

UCLA

UCLA Previously Published Works

Title

Friends Shrink Foes

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0xn2r9xx>

Journal

Psychological Science, 24(5)

ISSN

0956-7976

Authors

Fessler, Daniel MT
Holbrook, Colin

Publication Date

2013-05-01

DOI

10.1177/0956797612461508

Peer reviewed

Friends Shrink Foes

The Presence of Comrades Decreases the Envisioned Physical Formidability of an Opponent

Daniel M.T. Fessler^{a,1} and Colin Holbrook^a

^a Department of Anthropology and Center for Behavior, Evolution, & Culture

University of California, Los Angeles

Los Angeles, CA 90095-1553 USA

Key words: violence; social cognition; evolutionary psychology

¹ To whom correspondence should be addressed:

Department of Anthropology
341 Haines Hall
University of California, Los Angeles
Los Angeles, CA 90095-1553 USA
Tel.: 310 794-9252
Fax: 310 206-7833
E-mail: dfessler@anthro.ucla.edu

Citation: Fessler, D.M.T. and Holbrook, C. (2013) Friends shrink foes: The presence of comrades decreases the envisioned physical formidability of an opponent. *Psychological Science* 24(5):797-802.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13

Abstract

In situations of potential violent conflict, deciding whether to fight, flee, or try to negotiate entails assessing many attributes contributing to the relative formidability of oneself and one's opponent. Summary representations can usefully facilitate such assessments of multiple factors. Because physical size and strength are both phylogenetically ancient and ontogenetically recurrent contributors to the outcome of violent conflicts, these attributes provide plausible conceptual dimensions that may be used by the mind to summarize the relative formidability of opposing parties. Because the presence of allies is a vital factor in determining victory, we hypothesized that men accompanied by male companions would therefore envision a solitary foe as physically smaller and less muscular than men who were alone. We document the predicted effect in two studies, one utilizing naturally occurring variation in the presence of male companions, and one in which we experimentally manipulate the presence of companions.

14 Sadly, humans are a violent species. While most of us live lives of relative peace, when
15 the possibility of violence rears its head, split-second decision making is called for, as one must
16 decide whether to fight, flee, or try to negotiate. To make this decision effectively, individuals
17 must rapidly assess the likelihood of victory or defeat, and the probable costs entailed therein.
18 This assessment requires keeping track of a large number of relevant variables, including the
19 armaments of the respective parties, their physical size, strength, age, sex, health, and so on.
20 Decision making that involves assessing many parameters can be facilitated through the use of a
21 summary representation. Because physical size and strength are phylogenetically ancient
22 determinants of the outcomes of violent conflicts – a pattern that is repeatedly reinforced during
23 ontogeny – these features constitute readily available dimensions for such a summary
24 representation. Fessler, Holbrook, and Snyder (2012) therefore proposed that, as each of a wide
25 variety of factors relevant to the outcome of a potential conflict is assessed, a representation of
26 the opponent is rendered larger or smaller, and more or less muscular. Note that the issue here is
27 not the accuracy of visual perception – indeed, we can expect natural selection to disfavor
28 diminution of perceptual accuracy in agonistic contexts, as the effectiveness of combat and
29 evasion hinges on precision in this regard. Rather, the claim is that size and strength are the
30 dimensions along which an internal representation of the opponent varies, allowing it to
31 summarize the contributions of diverse factors likely to influence the outcome. Hence,
32 participants' estimations of a potential foe's physical parameters are expected to most clearly
33 reveal the underlying representation when participants do not have access to unambiguous cues
34 of that individual's actual size and strength. Consonant with this thesis, Fessler, Holbrook, and
35 Snyder demonstrated that knowing that a man possesses a gun or a knife led participants to

36 increase their estimations of his physical size and muscularity; this parallels Duguid and
37 Goncalo's (2012) finding that manipulating participants' perceptions of their power over others
38 leads to both increased estimates of their own height and decreased estimates of another's height.

