DISCOMFORT IN A HETEROSEXUAL DYAD AS A

FUNCTION OF PERFORMANCE STYLE

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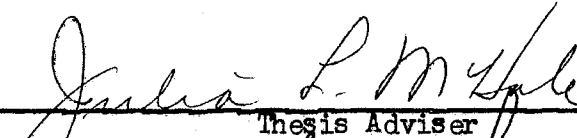of New York
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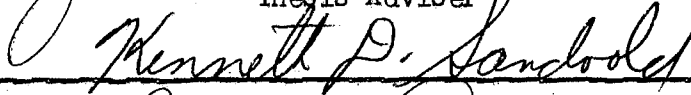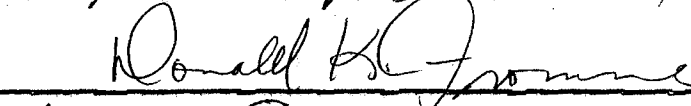DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Conception of the social individual as actor, role-player or per-
former has gained marked popularity in recent theoretical movement
(Gough, 1948; Goffman, 1959; Secord and Backman, 1964). A particularly
thorough formulation along this perspective is Goffman's highly drama-
turgic approach to the study of interpersonal behavior. Goffman's basic
thesis is that individual social behavior typically constitutes expres-
sive performance with the actor employing various "techniques" in order
to define the "impression" he is trying to convey to an audience.

Relying heavily upon Goffman's scheme, Ring, Braginsky and Bragin-
sky (1966), Ring, Braginsky, Levine and Braginsky (1967), and Ring and
Wallston (1968) have studied social interaction from a postulated
reference point they label as "performance style." Viewing this con-
struct as an actor-parameter, the authors define performance style
simply as "...an individual's characteristic mode of interaction with
others" (Ring et al, 1966, p. 206). In addition to emphasizing the
"intra-individual consistency" in interpersonal behavior, they assume
that three particular styles can be identified "...which account for
most of the actor-related variance in performance behavior" (1966,
p. 207). The authors contend that any particular style is a composite
function of motivation, knowledge and skill factors, and develop their
typology by conceptually manipulating different aspects of these vari-

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ables.

The Three Styles

In presenting this typology, Ring and his co-workers stress that these styles are not considered absolute types. Rather each constitutes an "ideal" to be used as a "reference point" for investigating individual performance. The styles are labelled p̱, ṟ, and c̱ and are characterized quite thoroughly in terms of "performance-giving" behavior.

p̱

> A p̱ dislikes and prefers to avoid those inter-
> personal contacts which, in his own eyes, call
> for him to "act" or "play a role." He wants
> merely to "be himself" and for others to "be them-
> selves" too. We assume that a p̱ lacks the social
> agility required for successful performance-giving
> and is deficient in his knowledge of the role-
> demands appropriate to a wide variety of social
> settings. Interpersonally, then, a p̱ is likely
> to be something less than impressive; whenever he
> finds he cannot "be himself," he behaves ineptly
> and feels restive and ill-at-ease (Ring and
> Wallston, 1968, p. 147).

Although the authors clearly consider any social interaction as involving performance, they distinguish their observational bias from p̱'s perceptual orientation. A p̱ perceives quite a difference between those situations which demand that he perform and those in which he can "be himself." He feels comfortable only when the interpersonal context allows him little or no resistance in engaging in the latter.

Ring et al contend that the component make up of p̱ is such that he is "low" in all three style-determining factors. Motivationally, his social needs cannot be satisfied within contexts that require him to act out a part because doing so would be contrapositional to his primary

need, namely "self-expression." Further, it is postulated that p has a
strong need for "self-evaluation," something heavily dependent upon the
behaviors others direct toward him. When he is not "himself" in inter-
personal situations, he receives feedback focusing only upon the role he
is presently enacting and thereby delimits the environmental cues nec-
essary for his self-evaluation.

Purported limitations in interpersonal skills and knowledge con-
cerning various roles add to p's social dilemma. He is considered to be
severely inept and quite ignorant with respect to behaviors expected in
many situations. The resultant social adjustment of p is "...aloof,
introverted and alienated...because the world of interpersonal relations
precludes the realization of his deepest wish: to be himself, to be a
person and not an actor" (Ring et al, 1966, p. 212).

r
—

> An r is an individual who is typically skilled in
> interpersonal relations. In fact, in virtually
> every respect rs and ps constitute antipodal types.
> An r enjoys interpersonal relationships which make
> a p feel uncomfortable; an r knows what to do in
> interpersonal contexts where a p is at a loss as to
> how to behave; finally, an r can do what needs to
> be done, a p frequently cannot. Finally, whereas
> ps may be regarded as being motivated primarily by
> self-expressive needs, rs seem better described in
> terms of a somewhat manipulative interpersonal
> orientation. Their behavior may sometimes be
> tinged with a certain Machiavellian quality (Christie,
> 1962) and, when dependent on others, they resemble
> what Jones (1964, pp. 73-74) has labelled "acquisitive
> ingratiators." These instrumental motivations,
> coupled with an adroitness in interpersonal relations,
> enables rs to exploit social situations with an
> effectiveness that ps can only find depressing (Ring
> and Wallston, 1968, pp. 147-148).

Whereas p is conceptualized as having only minimal interpersonal skills

and knowledge, and virtually no performance motive, r is considered to be well-endowed in all three aspects. Motivationally, r aspires to give a "good performance" so as to effect audience reaction and control interpersonal contexts. Emphasized throughout the available literature is r's manipulative approach towards others, a characteristic so pervasive in the style that he comes across highly Machiavellian.

Ring et al's presentation of this type includes a number of aspects which could lead some readers to conclude that r is, essentially, a sociopath. The authors indicate that r's exploitive style of social adjustment would be interpreted as pathological, to some degree, by Horney and E. Fromm. However, they clearly contend that the r-style does not of necessity involve pathology. Seemingly, this conclusion is based upon their perspective that r functions and performs "...within the confines of the agreed-upon script..." (Ring et al, 1966, p. 214).

c

Ring et al characterize c's style as "...something of a compromise between a p and an r..." (1966, p. 215). He is similar to r in that he wants to act well, but his motivation to do so is for "social approval" and not for social control. In fact he tries to obey environmental demands and be "...the person the script calls for..." (1966, p. 215) so unresistantly that the authors label him c after "chameleon." This type is similar to p in terms of limited acting skills, but unlike the latter who tries to avoid performance, c conforms rigidly to situational demands, performs in a rather passive manner, and "...reads his script word for word" (1966, p. 216).

