

THE EFFECTS OF MANAGERS' VERBAL
AGGRESSIVENESS AND
ARGUMENTATIVENESS
ON COMPLIANCE –
GAINING STRATEGY
USE

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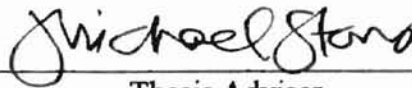
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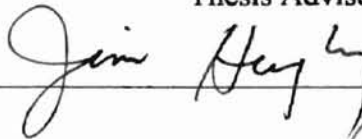
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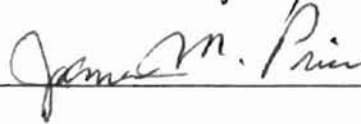
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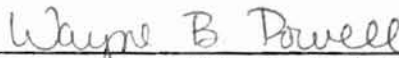
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

AN OVERVIEW

We all try to get others to comply with our requests. In doing so, we use different strategies to persuade others to do something. The persuader's personality will have an effect on the strategy the persuader believes will be most effective.

For many years, researchers have known that "people spend a good deal of time trying to get others to act in ways they desire" (Marwell & Schmitt, 1967, p. 350). When trying to get another to act in a desired way, an individual may use a number of different strategies. Marwell and Schmitt (1967) state that "people vary in the ways they go about attempting such interpersonal control" (p. 350). Considerable research has been conducted regarding verbal aggressiveness, argumentativeness, use of positive and negative compliance-gaining strategies, and compliance.

The act of persuading an individual to comply with a request is known as compliance. The strategies one intends to use to gain the compliance of an individual are compliance-gaining strategies. Verbal aggressiveness involves using hostility in communication with others. Argumentativeness refers to the personality type in which an individual can defend their point of view without resorting to hostility.

All people use these strategies. Compliance-gaining strategies are used in the home, in social situations, in cultural situations, and in professional situations. Compliance-gaining is an important part in many people's lives, especially in the work place.

Although the organization is one arena in which compliance, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness may be studied, to date, little research has been conducted which focuses on organizations. For this reason, the following hypothesis was

developed:

- H1: Managers with high verbal aggressiveness will be more likely than managers with low verbal aggressiveness to report a preference for negative compliance-gaining strategies but less of a preference for positive compliance-gaining strategies.

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of high and low verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness on managers' selection of compliance-gaining strategies. The three variables examined are compliance-gaining strategy use, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness.

Chapter II contains detailed information about compliance, compliance-gaining strategies, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness. The chapter also contains information about verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness in relation to the different compliance-gaining strategies. Chapter II ends with a discussion of verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness as compliance-gaining strategies in the workplace.

Chapter III contains detailed information about the methodology of the research. The chapter includes information about the subjects, procedure, and research instruments, and an analysis of the data. This information is then analyzed and discussed in later chapters.

Chapter IV provides the results of the research. Chapter V discusses the findings in detail and determines whether the research hypothesis will be accepted. Chapter VI contains a discussion of the limitations of the research as well as ideas for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

COMPLIANCE-GAINING

Compliance is “when individuals accept a message not because they believe its content, but because by publicly committing themselves to it, they stand to gain something” (Trenholm, 1989, p. 136). Therefore, compliance-gaining is “a form of symbolic behavior designed to shape or regulate the behavior of others” (Schenck-Hamlin, Wiseman, & Georgacarakos, 1982, p. 92). Compliance is a form of persuasion used to get an individual to do something that is requested by another individual.

One problem that may arise is that “initial compliance-gaining attempts are frequently confronted with resistance, and any subsequent attempt is made with respect to that resistance” (Lim, 1990, p. 171). One way to deter this problem is to make it known that the individual whose compliance is sought may lose or gain something by complying. According to Richmond and McCroskey (1992), for compliance to occur “a person accepts another's request because he or she can see either potential reward for complying or potential punishment for not complying” (p. 94). For example, in the family situation, compliance-gaining is the act of persuading the child to comply with the request of the parent. The child complies because the child knows that failure to do so will mean punishment.

Research has also found that there are factors that can influence the type of compliance-gaining strategy one may opt to use. Lim (1990) states that “both situational and personal factors have been found to effect persuaders’ choice of compliance-gaining messages” (p. 170).

Hunter and Boster (1987) state that “while persuaders prefer to use compliance-gaining messages that have a positive emotional impact on listeners, some may be willing

to use messages that create a negative emotional impact" (p. 65). This occurs because some persuaders are concerned with how they will be accepted, while others are not. Simply put, "persuaders differ as to how much they are concerned with the feelings of the listener: Some persuaders may find no compliance-gaining message acceptable; others may find a message acceptable only if it produces positive emotional responses in a listener; others may find a message acceptable unless it produces highly negative emotional responses in a listener; and yet others may find all compliance-gaining messages acceptable" (Hunter & Boster, 1987, p. 65). However, "different listeners react to a compliance-gaining message in different ways" (Hunter & Boster, 1987, p. 67).

COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGIES

According to Trenholm (1989) "lists of compliance-gaining strategies abound. Although each list is slightly different, all include similar kinds of strategies" (p. 311). Trenholm (1989) states that "compliance-gaining strategies are the verbal strategies we use to get others to say yes to our requests" (p. 311). In the literature, nine frequently used compliance-gaining strategies have been identified (Boster, Levine, & Kazoleas, 1993; Marwell & Schmitt, 1967; Rothwell, 1995; Trenholm, 1989): threats, promises, exchange, reciprocity, positive value appeals, negative value appeals, positive identity appeals, negative identity appeals and altruism. These nine strategies "describe, in very general terms, the kinds of interpersonal influence strategies researchers have most frequently identified" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 311).

Some scholars list more than the nine strategies identified in the current research. The compliance-gaining strategy list used in this research is only a sample of the many different compliance-gaining strategy lists which abound in communication research. For example, Marwell and Schmitt (1967) are well known for their 16 different compliance-gaining strategies. However, for purposes of this research, only the nine

most frequently identified strategies were chosen. For simplicity and clarity, the nine strategies have been factored into four groups by the researcher. Each group contains a positive and a negative strategy, except for altruism which is neither positive nor negative. Each of the factors is discussed below.

THREATS AND PROMISES. Threats and promises are used by individuals "to induce compliance from group members" by making threats and promises which are "specific . . . , credible . . . , immediate . . . , equitable . . . and adjusted for the climate . . ." (Rothwell, 1995, p. 276). The basic strategy here is to communicate the idea of "you're either for me or against me" (Rothwell, 1995). According to Trenholm (1989), "it would seem that offering rewards or threatening punishments is one of the most basic ways we control one another" (p. 311). However, "the success of these kinds of verbal appeals obviously depends on the relationship between influence agent and target" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 311). For example, individuals are more likely to get a job done quickly when threatened by someone of influence or power. However, an individual may use a promise rather than a threat to get the other to get the job done quickly and with a good attitude. Kellermann and Shea (1996) state that "threats are mostly impolite and fairly efficient strategies for gaining compliance . . . ; and promises are fairly polite and fairly efficient" (p. 154).

EXCHANGE AND RECIPROCITY. Next are the strategies of exchange and reciprocity. These strategies cause individuals to feel they have to comply with the request out of obligation and/or guilt (Rothwell, 1995). Reciprocity involves getting favors out of others because of past favors. When we approach another with a request, the other feels obligated and indebted. The other does not want to be considered inconsiderate, so they comply. Trenholm (1989) states that "we are taught to consider people who fail to pay their debts as 'moochers,' 'ingrates,' and 'welchers'" (p. 311). The strategy of exchange works almost the same as reciprocity. The basic concept of exchange is "I'll do this for you, if you do this for me." For example, Sue tells Jane she

will do the dishes for a week if she will wash and vacuum Sue's car. If Jane finds the exchange to be a suitable one, it will be accepted. According to Rothwell (1995), "the limitation of reciprocation as a constructive compliance strategy is that it rests on paybacks, not the merits or demerits of the issue in question" (p. 276).