39 Coalitional aggression is common both across primate species (Crofoot & Wrangham,
40 2010) and across human societies, including both the contemporary West and small-scale
41 societies thought to resemble those of ancestral human populations (Kelly, 2000). This pattern is
42 underscored during childhood, as coalitions play a central role in bullying (Salmivalli, Huttunen,
43 & Lagerspetz, 1997). Given the deep phylogeny, cultural ubiquity, and experiential
44 pervasiveness of this factor, we can expect people to intuitively recognize that the presence of
45 allies is a determinant of the outcome of violent conflicts. Accordingly, this should figure
46 prominently in the decision-making process described above. Specifically, being in the presence
47 of allies should lead individuals to increase estimations of their own formidability relative to that
48 of a solitary prospective foe, and these changes should manifest as alterations in the envisioned
49 size and muscularity of the opponent, i.e., being in a group should make a solitary foe seem
50 physically smaller and less muscular. We tested this prediction using two on-the-street studies in
51 Santa Monica, California, one utilizing naturally occurring variation in the presence of
52 companions, the other employing experimental manipulation of this factor.

53 Our two studies share the same core design. Men are disproportionately responsible for
54 violence the world over (Daly & Wilson, 1988; Mesquida & Wiener, 1996), and both naturalistic
55 and experimental evidence indicates that men are likewise particularly attuned to the possibility
56 of coalitional aggression (for reviews, see Van Vugt, 2009; McDonald, Navarrete, & Van Vugt,
57 2012; see also Bugental & Beaulieu, 2009; Yuki & Yokota, 2009). Accordingly, while the

58 predicted effect of the presence of allies on estimations of the physical size and strength of a foe
59 should occur in both sexes, the effect should be more marked in men, hence we limited our
60 investigations to them. Likewise, because we expect the predicted effect to manifest most
61 unambiguously in contexts of potential violence, we selected as a stimulus a photograph of a
62 bearded, turbaned terrorist brandishing a gun in front of Arabic calligraphy (see Figure 1). In
63 light of differing views around the world regarding the United States' "war on terror," we
64 anticipated that Americans would be the most likely to conceptualize the depicted individual as a
65 foe, hence we limited our sample to Americans. To avoid cuing coalitional concepts, participant
66 nationality was collected following participation, and data from non-Americans were discarded
67 prior to analysis. Our first study exploited natural variation in the presence of male companions,
68 individuals who could plausibly constitute potential allies should a violent altercation erupt.

69 Study 1

70 *Participants*

71 One hundred and seventy-seven adult men were recruited on public streets in exchange
72 for \$3 compensation. Twenty-eight participants who did not self-identify as American were
73 dropped, leaving a sample of 149 men (age 18-66, $M = 31.1$, $SD = 11.75$). The ethnicity of the
74 sample was 74.9% White, 7.9% Hispanic/Latin American, 5.7% Asian, 3.8% Black/African
75 American, and 7.7% other or mixed ethnicities. Fifty-six men were recruited while alone, and 93
76 were recruited while in a group. Group size ranged from 2 to 7 ($M = 3.34$, $SD = 1.17$).

77 *Materials and Procedure*

78 Participants were recruited either while walking alone or as members of predominantly or
79 exclusively male groups of two or more. Participants were informed that the study concerned the

80 ability to discern various types of information from visual imagery. Participants recruited from
81 groups were escorted 10-15 feet away from their companions to prevent distraction or
82 consultation.

83 Following several filler measures involving visual judgment, participants were asked to
84 estimate the height (in feet and inches), overall size, and muscularity (using 6-point arrays – see
85 Figure 1) of the target, depicted in a grey-scale image cropped to mask his bodily characteristics
86 (see Figure 1); the caption read, “This man is a convicted terrorist (whose photo was published in
87 newspapers). Can you estimate his physical traits?” Demographic items followed, including
88 self-reported height (to nearest half-inch).

