on the degree of perceived politeness (ranging from 1 through 5)

Positive politeness	Negative politeness					
	Present			Absent		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Present	15	2.93	0.80	14	2.50	1.09
Absent	13	2.38	0.96	14	2.36	0.84

To check for additional effects of the manipulations, several two-way ANOVAs were conducted with all the interdependent variables separately as the dependant variable and the positive politeness conditions and the negative politeness conditions as factors.

For all interdependent variables, except legitimacy, no main effects or interaction effects were found of the negative politeness conditions and the positive politeness conditions. For legitimacy, no main effects were found of the negative politeness conditions, $F(1, 52) = 0.91$, $p = .344$, nor of the positive politeness conditions, $F(1, 52) = 0.08$, $p = .785$, but an interaction was found between both conditions, $F(1, 52) = 7.06$, $p = .010$, partial $\eta^2 = .12$.

To further investigate this interaction effect, planned comparisons were conducted. In the conditions with the absence of negative politeness, no significant difference was found between the positive politeness conditions on the degree of legitimacy, $F(1, 52) = 2.84$, $p = .098$. In the conditions with the presence of negative politeness, the presence of positive

politeness evoked significant more feelings of legitimacy than the absence of positive politeness ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 0.76$ versus $M = 2.39$, $SD = 0.65$), $F = 4.29$, $p = .043$. Positive politeness strategies within social control seem to increase feelings of legitimacy, but only in the presence of negative politeness.

The main reason for this pilot test was to check the effects from the politeness manipulations on perceived politeness. The results showed that the absence of politeness strategies within social control was perceived as less polite than the presence of both negative and positive politeness strategies within social control. For the main purpose of this study, the effects of the manipulations were successful.

Social control was perceived as more legitimate when both negative and positive politeness strategies were present, in contrast to the presence of only negative politeness strategies. These results might be explained by some side effects from negative politeness. Baxter (1984) argues that positive politeness is a precondition for negative politeness to be perceived as polite and that negative politeness strategies in the absence of positive politeness strategies can be perceived as an aggravating face threat (Baxter, 1984 in Jansen & Janssen, 2010). It might be the case that negative politeness strategies caused an aggravating face threat when they were not accompanied by positive politeness strategies, which negatively affected the perceived legitimacy of the social control.

For the main purpose of this study, the results of this pilot study showed successful effects of the manipulations on the perceived politeness during social control. For the main study, social control with no politeness strategies and social control with both positive and negative politeness strategies will be used to differentiate between non-polite and polite social control.

Main study

Participants

138 Dutch speaking individuals were approached in the university canteen to participate in this study. 121 participants (87.7%) agreed to fill out the questionnaire. Three participants were not included in the analysis because of familiarity with the experimenter, which left 118 (48 male, 70 female) participants for analysis of the questionnaires. The mean age of these participants was 20.61 with a standard deviation of 2.39.

Design

This experimental field-study had a 2 (Self-categorization: Ingroup versus Outgroup) x 2 (Politeness strategies: Polite versus Non-polite) design. Based on pilot study I, the ingroup-outgroup manipulation was executed by letting the experimenter wear either a sweater from the University of Twente (ingroup) or a plain sweater in combination with a reflecting jacket and work shoes (outgroup). The politeness manipulations were carried out based on pilot study II. In the non-polite condition, social control was expressed without politeness strategies and in the polite condition, social control was expressed with both positive and negative politeness strategies.

The questionnaire used in this study was an integration of both pilot study questionnaires. However, a Spearman's rank-order correlation test did not result in a sufficient validity for the item scores with regard to the stereotype content model. A significant weak correlation was found for the item scores on confidence and competence, $r_s(115) = .34, p < .001$, which represented the confidence construct from the stereotype content model, and a marginal significant very weak correlation was found for the item scores on warmth and sincerity, $r_s(116) = .18, p = .054$, which represented the warmth construct from the stereotype content model.

Although both inter-item correlations were (marginally) significant, the strength of the

correlation was weak at best. For the further analyses, the results for the individual item scores on warmth and competence were used for further analyses. The individual item scores for confidence and sincerity were dismissed for further analysis.

To measure the dependent variables of this study, four additional questions were added to the questionnaire. Two questions each, regarding moral emotions and angry emotions were extracted, translated and adjusted from the questionnaire of the study of Nugier and colleagues (2007), which resulted in a sufficient reliability for each construct (Nugier et al., 2007).

Spearman's rank-order correlations found consistent results. A significant moderate correlation was found for the degree of shame and guilt, $r_s(117) = .58, p < .001$, which represented the moral emotions in this study. Furthermore, a significant moderate correlation was found for the degree of anger and indignation, $r_s(118) = .44, p < .001$, which represented the angry emotions in this study.

To prevent familiarity with the experimenter during the main study, the experiment took place in different campus canteens than the campus canteen that was used for pilot study I. The full questionnaire from the main study can be found in appendix III.

Procedure

The experiment took place on the campus of the University of Twente. This area was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, a university campus provides a natural de-individualized setting in which ingroup manipulation is easier to facilitate on the basis of a salient shared student identity. Secondly, in the campus canteens students eat their lunch. After finishing lunch most students, but not all, clear their table afterwards. This provided an opportunity for the expression of preventive social control towards students to clean their table afterwards.

In this experiment, subjects were exposed to the polite versus non-polite condition in combination with the ingroup versus outgroup condition. In the ingroup condition, the

experimenter wore a sweater from the University of Twente to evoke ingroup feelings. In the outgroup condition, the experimenter wore work clothing (work shoes and a reflecting jacket), to evoke outgroup feelings.

In the polite condition, subjects were asked to clean their table before they leave, with addition of positive and negative politeness strategies. The explicit statement used in Dutch could be translated to “Hello, sorry to disturb you, but according to the canteen these tables are often left behind littered, which is not pleasant for students or guest that want to sit at this table hereafter. Could you maybe clean this table when you leave?”. This statement was chosen on the basis of pilot study II, where students rated a similar statement as the most polite. In the non-polite condition, the experimenter used no politeness strategies. The translated statement used was “Hello, these tables are often left behind littered. Could you clean this table when you leave?”.