Effects of the Interacting Partner's

Style upon the Actor

Although Ring et al's sequence of papers focuses upon actor-variants, the authors consider individual behavior to be significantly affected by "...attributes of the audience and...attributes of the set-ting in which the performance takes place" (1966, p. 206). These two situational variables define the particular "script" to which an actor relates and are of consequence because "...individuals who have differ-ent performance styles will tend to handle a given script in different ways" (1966, p. 206).

Based upon the characterizations of p and r it is logical to expect that both p and r would experience greater discomfort when interacting with an r-partner than with a p-partner. Intuitively, the Machiavellian role-oriented style of an r-partner would tend to put acting demands upon p, and would create a rather competitive script for another r. The p-partner's style, however, should not compete with r's script-manage-ment and should allow another p to be more "himself."

The present study was designed to test these expectations concern-ing partner-related discomfort, in addition to discomfort as a function of the actor's performance style. The experimental-social unit chosen to implement this design was the heterosexual dyad. Using this kind of experimental unit afforded information concerning affective responsive-ness of both male and female ps and rs without making subject avail-ability and temporal demands unreasonable. Theoretically, expectations of differential emotional experience for ps and rs should be similar whether the audience is like-sex, opposite-sex, or mixed. In addition,

theory and research in the general area of interpersonal attraction can be readily interpreted as supportive of expectant dissimilarity in the responsiveness of ps and rs as a function of an opposite-sex partner's particular style. The following chapter will include a review of some pertinent literature in this area.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Identification of Performance Types

The Performance Style Test (PST) was constructed by Ring and his co-workers (1967, 1968) in order to measure the various styles and identify types. This instrument and normative data based upon a sample of 852 undergraduates are presented by Ring and Wallston (1968).

The PST is a 55-item paper and pencil test which requires true or false answers for each item (see Appendix A). The instrument is so designed that three scores, each representing a particular style, are calculated for each $\underline{S}$. Performance "types" can then be isolated by choosing $\underline{S}$s who score extremely high on one particular style-dimension and low on the other two.

The data gathered from 852 undergraduates support the validity of the PST and strongly attest to its reliability as a measuring device. Seventy-seven percent of the item-biserial correlations range from .20 to .80 across all styles and only four percent of the correlation co-efficients are negative. In addition all scale-intercorrelations are negative and significant ($\underline{r}$ x $\underline{p}$, - .79; $\underline{r}$ x $\underline{c}$, - .37; and $\underline{p}$ x $\underline{c}$, - .12). The above indicates not only intra-style score consistency, but also that each score reflects, at least to a statistically significant extent, different approaches to interpersonal behavior. Of particular interest to the present study is the extremely high negative correlation

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between p and r, an expected result since these two are conceptualized as "antipodal" types.

The scores of 36 undergraduate psychology students were used to estimate the test-retest reliability of the PST. The Ss were administered the PST on two occasions, the two sessions being two months apart. Table I, as depicted by Ring and Wallston (1968), presents these correlations. This set of coefficients indicates that the p and r scales are particularly reliable for both sexes.

TABLE I

TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR
THE THREE SCALES OF THE PST

	Males	Females	Combined
p	.84	.87	.86
r	.85	.86	.85
c	.68	.85	.77

(Reprinted from Ring and Wallston, 1968, p. 153)

Empirically Observed Differences

Between p and r

In their 1967 study, Ring et al found strong predictive validation for their typology and the PST. The Ss were male undergraduates who had

been "typed" as p, r, or c based upon their PST scores. Each S was put into an experimental situation in which he had to "imagine" he was a salesman and try to effectively sell his product (an encyclopedia) to a customer. The customer, a male experimental confederate, was presented to S as merely another S. S had been told that the study was designed to investigate "persuation and decision making." S's specific task was to make an effective salespitch after reading a description and evalua- tive review of the encyclopedia which the reviewer had either highly recommended, recommended with reservation, or not recommended. The experimental variables were thus salesman typology and quality of pro- duct evaluation.

Two of the three hypotheses were strongly supported (the one not supported by the data focused upon an interaction effect between per- formance type and the evaluative review of the encyclopedia). Hypothe- sis I stated that rs would rate themselves as very effective (with respect to the salespitch), cs as less effective, and ps as least ef- fective. Based upon an "effectiveness index" composed of self-ratings on persuasability, success, imagination, adeptness, and salesmanship, the hypothesis was strongly supported. Individual comparisons among the self-rated effectiveness means demonstrated significant differences be- tween each pair of types as predicted by the hypothesis. In addition the taped salespitch of each S was judged for effectiveness by three naive undergraduate students (two female and one male). Again the ordering of effectiveness supported the hypothesis. No individual com- parisons were reported here but F turned out to be significant at the $p < .025$ level.

Hypothesis II predicted similar typological ordering on self-

ratings of experienced comfort during the salesman-customer interaction; that rs would rate themselves as feeling most comfortable, cs as less comfortable, and ps as least comfortable. The hypothesis was strongly supported, with each individual comparison for mean ratings between each pair of types being significant. Because it could be argued that these results were largely a function of effectiveness differences among styles, the authors partialed out the differential effect due to this variable. This procedure reduced the analyzable number of Ss from 87 to 54. Nevertheless, Hypothesis II was supported: rs ranked significantly highest in self-rated comfort, ps lowest, and cs in-between.

Ring et al also tried to ascertain the reasons p felt uncomfortable during the experiment. Based upon the Ss' responses to one item on a post experimental questionnaire, reasons for discomfort were dichoto-mized into "performance objections" (trouble with playing the role of salesman) and "moral objections" (dilemmas of playing salesman, e.g., deceit). Using 58 out of the 62 Ss that had answered this item, a ten-dency was found for moral objections to be voiced mainly by ps, but the results were not statistically significant. The authors indicate that if all Ss were included in the analysis and the categorical spheres are constructed as "primarily moral objections" and "all others," signifi-cance is reached.

