

January 01, 2009

Contextualized personality assessment : an exploration of objective and subjective situation properties associated with behavioral consistency and situation specific behavior

Robert Griffo
Northeastern University

Recommended Citation

Griffo, Robert, "Contextualized personality assessment : an exploration of objective and subjective situation properties associated with behavioral consistency and situation specific behavior" (2009). *Psychology Dissertations*. Paper 12. <http://hdl.handle.net/2047/d20000049>

CONTEXTUALIZED PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT: AN EXPLORATION OF
OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE SITUATION PROPERTIES ASSOCIATED WITH
BEHAVIORAL CONSISTENCY AND SITUATION SPECIFIC BEHAVIOR

A dissertation presented

by

Robert Griffo

To

The Department of Psychology

In partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

In the field of

Psychology

Northeastern University

Boston, Massachusetts

August, 2009

CONTEXTUALIZED PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT: AN EXPLORATION OF
OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE SITUATION PROPERTIES ASSOCIATED WITH
BEHAVIORAL CONSISTENCY AND SITUATION SPECIFIC BEHAVIOR

by

Robert Griffo

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology
in the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences of
Northeastern University, August, 2009

ABSTRACT

Current social and personality psychology perspectives agree that behavior is determined by the interaction between characteristics of persons and situations. However, theoretical and empirical progress towards understanding what constitutes a “situation” and how behavior is systematically related to situation variables is limited (Funder, 2001; Funder, 2006; Hogan, 2005; Pervin, 1976; Roberts, 2007). To address this issue, the current research developed a contextualized personality assessment procedure to measure both objective and subjective properties of social situations, as well as social behavior manifested in those situations.

Over the course of three lab sessions, participants completed a battery of self-report measures of personality, and engaged in four videotaped dyadic social interactions with an opposite sex partner. These interactions differed on two objective properties: (a) on one occasion the participant’s partner was an acquaintance and on another occasion the participant’s partner was a stranger who was also a participant in the study, and (b) with each partner, participants engaged in an unstructured interaction in which they were instructed to talk freely with each other which was followed by a structured debate. After each interaction, participants rated their experience on a series of situation characteristics, affects, motives, and behaviors. Each participant’s videotaped behavior in each of the four lab interactions was rated by an independent team of three trained coders on 64 behavioral dimensions.

The validity of the contextualized personality assessment procedure was evaluated in two studies designed to replicate and extend previous research on the relationship between situation properties and social behavior. Study one examined the

relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency. Consistent with previous research by Furr and Funder (2004), the results of study one found that mean behavioral consistency was greater across situations that shared at least one objective property (i.e., same person or same task), compared to situations that did not share one of these properties. Ratings of subjective situation similarity were positively correlated with behavioral consistency for male participants but not for females, revealing a previously unreported gender difference. The relationship for females between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency was strongest for situations that differed by objective task type (talking vs. debating) and weakest for situations that differed by partner type (friend vs. stranger). In addition, the overall accuracy of females' self-reports were found to moderate the similarity/consistency relationship, with higher levels of accuracy associated with a stronger correlation between subjective situation similarity ratings and behavioral consistency. In contrast, the relationship for males between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency was direct and not moderated by accuracy or task type. Together, these results suggest that women's subjective situation ratings are more dependent than men's situation ratings on objective situation properties.

Study two examined the content of participants' subjective situation ratings and the correlates between subjective situation ratings and independently rated social behavior. Research by Fleeson (2007) concluded that participants' subjective ratings of specific situations were reliable predictors of social behavior in those situations; however, his conclusions were derived from participants' self-ratings of situations and self-ratings of behavior. In the current research, a factor analysis of participants' subjective situation

ratings yielded five subjective situation factors which were labeled positive affect, negative affect, situation strength, agency and communion. Participants' subjective ratings on these five factors predicted their independently coded social behavior in each of the four lab situations, thus extending Fleeson's (2007) findings that were based solely on self-report.

The present research provided evidence for the predictive validity of the contextualized personality assessment. Study one provided evidence for a relationship between objective and subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency. Study two provided evidence for the validity of the subjective situation perceptions by demonstrating a relationship between situation specific perceptions and social behavior. The findings indicate the importance of objective and subjective properties of social situations for understanding behavioral consistency and situation specific behavior.

Table of Contents

Abstract	3
Table of Contents	6
Introduction	7
Chapter 1: A Brief History of Interactionism	8
Chapter 2: Idiographic Methods	20
Chapter 3: Study 1 – Situation Similarity and Behavioral Consistency	35
Chapter 4: Study 2 – Situation and Behavior Dimensions	49
Chapter 5: General Discussion	62
References	71
Appendix A	110
Appendix B	117

Introduction

The notion that human social behavior is ultimately determined by an interaction between characteristics of both persons and situations is a widely held view in both personality and social psychology. However, theoretical and empirical progress towards understanding what constitutes a “situation” and how behavior is systematically related to situation variables is limited (Funder, 2001; Funder, 2006; Hogan, 2005; Pervin, 1976; Roberts, 2007). The current research seeks to better understand the person-situation interaction through the development of a contextualized personality assessment paradigm, which takes into account individuals’ self-perceptions about their behavioral tendencies, and the properties of situations that they regularly experience. More specifically, the primary aim of this research is to develop a method for measuring the psychological properties of situations and to examine the extent to which these situation properties can predict actual behavior across situations.

Chapter 1: A Brief History of Interactionism

Gordon Allport and Early Interactionism

Gordon Allport was extremely influential in the early development of both personality and social psychology. He did not pit personality and situations against one another as determinants of behavior as many contemporary researchers do; rather, he and other classic personality theorists described human behavior as explicitly interactionist (Griffo & Colvin, 2009). For example, Allport defined personality, in part, as “...adjustments to [the] environment” (p. 48). Further, Allport suggested that both interpersonal communication and environmental experiences could influence trait development.

Murray’s (1938) theory of personality included both person variables (i.e., needs) and situational variables; termed press which represents the influence or demands of the environment. Behavior was viewed as a compromise, or interaction, between the two. Similarly Cattell (1965) developed a “specification equation” for the prediction of behavior. The equation contained both person and situation parameters. Freud argued that internalized parental standards (i.e., the super ego) influence how the Id meets its needs. Even Skinner’s (1938) theory contained interactionist elements with his distinction between respondents (behavioral responses to specific stimuli) and operants (behavior that cannot be directly linked to an identifiable stimulus).

The Person-Situation Debate

In spite of this history of interactionist theory, very little empirical research has integrated both person and situation variables; instead, research began to polarize. Social psychology tended to emphasize the exclusive power of situations, while personality

research abandoned dynamic interactionist theories in favor of the search for a small subset of global trait variables that could be used to predict a wide array of situation specific behaviors.

By the 1960's this narrow, trait view of personality began to be attacked. Critics of trait theory presented empirical evidence demonstrating that personality measures accounted for very little variance in behavior and that the cross-situational consistency of behavior was generally low. The conclusion was that personality resides "in the eye of the beholder" (see Mischel, 1968 for a detailed review).

However, personality researchers responded by demonstrating that when valid personality methods were used, quite impressive levels of cross-situational consistency of behavior and predictive validity of trait measures could be demonstrated (see Epstein, 1983 and Block, 1977 for detailed reviews).

Further, when trait and situation effect sizes are compared on the same metric, they often account for the same amount of variance in social behavior. This fact is often masked because personality research typically examines research findings with correlations while social psychology reports the "power of situations" as mean differences between experimental and control groups as measured by a t-test. Personality psychology had been criticized for very "weak" effects (correlations around .30; Funder & Ozer, 1983). However, when social psychological effect sizes are converted from t-values to correlation coefficients, the "power of situations" is often comparable to the power of traits in terms of their ability to predict behavior (Funder & Ozer, 1983).

The Person-Situation Interaction

Proponents of the person-situation interaction perspective acknowledge the empirical evidence supporting the power of both traits and situations. According to the person-situation interaction perspective and as empirical evidence has demonstrated, the same individual's behavior can be both consistent and variable; that is, sometimes the behavior of that individual can be quite consistent across situations while in other cases, that individual's behavior can vary across situations (Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Pervin, 2002). The goal of personality and social psychology should be to attempt to understand this pattern of stability and change and identify factors, both person and situation variables, that account for such patterns.

Interactionism

While the interactionist perspective acknowledges the importance of person and situation variables, there is no single conceptual or operational definition of interactionism. One perspective is that of a mechanistic or statistical interaction as in an ANOVA or regression framework. In this model, the effect that a situation variable has on behavior is moderated by some third variable (usually a person variable; Ekehmmar, 1974; Endler & Mangusson, 1976). This approach is somewhat limited because it is a variable centered approach that isolates a small subset of variables, in effect "breaking" the person into "little pieces" (McAdams, 1997). For example, a variable centered approach might examine the relationship between positive vs. negative (situation variable) feedback, self-esteem (person variable) and anxious behavior. Here the unit of analysis is a psychological variable, in this case anxious behavior. In contrast, a person-centered approach takes the whole person as the unit of analysis. This approach, for example, might examine all the potential relationships between anxious behavior and any

other important psychological variables that can be identified within the person, such as self-esteem, extraversion, neuroticism, etc.

A second conceptualization of interactionism takes the form of an organismic or reciprocal model. In this scheme an individual is influenced by the situation, but that individual's presence and behavior also influences the situation. Put another way, situations influence people but people (through their perceptions and behaviors) in essence, create situations. In addition to this basic conceptualization of reciprocal interactionism, there are a variety of other specific ways in which person and situation variables might "interact." For example, in many cases, individuals have the freedom to select the situations in which they participate. Thus to a certain extent, individuals have the power to select which situation variables will be allowed to exert their influence on the individual (Endler & Mangusson, 1976).

Empirical Limitations

In spite of the overwhelming amount of empirical evidence that independently demonstrates the validity of person and situation variables, and the rich theoretical history of interactionism, interactionist research is still rather limited. This is due, in part, to the following limitations.

Integrative model. As noted above, interactionism can take at least two forms, statistical and reciprocal. Both the influence of statistical moderators and the reciprocal effects that persons and situations have on each other are important components of interactionism. Yet to date, there is no single paradigm that has successfully integrated both person and situation variables, and statistical and reciprocal interaction components, into a single model.

What are situations? A critical component of interactionist research is the ability to measure the psychological meaning of situations; however this is an understudied topic in personality and social psychology (Hogan, 2005, Roberts, 2007). Murray (1938) recognized that there are two approaches to classifying situations; the first focuses on the objective characteristics of situations, termed Alpha Press, while the second focuses on how an individual subjectively perceives situations, termed Beta Press. Some examples of “objective” characteristics of situations are physical locations such as playground or classroom (Shoda, Mischel, & Wright, 1994), and the kinds of people present such as strangers or friends (Furr & Funder, 2004; Shoda et al., 1994). In contrast, “subjective” situation characteristics are features of situations as perceived or interpreted by the individual

Research has demonstrated that both objective and subjective situation dimensions can predict behavior (Furr & Funder, 2004). However, Murray (1938) and other theorists (Allport, 1937; Bandura, 1977; Bem & Allen, 1974; Furr & Funder, 2004; Kelly, 1955; Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Pervin, 1976;) argued that beta press might be more useful in the prediction of social behavior. For example, identifying the objective elements of a situation does not explain individual differences in behavior within that situation (e.g., some people respond to an objectively threatening situation with fear and withdrawal while others respond with anger and aggression). The argument is that understanding individual differences in behavior in response to an objective feature of a situation requires understanding the subjective psychological impact of that situation on the individual (Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Pervin, 1976).

The defining features of a situation that are presumed to be important in determining the psychological meaning of situations, and the behavior that is characteristic of a particular class of situations, varies across people (Pervin, 1976, 2002). In other words, there are two sources of variability or individual differences in this scheme: the first is individual differences in how objective properties of situations are perceived or classified, and the second is individual differences in the behavior associated with particular classes of situations (Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Pervin, 1976).

Idiographic methods. Understanding the subjective components of situations and the behavior associated with these situation variables requires an idiographic approach. The idiographic approach is a “person centered” method that focuses on determining what is true of the individual. The approach emphasizes studying the whole person with the goal of understanding how psychological variables and processes are organized within the individual (Allport, 1937; Runyan, 1983). Regarding the person-situation interaction, the idiographic approach allows an assessment of how an individual perceives various situations, the behaviors that are characteristic of the individual in these situations, the individual’s pattern of behavioral consistency and variability across situations, and how this pattern of variability and consistency differs across people.

The Current Research

The current research builds on an idiographic methodology developed by Pervin (1976) and uses this methodology to develop a contextualized personality assessment procedure. This new procedure is then used to examine two specific aspects of the person-situation interaction: 1) the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency, and 2) the relationship between situation and behavior

dimensions. Pervin's method and the two specific questions of the current research are described in detail below.

Empirical Example of an Idiographic Approach

Pervin (1976) developed a method for classifying situations by employing an idiographic, free-response procedure. While the ability of this method to predict behavior has not yet been tested, and the sample size was rather small ($n = 4$), the results of his study are quite informative regarding the person-situation interaction and offer several possibilities for future research.

Methodology. Pervin's method required people to first list situations that were important to them. Then, for each situation, three descriptions were made. First, people described the important characteristics or descriptive features of each situation. Then, they described how they typically felt in each of these situations. Next, people described their behavior in each situation. In the final part of the assessment procedure, each person's list of situation features, affects, and behaviors was compiled into a single feature list. Each person then rated how descriptive each feature was of each situation. The procedure resulted in a feature by situation matrix for each person that indicated how descriptive each feature was for each situation (see Table 1 for an abbreviated example).

Treating situations as variables and features as cases, each person's feature by situation matrix was factor analyzed; the resulting factors indicated which situations were perceived as similar based on how the person described the situations, felt in the situations (based on self-report), and behaved in the situations (also self-reported). This feature by situation matrix essentially provided a "cognitive map" that represented, from the perspective of the person, the meaningful situations in the person's life, how these

situations were perceived, the affect typically experienced in these situations, and the behavior that was typical of the individual in these situations (see Table 2).

The psychological meaning of situations. The factor analysis for each participant revealed that while participants listed anywhere from 23 to 29 situations, the factor analysis for each participant yielded 4 to 5 factors. These results indicate that, for any individual, it is possible to group together or classify a variety of different situations based on how the individual perceives, feels, and behaves in these situations. The assumption is that situations that are perceived similarly, experienced similarly, and produce similar behavior, are psychologically similar.

Common factors emerged for all participants; for example, all 4 participants had one factor corresponding to home or family situations. However, the manner in which these situations were perceived and experienced by each individual was unique. Some described their home environment as warm and caring while others described this same environment as angry and volatile. Further, there were individual differences in the behaviors associated with each type of situation. For example one participant responded to threatening environments with controlled and cool behavior while another participant responded to threatening environments with emotional and angry behavior. These findings are consistent with the person-situation interaction perspective in that the “same” situation can be perceived, and acted upon, differently by different people.

Pattern of consistency and variability. The results of each factor analysis reveal a pattern of both behavioral consistency and variability within each participant. That is, the emotional experiences and behavioral responses that were rated as characteristic of an individual in one set of situations (e.g., home and family situations) were not necessarily

characteristic of the individual in another set of situations (e.g., work situations). These findings suggest that how a particular situation is perceived is associated with the behavior that is characteristic of the individual in that situation. Further, the results suggest that an individual is likely to exhibit a high degree of behavioral variability across different kinds of situations, while at the same time that individual will exhibit a high degree of behavioral consistency within similar situations.

This approach illustrates several aspects of the person-situation interaction, and provides a method for examining the psychological components of situations. However, the method requires refinement and empirical validation. Recall that Pervin's participants freely listed features for each situation; this open-ended method makes it very difficult to examine quantitative similarities or differences between participants. In addition, the statistical approach of conducting an exploratory factor analysis for each individual also makes it very difficult to compare results across participants. As a result, there is no way of assessing the validity of this methodology; that is, can it be used to predict observable social behavior?

The current research modifies Pervin's method (discussed in chapter 2) in a manner that allows both within- and between-person analyses to be conducted. With these modifications, the validity of this methodology can be tested by examining two specific (though fairly straightforward) predictions: (1) measures of situation similarity should be useful in predicting behavioral consistency; and (2) measures of situation dimensions should be useful in predicting situation specific behavior.