After the social control was expressed, students were asked to participate in a quick questionnaire. The experimenter used the same questioning in all conditions: “This was part of a study about the behaviour of student in the canteen. Could you maybe fill out this short questionnaire? It consist of 16 closed questions and one participant is randomly selected to win a VVV voucher of €25”. After participants filled out the questionnaire, or when participants declined to fill out the questionnaire, they were debriefed about the experiment. A more detailed elaboration on the procedure and debriefing can be found in appendix IV.

Results

General cooperation

First, analyses were conducted to check if the manipulations directly affected the behaviour of the participants. This study measured angry emotions and moral emotions as antecedents for cooperation or opposition. However, these behaviours were also directly measured through the degree of agreeing to fill out the questionnaire.

A Pearson's Chi-square test was conducted check if agreeing to fill out the questionnaire was associated with the self-categorization conditions and the politeness conditions. A marginal significant relationship was found between the self-categorization conditions and the frequency of agreeing to fill out the questionnaire, $\chi^2 (1, N = 138) = 3.52$, $p = .061$, $V = .16$, but not for the politeness conditions, $\chi^2 (1, N = 138) = 1.72$, $p = .190$. Participants were more willing to participate in this study after social control was expressed in the ingroup condition (92.9%) versus the outgroup condition (82.4%).

However, the politeness conditions did seem to moderate the effects of the self-categorization conditions on cooperation. The self-categorization conditions were only associated with agreeing to fill out the questionnaire in the non-polite condition, $\chi^2 (1, N = 77) = 4.14$, $p = .042$, $V = .23$, but not in the polite condition, $\chi^2 (1, N = 61) = 0.18$, $p = .668$, $V = .05$. Participants agreed less with filling out the questionnaire in the non-polite outgroup condition (75.7%) versus the non-polite ingroup condition (92.5%), but no difference was found for the polite outgroup condition (90.3%) versus the polite ingroup condition (93.3%). A descriptive overview of these results is found in table 3.

These results show that social control from an ingroup member is more associated with cooperative behaviour than social control from an outgroup member. Interestingly, politeness seems to moderate this effect; with politeness strategies, the self-categorization

conditions were not associated with cooperation, but with no politeness strategies, ingroup membership seems to evoke a higher the degree of cooperation.

Table 3 *crosstab for participants that agreed to fill out the questionnaire after expression of social control (N=138)*

Politeness strategies	Self-categorization		Total
	Ingroup	Outgroup	
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	
Present	28 (93.3)	28 (90.3)	56 (91.8)
Absent	37 (92.5)	28 (75.7)	65 (84.4)
Total	65 (92.9)	56 (82.4)	121 (87.7)

Politeness strategies and self-categorization on experienced politeness

The goal of politeness strategies is generally to enhance the perceived politeness within a message. Pilot study II revealed that social control with politeness strategies evoked more perceived politeness than social control without politeness strategies. Furthermore, hypothesis 3 stated that social control from an ingroup member, in contrast to an outgroup member, will be perceived as more polite.

To investigate the effects from the politeness strategies and the self-categorization conditions on the perceived politeness in a field-study, a two-way ANOVA was conducted with perceived politeness as a dependent variable and the self-categorization conditions and politeness conditions as factors. No significant effect was found of the politeness conditions on the perceived politeness, $F(1, 117) = 2.61, p = .109$. Furthermore, no effect was found of the self-categorization conditions on the perceived politeness $F(1, 117) = 1.16, p = .283$, nor of an interaction, $F(1, 117) = 0.16, p = .691$.

These results reveal no evidence for hypothesis 3. Social control expressed in the ingroup condition did not evoke more perceived politeness than social control expressed in the outgroup condition. Furthermore, the politeness strategies did not have a significant effect on the degree of perceived politeness. However, participants did perceive more politeness in the politeness conditions ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.84$) than in the non-politeness conditions ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 1.02$). Cohen's effect size value ($d = .29$) suggest a small to medium effect of the politeness strategies on perceived politeness.

Self-categorization and politeness on ingroup feelings

Pilot study I revealed that university clothing evoked more ingroup feelings than work clothing within a university campus. Even though pilot study I did not have the inclusion of social control and politeness conditions, the overall results of this study are expected to be consistent with pilot study I. Furthermore, hypothesis 5 stated that polite social control from an ingroup member, in contrast to an outgroup member, will evoke more additional ingroup feelings, due to the black sheep effect.

With overall judgement of ingroup feelings as the dependent variable and the self-categorization conditions and politeness conditions as factors, a two-way ANOVA revealed no direct evidence that the separate politeness conditions and self-categorization conditions had an effect on the degree of ingroup feelings, $F(1, 117) = 0.04$, $p = .845$ and $F(1, 117) = 0.06$, $p = .800$. However, an interaction effect was found $F(1, 117) = 5.67$, $p = .017$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$. For a graphical overview of the interaction effect of the politeness conditions and the self-categorization conditions on ingroup feelings, see figure 2.

To further investigate this interaction effect, planned comparisons were conducted. In the non-polite condition, the ingroup condition evoked marginal significant more ingroup feelings than the outgroup condition ($M = 1.97$, $SD = 1.04$ versus $M = 1.57$, $SD = 0.57$), $F(1, 114) = 3.83$, $p = .053$. In the polite condition, no significant effect was found of the self-

categorization conditions on the degree of ingroup feelings, $F(1, 114) = 2.07, p = .153$.

These results show that politeness strategies can have a positive effect on ingroup feelings, but only when they are used by an outgroup member. When politeness strategies are used by an ingroup member, it does not seem to influence ingroup feelings. These findings, however interesting, are not consistent with hypothesis 5, which stated that politeness strategies used by ingroup members would further increase the degree of ingroup feelings, due to the black sheep effect.