Wallston (1969) supports the contention that rs experience greater comfort than do ps during role-enactment. Using pairs of male ps and rs in all combinations the experimental situation called for one S to play a student's role (ST) and the other a graduate assistant's role (GA). Instructions directed that ST visit GA in his office and get as much information as possible from the latter about a final exam. Both

GA and ST rs expressed that they felt more comfortable during the experiment than did the respective ps. In addition, rs in both roles found the task "easier" to do.

One purpose of Wallston's study that is especially relevant to the present investigation was to determine if any differential reactions of ps and rs were a function of the similarity or dissimilarity between the experimental partners' performance styles. With respect to self-rating comfort scores no statistically significant differences were found. However, to a degree approaching significance GA reported more comfort when his interacting ST partner had a dissimilar performance style. ST, on the other hand, felt a bit more comfortable when his GA partner had a similar style although this trend was not significant. With respect to another comfort-like self-rating measure, GAs reported that it was easier to interact when the ST partner was dissimilar in style and this difference did reach significance ($p < .05$).

McKenna (1971) investigated some of the expectations of performance style theory with regard to female ps and rs. The experimental situation required that S, a female undergraduate, play the part of a graduate student and interview another undergraduate female, the latter being an experimental confederate. This procedure differed from those used in previous research in that S was instructed to believe that the information-gathering interview was authentic. As expected E rated rs as appearing more comfortable than ps during the interaction. However, neither the confederate's ratings of S nor S's self-ratings with respect to feelings of comfort resulted in any significant difference between ps and rs. One further significant finding was that ps who had been presented with low moral justification for the interview were judged by

the confederate as being less comfortable than ps presented with high moral justification.

<center>r and Machiavellianism</center>

Machiavellianism, as defined empirically by its measuring instruments, "...refers to an amoral, manipulative attitude towards other individuals, combined with a cynical view of men's motives and of their character" (Gutterman, 1970, p. 3). Research investigating this variable, particularly results highlighting the manipulative orientation and emotional detachment of high Machs, is pertinent to the present study insofar as r has been validly conceptualized as Machiavellian by Ring and his co-workers.

A primary characteristic of r is, purportedly, his tendency to be Machiavellian in approaching others. In fact, Ring et al (1966) suggest that if r could be equated with high scorers on the two scales measuring Machiavellianism (Mach IV and Mach V) and if p could be equated with low scorers, a hypothesized difference between these two styles could be supported via research dealing with Machiavellianism. The difference which they allege is that r has a broader repertoire of socially manipulative skills than does p.

Caution must be exercised in relating empirical results dealing with high Machs to the r-style because of the different approaches used to construct the respective measuring devices. The Mach scales are formulated so that a score

> ...represents only the degree to which a person
> believes that people in general are manipulative.
> He does not necessarily claim that he would, or
> does manipulate. However, we infer that agreement
> with such cynical views of human nature might go

> along with the emotional detachments and amoral
> attributes necessary for successful deception
> (Christie, 1970, p. 83).

The PST, on the other hand, requires $\underline{S}$ to affirm or negate statements referring to his own behavior or feelings in particular interpersonal contexts. Unlike the Mach scales, almost every PST item is presented in the first person.

The theoretical expectation that $\underline{r}$ should score high on Machiavellianism does find support in a significant .15 correlation between $\underline{r}$-scores and scores on the Mach V, the most updated instrument measuring this variable (Ring and Wallston, 1968). Although this result corroborates $\underline{r}$'s Machiavellianism, the correlation is so low that the authors indicate the two instruments (PST and Mach V) measure different variables. In the same study a non-significant correlation of .01 between $\underline{p}$ and Mach V and a significant correlation of -.24 between $\underline{c}$ and Mach V are reported. Interestingly, these values suggest that low Machs tend to be more $\underline{c}$-ish than $\underline{p}$-ish in performance style. It seems conclusive from this entire set of correlations that $\underline{r}$ and $\underline{p}$ should not be interchanged with high and low Machs respectively. With these reservations in mind some research dealing with Machiavellianism will be reviewed with particular emphasis upon results demonstrating the high Mach's emotional detachment and manipulation of others.

A recently published book by Christie and Geis (1970) presents extensive research highlighting these aspects of the high Mach. The authors list 24 studies investigating Machiavellianism in which social manipulation was pertinent to the experimental task. Eleven of these 24 studies met the conditions under which high Machs manipulate, namely, face-to-face interaction, latitude for improvisation and irrelevant

affect. The results of ten of these 11 studies are interpreted by Christie and Geis as supportive of high Mach's alleged manipulative approach to interpersonal transaction.

High Mach's handling of others was nicely demonstrated in the study entitled "The Ten Dollar Game" (Christie and Geis, 1970). The experimental situation involved a high, middle and low Mach seated at a table with a female E. Each subject-triad was instructed to bargain for the ten one dollar bills that had been placed on the table. The game would end as soon as any two of the three Ss could agree upon how to split the money without the third player talking them out of it by making a better offer. The results are striking: in each triad high Mach was in the winning two-party coalition, middle Mach in five out of seven, and low Mach in two of seven. The probability of getting such a pattern is .016. In addition the average amount of money won by high Mach was $5.57, whereas low Mach averaged $1.29 and middle Mach $3.14. High Mach was certainly the more manipulative S and "...in contrast to low Machs played impersonally and opportunistically" (p. 172).

Emotional detachment theoretically accounts for much of the high Mach's ease and success at manipulating others. Exline, Thiboult, Hickey, and Grumpert (1970) report a study which can be interpreted as supporting this theoretical relation. High and low Machs of both sexes were selected on the basis of their scores on Mach IV. Each S was paired with a like-sex confederate to engage in an experiment investigating "joint decision-making." The study was designed so that E had to leave the room during the session at which time the confederate attempted to provoke the experimental Ss into looking at the answers for the remaining test items. After E returned and the task completed, he noted

the fine performance of the "implicated" pair of $\underline{S}$s and accused them of cheating.