VALUE AND IDENTITY APPEALS. Third, are the strategies of value and identity appeals. Value and identity appeals occurs when "compliance is sought by references to shared values and a common identity among group members" (Rothwell, 1995, p. 276). In regard to value appeals, one must "appeal to others by invoking their values" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 312). For example, because one wants to be seen as a person with good qualities, he or she will therefore comply with the request of another.

Identity appeals, on the other hand, "appeals to self-esteem as an important way of controlling others" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 312). For example, a person may be told that if they comply with the request, they will feel better about themselves; however, if they do not comply, they will feel worse about themselves. Identity appeals "are likely to work with those whose self-image is unstable or with those who care very much about the way they are viewed by others" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 312). When using these strategies, individuals should be aware that "the implication [of value and identity appeals] is that the two parties share certain values, and appealing to them will encourage compliance" (Rothwell, 1995, p. 277).

ALTRUISM. Finally, "altruism is a concern for the welfare of others" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 312). With altruism, one tries to get another to comply with the request by playing on the other's concern for others without receiving any type of personal reward. Trenholm (1989) states that "in altruistic appeals the target is asked to comply for the sake of the agent; he or she is not offered any other incentive" (p. 312). Rothwell (1995) states that "studies show that altruism is a powerful motivator of behavior" (p. 277) and that "it is actually one of the most successful and frequently used" (Trenholm, 1989, p. 312) compliance-gaining strategy. Furthermore, "altruism [is] more likely to be used when

addressing audiences with a socially oriented level of moral development” (Baglan, Lalumia, & Bayless, 1986, p. 292). When used appropriately “the appeal to altruism can be an enormously powerful compliance-gaining strategy” (Rothwell, 1995, p. 278).

PERSONALITY TYPE

In the following section, research regarding two specific personality types, those who are verbally aggressive and argumentative, is found. Included are definitions of both personality types. Characteristics of high and low verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness are provided. Concluding each section are patterns of each type in relation to different compliance-gaining strategies.

The strategy a person uses to gain compliance may depend on his or her personality. That is, as personality varies, so does the preferred method of compliance-gaining. In particular, a person’s verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness may determine his or her compliance-gaining behavior. Cody and McLaughlin (1980) state that “research should be the construction of empirically supported propositions that link personality types with the selection of message strategies . . .” (p. 132). Cody and McLaughlin (1980) go on to state that “while the choice of a particular message strategy, given several alternatives, will in part be determined by the personal characteristics of the potential persuader, one cannot ignore the role of the environment as a determinant of message strategy selection” (p. 132). That is, in any situation, the personality of the one making the request, along with the arena in which the compliance-gaining situation is taking place, will have an effect on the compliance-gaining strategy used. Individuals may use different compliance-gaining strategies in environments where they feel comfortable versus areas where they feel uncomfortable.

Verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness are related concepts. Infante and Rancer (1996) state that “one is sometimes confused with the other; one can influence the

other; both are aggressive forms of communication; they represent opposite poles on a constructive – destructive communication outcomes continuum; and it is probably difficult to understand one adequately without understanding the other” (p. 320).

VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS. Infante and Wigley (1986) state that “verbal aggression . . . denotes attacking the self-concept of another person instead of, or in addition to, the person’s position on a topic of communication” (p. 61). Furthermore, verbally aggressive messages are intended to attack a person’s self-concept and cause them to feel badly about themselves through the use of psychological pain (Infante & Wigley, 1986; Teven, Martin, & Neupauer, 1998). By inflicting this psychological pain, the person is intentionally hurting the other person (Teven et al., 1998, p. 179). Rancer, Kosberg, and Baukus (1992) add that “in verbal aggression, the locus of the attack is on the individual instead of, or in addition to, the individual’s position on controversial issues” (p. 375).

Beatty, Burant, Dobos, and Rudd (1996) state that “one of the defining characteristics of verbal aggressiveness is that it represents a predisposition or tendency to engage in aggressive symbolic action” (p. 3). It is destructive in nature because it attacks others in a negative way. Teven et al. (1998) found that “the more verbally aggressive messages participants received . . . , the less satisfied they were with their relationship” (p. 183). Therefore, “verbal aggression is likely to produce negative relational outcomes” (Teven et al., 1998, p. 183).

Furthermore, “verbal aggression may be more likely when the situation involves anger, persons being in a bad mood, a desire for reciprocity, or feigned humor” (Infante, Riddle, Horvath, & Tumlin, 1992, p. 123). When verbal aggression is used, a person’s feelings and emotions are attacked. Infante and Wigley (1986) indicate that verbally aggressive attacks often lead to “hurt feelings, anger, irritation, embarrassment, discouragement . . . , relationship deterioration, relationship termination” (pp. 61-62). These hurt feelings can cause what is known as “psychological hurt” within the individual being attacked. Martin, Anderson, and Cos (1997) state that “psychological

hurt involves how much a person suffers from being the recipient of verbally aggressive messages” (p. 197).

According to Infante and Wigley (1986), “verbal aggression is viewed as an exchange of messages between two people where at least one person in the dyad attacks the self-concept of the other person in order to hurt the person psychologically” (p. 67). There are numerous types of verbally aggressive messages: “character attacks, competence attacks, background attacks, physical appearance attacks, maledictions, teasing, swearing, ridicule, threats, nonverbal emblems” (Infante, as quoted by Infante, 1995, p. 53), “blame, personality attacks, commands, global rejection, disconfirmation, negative comparison, sexual harassment, and attacking the target’s significant others” (Infante, 1995, p. 53). The aggressive behavior can be physical or psychological (Infante, 1995). The behavior can be either/or a physical slap and/or a psychological use of nonverbal gestures. However damaging the behavior may be, Infante (1995) states that “words and accompanying nonverbal messages can be more damaging than physical aggression” (p. 55). It has been found “that verbal aggression sometimes escalates into physical violence” and “is a major cause of violence” (Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 62). This kind of verbal aggression is the worst and can be found in any environment, from one’s home to one’s place of employment.

Martin and Anderson (1997) state that Infante indicates that “verbal aggressiveness is a subset of hostility because the intention of a verbally aggressive message is to hurt the other person” (p. 303). Infante (1995) indicates that the intent of verbal aggressiveness is to inflict psychological pain or harm on others. Verbal aggression may occasionally produce positive or helpful outcomes, but its consequences in interpersonal relationships are almost always destructive in nature (Infante, 1995). Suzuki and Rancer (1994) indicate that “verbal aggressiveness [is] a counterproductive aggressive communication predisposition” (p. 257). According to Roberto and Finucane (1997), “verbally aggressive persons tend to define opposition from others as an ‘assault,’

which leads them to respond by attacking the self-concept of their foe to defend themselves" (p. 23).

There are a number of reasons why people resort to verbal aggression in communication situations:

frustration (having a goal blocked by someone, having to deal with a disdained other); social learning (individuals are conditioned to behave aggressively and this can include modeling where the person learns the consequences of a behavior vicariously by observing a model such as a character in a television program); psychopathology (involves transference where the person attacks with verbally aggressive messages those people who symbolize unresolved conflict); and argumentative skill deficiency (individuals resort to verbal aggression because they lack the verbal skills for dealing with social conflict constructively).

(Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 62)

Geen and George (1969) add that "if a person customarily reacts in aggressive ways, he must find such sanctions satisfying or instrumental to the attainment of some goal" (p. 712).

Research has suggested several negative effects of verbally aggressive behavior. Infante (1995) states that "two basic effects are self-concept damage and aggression escalation" (p. 54). In interpersonal situations, these effects "can lead to reduced trust, relationship deterioration, and relationship termination" (Infante, 1995, p. 54). Infante (1995) goes on to state that "the effects of verbal aggression are negative, supporting the ethical stance that verbal aggression is a deductive form of communication that should be discouraged" (p. 55). Therefore, one should try to avoid verbal aggression in all interpersonal situations so as to help promote a favorable communicative outcome and to help reduce the risk of hurting another's self-concept.

An individual can exhibit either low or high verbal aggressiveness. Research has revealed that low verbal aggressives tend to be considered quiet, and communication with

them can be difficult (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). When dealing with low verbal aggressives, one must realize that communication should be "direct, to the point and as brief as possible" (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992, p. 61). High verbal aggressives are the exact opposite. Those who are high verbal aggressives are "people driven to communicate," and "tend to be good listeners because they are anxious to keep on top of the interaction" (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992, p. 61). Infante and Rancer (1982) state that "the person high in verbal aggressiveness is motivated to demonstrate personal superiority forcefully, to establish dominance in interpersonal relationships, to release aggressive tensions" (p. 74). Furthermore, Infante and Rancer (1996) state that "high verbal aggressiveness seem desensitized to the hurt caused by verbal aggression, because they do not view verbally aggressive messages as hurtful, unlike other people" (p. 323).

Therefore those "high in verbal aggression probably send few messages, most of which would be relatively negative in emotional impact" (Hunter & Boster, 1987, p. 82). One of the reasons for this could be that "individuals high in verbal aggressiveness are less open, more defensive, less modest, and tend not to acknowledge mistakes" (Infante & Rancer, 1996, p. 329). Furthermore, the opposite holds true for those who are low in verbal aggression. Those "low in verbal aggression would be likely to send numerous messages of relatively homogeneous emotional impact; i.e., the messages would be predominately positive" (Hunter & Boster, 1987, p. 82).

VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGIES.

Verbal aggressiveness may effect the compliance-gaining strategy used by an individual. Since verbally aggressive individuals are known for their attacks on the self-concepts of another, it can be said that verbally aggressive individuals would be more inclined to resort to negative compliance-gaining strategies. Therefore, the degree of verbal aggressiveness the person experiences when trying to gain the compliance of another may also be a determinate of strategy selection. Since high verbal aggressives are more inclined to resort to attacks, low verbal aggressives should exhibit some control over their

choice of strategy being more inclined to choose a positive strategy. Furthermore, "since reciprocity is a common dynamic in aggressive communication," (Infante, Riddle, Horvath, & Tumlin, 1992, p. 124) it can be expected that persons high in verbal aggressiveness would be more likely to use negative compliance-gaining strategies.

Persons high in verbal aggressiveness tend to use "negatively oriented compliance gaining strategies . . . because they are less diverse and may lack the argumentative skill to employ strategies which are more positive in nature" (Boster et al., 1993, p. 412). In terms of verbal aggressiveness, Hunter and Boster (1987) hypothesize that high-verbal aggressives are more likely to threaten compliance-gaining than less verbally aggressive persons" (p. 82). Research has also found that "verbally aggressive individuals use a greater number of strategies to gain compliance" (Boster et al., 1993, p. 406).

Further, Infante, et al. (1992) point out that individuals who are "high verbal aggressives [are] distinguished by their more frequent use of competence attacks, teasing, nonverbal emblems (use of facial expressions, gestures, and eye behavior to attack one's self-concept), and swearing" (p. 123). All these factors are related to the use of more negative versus positive compliance-gaining strategies. Therefore, an individual who is a high verbal aggressive may tend to treat others as inadequate by resorting to the use of negative compliance-gaining strategies in order to make the individual feel bad enough to comply. The person could do this by attacking the other's performance and competence while yelling and swearing.

ARGUMENTATIVENESS. Argumentativeness is defined by Infante and Rancer (1982) "as a generally stable trait which predisposes the individual in communication situations to advocate positions on controversial issues and to attack verbally the positions which other people take on these issues" (p. 72). Furthermore, "the individual perceives this activity as an exciting intellectual challenge, a competitive situation which entails defending a position and 'winning points' " (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 72). Suzuki and Rancer (1994) state that "argumentativeness is a valued predisposition that can help

people manage conflicts constructively . . ." (p. 259). An argumentative individual will usually experience "feelings of excitement and anticipation [before] an argument" and feelings of invigoration, satisfaction, and a sense of accomplishment following an argument (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 72).

All individuals are prone to argue issues to some degree. How important the issues are to them, the roles they are playing, and the amount of motivation they have, may determine how likely individuals are to defend their views or change them. Research states that "in situations where the argumentative individual agrees with the position advocated, low and moderate argumentatives may be less interested in arguing. However, highly argumentative individuals might argue against positions they initially agree with, thus playing the role of 'devil's advocate'" (Kazoleas, 1993, p. 121).

An individual can be high or low in argumentativeness. What this means, as Levine and Boster (1996) state, is that "the highly argumentative person has a strong tendency to engage in arguments and little or no inhibition about arguing" (p. 348). In addition, Infante and Rancer (1982) state "it could be expected that the highly argumentative individual will have little fear in communication situations which involve arguing controversial issues" (p. 75). Infante and Rancer (1993) also found that "individuals who are more skilled in argument are less likely to resort to verbal aggression . . . even when the issue of contention involves what others' should or should not do" (p. 424). However, "the low argumentative has little proclivity for argumentative behavior, as well as strong inhibitions and avoidance tendencies" (Levine & Boster, 1996, p. 348). Further, Infante and Rancer (1982) state that "the low argumentative might be extremely apprehensive about arguing but could be rather confident, for example, in other interpersonal interactions" (p. 75).

Researchers have found that the highly argumentative person, before, during and after an argument, views disagreement as exciting and challenging, has little inhibition or fear towards an argument and often enjoys joining an argument (Infante, 1981; Infante &

Rancer, 1982; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). Infante (1981) states that "the low argumentative type is just the opposite; that is, he or she tends not to approach arguments, shows little favorable excitement, and experiences strong inhibitions and avoidance tendencies" (p. 266). Research has found that "the highly argumentative individual has a good deal of confidence in his or her ability to argue, the low argumentative has very little such confidence" (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 72).

Infante and Rancer (1982) state that a low argumentative "tries to keep arguments from happening, feels relieved when arguments are avoided" (p. 72). When arguing, "the low argumentative has unpleasant feelings before, during, and after the argument" (Infante, 1982, p. 72). Also, research has found that "individuals high in argumentativeness would view arguing as an exciting intellectual challenge," whereas, "those low in argumentativeness would experience unpleasant feelings before, during and after and argument" (Roberto & Finucane, 1997, p. 22). This could be due to the fact that "high argumentatives perceive arguing as a means of reducing conflict, whereas low argumentatives view arguments as unfavorable and hostile acts that should be avoided at all costs" (Infante & Rancer, 1996, p. 330).

Moreover, Infante & Rancer (1993) found that "high argumentatives were found to argue more than moderates and lows on social, political, personal behavior, others' behavior, and moral-ethical issues" (p. 424). On the other hand, "low and moderate argumentatives were similar to highs in the frequency of arguing family, sports, entertainment, educational work, and religious issues" (Infante & Rancer, 1993, p. 424).