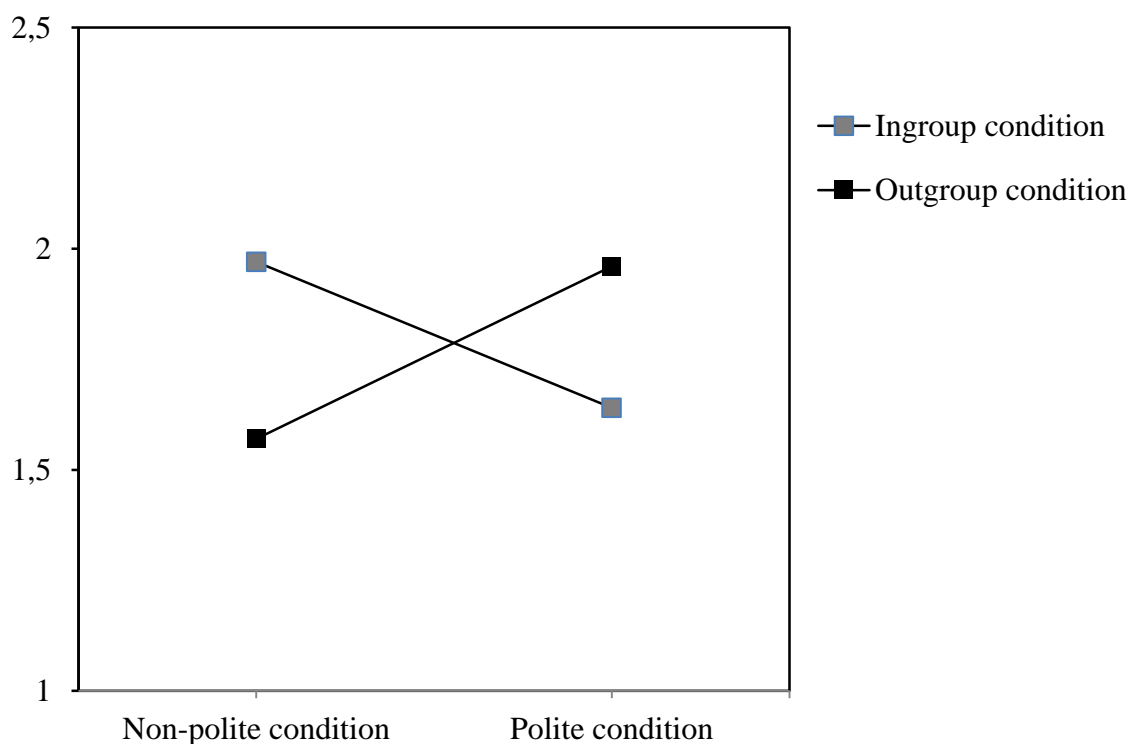


Figure 2 Interaction effect of the politeness conditions and the self-categorization conditions on the degree of ingroup feelings (1-7)

Correlations of dependent variables

The main goal of this study was to check the effects of politeness strategies and self-categorization on the moral and the angry emotions of the receiver of social control. To check for effects from possible intermediate variables on the moral or angry emotions, a bivariate Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted. An overview of the results is found in table 4.

Most notably, the results revealed a significant positive relation was found between

angry emotions and moral emotions, $r(117) = .31, p = .001$. These results show that angry and moral emotions are positively related to each other in the context of social control. Angry emotions and moral emotions seem to be affected by a general increase of emotions after social control.

Furthermore, a significant negative relation was found between perceived politeness and the degree of angry emotions, $r(118) = -.21, p = .026$, and a significant positive relation was found between the judged warmth of the social controller and the moral emotions of the receiver, $r(117) = .22, p = .015$. These results show that perceived politeness is a potential mediator for effects on angry emotions and judged warmth potentially mediates effects on moral emotions.

Table 4 Means (1-5, and for ingroup feelings 1-7) and bivariate correlations (r) for all dependent variables ($N = 118$)

Dependant variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Dependant variable						
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Ingroup feelings	1.81	0.83							
2. Politeness	3.47	0.95	-.04						
3. Warmth	3.42	0.73	-.02	.28**					
4. Competence	3.28	0.73	.20*	.45**	.28**				
5. Legitimacy	3.43	0.91	-.10	.24*	.21*	.30**			
6. Norm-deviancy	3.76	0.85	-.11	.06	.13	.15	.03		
7. Moral emotions	1.41	0.66	.01	-.00	.22*	.13	.12	-.05	
8. Angry emotions	1.51	0.69	.04	-.21*	-.08	-.13	-.12	-.04	.31**

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

Main effect of manipulations on angry emotions

Hypothesis 1 stated that polite social control, in contrast to non-polite social control, has a

direct negative effect on the degree of angry emotions of the receiver. To check if the different conditions affected the degree of angry emotions, a two-way ANOVA was conducted with angry emotions as the dependent variable and the self-categorization conditions and politeness conditions as factors.

In line with the theory and hypothesis 1, significantly less angry emotions were felt when social control was expressed in the polite condition ($M = 1.29$, $SD = 0.51$), in contrast to the non-polite condition ($M = 1.69$, $SD = 0.76$), $F(1, 117) = 9.74$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .08$. No effect was found of the self-categorization conditions, $F(1, 117) = 2.12$, $p = .147$, nor of an interaction, $F(1, 117) = 0.25$, $p = .618$. A linear regression analysis with angry emotions as the dependent variable and the politeness manipulation as the independent variable revealed that the politeness manipulations explained a significant proportion of the variance of angry emotions, $F(1, 116) = 10.60$, $p = .001$. Politeness strategies within social control negatively affected the degree of angry emotions on the receiver, $t(116) = -3.26$, $p = .001$, $\beta = -.29$.

These findings show direct proof for hypothesis 1. Polite social control evokes less angry emotions on the receiver than non-polite social control. Self-categorization does not seem to have an influence on the angry emotions of the receiver when social control is expressed.