Eye contact with $\underline{E}$ was the dependent variable used to determine attempted manipulation by $\underline{S}$, the reasoning being that maintaining visual contact during accusation could be a profession of innocence. This variable had been measured during a baseline period, pre-accusation period and post-accusation interrogation period for each $\underline{S}$. No significant difference in amount of eye contact between high and low Machs was evident during the baseline period. High Machs, however, avoided looking right in $\underline{E}$'s eyes less than low Machs during the pre-accusation period and, more importantly, actually increased their eye contact with $\underline{E}$ during the post-accusation interrogation while denying that they had cheated. These results were interpreted as demonstrating high Mach's manipulativeness, this time with respect to $\underline{E}$. Exline et al further infer that since looking someone right in the eye is usually considered as "self-revealing" of one's emotional state, a considerable degree of affective detachment from others is necessary.

Most of the research concluding that high Machs are emotionally detached makes this inference from some measure of competitive-interpersonal manipulation. Usually this measurement is in terms of winning an experimentally contrived game. Durkin (1970) presents an extremely clever approach to comparing emotionality in high and low Machs by basing his inference upon differential interpersonal cooperation. $\underline{S}$s, college undergraduates, were arranged into tetrads of two males and two females, with each tetrad averaging either high or low on Machiavellianism. Every possible male-female dyadic combination from each tetrad engaged in the cooperative task which involved manipulation of a ball in

a spiral apparatus. Coordinated hand movements of partners were required in order to perform the task successfully. For each tetrad an interaction score was calculated based upon the differences of differences between dyad-scores. With this kind of measure, a higher interaction score necessarily would reflect greater intra-individual inconsistency (that is, better performance by $\underline{S}$ with one partner than another). A lower score would indicate that individual task-performance was more consistent and similar across the different partners. It had been hypothesized that the low Mach tetrads would demonstrate higher interaction scores than would high Mach tetrads. This hypothesis was confirmed at the p<.01 level. Such a result supports an inferred polarization of the social emotionality of high and low Machs. Low Mach's person-oriented style breeds interpersonal inconsistency because he reacts differently emotionally to different people. High Mach's instrumental-orientation in dealing with others precludes significant inconsistency because he is too detached to have irrelevant interpersonal affect interfere with his functioning.

$\underline{p}$s and $\underline{r}$s as Heterosexual Partners

Emotional responsiveness of $\underline{p}$ and $\underline{r}$ to opposite-sex partners of the same or dissimilar performance style has not been researched. However, a good deal of literature in the area of interpersonal attraction would predict differential affective reactions of $\underline{p}$ and $\underline{r}$ to a heterosexual partner as a partial function of the latter's performance style.

Perhaps the approach to interpersonal attraction most adaptable to performance style theory is Byrne and Clore's (1970) reinforcement model of evaluative responses. The authors postulate that interpersonal

attraction is a function of a classically conditioned covert affective response on the part of an individual. This response, a weighted average of the positive and negative reinforcers involved, acts as a mediator of attraction. This mediating response is conceptualized as falling somewhere on a pleasant-unpleasant gradient. With respect to the dyad the conditioning process may be exemplified as follows: partner A will be attracted to partner B (CS) if the latter is associated with some positive reinforcement (UCS). This positive UCS will occasion a covert pleasant affective reaction which will mediate a positive evaluative response on the part of A towards B. Often the reinforcement is experimentally contrived in terms of attitudes attributed to B.

Byrne and Clore's idea that the character of the affective response mediates attraction finds strong support in a study by Gouaux (1971). To induce differential affect, female Ss viewed either an elation or depression film. Subsequently, each S was given an attitude questionnaire which allegedly had been completed by a female stranger. S was required to evaluate the stranger on the Interpersonal Judgment Scale in terms of a number of aspects (e.g., intelligence, adjustment, and the degree to which S would like the person who had filled out the questionnaire). In addition S completed an adjective check list (the Today Form of the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List) with respect to her "present subjective feelings."

As had been expected results strongly supported the contention that the films induced differential affect. Depression scores based upon the adjective check list were significantly higher for the depression-film Ss than for the elation-film Ss. More importantly interpersonal attraction as measured by two items on the Interpersonal Judgment

Scale was a function of induced affect to a highly significant degree (p<.0001). Specifically, elation-film Ss were more attracted to the "stranger" than were depression-film Ss.

Byrne and Clore (1970) indicate that attitudinal similarity typically has interpersonal reinforcing properties and research supporting this contention is abundant. Cyrne (1971) presents a number of studies highlighting the effect of this factor between opposite-sex partners. One of these investigations (Shaughnessy and Levinger, 1969), using attitudinal similarity-dissimilarity as the independent variable, "simulated" heterosexual dyads. After completing a personal value questionnaire S, a male undergraduate, compared his answers to those of an alleged female via teletype. The "female" responses were regulated such that each S received a set of answers which either totally agreed or highly disagreed with his own. As expected the preferred potential dating partner of S was the "female" with similar responses to the questionnaire.

In a rather unique study Byrne, Ervin and Lamberth (1970) found corroborating results. Based upon an extensive "attitude-personality" questionnaire, highly similar and dissimilar undergraduate opposite-sex dyads were isolated. Each pair was sent on a 50¢ coke date and upon their return were questioned concerning their experience. As had been expected attraction to the partner was a significant function of questionnaire similarity.

An especially interesting finding relating similarity to heterosexual attraction comes from an unpublished study by Haywood (1965, as reported by Byrne, 1971). Male and female undergraduates were used as Ss and were required to complete the M-F scale of the MMPI. A few weeks

later heterosexual dyads were simulated by presenting $\underline{S}$ with the M-F

scales allegedly completed by opposite-sex strangers. $\underline{S}$ was required to

evaluate his "partners" by means of the Interpersonal Judgment Scale

modified by a triad of heterosexually directed items. With similarity

defined in terms of M-F item proportion, Haywood found that $\underline{Ss}$ were more

attracted to the totally similar, opposite-sex stranger than to the less

similar one.