In his research, Infante (1981) found a number of areas in which high argumentatives differed from low and moderate argumentatives in their communication behavior. High argumentatives have been found to be more verbose, more interested, more inflexible, more dynamic, seen as more of an expert, more willing to argue, display more argumentative skill, and exert more effort to win than the low verbal aggressive (Infante, 1981). Further, Infante (1981) also found that low argumentatives preferred to

argue less and were more willing to accept other views instead of spending time arguing. And, finally, high argumentatives over-powered low argumentatives and were more inclined to create situations which low argumentatives wanted to avoid (Infante, 1981). However, the two types did not differ in tension, relevance, and persuasiveness (Infante, 1981). Because of these different communication behaviors, argumentatives, either high or low, should be able to get others to comply because they are both persuasive. Although both types are considered persuasive communicators, they persuade differently.

Research has found that the degree to which the topic is ego-involving may play a part in how an argumentative individual is perceived by others. Onyekwere, Rubin, and Infante (1991) state that "when the argumentative situation contained topics that were low in ego-involvement, high argumentatives were perceived less favorably in comparison to high argumentatives who argued highly involving topics" (p. 45). In terms of low argumentatives, those "who argued involving topics were perceived as favorably as one of the groups of high argumentatives, those who argued topics low in ego-involvement" (Onyekwere et al., 1991, p. 45). These findings on low argumentatives contradicted previous research (Onyekwere et al. 1991).

ARGUMENTATIVENESS AND COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGIES.

Argumentative individuals may be more adamant when trying to gain compliance from others (Boster et al., 1993). Therefore, argumentative persons are more likely to gain compliance from others by using different strategies. Research has also found that high argumentatives were less flexible in the positions they held, showed more interest in the topic, were more verbose, were more willing to argue, and were higher in argumentative skill than low argumentatives (Levine & Boster, 1996; Rancer, Kosberg, & Baukus, 1992). Research has found that highly argumentative individuals are seen by others as "more appropriate and effective. This may be due to higher motivational tendencies which often result in better performance, higher complexity of thought and more appropriate social behaviors" (Onyekwere et al., 1991, p. 44).

Research has shown that "argumentativeness is positively associated with diversity in compliance-gaining strategy use" (Boster et al., 1993, p. 412). Therefore, "this interaction is such that highly argumentative individuals who are low in verbal aggression are more persistent, while highly argumentative individuals who are high in verbal aggression are less persistent" (Boster et al., 1993, p. 412). Levine and Boster (1996), state that "high argumentatives tend to make issue centered attacks on others' positions while high verbal aggressives tend to resort to personal attacks when disagreements arise" (p. 348). Furthermore, Boster et al. (1993) found that low argumentatives fall in the middle.

Onyekwere et al. (1991) state that "high argumentatives focus on the issues and use fewer personal attacks in their discussions" (p. 44). Research has also found that high argumentatives may be seen as more credible because "when high argumentatives argue, their higher motivation facilitates the discovery of valid and reliable information and this enhances believability" (Onyekwere et al., 1991, p. 45). In addition, research has found that "the highly argumentative person experiences favorable excitement and has a strong tendency to approach arguments, while feeling no inhibition to argue nor tendencies to avoid arguments" (Infante & Rancer, 1982, pp. 74-75). Infante and Rancer (1982) go on to state that "the low argumentative is opposite, i.e., low approach, no favorable excitement, strong inhibition and avoidance tendencies" (p. 75).

It can be determined that individuals who are seen as argumentative will use positive compliance-gaining strategies. Johnson (1992) also states that "antisocial tactics (negative strategies) attempt to gain relational rewards through either psychological force or punishing activity" (p. 56). Therefore, it can be determined that managers who are seen as verbally aggressive will use more negative compliance-gaining strategies.

Highly argumentative individuals "may provide more reasons and be more persistent in their compliance-gaining behavior" (Boster et al., 1993, p. 406), as well as "more diverse in the selection of compliance-gaining messages" (Boster et al., 1993, p.

406) than less argumentative managers. Also, highly argumentative individuals appear to be more likely than less argumentative individuals to counter the target's resistance with additional compliance-gaining attempts.

VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND ARGUMENTATIVENESS AS COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGIES IN THE WORKPLACE

Hunter and Boster (1987) stated a number of plausible hypotheses for future research into the act of compliance-gaining, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness. Hunter and Boster (1987) hypothesized that

high-verbal aggressives are more likely to threaten compliance-gaining targets than less verbally aggressive persons; highly argumentative people are likely to send more messages than people low in argumentativeness; individuals high in both traits would be likely to transmit numerous compliance-gaining messages that vary widely in emotional impact; individuals high in argumentativeness but low in verbal aggression would be likely to send numerous messages of relatively homogenous emotional impact; i.e., the messages would be predominately positive; individuals low in argumentativeness and high in verbal aggression probably would send few messages, most of which would be relatively negative in emotional impact; individuals low in both traits would be likely to send few messages. (p.82)

Some of these hypotheses resulted in the literature which has been reviewed above. However, most research has been conducted in interpersonal as opposed to organizational contexts. Use of compliance-gaining strategies in the workplace is common, yet only few researchers focus on the workplace. Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) state "that in organizational settings the choice of influence tactics is

associated with what the respondents are trying to get from the target person, the amount of resistance shown, and the power of the target person" (p. 443). Furthermore, Onyekwere et al. (1991) state that Infante and Gorden found that "in organizational contexts, subordinates are more satisfied with superiors and other aspects of organizational life when the superiors are high in argumentativeness and low in verbal aggressiveness" (p. 37). Infante and Gorden (1989) also found that "when superiors were very satisfied with subordinates they perceived them as particularly friendly, relaxed, and attentive communicators and lacking in verbal aggressiveness" (p. 87). This means they were viewed as low in verbal aggressiveness. Rancer, Kosberg & Baukus (1992) state that "credibility during an argument was enhanced when argumentativeness was increased" (p. 377). Along with these factors, the personality of the manager may effect how the manager attempts to get the employee to comply.

Argumentatives have been known to possess good leadership skills and will more likely be chosen as the leader of a group, unless they become too forceful. Leadership is an important aspect of an organization. Schultz (1982) states that "individuals who are perceived as argumentative will be more likely to be chooses as leaders, but it is unclear how argumentative they can be" (p. 369) and that they can be the most influential when it comes to group's decisions. Infante (1989) states that "the highly argumentative individual may be able to influence whether he or she is the recipient of argument or verbal aggression" (p. 166). The individual who is seen as more argumentative will normally be chosen as leader unless there is another leader available to the group (Schultz, 1982). Those seen as having the most influence on the group will rank somewhere between moderately and extremely argumentative (Schultz, 1982). What this leads one to believe is that a highly argumentative individual will be given leadership power over a group unless one of more moderate argumentativeness arises in the group. In this situation, the moderate argumentative will become the leader of the group.

Furthermore, "a supervisor who is able to accomplish influence using prosocial

compliance-gaining tactics will be viewed as more communicatively competent than a supervisor who resorts to antisocial tactics to elicit compliance from subordinates" (Johnson, 1992, p. 64). Trenholm (1989) backs up this argument by stating that "people tend to prefer positive to negative sanctions" in terms of compliance-gaining strategy use (p. 311).