Mediations on angry emotions

Earlier studies found that the degree of perceived legitimacy acts as an intermediate variable for the effect of politeness on angry emotions, as stated in hypothesis 2. Furthermore, the degree of perceived politeness was found to have a negative correlation with the degree of angry emotions. To check for mediation effects of perceived politeness and perceived legitimacy on angry emotions, linear regression analyses were conducted.

With the politeness conditions as the dependent variable and perceived politeness as an independent variable, no evidence was found that the politeness conditions explained a

significant proportion of variance on the perceived politeness, $F(1, 116) = 2.37, p = .127$.

Furthermore, with the politeness conditions as the dependent variable and perceived legitimacy as an independent variable, no evidence was found that the politeness conditions explained a significant proportion of variance on the perceived legitimacy, $F(1, 115) < 0.01, p = .964$.

Although a regression analysis revealed that the addition of politeness strategies had a significant negative effect on the angry emotions, no evidence for a mediation effect of perceived legitimacy or perceived politeness was found. In contrast to the literature and hypothesis 2, the degree of perceived legitimacy did not mediate the effect of politeness on angry emotions.

Effects from manipulations and mediations on moral emotions

Hypothesis 4 stated that social control from an ingroup member, in contrast to an outgroup member, evokes more moral emotions through an increased sense of norm-deviancy.

Furthermore, moral emotions was found to have a positive relation with the judged warmth of the experimenter.

To test the effects from the politeness conditions and the self-categorization conditions on the degree of moral emotions, a two-way ANOVA was conducted. With moral emotions as the dependent variable and the different experimental conditions as factors, a two-way ANOVA revealed that the politeness conditions and the self-categorization conditions did not have a significant effect on the moral emotions, $F(1, 116) = 0.10, p = .758$ and $F(1, 116) = 0.16, p = .686$, nor as an interaction, $F(1, 116) = 0.10, p = .758$.

These results reveal that the manipulations did not affect the degree of moral emotions. Furthermore, linear regressions were conducted with the self-categorization conditions as the independent variable and the degree of judged norm-deviancy and the judged warmth of the experimenter separately as dependent variables. No effect was found of

the self-categorization conditions on the judged norm-deviancy, $F(1, 116) = 0.08, p = .782$, nor on the judged warmth of the experimenter, $F(1, 116) < 0.01, p = .949$.

These results reveal no evidence that self-categorization affects the degree of moral emotions on the receiver during the expression of social control. With these results, hypothesis 4 was dismissed.

General discussion

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the effects of politeness and self-categorization during social controlling behaviour on the moral and angry emotions of the receiver. Although the State is responsible for the safety of citizens, passive behaviour during acts of norm-deviancy are often seen as undesirable. On the other hand, the state and its agencies are sceptical of intervening behaviour from citizens when they risk their own safety or the safety of other citizens (van der Land, 2014). Thus, a better understanding of the preceding conditions for effective interventions from citizens is of vital importance.

Pilot study I demonstrated that ingroup feelings can be evoked by differences in clothing. Additionally, the main study revealed that politeness strategies can also evoke ingroup feelings, but only when they were used by an outgroup member. A plausible explanation can be found in the politeness strategies that were used in this study. Ingroup members are able to use more politeness strategies, based on their shared ingroup or inclusiveness (Morand, 2000). In this study, more general politeness strategies were used, because the outgroup conditions limited the usage of inclusive politeness strategies. General politeness strategies from ingroup members are relatively formal and distant, whereas informal strategies are inherently more intimate (Hobbs, 2003). It is plausible these different informal strategies, which are generally easier to use for ingroup members, might enhance ingroup feelings for individuals that already feel connected to each other.

Although no effect was found of self-categorization on the emotions of participants, this study did find ingroup representation to directly influence cooperative behaviour after social control. In line with earlier studies, which found that ingroup presentation can increase helping behaviour (Levine et al., 2005) and cooperative behaviour (Nier et al., 2001), this study reveals that these effects are maintained in the context of social control. Furthermore, politeness strategies are also able to increase cooperative behaviour, but only for outgroup

members. As the previous section already mentioned, the usage of general politeness strategies might be insufficient for ingroup members to evoke additional cooperative behaviour.

Pilot study II and the main study revealed that politeness strategies within social control increase the degree of perceived politeness, but only marginally. Earlier studies already mentioned that the politeness strategies from the politeness theory (PT) lay a strong emphasis on linguistic strategies, but do not account for non-verbal communication or context (Culpeper et al., 2003; Viki, Abrams, & Winchester, 2013). Although this study does show that general politeness strategies can increase perceived politeness, it also underlines that no interaction occurs in a vacuum (Graham, 2007). As Culpeper (2010, p. 3236) argues: ‘(Im)politeness can be more inherent in a linguistic process or can be more determined by context, but neither the expression nor the context can guarantee an interpretation of (im)politeness’ (Culpeper, 2010).

General politeness strategies have a limited effect on the perceived politeness. However within social control, they directly inhibit angry emotions of the receiver. This finding is consistent with the findings of Nugier and colleagues (2007), who found that politeness within social control inhibits angry emotions of the receiver. The finding that politeness within social control inhibits angry emotions of the receiver might be explained through the justification of ‘giving reasons’ within social control. When social control is seen as just, it can negatively affect the angry emotions (Nugier et al., 2007; Tripp et al., 2007).

Even though no mediation effect was found of judged legitimacy, there was a significant correlation between legitimacy and perceived politeness. Additionally, pilot study II found an interaction effect of different types of politeness strategies on legitimacy. These results point out the politeness can affect perceived legitimacy, but it is unclear under which conditions this effect operates. It should be noted that no relation was found between the

perceived legitimacy of social control and the angry emotions of the receiver in this study.