Despite the virtually uncontested experimental relationship demon-

strated between attitudinal similarity and interpersonal attraction,

Byrne considers this relationship to warrant only empirical import:

> The relationship between attitude similarity and
> attraction is a low-level empirical law. It does
> not constitute either a moral or a theoretical
> imperative....When we move to stimuli other than
> attitudes, there is no theoretical reason to assume
> that similarity will play the same role as in the
> attitudinal realm (Byrne, 1971, p. 164).

Byrne's point of emphasis in his writings is that attraction towards

another is a "linear" function of "positive and negative stimulus ele-

ments;" it is merely an empirical finding that attitudinal or person-

ality similarity is often positively reinforcing. In support of this

contention, recent research has clearly demonstrated that the typical

similarity-attraction relationship does not always hold (Novak and

Lerner, 1968; Hendrick and Brown, 1971).

Byrne and Clore's theoretical framework would seem to predict the

expected difference in emotional responsiveness of $\underline{p}$ and $\underline{r}$ as a function

of the opposite-sex partner's performance style. $\underline{p}$ should find more

reward when socializing with a $\underline{p}$-partner than with an $\underline{r}$-partner since

the former theoretically will allow him to be more "himself." An $\underline{r}$-

partner, by virtue of his manipulative performance-demanding style,

should define a relatively unrewarding script for p. On the other hand r should experience greater interpersonal reward with a p-partner, who will offer no real challenge for script-management, than with an r-partner. An r x r-partner dyad would be expected to augment interpersonal performance-interference. It follows that in terms of the covert affective response both p and r should experience more positive emotion with a p-partner than with an r-partner.

In effect these expectations purport that r's interpersonal comfort would be a direct function of the dissimilarity of his partner's performance style, while p's would be a direct function of partner-style similarity. A primary reason for this difference would be the r-partner's greater script-control orientation relative to the p-partner's. These expectations are especially interesting in light of Wallston's results mentioned earlier. When Ss assumed a more script-controlling role (GA) they found it significantly easier to interact with a partner of the opposite performance style. With respect to self-rated comfort a trend in this direction was also noted. When Ss assumed the less script-controlling role (ST) the trend with respect to self-rated comfort suggested that they felt a bit more comfortable with a partner having a similar performance style.

Summary and Conclusions

The limited amount of research dealing directly with p and r strongly supports the validity of performance style as a workable construct. In addition the PST has demonstrated adequate sensitivity in measuring stylistic tendencies and in differentiating among performance "types."

The research finding most relevant to the present study is that the
r-type reports greater comfort than the p-type after experimental role
playing. Basic to this difference is the former's performance-oriented
social motivation. He enjoys acting and feels relatively more effective
in manipulating a given script; hence, it is not surprising that the
r-scale correlates positively with Mach V. The literature rather con-
sistently indicates that people with Machiavellian approaches to social
transaction not only tend to be largely manipulative but also emotion-
ally detached in dealing with others. This set of findings suggests
that r is also relatively detached in terms of affective involvement, a
characteristic which inherently resists social discomfort.

Performance style theory contends that the emotion experienced by
an interacting person is not only a function of the actor's style, but
is related also to the situational script. The latter is largely deter-
mined by the particular style of the social partner. Logically, it
would seem that both p and r would respond with more discomfort to an
r-partner than to a p-partner. An r-partner would be expected to put
performance demands upon p and would be likely to manipulatively compete
for script control with another r. Although research investigating
these expectations within a dyadic heterosexual setting is lacking,
literature in the area of interpersonal attraction seems to be support-
ive.

An important observation with respect to past research on p and r
is that experimental tasks centered about a dramatic-role assignment.
In the three studies available, S had to imagine that he was either a
salesman, a graduate student or teaching assistant, or a student in
the latter's class. Social process specific to these situations demand-

ed interpersonal maneuvering to deal with the experimental partner's resistance. In this sense the interaction in all three studies involved overt interpersonal competition. This kind of design is a direct empirical extension of performance style theory since it is during role-playing that p and r emote differently, and during a situation demanding interpersonal maneuvering that r's effectiveness could be highlighted.

A question is raised as to whether the actor-style and partner-style variables would effect differential reactions in p and r during social interaction not defined by dramatic-role assignment and partner resistance. Based upon Ring et al's characterization of the styles as basic interpersonal approaches, it is logical to expect p to emote differently than r in virtually any novel social transaction. Durkin's study discussed earlier has demonstrated empirically that Ss more p-like than r-like do affectively react differently than Ss more r-like than p-like during a cooperative, non-role-enacting exchange.

With respect to the effect of the partner variable, once an actor "recognized" his partner's style his emotional response would not depend solely upon his own performance style and the transaction taking place, but would be a partial function of his partner's particular mode of performance. Byrne and Clore's system would support this idea. It is the contention of their model that the actor's affective response to his partner is a function of a learned association between a UCS (the partner's performance style) and a CS (the partner). Admittedly, competitive role-enactment with a particular performance "type" would create a different UCS than cooperative non-role-playing with the same partner. However, when controlling for the character of the transaction, in addition to the actor's style, the affective response (pleasant or unpleas-

ant) would depend upon the performance style of the partner. And as discussed earlier Byrne and Clore's model would predict a directional emotional difference in both p and r as a function of the partner's particular style.

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to investigate differential emotional experience of p and r as a function of the performance styles of the actor and his opposite-sex partner during an overtly cooperative, non-role-assuming exchange. Experimentally manipulating these two independent variables follows directly from a primary contention of performance style theory. Specifically, an actor's experiential comfort in an interpersonal situation is a function of his particular performance style and the situational script which is largely determined by the style of his partner. As the previous chapters point out, expectations due to the actor-variable are that p should feel more uncomfortable than r during social interaction. With respect to the partner-variable, r is expected to be more of a discomforting stimulus than p.

The experimental task used in this study involved a verbal exchange between dyadic partners. The procedure insured that overt cooperation between them would be as continuous and as "evenly-distributed" as possible. That is, the verbal interaction was quantitatively controlled in such a way that each dyadic S was "forced" to produce approximately as many words as his partner, at a maximum number of "cooperative" choice-points. In addition to forcing ongoing cooperation this kind of interaction insured that no particular performance "type" would quantitatively dominate the situation.