Situation Similarity and Behavioral Consistency

As discussed above, an individual's behavior, paradoxically, can be both consistent and variable across situations. This paradox, in part, can be explained by what has been termed the "situation similarity effect" (Furr & Funder, 2004). In short, an individual's behavior is likely to be consistent across situations that are similar, while the same individual's behavior may be variable across situations that are dissimilar (Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Pervin, 1976). While recent research demonstrated that both objective and subjective situation measures predicted behavioral consistency, the method used to measure subjective situation similarity was a single item self-report rating in which participants directly compared the similarity of two situations (Furr & Funder, 2004). This leaves the actual features of situations unspecified. Study one of the current research will examine the predictive validity of the proposed contextualized personality assessment by attempting to replicate the situation similarity/behavioral consistency finding using measures of situation similarity derived from the contextualized personality assessment. Importantly, these measures not only index situation similarity, but also reveal the features of situations that are likely to be important for determining situation similarity.

Situation and Behavior Dimensions

A second prediction derived from the interactionist perspective is that subjective situation properties should predict situation specific behavior, though very little empirical research has been conducted to test this hypothesis. Fleeson (2007) examined the relationship between subjective situation dimensions and social behavior in a daily diary study. Several times per day, participants rated the situation that they had just recently taken part in on a series of situation dimensions and also rated their behavior in the

situation on a series of behavior dimensions. As predicted, situation dimensions were shown to predict situation specific behavior. However, the study relied on *self-reported* behavior as the criterion to evaluate the predictive validity of the situation dimensions; thus there is no way of knowing for certain that there is a meaningful relationship between subjective situation dimensions and actual social behavior. For example, if a person's self-reported situation ratings predict his or her self-reported behavior there are two alternative explanations: (a) the self-reported situation ratings may validly predict self-reported behavior, or (b) the relationship between self-reported situation ratings and self-reported behavior is a statistical artifact due to method variance (i.e., effect sizes are often inflated when based on a single method or data source). Because Fleenor's (2007) results could be due to method variance, his study provides weak support that people's situation ratings will validly predict actual social behavior.

The contextualized methods developed in the current research will be used to examine the relationships between subjective situation properties derived from the procedure, and independently evaluated social behavior. This not only allows the predictive validity of the measures to be examined, but also helps to clarify the meaning of the situation dimensions by examining the social behavior associated with them. This issue is addressed in Study two.

To summarize, the goal of the present research is to develop a contextualized personality assessment methodology that can be used to empirically address aspects of interactionism that, until now, have only been dealt with theoretically. The validity of this methodology will be examined by addressing two specific hypotheses derived from the literature on interactionism. First, subjective situation similarity should predict

behavioral consistency; and second, subjective situation perceptions should predict situation specific behavior.

Chapter 2: Idiographic Methods

Chapter 1 indicated that interactionist research requires an idiographic, multi-method approach to data collection and statistical analysis. Chapter 2 begins with a brief review of idiographic methods and then describes the specific methods and measures used in the current research.

Conceptual Definition

Dictionary.com defines the term Idiographic as “pertaining to or involving the study or explication of individual cases or events (opposed to nomothetic).” (Dictionary.com). Note, the term is defined in opposition to nomothetic which in turn is defined as “pertaining to or involving the study or formulation of general or universal laws (opposed to idiographic).” (Dictionary.com). These lay dictionary definitions are generally consistent with the definitions typically adopted by personality researchers. For example, Allport (1937) used the term nomothetic to mean the search for general laws that would apply to all or most cases and the term idiographic as the study of the individual case. Further, the contrast between the two approaches has been a central issue in personality psychology; typically, the approaches are pitted against one another.

The nomothetic approach has historically been considered the more scientific and appropriate approach for psychological research. In fact, many researchers have entirely dismissed the utility of idiographic methods (see Allport, 1942, for a detailed discussion). In contrast, proponents of the idiographic approach highlight that trait-behavior prediction based on nomothetic research is often quite limited. Idiographic methods offer a means for uncovering regularities within the individual; even if these regularities may

not generalize to others they may, at the very least, have practical utility (in clinical settings for example; Pelham, 1993; Runyan, 1983).

Allport recognized that personality research *should* and *could* be both nomothetic and idiographic. According to Allport, this *should* be the case because “Acquaintance with particulars is the beginning of all knowledge—scientific or otherwise. In psychology the font and origin of our curiosity in, and knowledge of, human nature lies in our acquaintance with concrete individuals. To know them in their natural complexity is an essential first step” (Allport, 1942, p. 56).

Further, this *could* be the case because idiographic methods offer a unique tradeoff between resources and theoretical breadth. While idiographic methods often consume a lot of time and resources, idiographic data collected from a large sample of participants can be used to address issues at both the idiographic and nomothetic level. In contrast, nomothetic data cannot be disaggregated in a way that is informative at the idiographic level (Allport, 1942; Pelham, 1993; Runyan, 1983).

Finally, idiographic and nomothetic levels of analysis, as opposed to being independent and competing perspectives, may in fact represent two components of the same personality system. For example, a typical nomothetic analysis may reveal that positive feedback tends to increase self-reported self-esteem compared to negative feedback. However, even though this “general” relationship may be true of a sample, it is not true of every individual within the sample. First, the feedback manipulation cannot explain pre-existing individual differences between experimental and control groups before exposure to the manipulation. Second, the feedback manipulation cannot explain why, on average, self-esteem is higher for some individuals in the experimental

condition, while for others the feedback manipulation appears to have no effect on self-esteem. Finally, if an individual from the experimental group were followed over time, it may be discovered that in some cases feedback does influence that individual's self-esteem while in other cases it does not. In this example, the individual, or some qualities of the individual, appear to act as moderator variables in a nomothetic relationship. If this is the case, then idiographic methods may offer incremental validity to the nomothetic approach. That is, both within-group (i.e., individual differences within the same treatment group described above) and within-person (i.e., variability in a single individual over time and across situations as described above) variability, which are typically considered to be "error" variance in the nomothetic approach can potentially be accounted for with the idiographic approach.

Methodological vs. Conceptual Distinction

Allport and other theorists have repeatedly argued that personality psychologists need to embrace idiographic methods (Kelly, 1955; Kihlstrom & Olsen, 1992; Murray, 1938; Pelham, 1993; Rosenberg, 1997; Runyan, 1983). However, the integration of idiographic and nomothetic research methods is still quite limited. This is often due to issues of practicality. Idiographic research requires the use of multiple data sources and assessment of participants on several occasions. Often researchers simply do not have the resources to collect idiographic data. When they have had the resources, researchers have lacked the statistical tools needed to integrate both nomothetic and idiographic data into the same statistical analyses. It is essential that data from the two approaches be integrated to permit true variance partitioning and allow an incremental validity argument to be made (Jaccard & Dittus, 1990; Runyan, 1983). This in part stems from an issue

identified earlier in interactionist research; there is no direct translation between conceptual and operational definitions in idiographic research and no single statistical paradigm that can be used to integrate both nomothetic and idiographic data (Runyan, 1983).

The recent development of new statistical tools such as multi-level modeling (Fleeson, 2007) have allowed some of these issues to be addressed, such as the extent to which a nomothetic relationship is true for one sub-set of a sample, but not true for another sub-set. However, these methods are new within personality and social psychology and researchers are only now learning how to apply them. Thus, while nomothetic and idiographic data have not yet been completely integrated, interactionist research should include both types of data and evaluate idiographic and nomothetic predictions. Presented below are key ingredients of the idiographic method.

Components of Idiographic Method

Allport (1943) distinguished specific components of the idiographic approach, including the search for unique traits relevant to a particular individual as well as the unique relationships among traits within that individual. In addition to trait relevance and intrapersonal organization, idiographic methods have included a focus on phenomenology in an attempt to better understand human experience from the perspective of the individual, even if these subjective experiences are not meaningful for other people. To examine these person-centered variables, specific research methods including free-response/open-ended assessment methods, the case study, repeated measures designs, and longitudinal research have been emphasized in idiographic

research (Runyan, 1983). From this array of idiographic methods, the basic components of idiographic research are identified next.

Person Centered Approach

Contextualized/within-person analyses. Individuals are assessed on multiple occasions and in a variety of different situations. This allows for patterns of behavioral variability and consistency to be examined, along with various properties of situations associated with these patterns.

Comprehensive assessment. A broad range of psychological and behavioral characteristics are assessed within the same individual across several occasions. In contrast to a variable centered approach in which relationships, perhaps causal, between two variables are isolated, this method recognizes that in any given “situation” a variety of psychological processes may be active within an individual. This is important because many psychological processes may be responsible for behavior in a particular situation, and these need not be the same for each individual.

Multi-method approach. Several sources of data and types of measures are used including open-ended methods, self-report ratings, peer ratings, and behavioral observation. This is critical because the valid measurement of certain constructs often requires specific sources of data. For example, the subjective features of situations are best assessed by self-report measures while overt social behavior is best assessed by independent behavior observation.

Methods of Current Research

Overview of Data Collection Procedures

Ninety-four participants were recruited from the Northeastern University Psychology Department's participant pool and received partial course credit for their participation. Each participant nominated one friend who knew the participant well and was willing to come to the lab with the participant for one session. Participants attended three lab sessions, an overview of which is presented next. Procedures and measures for each session are then discussed in detail.

Session 1. During the first two-hour session each participant completed a modified version of Pervin's (1976) idiographic personality assessment, in which the participant described his or her personality in a variety of personally relevant, self-generated situations.

Session 2. For the second session, which lasted one hour, each participant was required to bring a well acquainted opposite sex friend to the lab. The participant and friend engaged in a videotaped five-minute unstructured interaction. They then rated their own behavior and the quality of the interaction. The participant and friend then engaged in a videotaped five-minute debate on the death penalty. Afterward, they rated their behavior and made judgments about the debate. Finally, the participant rated him or herself on the five-factor model, a nomothetic measure used to assess general behavior tendencies (described in detail below). At the same time, the participant's friend described the participant's personality on the same measure of the five-factor model and the participant's behavior in three situations generated by the friend.

Session 3. The third session included the participant and an unacquainted, opposite sex person who was also a participant in the study. Similar to session 1, the two participants engaged in a videotaped five-minute unstructured interaction followed by

ratings of their behavior and the quality of the interaction. Next, participants were randomly assigned to argue for or against abortion, given three minutes to prepare, and were videotaped during their five minute debate. Afterward, participants rated their behavior and made judgments about the debate. Participants rated the similarity of the four social interactions between their friends and fellow participants. Finally, participants completed a second battery of self-report personality measures.

Idiographic Personality Assessment

The idiographic personality assessment was based on a methodology previously used to assess the structure of individuals' knowledge about themselves and their social worlds (Kelly, 1955; Kihlstrom & Olsen, 1992; Rosenberg, 1997) and specifically draws on the procedure employed by Pervin (1976). As previously described, Pervin (1976) included three types of content in his assessment procedure: perceptions of situations, affect, and behavior. In addition to these three constructs, other theorists also emphasize the importance of motivation in guiding behavior (Murray, 1938; Mischel & Shoda, 1995). These four construct domains of perception, affect, motivation and behavior together account for most, if not all, psychological constructs studied in personality and social psychology and all are assumed to be vital in understanding human social behavior. Thus, in order to identify important components of situations the procedures described below included situation dimensions, affect, motives, and behavior. However, unlike Pervin's "free listing" procedure, the current research used a set of pre-defined dimensions. Collectively, these dimensions are referred to as the feature list described in detail below (the complete feature list along with exact wording used to assess each feature can be found in Appendix A).

Situation dimensions. The development of a system for classifying situations is an important research topic in personality and social psychology (Funder, 2001; Johnson, 1999; Saucier, Bel-Bahar, & Fernandez, 2007). While much work is needed to reach a consensual taxonomy of situations, previous research on the perception of situations has revealed a set of common dimensions that are useful for classifying situations including: cooperative vs. competitive (Forgas, 1976; Wish, Deutsch, & Kaplan, 1976); subjective self-confidence (Forgas, 1976; Forgas, 1983); intimacy (Wish et al., 1976; Marwell & Hage, 1970); Triandis, 1972, both cited in Wish et al., 1976; involvement (Forgas, 1976; Forgas, 1983; Wish et al., 1976); power (Wish et al., 1976); valence (Forgas, 1976; Forgas, 1983; Wish et al., 1976); and situation strength (Forgas, 1976; Wish et al., 1976). In addition, the extent to which a situation is mandatory vs. chosen has been demonstrated to be a useful dimension to classify situations (Emmons & Diener, 1986). It is these eight dimensions that comprised the situation dimension component of the feature list.

Affect. The PANAS-X is a widely used measure of emotional experience that assesses both general positive and negative affect as well as 11 specific emotional states (fear, hostility, guilt, sadness, joviality, self-assurance, attentiveness, shyness, fatigue, serenity, and surprise; Watson & Clark, 1991). Typically, each PANAS emotion is assessed with multiple emotion terms (a total of 60 terms with 3 to 8 terms per emotion). However, for the present research, positive and negative affect were measured with four emotion terms each. As described below, ratings on the PANAS and all of the feature list items were made for specific situations (i.e., how the participant is feeling at that moment).

Motives. The Personality Research Form (PRF; Jackson, 1999) is a standardized, well-validated, and widely used personality assessment instrument designed to assess Murray's (1938) needs. The PRF assesses a total of 20 personality variables that describe the motivational or goal-directed tendencies of individuals (Costa & McCrae, 1988). Some examples are social recognition: the desire to be held in positive regard by others and, achievement: the desire to work hard and accomplish goals. Time constraints did not allow the administration of the full PRF (which includes 20 items per need). Consequently, single item bipolar measures of each of the 20 needs were developed for use in the current research. These items were based on descriptions of high and low scorers provided in the PRF manual.

Behavior. Self-reported behavior was measured using the Riverside Behavioral Q-sort (RBQ; Funder, Furr, & Colvin, 2000). The RBQ is comprised of 64 descriptions of concrete and overt social behaviors. The RBQ was created to describe behavior at a "mid-level" of analysis; that is, behaviors that are concrete and observable, while at the same time psychologically meaningful (Funder, Furr, & Colvin, 2000). Previous research has suggested that the RBQ assesses 4 underlying latent factors: Social Skills, Agreeableness, Hostility, and Intellectence (Colvin & Funder, 1991). The RBQ is typically used by trained coders to describe the behavior of research participants. In this form, coders performed a Q-sort in which the 64 RBQ items are sorted into piles ranging from most characteristic of the target's behavior to least characteristic. Coders in the present study used this procedure (as described below). In addition, the RBQ was modified for use by participants as a self-report measure of their own behavior. Bipolar

descriptions were created for each of the 64 RBQ items; for each item, participants rated which pole was more descriptive of their behavior on a 4-point scale.

Procedure. Each participant listed a minimum of 8 and a maximum of 18 important situations, activities, or interactions with specific others in his or her current life (referred to as situations, see Appendix B for instructions and examples). Next, the participant used the feature list described above (situation dimensions, affect, motives, and behavior) to evaluate each situation listed. Situations were presented one at a time by computer and the participant was asked to rate how descriptive each feature was of each situation. All ratings were made on a 4-point, bipolar scale with the exception of the affect items, which were rated on a 4-point uni-polar scale (Watson & Clark, 1991).

This procedure produces an individual feature by situation matrix that indicates how descriptive or relevant each feature is of the participant in each situation. Because individuals were free to list any situations that were relevant for them, two situations that were assessed directly in the lab were also included. The above procedure included two specific, experimenter-defined situations embedded in it, which were the same for all participants. Participants were asked to describe themselves when meeting an unacquainted peer (i.e., college student) for the first time, and when interacting with the friend they nominated to take part in the study. These two situations correspond to situations that were actually carried out in the lab (described in detail below).

Self-Report Trait Measures

In order to compare the predictive validity of the feature by situation matrices described above to the predictive validity of standard trait measures, participants

completed a battery of self-report measures of personality that included the following measures.

NEO-PI-R. The NEO Revised Personality Inventory (*NEO-PI-R*; Costa & McCrae, 1992) is designed to assess the Five Factor Model of personality, or The Big 5 (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness). The NEO-PI-R contains a total of 240 items (48 items per factor), which are responded to on a 5-point scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Importantly, these items are context free and individuals are asked to describe what they are like “in general” without the ability to indicate conditions or situations in which an item may be more or less true (example items include: “I am not a worrier”, “I like to have a lot of people around me”, “I’m not known for my generosity,” etc.).

Other personality traits. Several additional self-report measures were administered to assess potential predictors and outcomes associated with behavioral consistency. Briefly these measures were: (1) The Ego-Resiliency Scale (Block & Kremen, 1996), which assesses the extent to which an individual is able to adapt or adjust to various life events and stressors. (2) The Ego-Control Scale (Letzring, Block, & Funder, 2005), a measure of impulse control (delay of gratification). (3) The Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1985), which assesses the extent to which individuals direct their attention towards, and adapt their behavior to, situational cues. (4) Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966), a measure of the degree to which individuals believe that outcomes are under their control vs. the control of outside forces (chance, fate, etc.). (5) Ryff’s Scales of Psychological Well-Being (Ryff, 1989), which assess several

components of mental health (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance).