No evidence was found that self-categorization or politeness within social control affected the moral emotions of the receiver. The most plausible explanation for this lack of effect is the usage of preventive social control in this study. At the time of social control, participants did not act counter-normative (yet). It was merely suggested that they were not going to clear their tables after they had finished their lunch. Nugier and colleagues (2007) found that the more deviant the act, the more moral emotions occur. With no deviant act present at the time of social control, the low overall moral emotions might be explained (Nugier et al., 2007).

Strengths and Limitations

A strength of this study is the experimental field design. No earlier work could be found that provided evidence for the effects of social control on the receiver in a real-life setting. Earlier studies usually used cases to measure the effects of social control (Fonseca, Brauer, Moisuc, & Nugier, 2013; Nugier et al., 2007), which are generally more vulnerable to presumptions from the participants about their behaviour. These naïve theories might differ to some extent from real-life situations.

Another strength of this study is the addition of self-categorization on the effects of social control. Even though self-categorization has been linked to intervening behaviour in numerous studies (Levine et al., 2002; Nugier et al., 2009; Turner & Reynolds, 2011), the effects of self-categorization on the receiver of social control has never been investigated before. This study provides clear evidence that self-categorization has the potential to prevent a conflict from escalating, through an increased amount of cooperative behaviour.

Furthermore, this study demonstrated that politeness and the self-categorization theory interact on various levels. Both are bounded by the dynamics of the context and, thus, to each other (Hatipoğlu, 2007; Hogg & Terry, 2000). This study demonstrated that politeness can

shape the degree of self-categorization and that self-categorization can shape the effects of politeness.

The Politeness Theory (PT) from Brown and Levinson (1987) is not without its limitations. This theory suffers from cultural boundaries (Vilkkil, 2006). In a collectivistic culture, the concept of a “face” is fundamentally different than in an individualistic culture (Matsumoto, 1988; Shahrokhi & Bidabadi, 2013). The effects of politeness in this study should be interpreted with great care and seem to apply mostly on western individualistic individuals. The usage of the TP, despite its limitations, does serve as a helpful theoretical framework for both fundamental and applied findings.

Practical implications

An important finding of this study is that, in a real-life setting, politeness within social control inhibits the angry emotions of the receiver. Furthermore, this study shows that general politeness strategies within social control from an outgroup member can increase cooperative behaviour. The execution of effective social control, then, is a trainable skill for workers in the public domain. The effects from politeness on angry emotions show that training in this domain can prevent potential conflicts and increase cooperation.

For citizens that are perceived as an ingroup member, general politeness strategies seem to be insufficient. General politeness strategies did not increase ingroup feelings or cooperation when an ingroup member expresses social control. On the other hand, the usage of politeness strategies within the expression of social control, whether it is used by an ingroup member or outgroup member, does reduce angry emotions on the receiver. Generally speaking, citizens might not necessary possess the tools for effective social control and can risk their own safety during an intervention, which is consistent with the concerns of the police and government agencies (van der Land, 2014). This study did not find that citizens are inherently more accepting towards receiving social control from another citizen, but they

do seem more cooperative towards other ingroup members. The relative low degree of ingroup feelings in this study seem comparable with the degree of ingroup feelings from one citizen towards another citizen (van Bommel, van Prooijen, Elffers, & Van Lange, 2012). Social control from a friend or acquaintance, with the usage of intimate politeness strategies might yield different and more robust findings.

Theoretical implications

With regard to the self-categorization theory, some interesting findings can be drawn from this study. Most interestingly, the ingroup versus outgroup condition differed from each other on the basis of ingroup feelings in pilot study I, but not in the main study. In both studies, the manipulations were equal to each other and in a similar context. However, participants were exposed to a request (telling the time) in pilot study I and were exposed to social control (cleaning up the table) in the main study. These results confirm the notion that self-categorization is more a dynamic than static process (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The finding that politeness strategies are able to enhance ingroup feelings further confirms this notion.

The low ingroup feelings that were felt in general is consistent with the notion that individuals are unlikely to share a common identity in public spaces (van Bommel et al., 2012). A university canteen represents a semi-public space. Although open to everybody, the majority of attendees are students from the University of Twente. This explains minor ingroup feelings during pilot study I, but also the fragility of these ingroup feelings found in the main study.

The PT from Brown and Levinson (1987) is found to deliver sufficient parameters for politeness within the context of this study. The differentiation between positive politeness and negative politeness was not directly found in this study. To achieve a greater amount of perceived politeness, it seems that a combination of both politeness types yields the greatest effect. Although the PT was found to be a useful framework for empirical research, the

limitation of only using linguistic strategies is a plausible explanation for the generally limited effect on the degree of perceived politeness in this study.

Future research

For future research, it would be interesting to investigate the effects of self-categorization in a minimal group design context. In this study, the degree of ingroup feelings was generally low. The famous study of ‘Robbers cave’ (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961) gives an example of major effects from self-categorization on the behaviour and emotions of individuals towards others. Later studies showed that ingroup feelings can be effectively evoked by minimal group design studies (Brewer, 1979; Nadler & Halabi, 2006), even with non-existing differences between groups (Liebkind, Henning-Lindblom, & Solheim, 2006). With minimal group designs as a tool for experimentation, a great deal can be learned about the effects of intervening behaviour from close acquaintances or friends on a perpetrator of norms. Literature suggest that an increased amount of ingroup feelings towards a social controller can persuade a perpetrator of social norms that his behaviour is more deviant (Gino et al., 2009; McGarry & Hendrick, 1974), which is found to increase moral emotions (Nugier et al., 2007). Additionally, an increased amount of cooperative behaviour from the receiver of social control would be expected (Levine et al., 2005; Nier et al., 2001).

Another interesting subject for research in a practical sense, is the inclusion of authority. The famous Milgram experiment revealed that individuals can be greatly influenced by authority (Milgram, 1963). Workers in the public domain, such as polite officers or security guards, generally possess a certain type of authority. It would be interesting to include the effect of low authority versus high authority in similar studies to further investigate the different effects from citizen intervention versus professional intervention.