89 Upon completion, participants were questioned for suspicion about the purpose of the
90 study. Although several speculated that the study might involve terrorist stereotypes, none
91 evinced suspicion that such stereotypes concerned physical attributes or were influenced by the
92 presence of allies.

93 *Results*

94 All analyses reported here are two-tailed, $\alpha = .05$. The prospective adversary’s
95 overall physical formidability was composited using standardized values of the estimated height,
96 overall size, and muscularity ($\alpha = .61$).¹ As predicted, a one-way ANOVA revealed that the
97 adversary’s mean estimated formidability was significantly greater among lone men ($M = .22$,
98 $SD = 0.86$) than among those in the vicinity of comrades ($M = -.14$, $SD = 0.64$), $F(1, 147) = 8.46$,
99 $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .06$. A follow-up MANOVA assessing the individual estimations of height, size,

¹ Although a score of at least .7 is generally considered necessary to establish statistical reliability, scores of .6 or higher are acceptable in exploratory studies such as this, particularly if the measure is comprised of few or notably non-redundant items (Nunnally, 1978; Robinson, Wrightsman, & Andrews, 1991).

100 and muscularity revealed a significant main effect of condition, $F(3, 145) = 3.30, p < .03, \eta^2$
101 $= .06$. The prospective adversary's mean estimated height in inches was significantly greater
102 among lone men ($M = 69.44, SD = 3.80$) than among those with comrades ($M = 67.85, SD =$
103 $3.54, p < .02, \eta^2 = .04$); estimated size was significantly greater among lone men ($M = 3.98, SD$
104 $= 1.04$) than among those with comrades ($M = 3.62, SD = 0.92, p < .03, \eta^2 = .03$); and estimated
105 muscularity was greater among lone men ($M = 2.16, SD = 1.07$) than among those with comrades
106 ($M = 1.83, SD = 0.78, p = .03, \eta^2 = .03$).

107 Examining potential additional influences on relative formidability, we tested whether
108 differences in the number of comrades present or participant height influenced estimated
109 composited formidability. There was no significant correlation between group size and
110 formidability estimate among those with comrades, $p > .5$, suggesting that the presence of one or
111 more comrades influenced formidability estimates equivalently. As predicted, participant height
112 (which did not differ between conditions, $p > .4$) negatively correlated with estimated
113 formidability, $r(142) = -.28, p < .01$. This correlation held for both lone men, $r(53) = -.27, p$
114 $= .05$, and those in the presence of comrades, $r(89) = -.27, p < .02$.²

115 Although consonant with our hypothesis that the presence of allies should reduce the
116 envisioned physical formidability of a prospective foe, the results of Study 1 are also consistent
117 with self-selection, as it is possible that men who assess themselves as more formidable (and
118 hence conceptualize a foe as smaller and weaker) are more likely to associate with comrades
119 than are men who assess themselves as less formidable. Arguing against such self-selection,
120 experimental results indicate that self-assessed superiority in a competitive context decreases

² Height data were missing for seven participants.

121 recruitment of allies (Benenson, Markovits, Thompson, & Wrangham, 2009). However, men's
122 endorsement of coercive tactics and their willingness to engage in aggression are both positively
123 correlated with their own muscular strength (reviewed in Sell, Hone, & Pound, 2012; see also
124 Archer & Thanzami, 2009; Price, Dunn, Hopkins, & Kang, 2012). Because allies enhance
125 coercive capabilities, strong men may therefore be more likely to travel with comrades; at the
126 same time, by virtue of their own strength, such men conceptualize a foe as less formidable
127 (Fessler, Holbrook, & Gervais, n.d.). Accordingly, in light of the possibility that the results of
128 Study 1 were due to self-selection, we conducted a second study in which participants were
129 recruited while walking with male companions, then randomly assigned to participate either
130 within visual contact and auditory range of their companions, or physically and visually removed
131 from their companions. In addition, to explore possible contributions of individual differences in
132 self-perceived vulnerability, we added a measure of the fear of crime. This measure indexes
133 perceived risk of victimization, yet minimizes demand characteristics by virtue of having a
134 divergent focus (crime, rather than terrorism) relative to the stimulus. Pilot studies suggested
135 that, in answering, participants likely consult their daily habits, hence the measure probably
136 captures perceived risk of victimization primarily as a trait, rather than a state.