Verbal aggressiveness is an important part of the superior/subordinate relationship within organizations. It is important because individuals need to feel that their self-concepts are important to the organization and their superior (Gorden & Infante, in Infante & Rancer, 1996). When the subordinate believes his/her self-concepts to be important, the subordinate is happier with his/her relationship with his/her superior. Research has found that subordinates who believe their superior to be low in verbal aggressiveness more often find that their self concepts are affirmed. Infante and Rancer (1996) affirm this by stating that "low verbal aggressiveness by supervisors affirms the subordinate's self concepts" (p. 338). However, a subordinate who sees their superior as a high verbal aggressive will more often feel their self-concepts are being attacked, not affirmed. Therefore, low verbal aggressiveness is beneficial to a constructive superior/subordinate relationship, whereas high verbal aggressiveness is not.

This researcher wished to expand on the body of knowledge relating to verbal aggressiveness, argumentativeness, and compliance-gaining strategies in the workplace. Based on the foregoing literature, and applied to the workplace, the following hypothesis was devised:

- H1: Managers with high verbal aggressiveness will be more likely than managers with low verbal aggressiveness to report a preference for negative compliance-gaining strategies but less of a preference for positive compliance-gaining strategies.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

SUBJECTS

The sample consisted of 210 respondents who referenced managers for whom they currently work or previously worked. Subjects were instructed to keep that one manager in mind during the survey. All subjects were volunteers solicited from Speech Communication classes at Oklahoma State University. Students completed surveys concerning the verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness of their manager, and were asked which compliance-gaining strategies the managers were more likely to use.

All participants were informed that their participation was totally voluntary, and that they could withdraw from the research without penalty at any time. Participants were assured that all responses were completely anonymous.

PROCEDURE

The surveys were administered in various classrooms on the Oklahoma State University campus. The researcher gave instructions for the students to not write any specific information about themselves (name, class, etc.) on the answer sheets. The researcher also clarified that most answers to the questions would be their own personal inferences about their manager. Participants read the specific instructions and completed the survey at their own desk. The researcher was present to answer any questions the participants had. All surveys were returned individually to the researcher. The time estimated for survey completion was 20 minutes. All participants received the same survey.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND ARGUMENTATIVENESS SCALES

Participants were asked to complete a two-part survey questionnaire. The first part dealt with the independent variables of verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness. The purpose of this part of the survey was to determine employees' perceptions of their immediate supervisors' verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness. Participants rated their supervisors on a version of Infante and Wigley's (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale (see Appendix A) and Infante and Rancer's (1982) Argumentativeness Scale (see Appendix B). In both cases, the scales were originally designed for rating one's self on verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness. The researcher rephrased the statements so they referenced an employee-employer relationship.

Infante and Wigley's (1986) Verbal Aggressiveness Scale was created to "measure verbal aggressiveness and to test a model of skill deficiency that suggests that physical aggression results when people lack the verbal skills necessary to argue constructively" (p. 61). The Verbal Aggressiveness Scale, "which was mainly intended to measure personal dispositions to be verbally aggressive" (Lim, 1990, p. 180), consists of 20 statements in a Likert-scale format ranging from one (almost never true) to five (almost always true). "Ten items are positively worded and 10 negatively worded. High scores reflect high levels of verbal aggressiveness" (Infante & Wigley, 1986).

The Verbal Aggressiveness Scale is reliable. Rubin (1994) states that the "coefficient alpha levels of the 20-item VAS have been consistently high" (p. 387). Previous researchers who have used the scale have reported coefficient alphas of .81, .85, and .72 (Rubin, 1994).

It is believed that the adaptation of the scale used in the current research will show no differences in terms of reliability. Other scale adaptations have proved

“internally consistent” (Rubin, 1994, p. 387). Adaptations of the scale have also reported coefficient alphas of .79, .81, .79, .89, .90, .92, and .68 in previous research studies (Rubin, 1994). Based on these previous findings, the scale used in the current study is believed to exhibit high research reliability.

In terms of validity, the scale appears highly valid. After conducting their first research study in 1986, Infante and Wigley conducted two additional studies “to explore further the validity of the Scale and to determine if the scale would continue to evidence reliability” (Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 65). In both studies, the scale proved valid.

Several other researchers have used the scale in different research situations. In all situations, the research has yielded valid results. Therefore, it is believed that the current scale will also prove to be a valid scale even as an adjusted scale.

The Argumentativeness Scale “was developed in a series of three factor analytic studies” (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 75). However, before constructing the scale, Infante and Rancer (1982) conceptualized argumentativeness as “the individual’s general trait to be argumentative, ARGgt,” they saw argumentativeness “as an interaction of the tendency to approach arguments, ARGap, and the tendency to avoid arguments, ARGav” which is expressed as “ $ARGgt = ARGap - ARGav$ ” (p. 73). The scale consists of 20 items in a Likert-scale format ranging from one (almost never true) to five (almost always true).

Infante and Rancer’s (1982) Argumentativeness Scale has proven to be a reliable scale. To determine and calculate the internal consistency of the scale, “Cronbach’s coefficient alpha for the 692 subjects who participated in the third factor analytic study” (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 76) was used. Research has shown high coefficient alphas for the 10 approach items, .91, as well as for the 10 avoidance items, .86 (Graham, 1994). The “test-retest reliability was .87 for ARGap, .86 for ARGav, and .91 for ARGgt” (Graham, 1994, p. 89). These findings proved the scale was reliable. Graham (1994) states that “collectively, these results suggest that the ARG Scale is internally consistent”

(p. 90).

The scale appears to be valid for the most part. Dowling and Flint (in Graham, 1994), however, have raised some questions concerning the ambiguous wording used in the scale items. Yet, "they were quick to note that the construct and the measure of argumentativeness does have merit" (Graham, 1994, p. 91).

However, the research of "Infante and Rancer (1982) provided evidence of convergent, concurrent, and discriminant validity" (Graham, 1994, p. 90). To help verify the validity of the scale, the two researchers conducted several different studies. The topics of the research included self and other reports on an individual's argumentativeness, correlating the scale with other communication predisposition measures, and a behavioral-choice study of the individual's willingness to participate (Graham, 1994). What these research studies found was that the correlations between the Argumentativeness Scale and the constructs proved to be significant, thereby proving the scale to be valid.

Different research studies have either proven the Argumentativeness Scale to be valid or somewhat valid. However, when the scale was tested in terms of its correlation with other communication predispositions and the correspondence between self rating and other reports, the results proved statistically significant (Graham, 1994). Therefore, for purposes of the current research, it is believed that the Argumentativeness Scale will be a valid scale.

COMPLIANCE-GAINING SCALE

The second part of the current research survey measured the dependent variable, the compliance-gaining strategy used by managers. The scale was derived from Marwell and Schmitt's (1967) compliance-gaining techniques (CGTs). The Marwell and Schmitt techniques consisted of "16 power-based compliance-gaining techniques - - promise,

threat, positive expertise, negative expertise, liking, pre-giving, aversive stimulation, debt, moral appeal, positive self-feeling, negative self-feeling, positive altercasting, and negative altercasting, altruism, positive esteem, and negative esteem - - and asked people how likely they would be to use each in four different situations" (Rubin, 1994, p. 142). In using the CGTs, respondents "are asked to indicate their degree of likelihood of using each of the 16 compliance-gaining strategies on a 6-point scale ranging from definitely would use to definitely would not use" (Rubin, 1994, p. 142). However, "numerous variations of these procedures exist" (Rubin, 1994, p. 143). For example, a study conducted by "Miller et al. (1977) used eight-interval Likert-type scales, ranging from extremely likely (1) to extremely unlikely (8)" (Rubin, 1994, p. 143). Also, "some researchers have used fewer than four scenarios and others have used more than four" (Rubin, 1994, p. 146).