Conclusion

This study provides the first evidence for the effects of self-categorization and politeness within social control on the receiver in a field-study. This study demonstrates that politeness within social control inhibits the angry emotions of the receiver and can evoke cooperative behaviour under certain conditions. Furthermore ingroup representation generally leads to more cooperative behaviour. Lastly, this study demonstrates that there is no such thing as the ‘right expression’ or the ‘wrong sender’ in social controlling behaviour. Whether the sender is ‘right’ seems to partially depend on expression, and vice versa.

Reverences

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Appendix I: Pilot study I questionnaire

Bedankt voor het deelnemen aan deze vragenlijst. Beantwoord de volgende vragen in door de juiste cirkels in te vullen. Bij vragen kunt opheldering vragen bij de persoon die om de tijd vroeg. De resultaten van deze vragenlijst zullen anoniem worden verwerkt.

1: Wat is uw geslacht?

- ☐ Man
- ☐ Vrouw

2: Wat is uw leeftijd

.....

3: Studeert u aan de Universiteit van Twente?

- ☐ Ja
- ☐ Nee [Beschrijf kort uw werk/studie situatie]

.....

.....

.....

4: Heeft u de persoon die om de tijd vroeg eerder gezien?

- ☐ Ja [Beschrijf kort uw relatie met de persoon die om de tijd vroeg]

.....

.....

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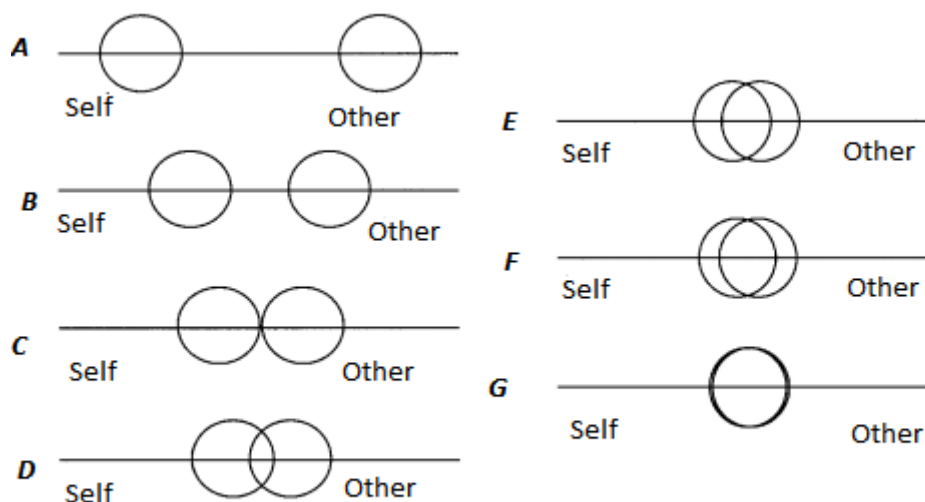
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- ☐ Nee

Probeer de volgende vraag te beantwoorden met betrekking tot uw gevoel tegenover de persoon die om de tijd vroeg voordat u werd gevraagd om de vragenlijst in te vullen.

5: Omcirkel de letter die het beste uw relatie weergeeft met de persoon die om de tijd vroeg? (Self = u, Other = persoon die om te tijd vroeg)



Vul de volgende vragen in over uw verwachtingen van de persoon die om de tijd vroeg voordat u werd gevraagd om de vragenlijst in te vullen.

	Helemaal niet	Enigszins	Gematigd	Erg	Extreem
6: Hoe competent beoordeelt u de persoon die om de tijd vroeg?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7: Hoe warm beoordeelt u de persoon die om de tijd vroeg?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8: Hoe oprecht beoordeelt u de persoon die om de tijd vroeg?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9: Hoe zelfverzekerd beoordeelt u de persoon die om de tijd vroeg?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix II: Case pilot study II

All conditions:

Bedankt voor het meewerken aan deze pilotstudie!

Deze pilotstudie is een onderdeel van mijn onderzoek over de effecten van sociale controle in verschillende omstandigheden. Na enkele algemene vragen volgt een korte casus. Hierna volgen nog 5 vragen die op basis van de casus. Het invullen van deze pilotstudie zal ongeveer 2 minuten in beslag nemen. De resultaten van dit onderzoek zullen anoniem worden verwerkt.

Lees de onderstaande casus door.

Je hebt net lunch gehaald in een lunch- & dinertent en zoekt een plekje om dit op te eten. Achterin zie je een tafel vrij. Echter, naast deze tafel staat een bordje met de tekst: “Deze tafel is uitsluitend gereserveerd voor dinergasten”. De lunch & dinertent is verder erg vol en er wordt nog geen diner opgediend, dus besluit je het broodje alsnog op te eten aan deze tafel. Na enkele minuten draait een man zich om vanuit de tafel naast je en zegt “[Conditie A, Conditie B, Conditie C, Conditie D]”

Condition A

“Hallo, er mag niet geluncht worden aan deze tafel. Wil je een andere tafel gebruiken?”

Condition B

Hallo, er mag niet geluncht worden aan deze tafel. Deze plekken zijn alleen voor personen die willen dineren, zodat ze aan een schone tafel kunnen zitten. Wil je een andere tafel gebruiken?”

Condition C

“Sorry dat ik stoor, maar volgens de regels mag er niet geluncht worden aan deze tafel. Zou je misschien aan een andere tafel willen gebruiken?”

Condition D

“Sorry dat ik stoor, maar volgens de regels mag er niet geluncht worden aan deze tafel. De plekken in de kantine zijn alleen voor personen die willen dineren, zodat ze aan een schone tafel kunnen zitten. Zou je misschien aan een andere tafel willen gebruiken?”