137 Study 2

138 *Participants*

139 Seventy adult men were recruited while walking with a group on a public oceanfront
140 boardwalk in exchange for \$3 compensation. Ten participants who did not self-identify as
141 Americans, one who did not take the study seriously (rating the terrorist as three feet tall), and
142 one who was visibly intoxicated were dropped, leaving a sample of 58 men (age 18-64, $M =$

143 25.81, $SD = 9.11$). The ethnicity of the sample was 62.8% White, 15.1% Hispanic/Latin
144 American, 7.5% Asian, 3.8% Black/African American, and 10.8% other or mixed ethnicities.
145 Thirty-seven men completed the survey in the vicinity of their companions, while 21 were
146 isolated from their companions. Group size ranged from 2 to 9 ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.60$).

147 *Materials and Procedure*

148 Participants were recruited from predominantly or exclusively male groups of two or
149 more. A coin flip assigned participants to either the “together” condition or the “isolated”
150 condition. As in Study 1, participants in the together condition were led 10-15 feet away from
151 their companions. Participants in the isolated condition were led behind a tent barrier positioned
152 approximately 100 yards away, with the simple explanation that “the study takes place over
153 here.” The barrier blocked participants’ view of their companions; in addition, participants were
154 positioned facing away from their companions.

155 Study materials were identical to Study 1, with the addition of a measure of fear of crime.
156 Following Snyder et al. (2011), we employed a modified version of the British Fear of Local
157 Crime Survey (Crime Reduction Centre, 2000), which asks participants to rate their level of
158 concern about six types of victimization on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Not worried at all*, 7 =
159 *Very worried*).

160 Upon completion, participants were questioned for suspicion; as in Study 1, several
161 speculated that the study involved terrorist stereotypes, but none evinced suspicion that such
162 stereotypes related to physical attributes or were influenced by the presence of allies.

163 *Results*

164 The adversary's estimated physical formidability was again composited using
165 standardized values of the estimated height, size, and muscularity ($\alpha = .74$). As predicted, a one-
166 way ANOVA revealed that the adversary's estimated formidability was significantly greater
167 among men who were isolated ($M = .29, SD = 0.68$) than among those who participated in the
168 vicinity of comrades ($M = -.19, SD = 0.83$), $F(1, 56) = 5.07, p < .03, \eta^2 = .08$. A follow-up
169 MANOVA assessing the individual estimations of height, size, and muscularity revealed a
170 significant main effect of condition, $F(3, 54) = 2.77, p = .05, \eta^2 = .13$. The prospective
171 adversary's mean estimated height was greater among isolated men ($M = 69.10, SD = 2.64$) than
172 among those near companions ($M = 68.39, SD = 2.44$), but this difference was not significant, p
173 $= .25$; estimated size was significantly greater among men who were isolated ($M = 2.57, SD =$
174 1.12) than among those near companions ($M = 2.10, SD = 1.15$), $p < .01, \eta^2 = .14$; estimated
175 muscularity was also greater among isolated men ($M = 4.19, SD = 0.87$) than among those near
176 companions ($M = 3.36, SD = 1.10$), but this difference was not significant, $p = .11$.

177 We tested whether group size or participant height influenced estimated composited
178 formidability. As in Study 1, group size was not significantly correlated with estimated
179 composite formidability in the sample as a whole, $p > .4$, or within each condition, $ps > .3$. In
180 contrast to Study 1, participant height was not significantly correlated with estimated
181 formidability, $r(58) = -.11, p > .4$; the correlation was negative in the together condition, $r(37) =$
182 $-.26, p = .13$, but positive in the isolated condition, $r(21) = .18, p > .4$.