Social Behavior

Each participant engaged in a total of four videotaped social interactions in the lab, two unstructured interactions and two debates. The videotaped behavior of each participant in all four lab interactions served as stimuli for trained coders who described each participant's behavior using the RBQ. Below is a brief description of each lab situation followed by a discussion of the purpose of the situations.

Friend situation. Each participant nominated one opposite sex friend who knew the participant well, and who was available to come to the lab with the participant for one session. Each participant and his or her friend were seated on a couch in the lab facing a video camera in plain view. After the video camera was activated, the experimenter explained to the participants "you can talk about whatever you like, I'll be back in five minutes," after which the experimenter left the room and returned after five minutes.

Friend debate. Each participant took part in a videotaped five-minute debate with his or her nominated friend. The participant and his or her friend debated the death penalty; the side each person argued was determined randomly. Participants were given three minutes alone to prepare for the debate and were then seated on a couch in the lab facing a video camera in plain view. After the video camera was activated, the experimenter explained to the participants "you may begin debating the death penalty, I'll be back in five minutes," after which the experimenter left the room and returned after five minutes.

Stranger situation. Each participant also took part in a five-minute unstructured interaction with another opposite sex participant in the study that followed the same procedures described above for the friend interaction. Prior to each interaction, it was verified that the participants had not previously met.

Stranger debate. Finally, each participant took part in a five-minute debate on abortion with the same opposite sex participant from the stranger situation. This debate followed the same procedures described above for the friend debate.

These four situations vary on 2 experimenter-defined dimensions: partner type (acquaintance vs. stranger) and task type (unstructured conversation vs. structured debate). However, both are relatively ambiguous and open-ended situations that allow for individual differences in behavior to emerge.

Post-interaction Ratings

Immediately following each of the four lab interactions described above, participants rated each situation, and their feelings, motives, and behavior in each situation using the same feature list included in the idiographic personality assessment. These ratings served as an assessment of the psychological “meaning” of the situation from the perspective of the participant. Participants also answered several general questions about each of the lab situations including their interaction enjoyment and level of comfort while debating their assigned topic.

Self-Reported Situation Similarity Ratings

Following Furr and Funder’s (2004) procedures, after all four interactions were complete, participants rated on a five point scale the similarity of each lab situation to every other lab situation.

Informant Ratings

Each participant's friend described the behavior of the participant in three specific situations: (1) a situation that the participant frequently enjoys; (2) a situation that the participant frequently does not enjoy; (3) a very important or meaningful situation for the participant in which friends were told "in order to truly know and understand who your friend is, one has to see him or her in this kind of situation." For example, if the participant was an aspiring actor, the friend might list an acting class as an important or meaningful situation. For each of these three situations, the friend provided a specific instance or example of the situation and then described the participant's behavior in the situation by rating each of the 64 RBQ items.

The friend's behavior ratings for each of the three situations served as an additional set of behavioral criteria to assess the predictive validity of the idiographic and nomothetic personality measures. That is, the ability of the idiographic personality assessment to predict behavior ratings made by a friend in three non-lab situations could be evaluated.

Summary

To summarize, the above procedures yielded the following data for each participant: (1) an idiographic feature by situation matrix containing important situations in the participant's life and ratings for each situation on situation properties, affect, motives, and behaviors (see Table 3 for an abbreviated example); (2) self-report ratings on the five factor model and other relevant traits; (3) coded social behavior in four lab situations; (4) post-interaction feature list ratings for each of the four lab situations (i.e., a feature by situation matrix of the four lab situations for each participant); (5) global

ratings of situation similarity among the four laboratory social interactions; (6) friend ratings of the participant's behavior in three non-lab situations and on the five factor model. A subset of the collected data was used in the analyses reported in Study one and Study two. The method sections in chapters 3 and 4 contain information on the data used.

Chapter 3: Situation Similarity and Behavioral Consistency

The results reported in the present chapter extend previous research conducted by Furr and Funder (2004) on the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency. Specifically, the situation similarity hypothesis predicts that an individual's behavior should be relatively consistent across situations that are similar and relatively inconsistent across situations that are dissimilar.

Furr and Funder's (2004) findings supported the situation similarity hypothesis and indicated that behavior tends to be more consistent across similar situations measured by both objective and subjective methods. Objective situation similarity is an experimenter-defined parameter indicating the number of common elements a situation shares. Specifically, Furr and Funder's (2004) participants engaged in six dyadic interactions including (a) a getting acquainted conversation with an opposite sex unacquainted participant, (b) a cooperative model building task with the same partner, and (c) a competitive memory game, also with the same partner. On a different occasion, participants engaged in the same three interactions with an unacquainted same sex partner. Using this approach, there were nine pairs of "objectively similar situations." "Objectively similar" was defined as two situations that shared either the same person or the same task. There were six "objectively dissimilar" pairs defined as sharing neither the same partner nor the same task (see also Funder & Colvin, 1991).

In each of these six dyadic interactions, participants' behavior was videotaped and subsequently coded by a team of trained coders using the Riverside Behavioral Q-Sort (discussed in detail in chapter 2). Behavioral consistency scores were calculated by correlating the 64 coded RBQ items for each pair of lab situations.

The relationship between objective situation similarity and behavioral consistency was examined by comparing differences in mean behavioral consistency across similar vs. dissimilar pairs of situations. As the situation similarity hypothesis predicts, Furr and Funder's (2004) results indicated that on average the sample was more behaviorally consistent across similar pairs of situations (mean behavioral consistency $r = .57$) than across dissimilar pairs of situations (mean behavioral consistency $r = .48$).

The relationship between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency was examined in a subsequent study, involving a separate sample. Participants in this study engaged in two dyadic getting acquainted interactions on two different occasions with two different unacquainted partners. Following the second interaction, participants rated on a 7-point scale the extent to which they viewed the two situations as similar. To examine the relationship between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency, participants' subjective situation similarity ratings were correlated with their behavioral consistency scores. As the situation similarity hypothesis predicts, subjective similarity and behavioral consistency were positively correlated ($r = .23$).

Unfortunately, because objective and subjective situation similarity were studied in two independent samples, the direct relationship between objective and subjective situation similarity was not addressed. In addition, Furr and Funder's (2004) findings do not address the content of subjective similarity. Participants may be able to provide a global evaluation of situational similarity but the question remains whether participants are able to identify specific situation characteristics that differentiate one situation from

another. To answer this question a method for measuring the subjective content of situations is required. This issue is addressed in study one.

Overview of Current Research

Study one was designed to replicate and extend previous research on the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency (Furr & Funder, 2004). The goal was to develop a measure of subjective situation similarity that not only predicts behavioral consistency, but also reveals the features of situations that are relevant for determining situation similarity. The study was exploratory in nature with the primary aim of determining if the idiographic measures of subjective situation similarity predict behavioral consistency. This was viewed as the first step in examining the validity of the subjective situation similarity measure.

Method

Study one examined self-report and behavioral data from the four lab situations described in chapter two. Specifically, measures of objective situation similarity, subjective situation similarity, and objective behavioral consistency were analyzed. Each measure is described below.

Objective Situation Similarity

Each participant engaged in four videotaped interactions: an unstructured conversation followed by a debate with an opposite sex friend, and on a separate occasion an unstructured conversation followed by a debate with an opposite sex stranger. Following Furr and Funder's (2004) methods, each pair of lab situations was categorized as objectively similar if they shared either the same partner *or* the same task, and objectively dissimilar if they shared neither the same partner nor the same task. This

scheme produced four situation pairs that were objectively similar, sharing either the same partner or the same task, and two situation pairs that were objectively dissimilar, sharing neither the same partner nor the same task. The situation pairs are presented in Table 4.

Subjective Situation Similarity

The extent to which each participant viewed each pair of lab situations as subjectively similar was indexed with a profile correlation, calculated separately for each participant, in which the two situations were treated as variables and the 36 subjective situation dimensions were used as cases (as discussed in chapter 2, a complete list of these 36 items is presented in Appendix A). These profile correlations were treated as situation similarity scores with higher correlations indicating greater perceived similarity and lower correlations indicating less perceived similarity.

Behavioral Consistency

Individual behavioral consistency scores were calculated by correlating the 64 coded RBQ items for each pair of lab situations. Higher profile correlations indicated participants exhibited more similar patterns of behavior across situations than participants with lower profile correlations.

Results

Objective Situation Similarity, Subjective Situation Similarity, and Behavioral Consistency

Table 4 displays the means for subjective situation similarity scores and behavioral consistency scores grouped by objective situation similarity. To examine the relationship between objective situation similarity and behavioral consistency, mean

differences in behavioral consistency were examined across objectively similar and dissimilar situation pairs. In addition, mean differences in subjective situation similarity were examined across objectively similar and dissimilar situation pairs to examine the relationship between objective situation similarity and subjective situation similarity.

Situation pairs in Table 4 are sorted in descending order according to mean behavioral consistency. In general, the subjective situation similarity means and behavioral consistency means are larger for pairs of objectively similar situations compared to pairs of objectively dissimilar situations. To test the statistical significance of these observed differences across objectively similar and dissimilar situation pairs, subjective situation similarity scores were aggregated for the four objectively similar situation pairs and for the two objectively dissimilar situations pairs. Mean behavioral consistency scores for objectively similar and dissimilar situation pairs were created in the same manner. These means are displayed in Table 4.

A paired t-test on these means indicated that on average participants were more behaviorally consistent across pairs of situations that shared a common objective element ($m = .58$, $SD = .17$) than across situations that did not share a common objective element ($m = .45$, $SD = .19$; $t = 9.07$, $p < .001$, $df = 74$). In addition, participants rated situations that shared a common element ($m = .66$, $SD = .23$) as more similar than situation pairs not sharing a common element ($m = .52$, $SD = .26$; $t = 8.63$, $p < .001$, $df = 74$). Note, results were comparable for both males and females; unless gender differences are specifically mentioned, all reported results apply to both males and females.

Subjective Situation Similarity Correlated with Behavioral Consistency

The relationship between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency was examined by correlating the subjective situation similarity scores with the behavioral consistency scores for each of the six possible pairings of lab situations. This analysis was an opportunity to replicate and extend Furr and Funder's (2004) finding in which subjective situation similarity predicted behavioral consistency across only two situations. The present analysis extends previous research by examining the subjective situation similarity effect over more situations than previously evaluated and by investigating the convergent and discriminant validity of the subjective situation similarity measure. It is anticipated that the subjective similarity of two situations will predict behavioral consistency across the same pair of situations better than it predicts behavioral consistency across a different pair of situations.

Table 5 displays the results for the entire sample. Evidence for the subjective situation similarity effect would be demonstrated by relatively high diagonal correlations and relatively low off diagonal correlations. The predicted results were not observed. Only two of the six correlation coefficients on the diagonal were statistically significant, suggesting a weak and inconsistent relationship.

However, when the data were analyzed separately by gender, a different pattern of results emerged. Tables 6 and 7 display results for females and males respectively. For females, the pattern is similar to that at the sample level with only two of the six diagonal correlations in the expected direction. In contrast, for males all of the six diagonal correlations are positive, and five out of six are significant at $p < .10$. Table 8 displays the means for the diagonal and off-diagonal correlations. For male participants, the diagonal correlation mean is $r = .31$ and the off diagonal mean is $r = .10$, a difference of $.21$.

While this situation similarity effect size is small, it is comparable to the zero order correlation between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency reported in Furr and Funder (2004; $r = .23$). Thus, for men the hypothesis that people will behave more consistently across situations that are more subjectively similar was supported.

Moderators of the Situation Similarity/Behavioral Consistency Relationship

Furr and Funder's (2004) results do not discuss gender differences so there is no way of knowing if this issue was addressed in their research. In fact, gender differences have never been a topic of discussion during the past 60 years of interactionist theory. As a result, a series of exploratory analyses was conducted to better understand the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency for women.

Accuracy. One explanation for the absence of a correlation between female participants' self-reported situation ratings and their behavioral consistency scores may be that their self-reported situation ratings are inaccurate. The accuracy of participants' self-knowledge could impact the validity of self-reports and their subsequent ability to predict behavior (Vogt & Colvin, 2005). Recent research indicated that the self-report measures completed by people with accurate self-knowledge were generally more valid than the self-report measures completed by people with less accurate self-knowledge (Colvin & Vogt, 2009). Therefore, it might be expected that women who exhibit higher levels of accurate self-knowledge will provide more accurate situation ratings which, in turn, will be more strongly associated with behavioral consistency.

A variety of operational definitions of accuracy are available, and no one is perfect. The operational definition of accuracy of self-perception used for the current analysis relies on "social consensus" as the accuracy criterion. With the current data, this

can be indexed as the degree of agreement between participants' *self-reported behavior* and the coded behavior ratings in each of the four lab situations. These coded behavior ratings are an aggregate of three independent coders' ratings and represent one valid accuracy criterion (inter-coder reliability suggests this assumption is relatively appropriate). In this analysis, accuracy is indexed as a profile correlation between each participant's self-reported RBQ ratings and the coding team's ratings on the same 64 variables. Accuracy was indexed in this way because the coded lab behavior represents the most "objective" indicator of what the individual is like. In contrast, there is no way of knowing how accurate an individual is in reporting on situation properties because no objective measure of situation properties exists.

For each of the six lab situation pairs, multiple regression analyses were conducted regressing behavioral consistency on subjective situation similarity, self-reported accuracy, and the subjective situation similarity X self-reported accuracy interaction term. Each of these analyses was run separately by gender. Only significant results will be presented. For males, accuracy did not moderate the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency in any of the six analyses. This suggests that for males, subjective perceptions of situation similarity are related to behavioral consistency regardless of the accuracy of these subjective perceptions. For females, accuracy was found to be a significant moderator in two of the six analyses: (1) lab situation pair 2 and 3, debating a friend to talking with a stranger (Table 9); and (2) lab situation pair 3 and 4, talking with a stranger to debating that stranger (Table 10). In these two analyses the situation similarity X accuracy interaction term (and only the interaction term) was a significant predictor of behavioral consistency.

To help interpret the meaning of this interaction, regression lines for behavioral consistency regressed on situation similarity were plotted at three levels of accuracy (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). These plots are displayed in Figures 1 and 2. In each figure, lines 1, 2, and 3 correspond to behavioral consistency (Axis Y) regressed on situation similarity (Axis X) at the upper, mean, and lower observed values of accuracy respectively. In Figures 1 and 2, the positive slope between similarity and consistency at the upper observed value of accuracy becomes increasingly negative at the mean and lower values of accuracy.

This pattern suggests that there is a positive correlation between situation similarity ratings and behavioral consistency for females who provide relatively accurate self-reports, and that the strength of this relationship decreases as their accuracy scores decrease. Furthermore, when female participants make subjective situation evaluations of situations that contain an unacquainted opposite sex peer, accuracy plays a moderating role in the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency.

Task vs. Partner Focus. As reported in Table 4, on average, participants' ratings of subjective situation similarity and their observed behavioral consistency tended to be greater across situations that share a common objective element compared to situations that do not. This mean difference was present for both male and female participants. This suggests that to a certain extent, both male and female participants' subjective situation ratings were somewhat sensitive to the objective similarities among the situations. Yet for females, perceived similarity does not correspond directly to behavioral consistency. This suggests that there may not be a simple, direct relationship between perceived similarity and consistency. Many of the female correlations displayed in Table 6 between similarity

and consistency are negative suggesting that perceived situation similarity is related to behavioral inconsistency in certain situations. For example, when women perceive talking with their male friend and debating their male friend as similar, their actual behavior tends to be inconsistent. This implies that the *more* similarly females view these two situations, the *less* consistently they behave across them. There are a variety of reasons why this may be the case. In this particular set of situations, female participants are first simply talking with their friend and then being asked to engage in a debate with that person. Perhaps the more comfortable female participants are with that friend in both situations (i.e. the more the two situations are viewed as similarly comfortable), the more willing they are to actually *change* their behavior from the first situation to the second and debate the friend in the second situation. This is pure speculation but it points to the possibility that the experimenter defined objective futures of “partner” vs. “task” do not hold the same weight for males as they do for females.

To examine this possibility, participants’ situation similarity and behavioral consistency scores were aggregated separately across both task type and partner type. The first set of scores essentially averages out the “effect” of the task, and examines similarity ratings and observed consistency across situations in which a friend is present (regardless of task) and situations in which a stranger is present (regardless of task). The second averages out the “effect” of the participants’ partner, and examines similarity and consistency across unstructured conversational situations (regardless of partner) and structured debate situations (regardless of partner).