One of the methods used to measure comfort-discomfort was a Comfort Index (CI) which was based upon the self-ratings of each $\underline{S}$. In addition the Discomfort-Relief Quotient (DRQ, Dollard and Mowrer, 1947) was used as an indirect procedure for estimating subject-discomfort.

The following are the sets of hypotheses investigated. The first three sets focus upon the actor-style variable, and the final two sets upon the partner-style variable.

Set 1

(a) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male $\underline{p}$ will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will male $\underline{r}$.

(b) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male $\underline{p}$ will report less comfort than male $\underline{r}$ as measured by the CI.

(c) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female $\underline{p}$ will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will female $\underline{r}$.

(d) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female $\underline{p}$ will report less comfort than female $\underline{r}$ as measured by the CI.

Set 2

(a) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male $\underline{p}$ will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will male $\underline{r}$ when the interacting partner is $\underline{p}$.

(b) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female $\underline{p}$ will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will female $\underline{r}$ when the interacting partner is $\underline{p}$.

(c) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female $\underline{p}$ will report less comfort as measured by the CI than will female $\underline{r}$ when the interacting partner is $\underline{p}$.

Set 3

(a) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will
     male r when the interacting partner is r.

(b) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will
     female r when the interacting partner is r.

(c) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will
     report less comfort as measured by the CI than will female r
     when the interacting partner is r.

Set 4

(a) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when his
     interacting partner is r than when she is p.

(b) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when her
     interacting partner is r than when he is p.

(c) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will
     report less comfort as measured by the CI when her interacting
     partner is r than when he is p.

Set 5

(a) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, male r will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when his
     interacting partner is r than when she is p.

(b) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female r will
     experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when her
     interacting partner is r than when he is p.

(c) In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to
     control for quantitative verbal productivity, female r will
     report less comfort as measured by the CI when her interacting
     partner is r than when he is p.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

Subjects and Materials

The Performance Style Test (PST) was used to isolate Ss whose social styles were either p-dominated or r-dominated. This 55 item questionnaire was administered to 408 students enrolled in the under-graduate psychology classes at Indiana Unibersity-Purdue University at Indianapolis. Table II presents the mean, standard deviation and range of scores for both sexes.

TABLE II

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PST SCORES

| | p | | r | | c | |
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Mean	24.68	24.98	29.57	28.31	22.75	24.21
S. D.	6.90	6.45	6.70	6.80	4.25	5.31
Range	11-43	10-46	10-44	9-42	9-34	10-35

N: 156 males, 252 females

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The 48 experimental Ss who voluntarily participated in the study had achieved a minimal percentile rank of 85 on either the p-style or r-style dimension of the PST, and a maximal percentile rank of 55 on the remaining dimensions. These criteria were based upon the norms determined by Ring and Wallston (1968), and are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

PST SCORE-CRITERIA EMPLOYED IN
SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

		Minimal r Scores	Minimal p Scores	Maximal r Scores	Maximal p Scores	Maximal c Scores
r Dominated Ss	Males	35			23	25
	Females	33			24	26
p Dominated Ss	Males		29	28		25
	Females		30	28		26

Of the 48 Ss who engaged in the study, 16 were males and 32 were females. They ranged in age from 18 to 28 years old. Table IV presents the statistics descriptive of the PST scores for these Ss.

Apparatus

Two unoccupied adjoining offices were used to implement the experimental procedure. One office functioned as the waiting room and the other as the experimental room. The equipment in the experimental room included two chairs arranged so that the Ss would sit face to face and very close to each other. Adjacent to both chairs was a long table which supported a large blackened cardboard screen, a Panasonic cassette recorder (Model RZ-2045) and E's clerical equipment. The screen was arranged in such a way that E's equipment, save for a microphone, would be hidden from the Ss' view during both the training and the experimental sessions (see Appendix C).

TABLE IV

DATA DESCRIPTIVE OF EXPERIMENTAL
Ss' PERFORMANCES ON PST

	Sex	p scores		r scores		c scores	
		M	S.D.	M	S.D.	M	S.D.
p Dominated	Males n = 8	35.75	4.15	20.50	4.85	21.63	3.16
Ss	Females n = 16	33.69	4.04	21.81	3.86	22.63	3.18
r Dominated	Males n = 8	16.75	2.99	38.88	2.09	21.00	2.96
Ss	Females n = 16	18.94	2.82	36.63	2.12	20.88	3.14

interrupted sequence of at least three sentences.

Before beginning the experimental session E asked that the Ss

neither smoke nor hold anything in their hands during the subsequent

conversation. The Ss were further reminded to speak loudly since their

conversation would be recorded.

Experimental Session

E walked behind the screen, immediately turned on the recorder, and

signalled the Ss to begin their conversation. After five minutes had

elapsed E turned off the recorder, walked from behind the screen and

told the Ss that they had finished the conversation. The Ss were in-

formed that E would leave the experimental room with the female S and

that another female S would be entering. The male S was cautioned to

avoid mentioning any details of the procedure to the new S. E then left

with the female S and upon entering the adjoining room asked the waiting

female S to enter the experimental room and be seated. After she had

done so, E closed the door of the experimental room.

The female S that had just completed the procedure was asked to

write her name and address on the paper provided and to answer the

question appearing there. The question asked was as follows: "On a

rating scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable did you feel during the

experiment? (10 is most comfortable, 1 is least comfortable)." Before

leaving, she was cautioned to avoid discussing the experiment with any

other students in any of her classes.

After at least two and one-half minutes had elapsed from the time

E had left the Ss, he re-entered the experimental room. The training

session then commenced, this time with only the female S reading the

instructions since the male S had previously been briefed. After the training and experimental sessions were completed both Ss were given individual sheets of paper and were asked to write their names and addresses and to answer the post-experimental question. Before leaving, both were cautioned to avoid discussion of the experiment with any other student.