183 The six items measuring fear of crime were reliable ($\alpha = .91$). Fear of crime ratings did
184 not significantly differ between conditions, $p > .8$. As predicted, fear of crime positively
185 correlated with estimation of the adversary's formidability, $r(58) = .30, p < .03$. This was driven

186 by the participants in the isolated condition, $r(21) = .61, p < .01$; the correlation in the together
187 condition was not significant, $p > .2$. However, follow-up analyses revealed that comrade
188 proximity did not significantly moderate the effect of fear of crime on formidability estimation, p
189 $> .1$.

190 Discussion

191 Replicating the pattern of results found in Study 1, in Study 2, men who were within
192 visual and auditory proximity of their male friends estimated a prospective foe to be less
193 physically formidable than did men who were alone. Moreover, because all participants in Study
194 2 were recruited from groups of men walking together, and proximity to companions was then
195 manipulated experimentally, this pattern of results is not explicable in terms of any pre-existing
196 differences between the men in the two conditions. Fear of crime, employed as a proxy measure
197 of trait self-perceived vulnerability, influenced estimations of the foe, but only when men were
198 isolated from their companions. Although analysis revealed the latter effect to not be
199 significantly moderated by condition, this may be due to small sample size, hence future
200 investigations should explore whether the presence of allies is experienced as a sufficiently
201 strong determinant of the outcome of agonistic encounters as to swamp individual differences in
202 dispositional vulnerability.

203 Taken together, these findings indicate that the immediate presence of allies is an
204 important factor in men's estimations of the formidability of potential opponents. Our results
205 bolster the thesis that relative formidability, the product of a diverse assortment of features of
206 self and other, is conceptualized using the simple dimensions of physical size and muscularity,
207 and add to the growing literature exploring coalitional psychology. Our studies are subject to a

208 number of limitations, each of which suggests directions for future research. First, given that
209 men are more frequently involved in coalitional violence than are women, we expect the
210 presence of allies to affect representations of a prospective foe more strongly in men than in
211 women. However, we recruited only male participants, hence we have yet to test this prediction.
212 Second, we expect the presence of allies to exert this effect most clearly when the target
213 individual is an antagonist – it remains unexplored how allies influence conceptualizations of
214 neutral or friendly parties. Third, we employed participants' estimates of the target's physical
215 parameters as a means of revealing their internal representations of the target. Because we
216 expect visual perceptual accuracy to be unaffected by these representations, in order to prevent
217 accurate perceptions from swamping expressions of internal representations, we employed a
218 stimulus largely devoid of objective cues of size and strength. Future investigations might vary
219 the presence of such cues in order to gauge the relative contributions of perception and
220 representation to stated estimates. Lastly, although we only explored conceptualizations of a
221 prospective foe, and did not measure actual behavior, the thesis that such estimations reflect a
222 summary representation that plays a key role in decision making suggests that, at least for men,
223 the immediate presence of allies may enhance the propensity to aggress. Given the important
224 policy implications of this possibility in realms as diverse as violence prevention, policing, and
225 military science, the relationship between the immediate presence of allies and the decision to
226 engage in confrontation clearly merits further investigation.

227

228

Acknowledgements

229 This material is based upon work supported by the United States Air Force Office of Scientific
230 Research under Award No. FA9550-10-1-0511. We thank Jeff Snyder and Chris Laidig for
231 logistical assistance, Steven Gangestad and three anonymous reviewers for constructive
232 feedback, and our RAs for their hard work.

233

234 References

235 Aiken, L., & West, S. (1991). *Multiple regression*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

236 Archer, J., & Thanzami, V. (2009). The relation between mate value, entitlement, physical
237 aggression, size and strength among a sample of young Indian men. *Evolution and Human*
238 *Behavior*, 30, 315-321.

239 Benenson, J. F., Markovits, H., Thompson, M. E., & Wrangham, R. W. (2009). Strength
240 determines coalitional strategies in humans. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological*
241 *Sciences*, 276, 2589-2595.