Appendix III: main study questionnaire

Toestemmingsverklaringsformulier

Ik stem geheel vrijwillig in met deelname aan dit onderzoek. Ik behoud daarbij het recht deze instemming weer in te trekken zonder dat ik daarvoor een reden hoeft op te geven. Ik besef dat ik op elk moment mag stoppen met het onderzoek. Als mijn onderzoeksresultaten worden gebruikt in wetenschappelijke publicaties, of op een andere manier openbaar worden gemaakt, dan zal dit volledig geanonimiseerd gebeuren. Mijn persoonsgegevens worden niet door derden ingezien zonder mijn uitdrukkelijke toestemming.

Als ik meer informatie wil, nu of in de toekomst, dan kan ik me wenden tot B. Beltman, door te mailen (b.beltman@student.utwente.nl) of via telefoon (0615044014).

Voor eventuele klachten over dit onderzoek kan ik me wenden tot Dr. Ir. P. W. de Vries, lid van de Commissie Ethiek namens de vakgroep PCRS (Psychology of Conflict, Risk and Safety). Dit kan via het mailadres: p.w.devries@utwente.nl.

- ik begrijp de bovenstaande tekst en ga akkoord met deelname aan het onderzoek

Datum

Handtekening

Vragenlijst:

Beantwoord de volgende vragen door de juiste cirkels in te vullen. Vraag bij onduidelijkheden opheldering bij de vragenlijstafnemer. De resultaten van deze vragenlijst worden anoniem verwerkt.

1: Wat is je geslacht?

- ☐ Man
- ☐ Vrouw

2: Wat is je leeftijd in jaren?

.....

3: Studeer je aan de Universiteit van Twente?

- ☐ Ja
- ☐ Nee [Beschrijf kort uw werk/studie situatie]

.....

4: Heb je de vragenlijstafnemer eerder gezien?

- ☐ Ja [Beschrijf kort je relatie met de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende].....

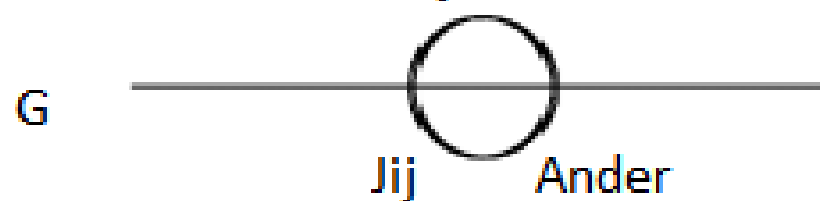
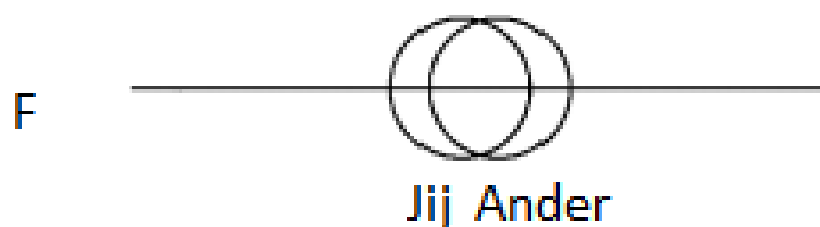
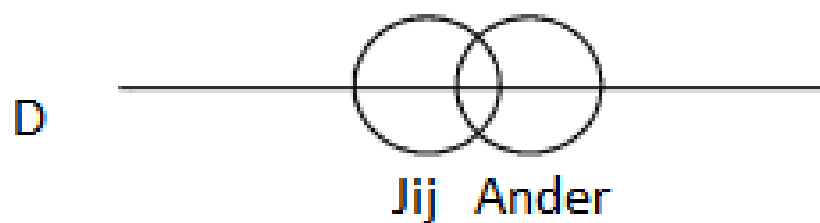
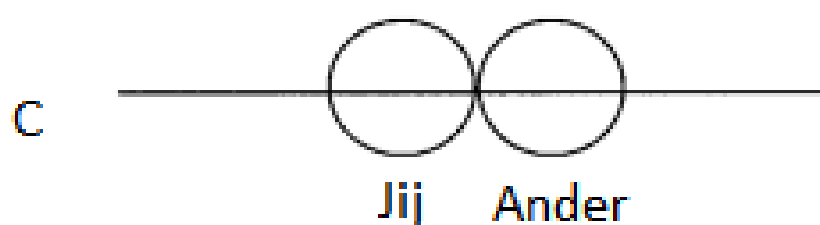
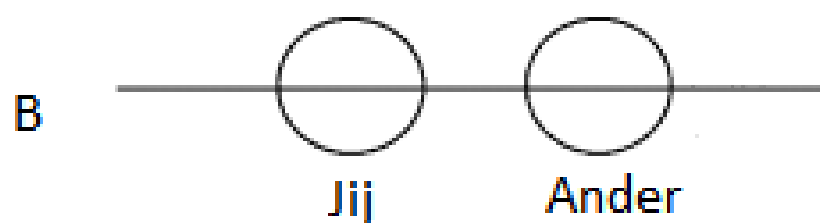
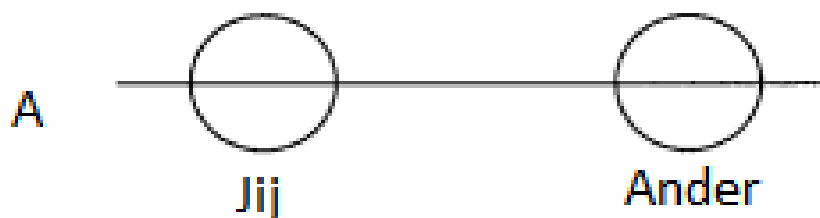
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.....

- ☐ Nee

Probeer de volgende vraag te beantwoorden met betrekking tot je gevoel tegenover vragenlijstafnemer voordat je werd gevraagd om de vragenlijst in te vullen.

5: Omcirkel de letter die je relatie met de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende het beste weergeeft



Beantwoord de volgende vragen over je verwachtingen, gedachten en gevoelens voordat je werd gevraagd om deze vragenlijst in te vullen.