Correlations between situation similarity and behavioral consistency across task type vs. partner type are displayed in Table 11. Again for males the predicted relationship

is present in both task and partner focused analyses. For female participants, the effect is present for the task focused analysis ($r = .40, p < .05$), but not for the partner focused analysis ($r = .08, ns$). This suggests that for females, viewing two *tasks* as similar (in this case talking and debating) is directly associated with observable behavioral consistency across those two tasks. In contrast, viewing situations with two *people* as similar is not necessarily associated with behavioral consistency across those situations.

These accuracy and task vs. partner focused analyses represent only a first step in exploring the observed gender differences. However, taken together, they do suggest that the role that “tasks” and “people” play in defining situations and the relationship between perception of situations and behavior in those situations differs for males and females. For males, both the accuracy and task/partner analyses suggest that the relationship between subjective perception of situations and observable behavior in those situations is direct. Regardless of how accurate male’s perceptions of themselves are and regardless of whether they are focused on a task or a person, what males think about situations, and what they do in those situations appear to be directly related. In contrast, the results for females imply more of a sensitivity to what the *other person* in the situation is doing and not necessarily on the purely subjective interpretation of that situation.

Discussion

Basic Findings

Consistent with Furr and Funder (2004), mean behavioral consistency was found to be higher across objectively similar, compared to objectively dissimilar, situation pairs. In addition, subjective situation similarity was found to be a relatively reliable predictor of behavioral consistency for males. However, results of the present research indicate

that, in contrast to Furr and Funder's basic finding, the similarity/consistency relationship appears to be somewhat less robust for females and open to the influence of a variety of moderators such as accuracy, and task type. Finally, the current results demonstrate a relationship between subjective situation similarity and objective situation similarity in that situations that share an objective element, tend to be rated as more subjectively similar than situations not sharing an objective element.

Extensions

Gender Differences. Previously unreported gender differences were uncovered in the current research. For females, the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency was moderated by accuracy and task type. This suggests that gender, a previously unmentioned construct in interactionist literature, is a central component of defining situations. Results from the current research suggest that for males, the relationship between subjective perception of situations and behavior in those situations is relatively direct and independent of both the accuracy of self-perception and the objective qualities of situations such as person present and type of task. In contrast, for females the relationship between subjective perception and behavior was moderated by both accuracy and task vs. partner focus; suggesting that what other individuals are doing in situations plays more of a role in situation perceptions for females than it does for males. These findings highlight the importance of a *self* vs. *other* orientation in social perception and are consistent with previous research on gender differences in Agency (self-focused) and Communion (other-focused).

Validity of situation features. This research also extends previous research on subjective situation similarity by assessing specific features associated with situations and

observed social behavior in those situations. These specific situation features and their relationship with social behavior ratings provide information about what components or aspects of situations are important for determining similarity. Put another way, what are the important psychological ingredients of situations? This question is the primary focus of study two, presented in chapter 4.

Limitations and Future Directions

Gender. Results indicate that gender, and the gender composition of interpersonal dyads is an important feature of situations. While available resources did not allow for this issue to be fully addressed, future research that addresses this issue will contain all possible gender combinations (i.e., include male participants interacting with each other). This will allow the effects of gender and the interaction between dyad gender to be examined in much greater detail.

True cross-situational consistency. The current results are consistent with the situation similarity hypothesis in that behavior tends to be more consistent across situations that are similar. True cross-situational consistency would ideally be examined by including multiple assessments of the same objective situation (e.g., multiple debates with strangers). Simply put, the more situations (similar and different) the better. This issue is discussed further in chapter 5.

Variance components (objective PLUS subjective). Consistent with theory and previous research on interactionism, the present results indicate that both objective and subjective situation similarity, and presumably by extension objective and subjective components of situations, are associated with behavioral consistency (Furr & Funder, 2004). A more comprehensive, and truly interactionist, model would ideally include

objective and subjective components as simultaneous predictors of behavioral consistency. For example, the current data will be used to conduct a multi-level analysis in which participants' subjective similarity scores and behavioral consistency scores for each pair of lab situations (dummy coded as either objectively similarly or dissimilar) are included simultaneously in the same analyses. This will allow the relationship between objective and subjective situation similarity to be formally addressed.

Causality. Both studies 1 and 2 raise interesting (and unanswerable) questions about the causal relationship between perceptions of situations and behavior. Discussion of causality, while very important, is covered in the general discussion of chapter 5. Interpretations and conclusions presented here only claim to have demonstrated that both objective and situation similarities are associated with behavioral consistency.

Chapter 4: Situation and Behavior Dimensions

The goal of study two was to determine the psychometric properties of the 36 subjective situation dimension items used in study one and to establish the construct validity of the subjective situation measure. Construct validity is a process, not revealed by a single statistical test, in which evidence is gathered across numerous studies until researchers are confident they know what the test does and does not measure (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). The present study examined the content of the situation dimensions within the context of Fleeson's (2007) findings reviewed in chapter 1.

In the daily diary method employed by Fleeson (2007), participants provided self-report ratings of their behavior and features of the situations they were in over the course of 14 days. Four such self-reports were made each day with each self-report intended to describe the previous 30 minutes of the participant's experience. Specifically, in each report, participants rated their own behavior on an adjective based measure of three of the Big Five; Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. Each trait was assessed with three items: (1) Extraversion: quiet (reversed), bold, energetic; (2) Agreeableness: polite, warm, unsympathetic (reversed); and (3) Conscientiousness: disorganized (reversed), hardworking, responsible.

Participants rated each situation on 14 situation features corresponding to three broad situation factors: (1) Anonymity of the situation (number of people present, how well the participant knew the others, how much the individual liked the others, and how structured the situation was; (2) Friendliness of the situation (how friendly the others were, how much the participant interacted with the others, and the others' status); and (3)

Task orientation (obligation, imposition, deadline nearness, and the interest level of the situation).

In a series of multi-level analyses, Fleeson (2007) demonstrated that situation features were reliable predictors of situation specific behavior. He found that the task oriented situation dimension was a significant predictor of conscientious behavior; the anonymity situation dimension was a significant predictor of extroverted behavior; and the friendliness situation dimension was a significant predictor of both extroverted and agreeable behavior.

As discussed in chapter 1, Fleeson's (2007) research findings are subject to alternative explanations (i.e., method variance) because they are based solely on self-reports of situations and behavior. The current study not only examines the content and predictive validity of the subjective situation factors, it extends Fleeson's (2007) research in a very important way. The current study utilizes reliable, trained coder ratings of behavior to move beyond the limitations of relying on self-report measures of behavior, which are subject to distortion and bias.

Overview of Current Research & Methods

The current research examined the content and predictive validity of the subjective situation features in two stages. The first set of analyses in study two attempted to identify the underlying factor structure of the 36 situation dimension items. The second set of analyses examined the relationship between the resulting situation dimension factors and the lab-based social behaviors to determine the predictive validity of the situation factors.

The relationship between subjective situation ratings and social behavior was examined in each of the four lab situations. As described in chapter 2 and summarized in Table 3, participants rated each of the 4 lab situations on 36 situation features. Participants' behavior was videotaped in each of the 4 lab situations and coded on 64 behavioral items. The 64 RBQ items were factor analyzed in a previous study and can be represented by four higher-order factors referred to as Socials Skills, Agreeableness, Hostility, and Intellectance (Funder, Furr & Colvin, 2001). Together, these 100 variables (i.e., 36 situation features and 64 RBQ items) represent four broad construct domains of cognition, affect, motives, and behavior and a wide range of specific constructs from smiling to hostility.

The goal of the first stage of analyses was to reduce the 36 observed variables to a smaller number of constructs. It is presumed that the resulting factors will reveal the number of dimensions needed to account for the variability in participants' situation ratings. In the second stage of analyses, the psychological meaning of these factors was explored by correlating participants' situation dimension factor scores in each lab situation with their social behavior in the same situation. Ideally, these analyses will: (1) produce a relatively small number of conceptually coherent situation dimensions; and (2) yield factors that display convergent validity when correlated with behavioral variables.

Analyses & Results

Step 1: Factor Structure of Situation Features

There were several options for factor analyzing the 36 situation dimensions. An exploratory factor analysis could be conducted separately on each lab situation or on the aggregate of the four lab situations. The latter option was chosen as it was presumed that

the factor analysis based on the aggregate would be more reliable than one based on a single lab situation. For each participant, ratings on the 36 situation features were averaged across the 4 lab situations. The composite situation dimension rating indicated how participants perceived the four lab situations on average. The strength of aggregating the feature ratings across the four lab situations is that it may provide a more reliable measure of each item and its relationship with the other items across a range of situations. One important limitation is that if the factor structure of the items is situation specific or varies across situations, the analysis of the aggregate data will not generalize to these situations. This issue will be explored in future analyses.

Exploratory factor analysis. The 36 situation features were submitted to principle axis factoring followed by promax rotation. Eigenvalues for an unconstrained solution are displayed in Table 12; the scree plot is presented in Figure 2. Nine of the 36 factors had eigenvalues greater than one, which accounted for 70% of the variability in the situation ratings. Inspection of the scree plot suggested that five factors, as opposed to nine, offered the best compromise between variance accounted for and a simple factor structure.

Although inspection of the scree plot suggests a five-factor solution, a second series of exploratory factor analyses were conducted to examine three, four, and five factor solutions. These alternative factor solutions were compared to the five-factor solution to aid in interpreting the factor structure. Final interpretation of factor structure is ultimately a subjective decision which is informed by the statistical parameters, the conceptual content of the factors, and the utility of the factors to predict meaningful criteria. The three and four factor solutions appeared to collapse situation strength and

negative affect into a single factor; the three factor solution also combined positive affect and dominance into a single factor. An entire domain of research suggests that positive and negative affect are independent and widely relevant constructs (Watson & Clark, 1991). In the present analyses, it was expected that positive and negative affect would emerge. The five-factor solution proved to be optimal. It preserved the positive and negative affect factors, and the situation strength and dominance factors that personality and social psychologists believe are independent constructs (Helgeson & Fritz, 1999). A discussion of the five-factor solution follows.

The five-factor solution. The eigenvalues and scree plot for the five-factor solution are presented in Table 12 and Figure 3 respectively. The five factors (a) had eigenvalues over 2.00, (b) accounted for 55% of the variance in the situation ratings, and (c) displayed a reasonable degree of independence in that the highest factor inter-correlation is .37 between factors 1 and 4. Factor loadings for the rotated five-factor solution are presented in Table 13 and are sorted from highest to lowest loading for each factor. Descriptive statistics, alpha reliabilities and factor intercorrelations based on unit-weighted scores for each of the five factors are displayed in Table 14.

Factor 1. Eight items loaded on the first factor: Endurance, Joviality, Self-Assurance, Attentiveness, Involvement, Familiarity, Understanding, and Achievement. The content of the items suggested that the factor is a combination of positive affect (Joviality), a corresponding sense of confidence (Self-Assurance, Familiarity) and active involvement in the situation (Involvement, Attentiveness, Understanding, Endurance, and Achievement). These items appear to index the degree to which an individual finds

situations to be familiar, feels comfortable in situations, and is actively involved. This factor was labeled Positive Affect.

Factor 2. The following nine items loaded on factor 2: Change (this item was reverse-keyed which from here on in will be identified as RK), Cognitive Structure, Order, Serenity (RK), Weak/Strong, Autonomy (RK), Bad/Good (RK), Chosen/Mandatory, and Impulsivity (RK). The item content suggests a dimension in which situations are perceived as "strong" at one pole and "weak" at the other. Strong situations are defined as those that possess strong cues to follow norms and expectations for appropriate behavior. For example, structure, order, and stability items all load positively on this factor, while the perception of freedom to act independently is low as indicated by the negative loadings of the change, autonomy, and impulsivity items. The affective dimensions bad/good and serenity also load negatively on this factor. This factor indicates that people generally dislike highly structured situations that limit personal choice. The factor was labeled "Situation Strength" based on Murray's notion of "press" which indicates the amount of pressure or influence a situation exerts on a person.

Factor 3. The third factor comprised the items Sentience, Succorance, Nurturance, Play, Abasement (e.g. modesty, agreeableness), Affiliation, Social-Recognition, and Public/Private. The items emphasize being with others (Affiliation), fostering interpersonal relationships (Nurturance), a lack of dominance over others (Abasement, Succorance), a general concern for others' perceptions (Social-Recognition) and are rated as relatively as private on the public/private dimension. Together these

items reflect the desire to be with and accepted by others, a construct typically referred to as Communion.

Factor 4. Factor 4 is comprised of the items Shyness (RK), Dominance, Exhibition, Power, Dependence, Harm-avoidance (RK; i.e. “fearlessness”), and Competitiveness. It clearly reflects the broader constructs of social dominance and perhaps hostility at extreme levels. This factor was labeled Agency (self-focused, independent, achievement oriented).

Factor 5. The final factor contains the items Sadness, Guilt, Hostility, and Fear. These items are all from the PANAS negative affect factor; therefore, factor five is labeled negative affect.

Further interpretation of the factors is reserved until the behavioral correlates are examined.

Step 2: Behavioral Correlates of Situation Factors

The next series of analyses examined the predictive validity of the five situation dimension factors. Participants’ scores on the five situation dimension factors were correlated with the four RBQ factors in each of the four lab situations. These analyses addressed several research questions. First, the predictive validity of each situation dimension is examined; if the situation factors are valid measures of situation properties then the dimensions should be associated with behavior. Second, the specific content of the situation factors is examined. It is reasonable to expect that the factors should not only correlate with behavior, but that these correlates should be conceptually meaningful. For example, a positive correlation between participants’ situation ratings on situation-

specific positive affect and their relaxed and comfortable social behavior is evidence for the predictive validity of the positive affect dimension.

Situation specific analyses. To examine the relationship between the situation factors and behavior in each of the four lab situations, situation factors scores were created for each of the five situation dimension factors. Separately for each of the four lab situations, situation factor scores were computed by taking the mean of participants' ratings on items corresponding to each of the five situation factors. Specifically, positive affect factor scores for each situation were computed by averaging ratings on the 8 positive affect items. Likewise, the situation strength factor score was computed by averaging ratings on the 9 situation strength items. The remaining 3 situation factor scores were computed using the same procedure. Descriptive statistics for the situation factor scores for each lab situation are displayed in Table 15.

Means for the situation factors across the four lab situations suggest that the objective components of each of the four lab situations (i.e., partner and task) produced reliable effects on the subjective situation variables. For example, the debate situations, in which participants were given a specific task, were rated as stronger than the conversations in which participants were given minimal instructions on how to behave. In addition, the debates were rated higher on negative affect, which is consistent with the previously reported correlation between negative affect and situation strength. Likewise, the debates were rated lower on positive affect, lower on communion, and higher on agency.

Behavioral correlates of situation factors. Tables 16 through 24 display RBQ behavior correlates for each situation factor in each of the friend talk, and friend debate

lab situations. For simplicity of presentation only subset of the situation-behavior correlates is discussed to provide an example of how each situation factor correlates with overt behavior.

Behavioral correlates of positive and negative affect. Participants who rated situations as being high on positive affect were rated by behavioral coders as relaxed and comfortable, enjoying the interaction, enthusiastic, and not being insecure, anxious or awkward. These correlates are present in both the talking (Table 16) and debating situations (Table 17). The experience of positive affect in debate situations is associated with behavior that is characterized as ambitious, competitive, and controlling. In contrast, Tables 18 and 19 indicate that the experience of negative affect is associated with expressing criticism and speaking sarcastically. Though interestingly, correlates of negative affect for the debate situation indicates that viewing the debate situation as high on negative affect is associated with competitive, expressive, and ambitious behavior suggesting that the experience of negative affect in the debate situation is associated with a willingness to debate.

Behavioral correlates of situation strength. As presented in Table 20, perceptions of situation strength are associated with a lack of expressivity and enthusiasm. For example, the situation strength factor is correlated with behaving in a fearful manner, being reserved and unexpressive, and exhibiting a noticeable lack of enthusiasm or energy.

Behavioral correlates of Agency and Communion. Tables 21 through 24 display the behavioral correlates of the agency and communion situation dimensions. Perceptions of communion were associated with engagement in the interactions and a genuine interest

in what others had to say (Tables 21 and 22). In contrast, an agentic evaluation of the situation was associated with behavioral dominance (Tables 23 and 24). These results provide several examples of person-situation interactions that are expected in interactionist research. A discussion of all possibilities is beyond the scope of the current research. For example, while participants were generally more competitive in the debates than in the unstructured conversations, there were exceptions to this pattern. Participants who perceived the debates to be highly communal situations exhibited communal, non-competitive behavior. This subgroup of participants essentially behaved in a manner opposite to the majority of participants. When participants rated the debate high on communion, they expressed agreement, sought advice, gave up when faced with obstacles, and behaved submissively (Table 22). In contrast, participants who perceived the debate situation as low on the communal dimension exhibited competitive and condescending behavior.