242 Bugental, D. B., & Beaulieu, D. A. (2009). Sex differences in response to coalitional threat.
243 *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 30, 238-243.

244 Crofoot, M. C., & Wrangham, R. W. (2010). Intergroup aggression in primates and humans: The
245 case for a unified theory. In P. M. Kappeler & J. B. Silk (Eds.), *Mind the gap: Tracing the*
246 *origins of human universals* (pp. 171-195). New York: Springer Verlag.

247 Crime Reduction Centre (2000). British Fear of Local Crime survey. Retrieved May 1, 2005,
248 from <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/toolkits/fc0401.htm>.

249 Daly, M., & Wilson, M. (1988). *Homicide*. New York: A. de Gruyter.

- 250 Duguid, M. M., & Goncalo, J. A. (2012). Living large: The powerful overestimate their own
251 height. *Psychological Science*, *23*, 36-40.
- 252 Fessler, D. M. T., Holbrook, C., & Gervais, M. (n.d.). Physical strength influences perceptions of
253 prospective foes in two disparate cultures. Manuscript in preparation.
- 254 Fessler, D. M. T., Holbrook, C., & Snyder, J. K. (2012). Weapons make the man (larger):
255 Formidability is represented as size and strength in humans. *PloS ONE*, *7*, e32751.
- 256 Kelly, R. C. (2000). *Warless societies and the origin of war*. Ann Arbor: Univ of Michigan
257 Press.
- 258 Kirk, R. E. (1995). *Experimental design: Procedures for the behavioural sciences*. Pacific
259 Grove, CA: Cole Belmont.
- 260 McDonald, M. M., Navarrete, C. D., & Van Vugt, M. (2012). Evolution and the psychology of
261 intergroup conflict: the male warrior hypothesis. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal
262 Society B: Biological Sciences*, *367*, 670-679.
- 263 Mesquida, C. G., & Wiener, N. I. (1996). Human collective aggression: A behavioral ecology
264 perspective. *Ethology and Sociobiology*, *17*, 247-262.
- 265 Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- 266 Price, M. E., Dunn, J., Hopkins, S., & Kang, J. (2012). Anthropometric correlates of human
267 anger. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *33*, 174-181.
- 268 Robinson, J. P., Wrightsman, L. S., & Andrews, F. M. (Eds.). (1991). *Measures of personality
269 and social psychological attitudes*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- 270 Salmivalli, C., Huttunen, A., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1997). Peer networks and bullying in
271 schools. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *38*, 305-312.

- 272 Sell, A., Hone, L. S. E., & Pound, N. (2012). The importance of physical strength to human
273 males. *Human Nature*, *23*, 30-44.
- 274 Snyder, J. K., Fessler, D. M. T., Tiokhin, L., Frederick, D. A., Lee, S. W., & Navarrete, C. D.
275 (2011). Trade-offs in a dangerous world: Women's fear of crime predicts preferences for
276 aggressive and formidable mates. *Evolution & Human Behavior*, *32*, 127-137.
- 277 Van Vugt, M. (2009). Sex differences in intergroup competition, aggression, and warfare. *Annals*
278 *of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *1167*, 124-134.
- 279 Yuki, M., & Yokota, K. (2009). The primal warrior: Outgroup threat priming enhances
280 intergroup discrimination in men but not women. *Journal of Experimental Social*
281 *Psychology*, *45*, 271-274.
- 282
- 283

284 Figure caption

285 Figure 1. *Top*: Participants estimated the height, size, and muscularity of this man, described as a
286 “convicted terrorist” (the photo is of Ali Beheshti, convicted of firebombing the home of the
287 publisher of a novel about the Prophet Muhammad [Walker, 2009]).

288 *Center*: Array used by participants to estimate overall size.

289 *Bottom*: Array used by participants to estimate muscularity. Modified with permission from
290 Frederick & Peplau (2007).

291

292