Judges

The 32 conversations (see Appendix D) constructed by the Ss were rated by three judges--two psychiatric social workers and one psychology intern--each being individually trained by E to select the discomfort and relief words. During training each judge was presented with a written set of instructions and a sample conversation. The instructions were essentially the same as those presented by Dollard and Mowrer (1947) for use with the word as the unit of DRQ determination. The instructions used in the present study differed in that they were more extensive and did not ask for calculation of a DRQ (see Appendix E). After training was completed each judge received a typed set of the 32 conversations (one per page) in random order, and a pad of paper upon which he would record his selected discomfort and relief words.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Each discomfort and relief word used in the statistical analyses
had to meet the criterion of unanimous agreement among the three judges
(see Appendix G). These selected words were then attributed to the
member of the dyad who had spoken them in accordance with the guidelines
outlined in Appendix F. The total number of resultant words were then
used in calculating a DRQ for each S according to Dollard and Mowrer's
formula:

$$DRQ = \frac{number\ of\ discomfort\ words}{number\ of\ discomfort\ and\ relief\ words}$$

In addition to this measurement a Comfort Index (CI) for each S
was available. This value was merely the self-report of experiential
comfort and ranged from 1 (least comfortable) to 10 (most comfortable).

Male Predictions

Table V presents the number of relief and discomfort words contri-
buted by each male S together with his DRQ. The statistical arrangement
used to analyze the male DRQ predictions was a 2 x 2 factorial with
repeated measures on one factor. All five hypotheses were treated as
individual comparisons by methods described in Winer (1962). Since all
predictions were directional, one-tailed tests were used. Only one of
these predictions was significant at the p<.05 level.

Hypothesis I (a): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation

structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male $\underline{p}$ will

experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will male $\underline{r}$;

t = -.416, NS (14df, one-tailed).

TABLE V

NUMBER OF DISCOMFORT AND RELIEF WORDS AND DRQ
FOR EVERY MALE WITH EACH DYADIC PARTNER

	Female $\underline{p}$-partner			Female $\underline{r}$-partner		
	Discomfort Words	Relief Words	DRQ	Discomfort Words	Relief Words	DRQ
p- 2	1	3	.025	0	0	.000
p- 4	0	2	.000	3	0	1.000
p- 8	0	0	.000	0	1	.000
p- 9	0	1	.000	1	0	1.000
p-13	3	1	.750	4	0	1.000
p-15	0	1	.000	3	0	1.000
p-16	0	1	.000	1	3	.250
p-21	2	1	.667	2	2	.500
Totals	6	10		14	6	
r- 1	1	0	1.000	2	2	.500
r- 3	3	0	1.000	0	5	.000
r- 6	8	1	.889	1	0	1.000
r-10	3	2	.600	0	1	.000
r-12	1	1	.500	2	0	1.000
r-14	0	0	.000	0	2	.000
r-18	0	0	.000	1	0	1.000
r-20	0	1	.000	0	1	.000
Totals	16	5		6	11	

Male ps (left side labels) / Male rs (left side labels)

Hypothesis II(a): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will male r when the interacting partner is p; t = -1.328, NS (14df, one-tailed).

Hypothesis III(a): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will male r when the interacting partner is r; t = .716, NS (14df, one-tailed).

Hypothesis IV(a): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when his interacting partner is r than when she is p; t = 1.848, p<.05, (14df, one-tailed).

Hypothesis V(a): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male r will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when his interacting partner is r than when she is p; t = -.294, NS (14df, one-tailed).

Table VI depicts the CI values reported by each male after the experimental sessions with his two female partners. Only one prediction was based upon these values and it resulted in significance. Hypothesis I(b): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, male p will report less comfort than male r as measured by the CI; t = 1.901, p<.05 (one-tailed, df = 14).

Female Predictions

Table VII lists the number of relief and discomfort words contributed by each female S together with her DRQ.

TABLE VI

CI VALUE FOR EACH MALE

	$\underline{r}$s	$\underline{p}$s
	10	5
	9	5
	7	8
	7	9
	7	2
	9	8
	9	5
	10	10
Totals	68	52

The statistical arrangement used to analyze the female DRQ predictions was a 2 x 2 split-plot factorial. All five hypotheses were treated as one-tailed individual comparisons by methods described in Steele and Torre (1960). Although only one prediction reached the $p<.05$ significance level, the probability of two others turned out to be less than .10.

Hypothesis I(c): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation

structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p

will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will

female r; t = 2.076, p<.05 (14df).

TABLE VII

NUMBER OF DISCOMFORT AND RELIEF WORDS
AND DRQ FOR EACH FEMALE

		Female ps				Female rs		
	S	Discomfort Words	Relief Words	DRQ	S	Discomfort Words	Relief Words	DRQ
Male p-partners	2b	0	1	.000	2a	0	0	.000
	4a	1	1	.500	4b	4	0	1.000
	8a	1	4	.200	8b	0	4	.000
	9a	0	2	.000	9b	0	1	.000
	13b	1	0	1.000	13a	1	2	.333
	15a	2	0	1.000	15b	0	0	.000
	16a	2	0	1.000	16b	1	5	.167
	21b	0	0	.000	21a	0	2	.000
	Totals	7	8			6	14	
Male r-partners	1a	2	0	1.000	1b	1	0	1.000
	3b	0	0	.000	3a	0	2	.000
	6a	1	0	1.000	6b	1	1	.500
	10a	1	1	.500	10b	0	4	.000
	12a	5	1	.833	12b	3	0	1.000
	14b	2	0	1.000	14a	0	2	.000
	18b	2	1	.667	18a	1	0	1.000
	20a	1	1	.500	20b	1	3	.250
	Totals	14	4			7	12	

Hypothesis II(b): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will female r when the interacting partner is p; t = 1.640, p<.10 (14df).

Hypothesis III(b): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ than will female r when the interacting partner is r; t = 1.306, NS (14df).

Hypothesis IV(b): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when her interacting partner is r than when he is p; t = 1.082, NS (14df).

Hypothesis V(b): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female r will experience greater discomfort as measured by the DRQ when her interacting partner is r than when he is p; t = 1.351, p<.10 (14df).

Table VIII presents the CI values reported by each female S after the experimental interaction.