Discussion

Study two explored the factor structure of the situation features, examined mean differences in situation factor scores across the four lab situations, and examined the behavioral correlates of each factor. The situation dimension items were reduced to five reliable factors that exhibited psychologically meaningful relationships with coded behavior.

Situation Factors

The present study attempted to identify the psychologically active features of situations; that is, the properties of situations that are associated with behavior in them. The five situation factors identified in the current research are comprised of cognitive,

affective, and motivational variables that correspond to previously established constructs of positive affect, negative affect, situation strength, agency, and communion. The five subjective situation factors exhibit conceptual overlap with the five-factor model of personality.

The conceptual overlap implies that the “language” for describing psychological situations corresponds closely to the “language” of personality. This suggests that “situation” variables are not “new” or “alternative” constructs but rather that situations can be described and defined based on the personality characteristics of the individuals in them; that is, their thoughts, feelings, motivations, and behavior. This idea is consistent with Allport’s description of traits as influencing both “input” and “output;” that is perception and behavior.

From this perspective, the five situation dimensions measured in the current research may represent the perceptual component of the five-factor model of personality. Specifically, the positive and negative affect factors represent the extent to which a situation is perceived to be associated with positive and negative affective experiences; and are associated with behavioral manifestations of positive and negative affect respectively. The situation strength factor corresponds to openness to experience; the degree to which an individual is open to, and able to adapt to novelty. The factor is associated with the perceived opportunity to explore (perceptions of situation strength), the desire to explore (change motivation) and corresponding enthusiastic, engaged behavior. The construct of agency corresponds closely to aspects of conscientiousness and represents an independent, self-focused orientation, which is associated with competitive, dominant, even hostile and condescending behavior. In contrast, the

communion factor corresponds closely to agreeableness, represents an inter-dependent, relationship-focused orientation that is associated with behavior indicating a genuine interest in other people.

Objective & Subjective Situation Properties

Studies 1 and 2 indicate that both objective and subjective properties of situations are associated with behavior. As suggested previously, one way of defining situations is based on the personalities of the individuals comprising that situation. Objective situations consist of the behavior of people who are in the situations and the experimenter prescribed characteristics such as having an individual talk with an acquaintance or stranger, or instructing the individual to engage in a competitive task. In contrast, the subjective features of situations correspond to emotional experiences (i.e., affect), beliefs and expectancies (i.e. cognition), and what an individual is trying to accomplish in those situations (i.e. motivation). That is, the subjective “psychological situation” can be defined by what a person thinks, feels, and is motivated to accomplish in the situation, which is influenced considerably by his or her personality.

This perspective is consistent with Murray’s distinction between alpha press and beta press discussed in chapter 1. For example, the objective behavior exhibited by other people in a situation will obviously contribute to the meaning of that situation. However, because objective aspects of situations may be open to multiple interpretations, the ultimate meaning that a given objective behavior will have can differ from person-to-person depending on the subjective interpretation of that behavior.

Extensions

The current research replicated and extended previous findings by demonstrating that subjective situation factors correlate with situation specific behavior. Specifically, many of the findings of the current research map closely to Fleeson's (2007) results. For example, in the current research the positive affect situation dimension was associated with engagement in the situation, relaxed and comfortable behavior and social skills. This finding is consistent with Fleeson's (2007) correlation between the anonymity situation factor and extroverted behavior. Similarly, the current results indicate that the communion situation dimension is associated with agreeable behavior; for example not acting superior to others and being interested in what others are saying. This finding is a replication of Fleeson's (2007) correlation between the friendliness situation factor and agreeable behavior. Thus, while the current research is consistent with Fleeson's findings it extends them by demonstrating that subjective situation perceptions are associated with actual social behavior (i.e., non-self-reported behavior).

Chapter 5: General Discussion

Chapter five summarizes the research findings from study one and study two, addresses the limitations of the current research, and provides suggestions for future research.

Situation Similarity and Behavioral Consistency

The goal of study one was to replicate and extend previous research on the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency. More specifically, while previous research has documented the relationship between objective situation similarity and behavioral consistency (Funder & Colvin, 1991; Furr & Funder, 2004), only one study has explored the relationship between subjective situation similarity and behavioral consistency. It focused on two situations and the situation similarity measure consisted of one item in which participants indicated on a seven point scale the degree to which the situations were similar. While this study provided evidence that situation similarity and behavioral consistency are related, it was silent regarding the situation features that are most salient to people.

Study one addressed this issue by developing a self-report measure of situation features that allowed the psychological content of situations to be examined. The research findings, as predicted, indicated that the subjective situation similarity scores derived from this measure were correlated with behavioral consistency. However, the research revealed that the situation similarity/behavioral consistency relationship is more complex than suggested by previous research. For females, the subjective situation similarity-behavioral consistency relationship was moderated by the accuracy of their self-perception and the objective differences between situations (partner vs. task). Thus,

study one provided preliminary evidence for the validity of the situation similarity measure, but also revealed several issues to be addressed in future research. These issues include the role of gender composition in social situations and additional moderators of the subjective situation similarity-behavioral consistency relationship.

Situation and Behavior Dimensions

Study two examined the content and the predictive validity of the subjective situation ratings. Five categories of subjective situation evaluations were identified through factor analysis. These categories or factors were labeled positive affect, negative affect, situation strength, agency and communion. The predictive validity of these situation dimensions was examined across the four lab situations. The results demonstrated a moderate level of predictive validity as the five situation factors predicted situation specific behavior across all four lab situations.

Summary

Overall, the present research was successful in developing a measure of the subjective properties of situations to (a) assess situation similarity and (b) predict behavior consistency. Furthermore, the measure also revealed specific situation dimensions that were associated with situation specific behavior.

Limitations and Future Directions

Self-report. One limitation of the present research is the reliance on self-report measures. Research has documented biases in self-perception (Colvin & Block, 1994; Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995), deliberate attempts to make a favorable impression on others (Paulhus, 1984), and lack of self-insight (Vogt & Colvin, 2005) that may lead participants to inaccurately report their affective experiences and behaviors. So, while

the goal of the self-report assessment procedures is to gain a comprehensive understanding of how individuals describe themselves and the relevant situations in their lives, the results based on this procedure must be evaluated in the context of its limitations.

It is likely that the influence of biases, impression management, and lack of self-insight will moderate the predictive validity of participants' self-reports. For example, it might be expected that self-reports will predict behavior for participants who know themselves well, and are willing and able to report accurately about how they feel and behave in various situations. On the other hand, the validity of self-reports may be minimal for those participants who are unwilling or unable to describe themselves accurately. Findings from study one suggest that this is the case for females in certain situations. However, accuracy, and the measurement of it, is a complex research issue. Future research that develops a priori accuracy measures to examine the moderating affect of accuracy on the situation similarity-behavioral consistency relationship may be able to explain more completely the moderator findings from the current study.

Behavior. There are several limitations in the way that behavior and situations were assessed in the current research. Only a small number of situations were assessed; specifically, how participants behave around a specific friend (in a lab setting), and how participants behave around strangers in a brief interaction (again, in a lab setting). In addition to the contrived nature of these situations, participants were essentially forced to participate in them. Future research should assess behavior in a wider array of situations, and if possible, assess behavior in situations that are relevant to participants. The data in

each participant's feature by situation matrix would lend themselves nicely to naturalistic observation or experience sampling (e.g. Mehl, Gosling, & Pennebaker, 2006).

Moreover, the current design does not address within-situation consistency over time. It may be recalled that one of the assumptions of the interactionism perspective is that an individual's behavior should be relatively consistent in similar situations.

However, the validation of this assumption requires the measurement of behavior in the same or objectively similar situations over time so that behavioral consistency can be measured. A more comprehensive assessment would include at least two different situations with multiple behavioral assessments in each type of situation over time. In this way, behavioral consistency within each type of situation, and behavioral variability across the two types of situations could be measured.

Alternative Analyses

While a comprehensive data set like the one collected in the current research allows for a wide variety of research questions to be addressed, it also provides multiple ways of assessing a particular question. The present research was a first step, and employed previously used methods. However, most of the analyses presented can be conducted in alternate ways. These issues are related to the construct validity of the measures and must be addressed.

Situation dimensions. The situation dimensions identified in the current research were extracted from exploratory factor analyses conducted on an average of participants' ratings across all four lab situations. While scale scores constructed within each situation based on this factor structure were reliable, the possibility that the situation dimensions are related to each other in different ways across different situations should be addressed.

For example, confirmatory factor analyses could be conducted within each of the four situations. Further, while the normative factor structure may represent the covariation among situation features for most of the sample, it is quite possible that certain individuals will demonstrate alternative factors structures.

Situation similarity measures. The situation similarity measure used in the present research uses behavioral consistency as a validity criterion and the same statistical technique is used to measure both (i.e. profile correlations). However, a variety of other methods of indexing similarity with the present data are available. For example, difference scores between situations can be used to index absolute similarity. The relationship between these two operational definitions should be explored. In addition, the five situation factors identified in study two could be used to examine subjective situation similarity at the level of each factor. Each participant receives a score for each of the five situation factors in each of the four situations. Using the difference score approach, situations can be compared for how similar they are on each of the five factors. For example, two situations may be drastically different on the communion dimension but identical on the positive affect dimension. These specific analyses would help to identify what specific components of situations are most important for determining situation similarity.

“Integrated”, multi-level analyses. The current analyses were based on standard statistical analyses in personality psychology (i.e., correlations, factor analyses, and multiple regression). However, the data actually lend themselves to more sophisticated statistical techniques. First, while both objective and subjective situation similarity are associated with behavioral consistency and objective and subjective features of situations

are associated with situation specific behavior, the direct relationship between objective and subjective properties is left unexplored. Further, the extent to which each is associated with behavior independent of the other is not addressed. Future research should attempt to integrate both subjective and objective properties of situations in the prediction of behavior. Second, because participants interacted in dyads, the data are “nested,” and the influence that one person’s behavior has on the other in particular situation should be examined. Finally, because participants were assessed in multiple situations, multi-level modeling would allow relationships between perception and behavior to be examined in the entire sample, simultaneously across each of the four lab situations. Fleeson (2007) used this approach to demonstrate that a statistically significant effect at the sample level may not hold for very subject, and for many it was reversed.

Causality

The data collected in the current research are mostly correlational. Therefore, no causal claims can be made about the relationship between situation similarity and behavioral consistency or situation specific perceptions and situation specific behavior. It is quite likely that these constructs are causally related; however, the interactionism perspective suggests that there may be multiple causal relationships.

Social cognition as mediator of situation behavior link. One possible causal relationship is that perception causes behavior. That is, an individual’s perception of a situation as highly structured may cause that individual to act in accordance with the demands of the situation. Similarly, the perception of two situations as equally enjoyable might cause an individual to behave in a cheerful manner in both. This view is consistent

with social-cognitive research suggesting that the way people think about themselves and others plays a causal role in behavior (Mischel & Shoda, 1995). A great deal of social psychological research has demonstrated that the variables assessed in the current research can play a causal role in behavior (e.g. emotion manipulations cause systematic changes in behavior; see Bargh, & Morsella, 2008). Thus, it is likely that in the current research, social cognition may play a causal role in behavior.

Perception as passive observation. In contrast, research has supported the notion that beliefs about the self do not cause behavior, but that behavior, including feedback from others and introspection may actually cause various beliefs about the self to develop. From this perspective, it is the individual reflecting back on his or her similar behavior across two situations, or receiving consistent feedback from others that would cause that individual to view those two situations as similar (Cooley, 1902). Likewise, reflecting on one's own competitive behavior in a situation, or receiving feedback from others that indicates the individual is competitive would cause that individual to view the situation as competitive (Bem, 1972). This possibility is quite likely in the current research given that situation ratings were made *after* participants took part in each situation.

Reciprocal determinism. The interactionism perspective suggests that both the social-cognitive perspective and the looking-glass/self-perception perspectives are correct. That is, it may be that the behavior of an individual in a given situation (or feedback from others) may cause that individual to interpret the situation in a certain way. Yet, that resulting perception can then be used to guide future behavior (by perhaps responding to situation features in a different way, or even avoiding the situation

altogether). Thus, the current research makes no specific causal claims, but rather suggests that the causal relationship between behavior and situation properties is reciprocal in that each can influence the other.

Conclusion

The current research demonstrated methods useful for addressing issues related to interactionism. Specifically, the current research developed a contextualized personality assessment method capable of indexing both objective and subjective properties of situations, and subjective and objective similarity of situations. Results indicate that two objective situation properties (partner type and task type) and five subjective situation factors (positive and negative affect, situation strength, agency and communion) are associated with individual differences in situation specific behavior and behavioral consistency across situations. In addition, previously unreported gender differences indicate that gender composition is an important component of situations and that its influence differs for men and women.

The hope is that developing methods for examining the psychologically active features of situations and integrating them with existing measures of personality will allow for a better understanding of social behavior. For example, a standard trait measure of personality can tell us that a particular person scores high on extroversion (relative to others) and is therefore likely to behave in an extroverted manner *in general*; the method proposed in the current research would indicate *more specifically* what kinds of situations the individual is likely to be extroverted in and if there are types of situations in which we may find an exception to this general tendency. As Raush (1977) clearly articulates, “we cannot generalize about persons without implicit or explicit reference to the situations for

which the generalizations are presumably valid, and we cannot generalize about situations without implicit or explicit reference to the persons for whom the generalizations are presumably valid” (p. 288).

References

- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Henry Holt & Co.
- Allport, G. W. (1942). *The use of personal documents in psychological science*. New York: Social Science Research Council.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bargh, J.A., & Morsella, E. (2008). The unconscious mind. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3, 73-79
- Bem, D. J. (1972). Self-Perception Theory. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 6, pp.1-62). New York: Academic Press.
- Bem, D. J., & Allen, A. (1974). On predicting some of the people some of the time: The search for cross-situational consistencies in behavior. *Psychological Review*, 81, 506-520.
- Block, J. (1977). Advancing the psychology of personality: Paradigmatic shift or improving the quality of research. In D. Magnusson, & N. Endler, (Eds.), *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology* (chapter 2). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Block, J., & Kremen, A. M. (1996). IQ and ego-resiliency: Conceptual and empirical connections and separateness. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 70, 349-361.

- Cattell, R. B. (1965). *The scientific analysis of personality*. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books, Inc.
- Cohen, P., Cohen, J., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analyses for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Colvin, C. R., & Funder, D. C. (1991). Predicting personality and behavior: A boundary on the acquaintanceship effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *60*, 884-894.
- Colvin, C. R., Block, J., & Funder, D. C. (1995). Overly positive self-evaluations and personality: Negative implications for mental health. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*, 1152-1162.
- Colvin, C. R., & Block, J. (1994). Do positive illusions foster mental health? An examination of the Taylor and Brown formulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *116*, 3-20.
- Cooley, C. H. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory and NEO Five-Factor Inventory - Professional Manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1988). From catalog to classification: Murray's needs and the five-factor model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*, 258-265.

- Cronbach, L. J. & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin*, 52, 281-302.
- Ekehammar, B. (1974). Interactionism in personality from a historical perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, 81, 1026-1048.
- Emmons, R. A., & Diener, E. (1986). Situation selection as a moderator of response consistency and stability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1013-1019.
- Endler, N. S. & Magnusson, D. (1976). Toward an interactional psychology of personality. *Psychological Bulletin*, 83, 956-974.
- Epstein, S. (1983). Aggregation and beyond: Some basic issues on the prediction of behavior. *Journal Of Personality*, 51, 360-392.
- Fleeson, W. (2007). Situation-Based Contingencies Underlying Trait-Content Manifestation in Behavior *Journal Of Personality*, 75, 825-862.
- Forgas, J. P. (1983). Episode cognition and personality: A multidimensional analysis. *Journal of Personality*, 51, 34-48.
- Forgas, J. P. (1976). The perception of social episodes: Categorical and dimensional representations in two different social milieus. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, 199-209.
- Funder, D. C. (2006). Towards a resolution of the personality triad: Persons, situations, and behaviors. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40, 21-34.

- Funder, D. C. (2001). Personality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 197-221.
- Funder, D. C., Furr, R. M., & Colvin, C. R. (2000). The Riverside Behavioral Q-sort: A tool for the description of social behavior. *Journal of Personality*, 68, 451-489.
- Funder, D. C. & Ozer, D. J. (1983). Behavior as a function of the situation. *Journal Of Personality & Social Psychology*, 44, 107-112.
- Furr, R. M., & Funder, D. C. (2004). Situational similarity and behavioral consistency: Subjective, objective, variable-centered, and person-centered approaches. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38, 421-447.
- Griffo, R. & Colvin, C. R. (2009). A brief look at interactionism: Past and present. *Journal Of Research In Personality*, 43, 243-244.
- Helgeson, V. S., & Heidi, L. F. (1999). Unmitigated agency and unmitigated communion: Distinctions from agency and communion. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 33, 131-158.
- Hogan, R. (2005). In Defense of personality measurement: New wine for old winners. *Human Performance*, 18, 331-342.
- Jaccard, J., & Dittus, P. (1990). Idiographic and nomothetic perspectives on research methods and data analysis. In C. Hendrick, & M. S. Clark (Eds.), *Research Methods in Personality and Social Psychology* (pp. 312–351). London: Sage Publications.
- Jackson, D. N. (1999). *Personality Research Form Manual*. Port Huron, MI: Research Psychologists Press.