Therefore, the current Compliance-Gaining Scale was only constructed in the image of Marwell and Schmitt's (1967) scale. In the current study, participants rated the likelihood, on a Likert scale ranging from one (extremely likely) to five (extremely unlikely), that their managers would use each of the nine compliance-gaining strategies (promise, threat, debt, positive identity appeals, negative identity appeals, positive value appeals, negative value appeals, and altruism) (see Appendix C). The researcher felt the use of a 5-point Likert scale, versus a 6- or 8-point Likert scale, was more realistic since the other two scales were also rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Furthermore, only nine strategies were selected by the researcher since previous research has found them to be the most frequently identified compliance-gaining strategies (Trenholm, 1989). All of the nine strategies, except exchange, correspond with the 16 compliance-gaining strategies identified by Marwell and Schmitt (1967) either by definition or by definition and strategy name. The researcher felt it was acceptable to add exchange since it is the opposite of reciprocity as well as one of the most frequently identified compliance-gaining strategies (Trenholm, 1989). The researcher also felt that having too many

compliance-gaining strategies from which to choose would only confuse the participants. The Marwell and Schmitt (1967) scale was used only as a template for the current research scale.

There is very little research that examines the reliability of the Marwell and Schmitt (1967) scale “because they use the 16 items as single-item indicators” (Rubin, 1994, p. 143). However, research that has been conducted has produced results that show the scale to be reliable. Previous research has yielded “a Kendall’s Coefficient of Concordance of .89 across the four scenarios uses; a .81 coefficient alpha for Miller et al. (1977) ‘move to the Southwest’ scenario and .92 for their ‘used car’ scenario; and two main dimensions of strategies: Antisocial (with an alpha of .76) and Prosocial (with a .51 alpha)” (Rubin, 1994, p. 143). Therefore, in some instances the scale has been reliable.

Also, there is evidence of test-retest reliability (Rubin, 1994). Research has found “test-retest (24 days) reliabilities ranging from .31 to .66 (average of .53) for ‘likelihood of use’ ratings for four situations; the test-retest correlation for grouped data (across the four situations) was .99” (Rubin, 1994, p. 143). Rubin (1994) states that “Hample and Dallinger (1987) found a test-retest (6 weeks) correlation of .66 for the nine option totals they used” (p. 143). Therefore, previous research has presented evidence of test-retest reliability. Furthermore, the current research scale may be considered reliable since previous research has found some reliability to the scale. The scale has even been determined reliable in research where nine strategies were used, like the current scale.

The Compliance-Gaining Scale appears to not be valid. Much research has used the scale to help predict strategy selection in interpersonal settings and has failed (Rubin, 1994). Even the research study that “looked for personality variables that might influence strategy choice” (Rubin, 1994, p. 144) did not produce valid results. However, Rubin (1994) states that “one study produced evidence of construct validity: Neuliep (1987) found that Theory X managers preferred antisocial CGTs such as deceit and threat, while Theory Y managers preferred esteem and ingratiation strategies” (p. 144).

Yet, even though there is no concrete evidence of the scale having any strong validity, “the Marwell - Schmitt (1967) CGTs have been used in numerous research studies” (Rubin, 1994, p. 145). However, Rubin (1994) states that before using the Marwell and Schmitt (1967) CGTs “researchers should familiarize themselves with the issues involved in scale use and with the procedural options available in the literature” (p. 145).

Therefore, the researcher feels that even though there is not much research that proves the Marwell and Schmitt (1967) CGTs to have high validity, the scale must have some validity since it is so widely used. With this, the researcher chose to go ahead and incorporate a Compliance-Gaining Scale based on the work of Marwell and Schmitt (1967) since some research has found the scale to be valid and due to the fact that most compliance-gaining strategy scales are derived from this particular scale.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were overall differences across the four levels of the independent variables on the dependent measures. Individual, one-tailed t-tests were conducted to compare groups across the nine compliance-gaining strategies.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

One hypothesis was posed for the basis of this study: Managers with high verbal aggressiveness will be more likely than managers with low verbal aggressiveness to report a preference for negative compliance-gaining strategies but less of a preference for positive compliance-gaining strategies. The hypothesis inquired about the effects of levels of verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness on compliance-gaining strategy use.

Descriptive statistics were run for the four groups on each of the nine compliance-gaining strategies. Table 1 illustrates the means and standard deviations for each of the groups (see Appendix D). The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) shows the overall significant scores by using Wilk's Lambda, $F(27, 579) = 2.29, p < .05$.

Individual, one-tailed t-tests were performed to compare the high verbal aggressiveness groups with the low verbal aggressiveness groups for each of the nine compliance-gaining strategies. Table 2 illustrates the means, standard deviations, and t-values for each of these tests (see Appendix D). In viewing values, positive values would support the hypothesis in terms of positive compliance-gaining strategies (promise, exchange, positive identity appeals, positive value appeals, and altruism). Negative values would support the hypothesis in terms of negative compliance-gaining strategies (threat, reciprocity, negative identity appeals, and negative value appeals).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study examined the compliance-gaining strategies used by managers who differ in their levels of verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness. Past studies have addressed compliance-gaining strategies, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness in different situations, but not as much research has focused on the organization context. A MANOVA was performed on surveys to determine if overall differences existed on the dependent measures across the four levels of the independent variables. Individual one-tailed t-tests were conducted to compare groups across the nine compliance-gaining strategies.

An analysis of the findings revealed which positive and negative strategies supported or denied the hypothesis. Only one positive strategy was consistent with the hypothesis, positive identity appeals ($M=3.22, 2.83; t(208)=2.32$). However, in terms of the negative compliance-gaining strategies, all four negative strategies, threat ($M=2.85, 3.43; t(208)=-3.55$), reciprocity ($M=2.91, 3.45; t(208)=-3.39$), negative identity appeals ($M=3.36, 3.69; t(208)=-2.05$), and negative value appeals ($M=3.26, 3.67; t(208)=-2.64$), were found to be consistent with the hypothesis. Finally, of the nine positive and negative strategies, only four positive compliance-gaining strategies were found to be inconsistent with the hypothesis, promise ($M=3.14, 3.01; t(208)=.70$), positive value appeals ($M=3.06, 3.18; t(208)=-.71$), exchange ($M=3.08, 3.37, t(208)=-1.60$), and altruism ($M=2.77, 2.94, t(208)=-.94$). Therefore, the hypothesis was only partially supported by the findings.

The research found that those managers who were perceived by the subjects as high in verbal aggressiveness and high or low in argumentativeness used more negative and fewer positive compliance-gaining strategies. These findings did support the

hypothesis. Therefore, the researcher believes that managers who are high in verbal aggressiveness will in fact use more negative strategies when attempting to gain the compliance of their employees.

The research did not produce significant results in favor of the hypothesis when looking at low verbal aggressiveness in relation to high argumentativeness and low argumentativeness. The hypothesis states that those low in verbal aggressiveness and high or low in argumentativeness will use more positive compliance-gaining strategies. The findings do not indicate this to be true. The research found one positive compliance-gaining strategy that supported the hypothesis, positive identity appeals. With only one positive compliance-gaining strategy supporting the hypothesis, the researcher concludes that, regardless of whether a manager is low on verbal aggressiveness or high on verbal aggressiveness in relation to high and low argumentativeness, he/she will use both positive and negative compliance-gaining strategies.

CHAPTER VI

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study was designed to examine the effects of verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness on compliance-gaining strategy use of managers. The hypothesis was only partially supported. This partial support could be due to a number of limitations found during the research.