	Helemaal niet	Enigszins	Matig	Erg	Extreem
6: Hoe competent beoordeelde je de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7: Hoe warm beoordeelde je de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8: Hoe oprecht beoordeelde je de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9: Hoe zelfverzekerd beoordeelde je de persoon die sociale controle uitoefende?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10: In hoeverre beoordeelde je de sociale controle als legitiem?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11: In hoeverre ervaarde je schaamte na de sociale controle?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12: In hoeverre ervaarde je boosheid na de sociale controle?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13: In hoeverre ervaarde je schuldgevoelens na de sociale controle?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14: In hoeverre ervaarde je verontwaardiging na de sociale controle?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15: In hoeverre ervaarde je de sociale controle als beleefd?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16: In hoeverre beoordeel je het achterlaten van rommel aan een tafel als normoverschrijdend?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Afsluiting

Dit experiment was onderdeel van een studie over de (de)escalerende werking van sociale controle. Eerdere studies hebben gevonden dat sociale controle zowel escalerend als de-escalerend kan werken. Als mensen het gevoel hebben dat iemand ze op een beleefde manier aanspreekt zullen ze minder snel op een boze manier reageren. Ditzelfde geldt voor de mate waarin een “wij-gevoel” wordt ervaren tussen een persoon die sociale controle uitoefent en een persoon die sociale controle ontvangt. De verwachting is dat bij een “wij-gevoel”, er meer morele emoties (schuld, schaamte) en minder boze emoties worden ervaren. Tevens wordt verwacht dat de mate van beleefdheid een versterkend invloed heeft op het “wij-gevoel”.

Hoe is het getest?

Dit experiment heeft vier verschillende condities: De onderzoeker heeft ingroup kleding (Universiteit van Twente kleding) aan voor het “wij-gevoel” of outgroup kleding (Neutrale trui en werkhesje) aan. In beide condities kan er sprake zijn van extra beleefdheid in het verzoek (zoals het geven van redenen), tegenover geen extra beleefdheid in het verzoek.

Op basis van 1 van deze condities heb je de vragen ingevuld.

Hypotheses

Kortweg wordt er verwacht dat de mate van “wij-gevoel” de morele emoties versterkt en de boze emoties vermindert. Daarnaast wordt verwacht dat er interactie plaatsvindt tussen het “wij-gevoel” en de mate waarin sociale controle als beleefd wordt ervaren.

Meer weten?

Voor vragen op opmerkingen kan je contact opnemen met de onderzoeker (Bram Beltman). Dit kan via telefoon (0615044014) of via mail (b.beltman@student.utwente.nl).

Prijs

Om kans te maken op de VVV-bon van €25, vul hieronder je e-mail adres in. Het e-mail adres zal enkel en alleen worden gebruikt om de winnaar van de bon op de hoogte te stellen. De prijswinnaar zal eind november een mail ontvangen om de bon in ontvangst te nemen.

- Ja, ik zou graag kans willen maken op een VVV-bon van €25

E-mail.....

Bedankt voor het deelnemen aan dit onderzoek!

Appendix IV: guidelines during main experiment

Het experiment twee weken lang op elke doordeweekse dag plaatsvinden. De kleren van de vragenlijstafnemen zullen om de dag verschillen tussen ingroup (Universiteit van Twente trui) en outgroup (Grijze trui met reflecterend hesje en werkschoenen). Op basis van een nummer randomisaties zal worden bepaald of de sociale controle met extra beleefdheid is (nr. 1) of zonder beleefdheid (nr. 2). Alleen studenten die aan het lunchen zijn aan een tafel binnen de kantine worden benaderd.

Specifieke handelingen tijdens experiment

"Hallo, deze tafels worden vaak rommelig achtergelaten. Willen jullie de tafel schoon achterlaten wanneer jullie weggaan?"

"Hallo, sorry dat ik stoer, maar volgens de kantine worden deze tafels vaak rommelig achtergelaten. Dit is niet fijn voor de volgende studenten of gasten die hierna aan de tafel willen zitten. Willen jullie de tafel misschien schoon achterlaten wanneer jullie weggaan?"

Reactie van student	Procedure experiment
A: Studenten accepteren verzoek en maken (verbale) aanstalten om rommel meteen op te ruimen.	"Bedankt. Dit was onderdeel van een onderzoek over het rommelgedrag van studenten in de kantine. Zouden jullie misschien een korte vragenlijst van 16 gesloten vragen willen invullen voor dit onderzoek? Het zal ongeveer drie minuten in beslag nemen en daarnaast maken jullie ook kans op een VVV-bon van €25"
B: Studenten geven een tegenreden, zoals "dat doen wij niet hoor".	"Dat begrijp ik. Dit was onderdeel van een onderzoek over rommelgedrag van studenten in de kantine. Zouden jullie misschien een korte vragenlijst van 16 gesloten vragen willen invullen voor dit onderzoek? Het zal ongeveer drie minuten in beslag nemen en daarnaast maken jullie ook kans op een VVV-bon van €25"
C: Studenten lijken verzoek niet te accepteren en worden zichtbaar boos	Experiment wordt afgebroken en student wordt verbaal debriefend.

Wanneer studenten in situatie **A** en **B** niet instemmen met deelname aan het onderzoek, wordt eerst een kwalitatieve vraag gesteld "Jullie hoeven dit niet te beantwoorden, maar mag ik misschien vragen waarom niet?". Ongeacht of de studenten antwoord geven op deze vraag, en ongeacht het antwoord op deze vraag, wordt de student verbaal debriefend.

Verbale afsluiting bij afbreken experiment.

"Sorry voor het storen, dit was eigenlijk een experiment over de effecten van sociale controle binnen verschillende omstandigheden. Er was voor mij geen reden om aan te nemen dat jullie de tafel niet schoon zouden achterlaten. Als jullie vragen of opmerkingen hebben over dit onderzoek kunnen jullie ze nu stellen of mailen naar b.beltman@student.utwente.nl. Ik heb er persoonlijk geen problemen mee dat jullie op deze plek zitten en eet smakelijk.