- Johnson, J. A. (1999). Persons in situations: Distinguishing new wine from old wine in new bottles. *European Journal of Personality, 13*, 443-453.
- Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The psychology of personal constructs*. New York: Norton.
- Kihlstrom, J. F., & Olsen, D. (1992). *User manual for the PERSPACE software system*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Arizona.
- Letzring, T. D., Block, J., & Funder, D. C. (2005). Ego-control and ego-resiliency: Generalization of self-report scales based on personality descriptions from acquaintances, clinicians, and the self. *Journal of Research in Personality, 39*, 395-422.
- Magnusson, D., & Endler, N. (1977). *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Marwell, G., & Hage, J. (1970). The organization of role relationships: A systematic description *American Sociological Review, 35*, 884-900.
- McAdams, D. P. (1997). A conceptual history of personality psychology. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 3-39). Sand Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1988). Age, personality, and the spontaneous self-concept. *Journals of Gerontology, 43*, S177-185.
- Mehl, M. R., Gosling, S. D., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2006). Personality in its natural habitat: Manifestations and implicit folk theories of personality in daily life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90*, 862-877.

- Mischel, W. (1968). *Personality and assessment*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Mischel, W., & Shoda, Y. (1995). A cognitive-affective system theory of personality: Reconceptualizing situations, dispositions, dynamics, and invariance in personality structure. *Psychological Review*, *102*, 246-268.
- Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in personality: a clinical and experimental study of fifty men of college age*. Oxford, England: Oxford Univ. Press.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1984). Two-component models of socially desirable responding. *Journal Of Personality & Social Psychology*, *46*, 598-609.
- Pelham, B. W. (1993). The idiographic nature of human personality: Examples of the idiographic self-concept. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology*, *64*, 665-677.
- Pervin, L. A. (1976). A free-response description approach to the analysis of person-situation interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *34*, 465-474.
- Pervin, L. A. (2002). *Current controversies and issues in personality*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sones Inc.
- Raush, H. L. (1977). Paradox levels, and junctures in person-situation systems. In D. Magnusson, & N. Endler (Eds.), *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology* (pp. 287-204). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Roberts, B. W. (2007). Contextualizing personality psychology. *Journal Of Personality*, 75.
- Rosenberg, S. (1997). Multiplicity of selves. In R. D. Ashmore, & L. J. Jussim (Eds.), *Self and identity* (pp 23-45). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General & Applied*, 80, 1-28.
- Runyan, W. M. (1983). Idiographic goals and methods in the study of lives. *Journal of Personality*, 51, 413-437.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 1069-1081.
- Saucier, G., Bel-Bahar, T., & Fernandez, C. (2007). What modifies the expression of personality tendencies? Defining basic domains of situation variables. *Journal of Personality*, 75, 479-504.
- Skinner, B. F. (1938). *The behavior of organisms: An experimental analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Shoda, Y., Mischel, W., & Wright, J. C. (1994). Intraindividual stability in the organization and patterning of behavior: Incorporating psychological situations into the idiographic analysis of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67, 674-687.

- Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (1986). On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment, matters of validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 125-139.
- Triandis, H. C. (1972). *The analysis of subjective culture*. New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- Vogt, D. S., & Colvin, C. R. (2003). Interpersonal orientation and the accuracy of personality judgements. *Journal of Personality, 71*, 267-295.
- Vogt, D. C. & Colvin, C. R. (2005). Assessment of accurate self-knowledge. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 84*, 239-251.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1991). Preliminary manual for the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Expanded Form). Unpublished manuscript, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, TX.
- Wish, M., Deutsch, M., & Kaplan, S. J. (1976). Perceived dimensions of interpersonal relations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 33*, 409-420.

Table 1

Sample Feature by Situation Matrix from Pervin (1976).

Feature List	Dinner Parents	Dinner Wife	Lunch Patients	Staff Seminar	Argue w/ Wife	With Jack
<u>Situation</u>						
<u>Characteristics</u>						
Warm	3	3	2	2	1	2
Caring	3	3	1	1	1	2
Challenging	1	1	3	3	2	1
Stimulating	2	2	2	2	1	1
Fun	2	2	1	1	1	2
Threatening	1	1	1	1	3	1
Permissive	2	2	1	1	1	3
<u>Affect</u>						
Secure	3	3	2	2	1	2
Challenged	1	1	3	3	2	1
Excited	2	2	1	1	1	2
Carefree	2	2	1	1	1	2
Nervous	1	1	2	2	3	1
Depressed	1	1	1	1	3	1
Bored	1	1	1	1	1	3
<u>Behaviors</u>						
Open	3	3	1	1	1	2
Friendly	3	3	2	2	1	3
Affectionate	3	3	1	1	1	1
Relaxed	2	2	1	1	1	2
Frustrated	1	1	1	1	3	1
Angry	1	1	1	1	3	1
Flashy	1	1	1	1	1	3

Table 2

Qualitative Results of One Participant's Feature by Situation Matrix Factor Analysis from Pervin (1976).

	Situation Factors				
	Home & Family	Work & School	Private Recreation	Tension	Friends & Public Recreation
Illustrative Situations	Talking w/ parents; dinner w/ wife; visiting in-laws; talking w/ wife	Talking w/ patients; lunch w/ patients & staff; tutoring kids; staff seminars; seminar at school	Reading for pleasure; going to museum; shopping	Driving alone in bad weather; arguing w/ wife; w/ patients who are acting out	Drinking in Mike's Bar; joking w/ friend Pete; relaxing in Jack's apartment; talking w/ friends at school
Situation Characteristics	Warm, caring, friendly, relaxed, inviting	Thought-provoking, interesting, stimulating	Diverse, stimulating, enjoyable, spontaneous, fun	Frustrating, threatening, tense, anxiety provoking	Innocuous, tolerant, permissive, pleasant
Affect	Affectionate, warm, secure, caring	Challenged, curious, actualizing, interesting, fascinating	Excited, pleasure-seeking, carefree, uninhibited	Nervous, tense, under pressure, depressed	Friendly, easygoing, exhibitionistic, bored
Behavior	Caring, warm, easygoing, emotional, pleasant	Curious, extroverted, warm, friendly, questioning	Relaxed, intelligent, elated, awed, curious	Frustrated, anxious, angry, emotional	Flashy, extroverted, friendly, sociable,

Note. Adapted from "A Free-Response Description Approach to the Analysis of Person-Situation Interaction" by L. A. Pervin, 1976, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, p. 467. Copyright 2003 by the American Psychological Association.

Table 3

Sample Feature by Situation Matrix.

Feature List	Listed Situations					Lab Situations			
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Situation Dimensions (8)									
1. Intimacy	3	2	1	1	3	3	3	1	1
8. Involvement	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	2	3
Affect (8)									
1. Joviality	3	2	1	1	1	3	3	2	1
8. Hostility	1	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	2
Motives (20)									
1. Achievement	1	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	3
20. Social Recognition	3	1	1	1	2	3	2	3	3
Behavior Dimensions (64)									
1. Is talkative	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	2	3
64. Smiles frequently	3	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	1

Note. Full matrix contains 8 situation dimensions, 8 affects, 20 motives, and 64 behaviors. Each participant listed between 8 and 18 situations.

Table 4

Mean Differences in Subjective Situation Similarity and Coded Behavioral Consistency Across Objectively Similar and Dissimilar Lab Situation Pairs.

Lab Situation Pairs	Shared Feature	Subjective Situation Similarity		Coded Behavioral Consistency	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Objectively Similar Pairs					
Friend Talk & Stranger Talk	Task	.71	.28	.68	.24
Stranger Talk & Stranger Debate	Partner	.69	.33	.62	.29
Friend Debate & Stranger Debate	Task	.72	.29	.51	.31
Friend Talk & Friend Debate	Partner	.54	.36	.50	.22
Mean		.66	.23	.58	.17
Objectively Dissimilar Pairs					
Friend Talk & Stranger Debate	None	.52	.27	.47	.27
Friend Debate & Stranger Talk	None	.52	.32	.45	.23
Mean		.52	.26	.45	.19
T-Test					
Mean Difference		.14		.13	
T-value		8.63		9.07	

Note. T-values are result of paired sample t-test, means differ at $p < .001$ ($df = 74$).

Table 5

Subjective Situation Similarity Correlated with Objective Behavioral Consistency (Full Sample).

Objective Behavioral Consistency	Subjective Situation Similarity					
	Lab Situation Pair					
	1-2	1-3	1-4	2-3	2-4	3-4
Friend Talk (1) & Friend Debate (2)	.01	-.02	.03	.09	.02	.01
Friend Talk (1) & Stanger Talk (3)	-.14	.06	-.03	-.06	-.07	-.10
Friend Talk (1) & Stranger Debate (4)	.15	.20	.34*	.10	.11	.20+
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Talk (3)	.14	.12	.04	.13	.00	.09
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Debate (4)	-.15	.02	-.05	-.09	.08	-.13
Stranger Talk (3) & Stranger Debate (4)	.04	.17	.33*	.11	-.01	.30*

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 6

*Subjective Situation Similarity Correlated with Objective Behavioral Consistency
(Females).*

Objective Behavioral Consistency	Subjective Situation Similarity					
	Lab Situation Pair					
	1-2	1-3	1-4	2-3	2-4	3-4
Friend Talk (1) & Friend Debate (2)	<u>-.20</u>	-.16	-.11	-.05	-.19	-.04
Friend Talk (1) & Stanger Talk (3)	-.13	<u>.07</u>	-.08	.04	.03	-.03
Friend Talk (1) & Stranger Debate (4)	.27	.22	<u>.32</u> ⁺	.32 ⁺	.13	.26
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Talk (3)	-.01	.04	-.20	<u>-.02</u>	-.06	-.02
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Debate (4)	-.35*	.04	-.25	-.32 ⁺	<u>-.23</u>	-.34*
Stranger Talk (3) & Stranger Debate (4)	.03	.23	.22	.28	-.05	<u>.33</u> *

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 35 to 39 based on available data.

Table 7

*Subjective Situation Similarity Correlated with Objective Behavioral Consistency
(Males).*

Objective Behavioral Consistency	Subjective Situation Similarity					
	Lab Situation Pair					
	1-2	1-3	1-4	2-3	2-4	3-4
Friend Talk (1) & Friend Debate (2)	.28+	.15	.23	.29+	.17	.08
Friend Talk (1) & Stanger Talk (3)	-.16	.11	.08	-.22	-.16	-.16
Friend Talk (1) & Stranger Debate (4)	-.02	.21	.40*	-.18	.10	.16
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Talk (3)	.39*	.23	.37*	.37*	.06	.21
Friend Debate (2) & Stanger Debate (4)	.12	.03	.19	.18	.32*	.05
Stranger Talk (3) & Stranger Debate (4)	.06	.14	.45*	-.05	.02	.30+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 37 to 43 based on available data.

Table 8

Mean Differences in On vs. Off Diagonal Correlations

Sample	Mean Correlation		Diff
	On Diagonal (<i>n</i> = 6)	Off Diagonal (<i>n</i> = 30)	
Full Sample	.16	.04	.12
Female Participants	.05	-.01	.06
Male Participants	.31	.10	.21

Table 9

Behavioral Consistency Regressed on Situation Similarity, Accuracy, and Situation Similarity X Accuracy Interaction Term (Female Participants in Lab pair 2 & 3).

Variables	Coefficients					Correlations		
	Un-standardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
Constant	.487	.037	.899	13.347	.000	.908	.921	.896
Subjective Situation Similarity	-.004	.100	-.003	-.044	.965	-.034	-.008	-.003
Self-report Accuracy	.004	.184	.001	.022	.983	.097	.004	.001
Subjective Situation Similarity * Accuracy Interaction Term	1.416	.555	.175	2.553	.016	.223	.411	.171

Note. N = 36.

Table 10

Behavioral Consistency Regressed on Situation Similarity, Accuracy, and Situation Similarity X Accuracy Interaction Term (Female Participants in Lab pair 3 & 4).

Variables	Coefficients					Correlations		
	Un-standardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
Constant	.598	.034	.898	17.496	.000	.940	.949	.865
Subjective Situation Similarity	.117	.108	.059	1.089	.284	.138	.184	.054
Self-report Accuracy	-.180	.198	-.054	-.910	.369	.163	-.154	-.045
Subjective Situation Similarity * Accuracy Interaction Term	1.645	.579	.179	2.838	.008	.406	.438	.140

Note. N = 39.

Table 11

Subjective Situation Similarity Correlated with Behavioral Consistency Collapsed Across Tasks & Partners.

Situation Similarity Correlated with Behavioral Consistency		
	Friend to Stranger Situations (Collapsed across Task)	Talk to Debate Situations (Collapsed Across Partner)
Full Sample	.20+	.43*
Female	.08	.40*
Male	.42*	.48*

Note. + $p < .10$, * $p < .05$. Sample N = 74, Female N = 36, Male N = 38.

Table 12

Eigenvalues and total variance explained for first 10 factors.

Total Variance Explained							
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7.277	20.213	20.213	6.922	19.228	19.228	5.799
2	4.108	11.412	31.625	3.690	10.251	29.479	4.036
3	4.038	11.218	42.843	3.616	10.043	39.522	3.635
4	2.364	6.567	49.410	1.997	5.547	45.069	3.344
5	2.114	5.873	55.283	1.707	4.743	49.811	4.887
6	1.611	4.474	59.756	1.230	3.416	53.227	2.022
7	1.437	3.991	63.747	1.002	2.783	56.011	2.480
8	1.172	3.256	67.003	.774	2.150	58.160	1.935
9	1.041	2.890	69.893	.647	1.796	59.956	2.495
10	.915	2.541	72.434				

Table 13

Factor Pattern Matrix.

Situation Features	Positive Affect	Situation Strength	Communion	Agency	Negative Affect
Endurance	.813	.362	.019	-.057	-.074
Self-Assurance	.800	-.289	-.176	.031	.221
Joviality	.747	-.345	.020	-.100	.199
Attentiveness	.717	-.069	-.056	.006	.029
Involvement	.568	.037	.017	.094	-.072
Familiarity	.561	-.390	.004	.094	-.053
Understanding	.547	.373	.331	.056	-.118
Achievement	.514	.139	.175	.167	-.015
Change	.053	-.633	.011	.151	.116
Cognitive Structure	.124	.619	.077	.241	.012
Order	.235	.600	.212	-.052	.027
Serenity	.064	-.575	.135	.004	-.063
Weak/Strong	-.190	.570	.155	.087	.005
Autonomy	-.037	-.543	-.034	.125	.136
Bad/Good	.425	-.464	.123	.150	-.101
Chosen/Mandatory	-.199	.399	.020	.153	.033
Impulsivity	-.373	-.391	.294	.241	.139
Sentience	-.118	.036	.700	.211	.185
Succorance	.004	.210	.696	-.175	.026
Nurturance	.137	.106	.630	-.126	-.029
Play	-.053	-.237	.622	.328	.144
Abasement	-.133	.074	.603	-.381	.113

					92
Affiliation	.346	-.075	.547	-.114	-.050
Social Recognition	.007	.418	.503	.375	-.033
Public/Private	.258	-.236	.430	.026	-.075
Shyness	.048	.173	.010	-.745	.145
Dominance	.084	.309	-.205	.684	-.054
Exhibition	.080	-.067	.226	.543	-.067
Power	.057	-.158	-.013	.524	-.054
Defendence	.221	.265	-.168	.519	.209
Harmavoidance	.042	.056	-.164	-.498	.013
Coop/Compete	-.070	.138	-.252	.471	.248
Sadness	-.042	-.203	.166	-.030	.783
Guilt	.016	-.025	.161	-.120	.716
Hostility	.209	.182	-.213	.004	.632
Fear	-.026	.348	.196	-.343	.404

Table 14

Situation Factor Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations.

Situation Factors	Descriptive Statistics		Factor Correlation Matrix				
	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Positive Affect (1)	2.85	.38	.88				
Negative Affect (2)	1.15	.19	-.07	.67			
Situation Strength (3)	1.34	.34	-.26*	.19+	.75		
Agency (4)	1.35	.33	.37*	.06	-.07	.78	
Communion (5)	2.83	.33	.29*	-.18+	-.03	-.02	.79

Note. N = 87. Factor alpha reliabilities appear in the diagonal. + $p < .10$. * $p < .05$

Table 15

Situation Factor Score Descriptive Statistics in Each of 4 Lab Situations.