One major limitation found was in the verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness scales. Since the researcher changed the wording of the scales from their original form, many subjects may have had trouble interpreting the meaning of the statements. The researcher then found it necessary to announce to all subjects that some statements would only be the subjects' inferences about the managers' actions. For example, statement one on the Verbal Aggressiveness Scale states "my supervisor is extremely careful to avoid attacking my intelligence when attacking my ideas." The subjects were told to make inferences based on their observations of the managers. The researcher believes this limitation had an effect on the research findings.

A second limitation involved the Compliance-Gaining Scale. The compliance-gaining scale was used to determine how likely the specific manager was to use a given strategy. This limitation was also due to poor re-wording by the researcher. Each compliance-gaining strategy was accompanied by a defining statement and an example situation. The word problem arose in the example situation. For example, the strategy of promise and its definition is followed by the statement "you offer to increase Dick's pay if he increases his work quality." The researcher again had to tell the subjects that the statements should be read in terms of "your supervisor offers to increase your pay if you increase your work quality." The second statement would have allowed for better clarification throughout the scale. The researcher believes this limitation had an effect on

how well the subjects understood the strategy.

A third limitation was that the researcher had to make all the above-mentioned rewording comments before the subjects started the research scales. The researcher believes the statements only confused the subjects who were paying attention, therefore skewing the subjects' answers and the final results. Also, there may have been subjects who ignored the researcher's comments. If the researcher had been more aware of and made the changes before starting the research, the results of the research may have been more supportive of the researcher's hypothesis.

A fourth limitation that surfaced was that the researcher did not get information regarding the age, sex, or race of the subject and the manager. These types of demographics usually play important roles in how well people relate to one another. For example, a sixteen year old, male, Native American employee may have trouble relating to a forty year old, female, Caucasian manager. Relationship problems could be due to different values, beliefs, or norms. This limitation may have also been a contributing factor to the research findings.

A fifth limitation was the researcher did not take into account how long the employee had been employed at the current/previous place of employment. The limitation that surfaced here was that the subject might have only been employed for a short time. The problem that may have arisen here was that the subject may not have worked long enough at their current or previous place of employment to experience their manager using more than one or two of the different strategies. Had the employee worked at the job longer, the employee might have seen the manager use a wider variety of strategies.

A final limitation was in dealing with the independent variables. The researcher believes the hypothesis should have been set up differently. Each of the four groups should have been examined in such a way that each group worked differently in relation to the types of strategies they used. For example, the hypothesis could have stated that

high argumentativeness/low verbal aggressiveness would have used more positive compliance-gaining strategies than the remaining three groups. The researcher feels this oversimplifying the hypothesis may have affected the results.

FUTURE RESEARCH

This study examined the effects of managers' verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness on compliance-gaining strategy use. The researcher believes this study provides an opportunity for future research in the areas of compliance-gaining strategy use, verbal aggressiveness, and argumentativeness in the organizational setting. There are many opportunities available for researching these variables in the workplace if the research is set up in a more suitable manner.

The researcher believes the results of the current research may contribute to the investigation of the hypotheses suggested by Hunter and Boster (1987):

high-verbal aggressives are more likely to threaten compliance-gaining targets than less verbally aggressive persons; highly argumentative people are likely to send more messages than people low in argumentativeness; individuals high in both traits would be likely to transmit numerous compliance-gaining messages that vary widely in emotional impact; individuals high in argumentativeness but low in verbal aggression would be likely to send numerous messages of relatively homogenous emotional impact; i.e., the messages would be predominately positive; individuals low in argumentativeness and high in verbal aggression probably would send few messages, most of which would be relatively negative in emotional impact; individuals low in both traits would be likely to send few messages. (p.82)

In addition to collecting data on these alternative hypotheses, the researcher believes the

current hypothesis should also be tested again. Significant findings could be found once the above-mentioned limitations are corrected.

One final area future researchers should examine is how verbally aggressive and argumentative the employee perceives the manager to be versus how verbally aggressive and argumentative the manager perceives him/herself to be. When dealing with personality types, people often times perceive themselves differently than others. This could also lead the researcher to investigating the different types of compliance-gaining strategies the employees believes the manager uses versus the types of compliance-gaining strategies the manager believes him/herself to use. The researcher feels this could produce some interesting, and beneficial results for an organization.

CONCLUSION

The present research furthers the understanding of the effects verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness on compliance-gaining strategy use by managers'. It established that verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness does play a part in the choice of compliance-gaining strategies. However, the research only partially supported the hypothesis. Attempts to gather additional data regarding the current research hypothesis as well as other related research questions should generate useful information for organizations. The ability to recognize and distinguish between verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness as well as compliance-gaining strategies, should be of importance to all organizations. Therefore, this research should prove beneficial in terms of identifying ways to establish better communication between employees and managers.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS SCALE

Verbal Aggressiveness Scale

Instructions for Verbal Aggressiveness Scale:

Instructions: This survey is concerned with how we try to get people to comply with our wishes. Indicate how often each statement is true for your immediate supervisor when they try to influence you. Use the following scale:

- 1 = Almost never true
- 2 = Rarely true
- 3 = Occasionally true
- 4 = Often true
- 5 = Almost always true

1. My supervisor is extremely careful to avoid attacking my intelligence when attacking my ideas. ____
2. When my supervisor is stubborn, he/she uses insults to soften the stubbornness. ____
3. My supervisor tries very hard to avoid having me feel bad about myself when he/she tries to influence me. ____
4. When I refuse to do a task my supervisor thinks is important, without good reason, he/she tells me I am unreasonable. ____
5. When I do things my supervisor regards as stupid, he/she tries to be extremely gentle with me. ____
6. If my supervisor is trying to influence me and I really deserve it, he/she attacks my character. ____
7. When I behave in ways that are in very poor taste, my supervisor insults me in order to shock me into proper behavior. ____
8. My supervisor tries to make me feel good about myself even when my ideas are stupid. ____

9. When I am simply not willing to budge on a matter of importance my supervisor loses his/her temper and says rather strong things to me. ____
10. When I criticize my supervisors shortcomings, he/she takes it in good humor and does not try to get back at me. ____
11. When I insult my supervisor, he/she gets a lot of pleasure out of really telling me off. ____
12. When my supervisor dislikes individuals greatly, he/she tries not to show it in what he/she says or how he/she says it. ____
13. My supervisor likes poking fun at me when I do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate his/her intelligence. ____
14. When my supervisor attacks my ideas, he/she tries not to damage my self-concepts. ____
15. When my supervisor tries to influence me, he/she makes a great effort not to offend me. ____
16. When I do things which are mean and cruel, my supervisor attacks my character in order to help correct my behavior. ____
17. My supervisor refuses to participate in arguments when they involve personal attacks. ____
18. When nothing seems to work in trying to influence me, my supervisor yells and screams in order to get some movement from me. ____
19. When my supervisor is not able to refute my position, he/she tries to make me feel defensive in order to weaken my position. ____
20. When an argument shifts to personal attacks, my supervisor tries very hard to change the subject. ____

APPENDIX B
ARGUMENTATIVENESS SCALE

Argumentativeness Scale

Instructions for Argumentativeness Scale:

Instructions: This survey contains statements about arguing. Indicate how often each statement is true for your immediate supervisor by placing the appropriate number in the blank to the left of the statement. Use the following numbers:

- 1 = Almost never true
- 2 = Rarely true
- 3 = Occasionally true
- 4 = Often true
- 5 = Almost always true