Situation Factors	Lab Situations											
	Friend						Stranger					
	Talk			Debate			Talk			Debate		
	M	SD	A	M	SD	A	M	SD	A	M	SD	A
Positive Affect	2.98	.50	.80	2.73	.59	.89	2.86	.43	.81	2.74	.53	.86
Negative Affect	1.08	.19	.20	1.28	.39	.51	1.03	.19	.95	1.22	.34	.47
Situation Strength	1.16	.51	.69	1.59	.46	.54	1.14	.45	.62	1.48	.45	.63
Agency	1.16	.37	.48	1.64	.54	.78	1.17	.36	.56	1.44	.48	.73
Communion	3.13	.33	.53	2.61	.45	.71	2.85	.41	.72	2.67	.49	.79

Note. N's range from 78 to 84 based on available data. M = Mean, A = Alpha Reliability.

Table 16

Positive Affect Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Unstructured Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Positive Affect
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	.33*
43. Seems to enjoy the situation or interaction with others.	.29*
60. Engages in constant eye contact with others.	.26*
4. Seems interested in what people have to say.	.25*
39. Expresses interest in fantasy and daydreams.	.23*
21. Is talkative.	.23*
62. Speaks quickly.	.20+
8. Exhibits social skills.	.20+
16. Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.	.20+
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	.20+
30. Seeks advice from others.	.19+
53. Offers advice.	.19+
1. Expresses awareness of being in experiment	-.29*
22. Expresses insecurity.	-.25*
23. Shows physical signs of tension/anxiety.	-.24*
32. Acts irritated.	-.24*
61. Seems detached from the situation or interaction.	-.24*
45. Says negative things about self.	-.23*
3. Volunteers information about self.	-.22*
17. Shows a wide range of interests.	-.21+
14. Exhibits an awkward interpersonal style.	-.21+

37. Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.

-.18+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 17

Positive Affect Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Debate Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Positive Affect
56. Competes with others.	.46*
5. Tries to control the situation.	.40*
28. Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior.	.38*
20. Expresses criticism.	.38*
21. Is talkative.	.35*
42. Shows interest in intellectual matters.	.29*
47. Blames the situation, event, or others.	.29*
24. Exhibits high degree of intelligence.	.24*
35. Expresses hostility.	.24*
17. Shows a wide range of interests.	.23*
2. Interviews people, asks many questions of others.	.22*
46. Displays ambition.	.22*
49. Expresses sexual interest in other people.	.20+
6. Dominates the situation or interaction with others.	.20+
60. Engages in constant eye contact with others.	.19+
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	.19+
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	.18+
51. Gives up when faced with obstacles.	-.49*
27. Seeks reassurance from others.	-.39*
19. Expresses agreement frequently.	-.38*
11. Smiles frequently.	-.35*

37. Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.	-0.34*
10. Laughs frequently.	-0.34*
25. Expresses sympathy toward others.	-0.32*
48. Expresses self-pity.	-0.31*
22. Expresses insecurity.	-0.29*
45. Says negative things about self.	-0.26*
3. Volunteers information about self.	-0.25*
14. Exhibits an awkward interpersonal style.	-0.25*
13. Seems to genuinely like other people.	-0.23*
61. Seems detached from the situation.	-0.23*
15. Compares self to other people.	-0.20+
26. Initiates humor.	-0.20+
30. Seeks advice from others.	-0.19+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 18

Negative Affect Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Unstructured Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Negative Affect
26. Initiates humor.	.33*
1. Expresses awareness of being in experiment.	.32*
58. Speaks sarcastically.	.32*
49. Expresses sexual interest in other people.	.26*
20. Expresses criticism.	.26*
10. Laughs frequently.	.22*
63. Acts playful.	.20+
11. Smiles frequently.	.20+
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	-.29*
19. Expresses agreement frequently.	-.28*
2. Interviews people, asks many questions of others.	-.23*
30. Seeks advice from others.	-.22*
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	-.22+
4. Seems interested in what people have to say.	-.21+
29. Seems likable.	-.21+
54. Speaks fluently and expresses ideas well.	-.19+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 19

Negative Affect Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Debate Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Negative Affect
56. Competes with others.	.27*
62. Speaks quickly.	.24*
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	.22*
16. Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.	.21+
38. Is expressive in face, voice or gestures.	.20+
21. Is talkative.	.20+
46. Displays ambition.	.18+
13. Seems to genuinely like other people.	-.27*
19. Expresses agreement frequently.	-.23*
51. Gives up when faced with obstacles.	-.22*
53. Offers advice.	-.20+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 20

Situation Strength Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Unstructured Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Situation Strength
37. Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.	.35*
59. Makes physical contact with others.	.35*
23. Shows physical signs of tension/anxiety.	.33*
22. Expresses insecurity.	.22*
9. Is reserved and unexpressive.	.20+
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	-.34*
62. Speaks quickly.	-.30*
16. Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.	-.27*
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	-.25*
38. Is expressive in face, voice or gestures.	-.21+
21. Is talkative.	-.20+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 21

Communion Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Unstructured Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Communion
62. Speaks quickly.	.28*
4. Seems interested in what people have to say.	.25*
43. Seems to enjoy the situation or interaction with others.	.24*
21. Is talkative.	.19+
8. Exhibits social skills.	.19+
47. Blames the situation, event, or others.	-.22+
22. Expresses insecurity.	-.20+
28. Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior to others.	-.20+
17. Shows a wide range of interests.	-.19+
41. Keeps people at a distance.	-.18+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 22

Communion Dimension Correlated with Behavior in the Debate Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Communion
13. Seems to genuinely like other people.	.24*
19. Expresses agreement frequently.	.23*
51. Gives up when faced with obstacles.	.22+
30. Seeks advice from others.	.19+
61. Seems detached from the situation or interaction with others.	.18+
56. Competes with others.	-.27*
16. Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.	-.24*
28. Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior to others.	-.24*
46. Displays ambition.	-.23*
35. Expresses hostility.	-.18+

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 23

Agency Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Unstructured Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Agency
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	.29*
6. Dominates the situation or interaction with others.	.26*
21. Is talkative.	.25*
54. Speaks fluently and expresses ideas well.	.21+
62. Speaks quickly.	.21+
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	.21+
38. Is expressive in face, voice or gestures.	.20+
37. Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.	-.30*
51. Gives up when faced with obstacles.	-.24*
23. Shows physical signs of tension/anxiety.	-.22*

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Table 24

Agency Factor Correlated with Behavior in the Debate Interaction with a Friend.

Behavior	Agency
5. Tries to control the situation or interaction with others.	.47*
17. Shows a wide range of interests.	.43*
6. Dominates the situation or interaction with others.	.37*
28. Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior to others.	.36*
20. Expresses criticism.	.34*
56. Competes with others.	.34*
7. Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	.31*
21. Is talkative.	.31*
24. Exhibits high degree of intelligence.	.27*
35. Expresses hostility.	.27*
42. Shows interest in intellectual matters.	.26*
57. Speaks in a loud voice.	.25*
51. Gives up when faced with obstacles.	-.43*
37. Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.	-.39*
48. Expresses self-pity.	-.35*
3. Volunteers information about self.	-.34*
10. Laughs frequently.	-.32*
27. Seeks reassurance from others.	-.32*
22. Expresses insecurity.	-.31*
25. Expresses sympathy toward others.	-.30*
1. Expresses awareness of being in experiment.	-.29*

19. Expresses agreement frequently.

-.28*

Note. * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$, N's range from 73 to 82 based on available data.

Figure 1

Behavioral Consistency Regressed on Situation Similarity at Lower, Mean, and Upper Observed Values of Accuracy (Situation Pair 2-3; Female Participants).

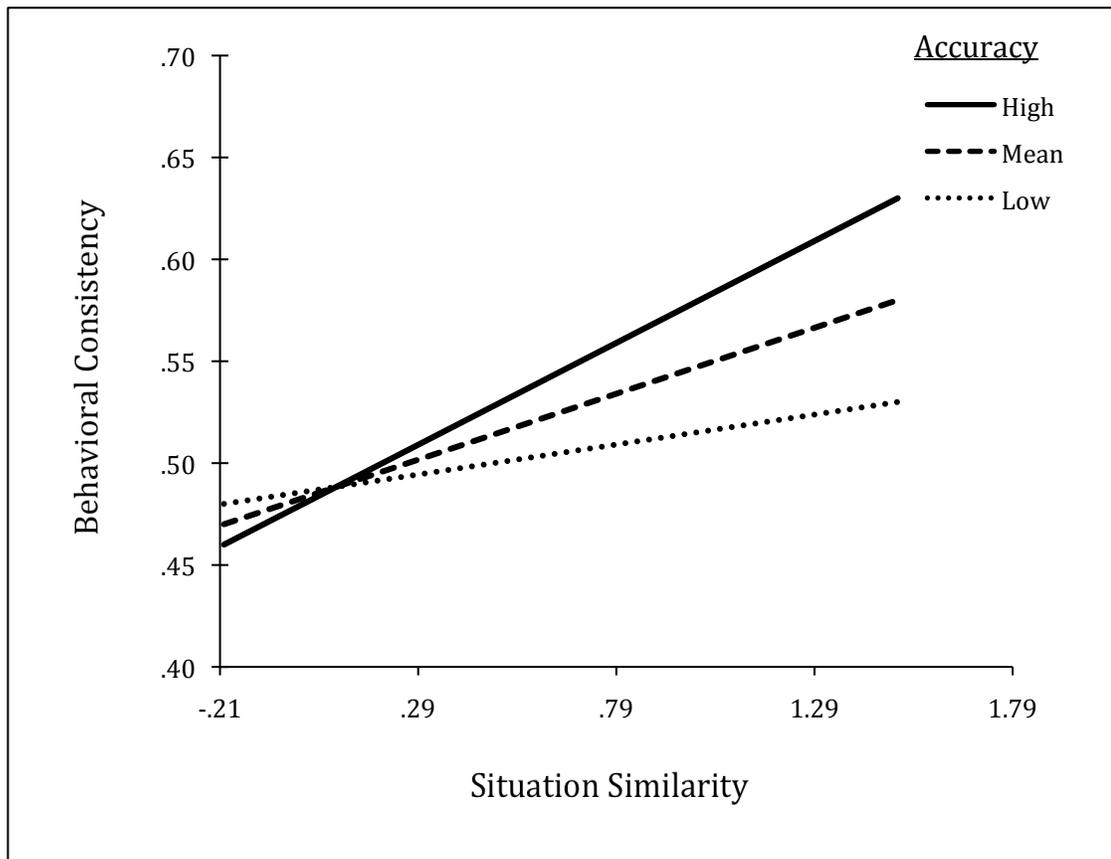


Figure 2

Behavioral Consistency Regressed on Situation Similarity at Lower, Mean, and Upper Observed Values of Accuracy (Situation Pair 3-4; Female Participants).

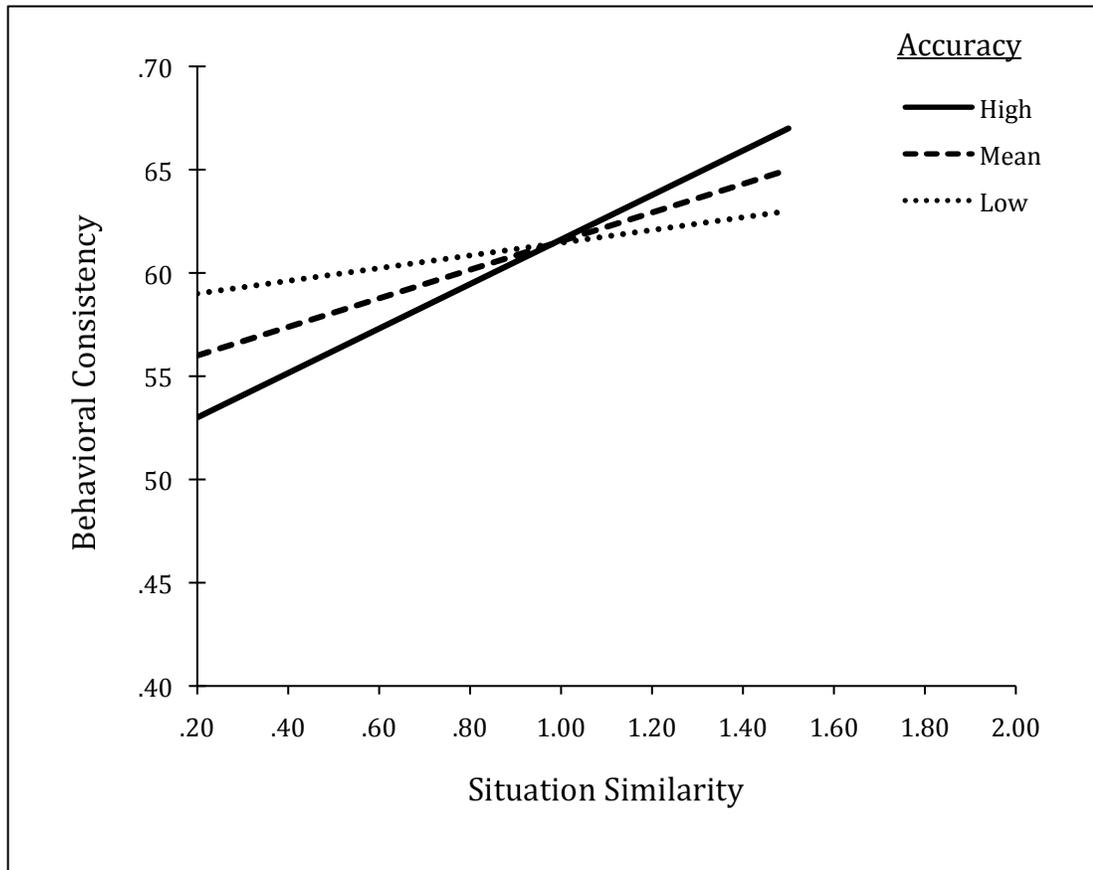
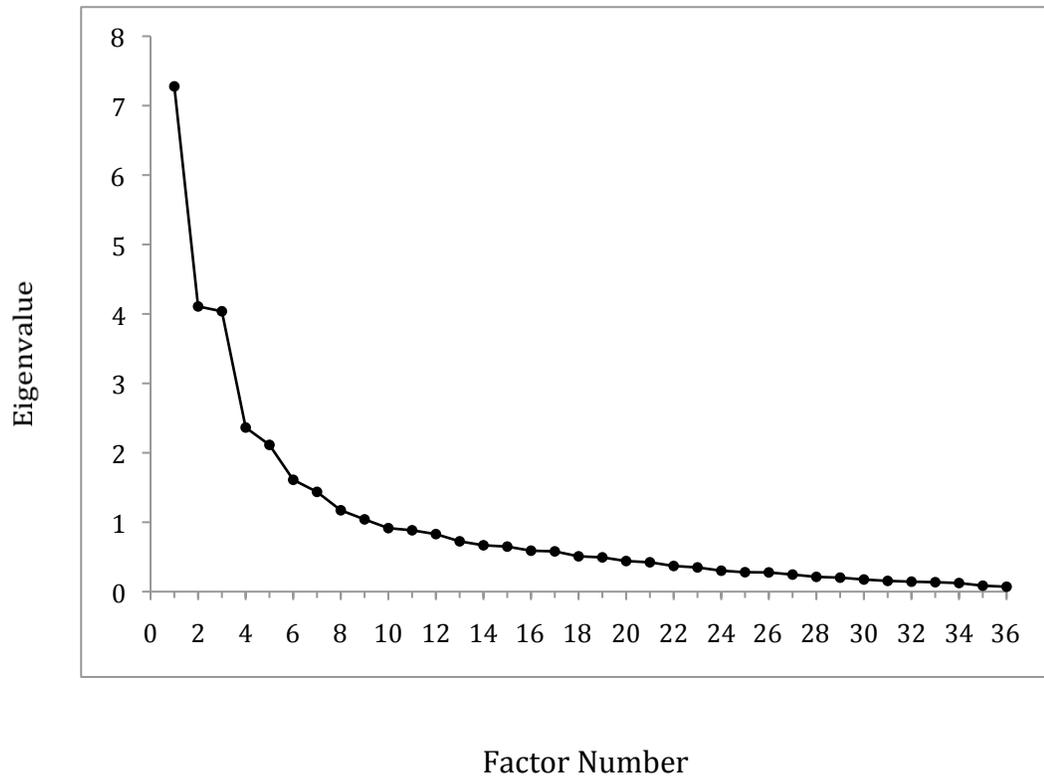


Figure 3

Scree Plot (Number of factors by Eigenvalue).