1. While in an argument, my supervisor worries that the person he/she is arguing with will form a negative impression of him/her. ____
2. Arguing over controversial issues improves his/her intelligence. ____
3. My supervisor enjoys avoiding arguments. ____
4. My supervisor is energetic and enthusiastic when he/she argues. ____
5. Once my supervisor finishes an argument he/she promises himself/herself that he/she will not get into another one. ____
6. Arguing with me creates more problems for my supervisor than it solves. ____
7. My supervisor has a pleasant, good feeling when he/she wins a point in an argument. ____
8. When my supervisor finishes arguing with me he/she feels nervous and upset. ____
9. My supervisor enjoys a good argument over a controversial issue. ____
10. My supervisor gets an unpleasant feeling when he/she realizes he/she is about to get into an argument. ____
11. My supervisor enjoys defending his/her point of view on an issue. ____

12. My supervisor is happy when he/she keeps an argument from happening. ____
13. My supervisor does not like to miss the opportunity to argue a controversial issue. ____
14. My supervisor prefers being with people who rarely disagree with him/her. ____
15. My supervisor considers an argument an exciting intellectual challenge. ____
16. My supervisor finds himself/herself unable to think of effective points during an argument. ____
17. My supervisor feels refreshed and satisfied after an argument on a controversial issue. ____
18. My supervisor has the ability to do well in an argument. ____
19. My supervisor tries to avoid getting into arguments. ____
20. My supervisor feels excitement when he/she expects that a conversation he/she is in is leading to an argument. ____

APPENDIX C
COMPLIANCE-GAINING SCALE

Compliance-Gaining Techniques

Instructions for Compliance-Gaining Scale:

Instructions: A list of methods which persons commonly use to get another to do something will follow. Rate how likely your immediate supervisor would be to use each of the nine behaviors to gain compliance from you. Use the following scale and circle the number that best represents your supervisors' position.

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| 1 | Extremely likely |
| 2 | Likely |
| 3 | Occasionally |
| 4 | Unlikely |
| 5 | Extremely unlikely |

1. Promise - If you comply, I will reward you. ____
"You offer to increase Dick's pay if he increases his work quality."
2. Threat - If you do not comply I will punish you. ____
"You threaten to forbid Dick the use of the company car if he does not increase his work quality."
3. Reciprocity - You owe me compliance because of past favors. ____
"You point out that you have sacrificed for Dick's job and that he owes it to you to work hard enough to get the promotion."
4. Positive Identity Appeals - You will feel better about yourself if you comply.
____ "You tell Dick he will feel proud if he gets himself to work harder."
5. Negative Identity Appeals - You will feel worse about yourself if you do not comply. ____
"You tell Dick he will feel ashamed of himself if he does bad work."
6. Positive Value Appeals - A person with "good" qualities would comply. ____
"You tell Dick that since he is a mature and intelligent man he naturally will want to work harder."
7. Negative Value Appeals - Only a person with "bad" qualities would not comply. ____
"You tell Dick that only someone very childish does not work as he should."

8. Exchange - If you do this for me, I will do something for you. _____
"You tell Dick that I will answer his phone for a week if he will work extra hours this week."
9. Altruism - I need your compliance very badly, so do it for me. _____
"You tell Dick that you really need him to work harder and that you wish he would work extra hours as a personal favor to you."

APPENDIX D

TABLE

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Strategies by Group

<u>Strategy</u>	<u>Group</u>			
	High Agg High Arg	High Agg Low Arg	Low Arg High Agg	Low Arg Low Arg
Promise (+)	3.23 (1.47)	3.00 (1.43)	2.87 (1.18)	3.12 (1.27)
Threat(-)	2.97 (1.27)	2.67 (1.12)	3.02 (1.23)	3.76 (1.11)
Exchange (+)	3.06 (1.39)	3.12 (1.37)	3.22 (1.13)	3.48 (1.23)
Reciprocity (-)	2.86 (1.17)	3.00 (1.10)	3.22 (1.13)	3.64 (1.25)
Positive ID (+)	3.48 (1.21)	2.81 (1.25)	2.78 (1.15)	2.86 (1.28)
Negative ID (-)	3.45 (1.17)	3.21 (1.14)	3.56 (1.12)	3.79 (1.28)
Positive Value(+)	3.14 (1.21)	2.93 (1.13)	2.98 (1.22)	3.33 (1.29)
Negative Value (-)	3.35 (1.14)	3.12 (1.19)	3.53 (1.08)	3.78 (1.09)
Altruism (+)	2.66 (1.40)	2.95 (1.40)	2.91 (1.16)	2.97 (1.27)
N	65	42	45	58

Note. (+) positive strategies; (-) negative strategies.

Agg = Verbal Aggressiveness; Arg = Argumentativeness.

Numbers in parenthesis are the standard deviations.

Table 2
Means and t-Values for Strategies by Aggressive Groups

<u>Strategy</u>	<u>Group</u>		t
	High Agg	Low Agg	
Promise (+)	3.14	3.01	0.70
Threat (-)	2.85	3.43	-3.55*
Exchange (+)	3.08	3.37	-1.60
Reciprocity (-)	2.91	3.46	-3.39*
Positive ID (+)	3.22	2.83	2.32*
Negative ID (-)	3.36	3.69	-2.05*
Positive Value (+)	3.06	3.18	-0.71
Negative Value (-)	3.26	3.67	-2.64*
Altruism (+)	2.77	2.94	-0.94
N	107	103	

Note. (+) positive strategies; (-) negative strategies.

Agg = Verbal Aggressiveness.

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

APPENDIX E

IRB FORM

To Whom it May Concern:

Enclosed is the Institutional Review Board Human Subjects form. After conferring with my thesis committee, it is a consensus that the proposed title, "Verbal Aggressiveness and Argumentativeness and its Effects on Compliance Gaining" be changed to "The Effects of Managers' Verbal Aggressiveness and Argumentativeness on Compliance-Gaining Strategy Use."

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Jennifer D. Hayes".

Jennifer D. Hayes

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: February 25, 1998

IRB #: AS-98-045

Proposal Title: VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND ARGUMENTATIVENESS AND ITS EFFECTS
ON COMPLIANCE GAINING

Principal Investigator(s): David Schrader, Jennifer Hayes

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT
NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE
APPROVAL PERIOD.

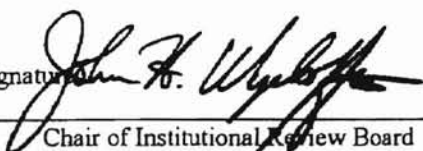
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR
PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE
SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

Since the participants will neither write their names or will tracking numbers be used on the surveys or envelopes, it appears that the responses will be essentially anonymous excepting the restricted populations surveyed. The informed consent form is unnecessary for anonymous surveys.

Signature



Chair of Institutional Review Board

cc: Jennifer Hayes

Date: February 25, 1998

VITA

Jennifer Danette Hayes

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Arts

Thesis: **THE EFFECTS OF MANAGERS' VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND ARGUMENTATIVENESS ON COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGY USE**

Major Field: Speech Communication

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Ardmore, Oklahoma, on March 2, 1974, the daughter of Esteline Francis and the late Col. William G. Francis.

Education: Graduated from Moore High School, Moore, Oklahoma in May 1992; received Bachelor of Science in Mass Communication from East Central University, Ada, Oklahoma in May 1997. Completed the requirements for the Master of Arts degree with a major in Speech Communication at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July 1999.

Experience: Raised in Moore, Oklahoma; employed by the Chickasaw Nation Nutrition Services, Ada, Oklahoma, 1994-1999; employed by Oklahoma State University, Department of Speech Communication as a Graduate Teaching Assistant, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1998-1999; Oklahoma State University, Department of Speech Communication, 1997-1999.

Professional Memberships: National Communication Association, Central States Communication Association.