Appendix A: Situation Feature List

Variable	Label	Low Score	High Score
p01	Weak/Strong	I'm free to act however I want to.	There are clear expectations for how I'm supposed to act.
p02	Chosen/Mandatory	I freely chose to be involved.	I'm required to be involved.
p03	Coop/Compete	I cooperate with others toward common goals.	I compete to be more successful than others.
p04	Involvement	I'm passive, uninvolved, or bored.	I'm very active, involved, or interested.
p05	Bad/Good	I'm uncomfortable and do not enjoy it.	I'm comfortable and enjoy it.
p06	Familiarity	Unfamiliar; I don't know how to act or what to do.	Familiar; I know exactly how to act or what to do.
p07	Public/Private	I'm not closely acquainted with others; I would not discuss private or personal information.	I am closely acquainted and comfortable with others; I'm open to discussing personal information.
p08	Power	Someone else is in charge and has control over what I do.	I'm in charge; I have control over what I, and others, do.
a01	Fear		Nervous or afraid
a02	Hostility		Angry or irritable
a03	Guilt		Guilty or ashamed
a04	Sadness		Sad or lonely
a05	Joviality		Happy or excited
a06	Self-Assurance		Proud or confident
a07	Attentiveness		Attentive or determined
a08	Serenity		Calm or relaxed
m01	Abasement	Refuses to take blame for others' mistakes; has a high self-opinion; does not experience guilt easily; does not allow others to take advantage of his or her good will; asserts own rights; avoids apologizing.	Is modest; accepts blame and criticism even when not deserved; tends to be critical of self.

m02	Achievement	Does not set ambitious goals; prefers easy work over difficult challenges; does not strive for excellence; may respond negatively to challenges and competition; overestimates or exaggerates obstacles.	Tries to accomplish difficult tasks; has high standards and is willing to work toward current goals; responds positively to competition; willing to put forth effort to achieve excellence.
m03	Affiliation	Satisfied with being alone; does not actively seek out the company of others; does not initiate conversations; keeps people at an arms length.	Enjoys being with friends and people; accepts people readily; makes efforts to win friendships and maintain associations with people.
m04	Aggression	Avoids confrontations and conflicts; does not express hostility, either verbally or physically; is not concerned with “getting even”; is forgiving of others’ mistakes.	Enjoys debate and argument; easily annoyed; sometimes willing to hurt people to get own way; may seek to “get even” with people perceived as causing harm.
m05	Autonomy	Prefers to follow rules imposed by others; listens to the advice and opinions of others, including superiors and leaders; is ok with being led or influenced; is reliant on others for directions.	Enjoys being unattached, free, not tied to people, places, or obligations; may be rebellious when faced with restraints.
m06	Change	Prefers a familiar, constant physical environment; accepts routine; avoids variety; dislikes the unexpected; has difficulty in adjusting to changes in environment; seeks regularity and continuity.	Likes new and different experiences; dislikes routine and avoids it; may change opinions or values; adapts readily to changes in environment.
m07	Cognitive Structure	Does not make detailed plans or preparations; prefers not to follow a schedule; accepts uncertainty and ambiguity; may base decisions on uncertain information; does not engage in persistent or intense intellectual concentration.	Does not like ambiguity or uncertainty in information; wants all questions answered completely; desires to make decisions based upon definite knowledge, rather than upon guesses or probabilities.
m08	Defence	Is willing to concede mistakes; willingly changes own opinions; is not angered or upset by criticism; is not easily offended; has “nothing to hide”.	Ready to defend self against real or imagined harm from other people; takes offense easily; does not accept criticism readily.

m09	Dominance	Avoids positions of power, authority, and leadership; does not like to direct other people; prefers not to impose own opinions on others; rarely expresses opinions other than to agree.	Attempts to control environment, and to influence or direct other people; expresses opinions forcefully; enjoys the role of leader and may assume it spontaneously.
m10	Endurance	Gives up quickly on a problem; unwilling to work long hours; loses motivation or effectiveness over time; prefers to rest when faced with obstacles or difficulties.	Works long hours; doesn't give up quickly on a problem; persistent, even in the face of great difficulty; patient and unrelenting in work habits.
m11	Exhibition	Avoids the attention of others; prefers to go unnoticed; does not try to amuse or entertain others; prefers to remain anonymous; restrained in words and actions.	Wants to be the center of attention; enjoys having an audience; engages in behavior which wins the notice of others; may enjoy being dramatic or witty.
m12	Harmavoidance	Enjoys exciting and dangerous activities; shows a fearless, daring spirit; is unconcerned with danger; enjoys thrills.	Does not enjoy exciting activities; especially if danger is involved; avoids risk of bodily harm; seeks to maximize personal safety.
m13	Impulsivity	Acts with deliberation; thinks about issues and decisions carefully; thinks before acting; avoids spontaneity.	Acts on the "spur of the moment" and without deliberation; expresses feelings and wishes directly; speaks freely; may be volatile in emotional expression.
m14	Nurturance	Reluctant to help others; expects others to do things for themselves regardless of their ability; tends to avoid caring for those who are in need of assistance; is not easily upset by others' difficulties.	Gives sympathy and comfort; assists others; offers a "helping hand" to those in need; willingly performs favors for others.
m15	Order	Prefers not to organize surroundings neatly; is not concerned with neatness; lacks regularity or uniformity.	Concerned with keeping personal belongings and surroundings neat and organized; dislikes clutter, confusion, and lack of organization; interested in developing strategies for keeping materials organized.

m16	Play	Is reserved in thought, appearance, and manner; takes a serious approach; does not seek fun or amusement; avoids playfulness.	Does things “just for fun”; participates in games, sports, social activities, and other amusements; enjoys jokes and funny stories; has a light-hearted, easy-going attitude.
m17	Sentience	Does not seek or appreciate sensory experiences, such as those provided by art and nature; is unresponsive to the appearance of physical surroundings.	Notices smells, sounds, sights, tastes, and the way things feel; is sensitive to many kinds of experiences; is pleasure-seeking.
m18	Social Recognition	Unconcerned about reputation or social standing; insensitive to others’ praise or disapproval; does not necessarily conform to socially-approved norms in behavior and appearance.	Desires to be held in high esteem by others; concerned about reputation and what other people think; works for the approval and recognition of others.
m19	Succorance	Does not look to others for guidance or support; is able to maintain oneself without outside aid; confronts problems alone; does not seek advice or sympathy.	Seeks the sympathy, protection, love, advice, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support; confides difficulties willingly to other people.
m20	Understanding	Has little curiosity about academic or intellectual topics, cultural or scientific; prefers everyday activities and concerns; will not search beyond obvious or minimal information.	Wants to understand many areas of knowledge; values combining ideas, and logical thought, particularly when directed at satisfying intellectual curiosity.
b01	Expresses awareness of being in public; or being evaluated or observed by other people.	Seems oblivious or unaware of being in public; or being evaluated or observed by other people.	Expresses awareness of being in public; or being evaluated or observed by other people.
b02	Interviews people, asks many questions of others.	Does not ask questions of others.	Interviews people, asks many questions of others.
b03	Volunteers information about self.	Reveals little about self.	Volunteers information about self.
b04	Seems interested in what people have to say.	Seems disinterested in what people have to say.	Seems interested in what people have to say.
b05	Tries to control the situation or interaction with others.	Is controlled by the situation or other people.	Tries to control the situation or interaction with others.

b06	Dominates the situation or interaction with others.	Relinquishes control to the situation or other people.	Dominates the situation or interaction with others.
b07	Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.	Appears to be nervous and uncomfortable.	Appears to be relaxed and comfortable.
b08	Exhibits social skills.	Lacks social skills.	Exhibits social skills.
b09	Is reserved and unexpressive.	Is extremely animated and expressive.	Is reserved and unexpressive.
b10	Laughs frequently.	Does not laugh.	Laughs frequently.
b11	Smiles frequently.	Does not smile.	Smiles frequently.
b12	Physically animated; moves around a lot.	Is not animated; does not move around a lot.	Physically animated; moves around a lot.
b13	Seems to genuinely like other people.	Seems to dislike other people.	Seems to genuinely like other people.
b14	Exhibits an awkward interpersonal style.	Is extremely skilled in social interactions with others.	Exhibits an awkward interpersonal style.
b15	Compares self to other people.	Does not compare self to other people.	Compares self to other people.
b16	Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.	Lacks enthusiasm; has a low energy level.	Shows high enthusiasm/energy level.
b17	Shows a wide range of interests.	Shows a limited or narrow range of interests.	Shows a wide range of interests.
b18	Talks at rather than with people.	Encourages turn taking when interacting with others.	Talks at rather than with people.
b19	Expresses agreement frequently.	Expresses agreement rarely.	Expresses agreement frequently.
b20	Expresses criticism.	Expresses praise.	Expresses criticism.
b21	Is talkative.	Is not talkative.	Is talkative.
b22	Expresses insecurity.	Expresses feelings of security with self.	Expresses insecurity.
b23	Shows physical signs of tension/anxiety.	Does not show physical signs of tension/anxiety.	Shows physical signs of tension/anxiety.
b24	Exhibits high degree of intelligence.	Exhibits low degree of intelligence.	Exhibits high degree of intelligence.
b25	Expresses sympathy toward others.	Does not express sympathy toward others.	Expresses sympathy toward others.

b26	Initiates humor.	Does not initiate humor.	Initiates humor.
b27	Seeks reassurance from others.	Seems unconcerned with others' opinions.	Seeks reassurance from others.
b28	Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior to others.	Acts inferior to others.	Exhibits condescending behavior; acts superior to others.
b29	Seems likable.	Seems unlikable.	Seems likable.
b30	Seeks advice from others.	Disregards, or does not seek, advice from others.	Seeks advice from others.
b31	Regards self as physically attractive.	Appears to regard self as physically unattractive.	Regards self as physically attractive.
b32	Acts irritated.	Exhibits lack of irritation.	Acts irritated.
b33	Expresses warmth.	Does not express warmth.	Expresses warmth.
b34	Tries to undermine, sabotage or obstruct interaction or situation.	Tries to make interaction or situation successful.	Tries to undermine, sabotage or obstruct interaction or situation.
b35	Expresses hostility.	Withholds hostility.	Expresses hostility.
b36	Is unusual or unconventional in appearance.	Is very conservative or conventional in appearance.	Is unusual or unconventional in appearance.
b37	Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.	Acts assertive; seems fearless.	Behaves in a fearful or timid manner.
b38	Is expressive in face, voice or gestures.	Is unexpressive.	Is expressive in face, voice or gestures.
b39	Expresses interest in fantasy and daydreams.	Expresses disinterest in fantasy and daydreams.	Expresses interest in fantasy and daydreams.
b40	Expresses guilt.	Does not express guilt.	Expresses guilt.
b41	Keeps people at a distance, avoids the development of interpersonal relationships.	Tries to develop interpersonal relationships.	Keeps people at a distance, avoids the development of interpersonal relationships.
b42	Shows interest in intellectual matters.	Shows disinterest in intellectual matters.	Shows interest in intellectual matters.
b43	Seems to enjoy the situation or interaction with others.	Does not seem to enjoy the situation or interaction with others.	Seems to enjoy the situation or interaction with others.
b44	Says or does interesting	Says or does boring, mundane	Says or does interesting things.

	things.	things.	
b45	Says negative things about self.	Says positive things about self.	Says negative things about self.
b46	Displays ambition.	Displays lack of ambition.	Displays ambition.
b47	Blames the situation, event, or others.	Blames self.	Blames the situation, event, or others.
b48	Expresses self-pity.	Over-emphasizes strengths.	Expresses self-pity.
b49	Expresses sexual interest in other people.	Displays lack of sexual interest in other people.	Expresses sexual interest in other people.
b50	Behaves in a cheerful manner.	Seems unhappy; grumpy.	Behaves in a cheerful manner.
b51	Gives up when faced with obstacles.	Displays unusual persistence.	Gives up when faced with obstacles.
b52	Behaves in gender stereotyped manner.	Behavior is characteristic of opposite sex.	Behaves in gender stereotyped manner.
b53	Offers advice.	Offers no advice when requested.	Offers advice.
b54	Speaks fluently and expresses ideas well.	Does not speak fluently or express ideas well.	Speaks fluently and expresses ideas well.
b55	Emphasizes accomplishments of self, family, and friends.	Emphasizes failures of self, family, and friends.	Emphasizes accomplishments of self, family, and friends.
b56	Competes with others.	Cooperates with others.	Competes with others.
b57	Speaks in a loud voice.	Speaks in a soft or quiet voice.	Speaks in a loud voice.
b58	Speaks sarcastically.	Is extremely candid or forthright.	Speaks sarcastically.
b59	Makes physical contact with others.	Avoids physical contact with others.	Makes physical contact with others.
b60	Engages in constant eye contact with others.	Avoids making eye contact with others.	Engages in constant eye contact with others.
b61	Seems detached from the situation or interaction with others.	Seems engaged or absorbed in the situation or interaction with others.	Seems detached from the situation or interaction with others.
b62	Speaks quickly.	Speaks slowly.	Speaks quickly.
b63	Acts playful.	Acts in a formal, stuffy manner.	Acts playful.
b64	People seek advice from you.	People don't seek advice from you.	People seek advice from you.

Appendix B: Situation Instructions and Sample Situations Listed by Participants

Situation Instructions

Like most people, you probably fill many different roles in your daily life. Some examples of roles that you may fill are: "student", "best friend", "son or daughter", "athlete", "team mate", "tutor", "class officer", "worker", "store manager", "volunteer", "sorority sister/fraternity brother", "musician", "artist", "member of a religious group", etc.

It is also possible to identify specific kinds of situations (specific activities or interactions) you have within these general roles that you fill. Below are some examples:

"In my role as student, I sometimes go to my favorite class"

"In my role as student, I sometimes go to my least favorite class"

"In my role as student, I sometimes cram before finals"

You may realize that while all these specific activities fit within the role of "student", going to your favorite class and your least favorite class are actually very different experiences; you likely think, feel, and act differently in each of them. Some other examples include:

"In my role as friend, I sometimes hang out with my dorm-mates"

"In my role as friend, I sometimes go to parties"

"In my role as friend, I sometimes debate politics with my roommate"

Again, while these activities fit within the role of "friend", hanging out in the dorm, going to parties, and debating politics may actually be very different experiences because you likely think, feel, and act differently in each of them.

You may even identify specific types of situations within your relationship with one other person. For example,

"In my role as girlfriend, I sometimes have a great time out with my boyfriend at our favorite restaurant"

"In my role as girlfriend, I sometimes talk to my boyfriend about the future of our relationship"

"In my role as girlfriend, I sometimes argue with my boyfriend about how much time we should spend together"

In these examples, even though you are with the same person, you likely think, feel, and act differently when arguing with your partner as opposed to going out on a date with your partner.

Finally, often times we do things by ourselves (such as reading), so "being by myself" is also a role that we can fill. Some examples of this role and related activities

might be:

"In my role as being by myself, I sometimes read my favorite news column"

"In my role as being by myself, I sometimes think about things that are bothering me"

"In my role as being by myself, I sometimes play video games to relax"

On the blank lines below, please list important and recurring situations (activities and interactions) in your current life. Please list a minimum of 8 situations and no more than 18. Most people tend to list around 12 situations.

To begin, list a role that you commonly fill; again, some examples of roles are: "son or daughter", "friend", "boyfriend or girlfriend", "student", "worker", "athlete", etc. Keep in mind that often times we do things by ourselves (such as reading) and that "being by myself" is also a role that we can fill. Once you have listed a role, identify specific kinds of activities or interactions that you engage in when filling that role. As the examples above indicate, please identify specific kinds of activities or interactions (e.g. "going to my favorite class", "arguing with my parents", or "visiting my favorite place in Boston") that are important to you, or that have an impact on your thoughts, feelings, and actions.

Please only list situations that have occurred within the past year and that are likely to occur again within the next year. Finally, please try to list both positive situations (in the column labeled "Positive Situations"), and negative or unpleasant situations, such as things that you do not like or do not look forward to (in the column labeled "Negative Situations").

While we have provided examples of some roles and situations that you might list, there is no right or wrong way to complete this task. Try to list roles and situations that make sense to you and are meaningful in your life. If you find that you would like to list a particular situation but are not sure what role it fits into (or feel that it fits into multiple roles) feel free to leave the role blank and just list the specific situation. If you have any questions please feel free to ask at any time.

Examples of Situations Listed by Participants

1. "In my role as a babysitter, I try to keep my patience when the kids fight."
2. "In my role as a student, I procrastinate and slack off sometimes no matter how hard I try not to."
3. "In my role as a daughter, I argue with my parents about money."
4. "In my role as a friend, I act really goofy and say things without thinking first."
5. "In my role as a freshman, I try to make acquaintances with those around me."