The statistical arrangement used to analyze the female CI predictions was also a 2 x 2 split-plot factorial. All five hypotheses were treated as one-tailed individual comparisons by the methods described in Steele and Torree (1960). None of the predictions reached p<.05 significance, but two were supported at the p<.10 level.

Hypothesis I(d): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will report less comfort than female r; t = 1.747, p<.10 (14df).

Hypothesis II(c): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation

structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female $\underline{p}$ will report less comfort than will female $\underline{r}$ when the interacting partner is $\underline{p}$; t = 1.511, p<.10 (14df).

TABLE VIII

CI VALUE FOR EACH FEMALE

	Female ps	Female rs
Male p-partners	4 8 8 10 2 4 5 8	8 9 9 8 8 8 4 6
	Total 49	Total 60
Male r-partners	5 9 9 5 7 8 5 9	5 8 8 7 9 8 10 9
	Total 57	Total 64

Hypothesis III(c): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will report less comfort than will female r when the interacting partner is r; t = .962, NS (14df).

Hypothesis IV(c): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female p will report less comfort when her interacting partner is r than when he is p; t = -.992, NS (14df).

Hypothesis V(c): In a cooperative dyadic heterosexual situation structured to control for quantitative verbal productivity, female r will report less comfort when her interacting partner is r than when he is p; t = -.496, NS (14df).

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The results of this study provide moderate support for the actor-style variable and mild support for the partner-style variable as determinants of actor discomfort. Seven of the 16 hypotheses were significant at the p<.05 or p<.10 level.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of the present investigation is that this support was generated from a non-dramatic, overtly cooperative interpersonal context. As such, no assumed-role or experimentally-contrived morality factors could have accounted for the resultant variability between p and r.

Discomfort as a Function of the Actor's Style

Three sets of hypotheses (1, 2, and 3) focused upon discomfort as a function of the actor's performance style. Set 1 predicted that both male and female ps would find the experimental interaction a more discomforting event than would rs. In terms of the CI this expectation was significantly supported for males, and barely missed reaching the p<.05 level (by less than 2/100ths) for females. In addition female ps experienced significantly more discomfort (with respect to DRQ measurement) than did female rs, although this difference was not evident for the males. This pattern of results generally lends support to Ring et al's contention that ps feel more ill-at-ease during interpersonal episodes

than do rs.

Sets 2 and 3 were concerned with actor-related discomfort during interaction with a p-partner and r-partner respectively. None of the six hypotheses reached p<.05 significance. However, the two female hypotheses predicting that p would feel more uncomfortable than r when the male partner is a p were marginally supported at the p<.10 level. This pattern of differences may mean that an r-female x r-male dyad breeds so much script-management conflict that the discomfort exper- ienced by the r-female can be as intense as that experienced by the p- female in a p x r-male dyad.

Discomfort as a Function of the Partner's Style

Hypothesis-sets 4 and 5 focused upon discomfort as a function of the opposite-sex partner's particular style, and specifically predicted that an r-partner would occasion more actor discomfort than would a p- partner. As expected male p did experience significantly greater dis- comfort (as measured by the DRQ) with an r-female than with a p-female. In addition, female r felt more uncomfortable with an r-male than with a p-male at the p<.10 level as measured by the DRQ. These results pro- vide mild support for the expected effect of the partner-style variable.

Sex Differences

The present study differed from previous performance style research in that the actor interacted with an opposite-sex partner. No statis- tical analyses were performed to compare discomfort between the sexes; however, an intuitive comparison produces some interesting speculations.

Particularly relevant is the finding that male ps, but not female

ps, felt significantly more uncomfortable with an opposite-sex r-partner than with a p-partner. A female r evidently augments discomfort in an inept and socially-anxious male p in a performance oriented situation such as the one used here. However, a female p may feel relatively comfortable with a male r in the same situation since this interpersonal combination of style and sex would be more in conformity to cultural tradition. This perspective of cultural determination may also help to explain the failure of hypotheses IIIb and IIIc, both of which predicted differential comfort-discomfort between female ps and rs with male r-partners. Significant differences may have been lacking because of female p's relative comfort with male r, although females r's uneasiness due to script contesting may also have been a factor. With respect to the latter speculation, it is interesting that female rs did experience greater discomfort with male r-partners than with male p-partners.

Overall, the predicted performance of the females fared better than the performance of the males. One additional aspect with respect to the female pattern deserves mentioning. The greatest difference in discomfort would be expected when comparing a p-actor x r-partner dyad with an r-actor x p-partner dyad. Inspecting the male data revealed that no significant difference existed between these two groups. However, had this difference been hypothesized for females, DRQ analysis would have resulted in a highly significant value in the expected direction ($t = 2.404$, $p < .025$, one-tailed, 14df).

The Possible Limiting Effects of the Dependent

Measures upon the Statistical Analyses

It is likely that underlying the lack of more consistent support

for the hypotheses was the relative insensitivity of the dependent

measures used in this study. This insensitivity was clearly reflected

in the DRQ measurements by the proportionately large number of scores

tied at 0.000 and 1.000. As such the relevant samples resulted in bi-

modal distributions, an effect which tends to inflate the error vari-

ances. The larger the error variances, the more difficult it would be

for the statistical tests to demonstrate differences between the under-

lying population parameters.

Recommended Alterations in Design for

Future Investigations

Generally, the results of this study suggest that the performance

styles of both actor and opposite-sex partner do function as determi-

nants of actor comfort-discomfort. Although consistent confirmation of

most of the hypotheses was not established, the support is certainly

extensive enough to warrant a controlled replication with some altera-

tions in design.

Basic changes in a replication should include a more precise se-

lection of performance "types," a larger N, and conversations of greater

duration. Another and perhaps the most relevant recommendation the

writer could make concerns the precision of the DRQ as a measuring de-

vice in this kind of study based upon time-limited conversations.

Consider the use of this ratio in the following hypothetical

example. The discomfort experienced by two Ss, each having verbalized

500 words during an experimental task, is being compared by DRQ analysis.

Neither S had stated any relief words; however, one S produced 100 dis-

comfort words while the other verbalized only one discomfort word. In

both instances DRQ estimated discomfort equals 100 percent (100/100;

1/1), an equivalence which intuitively seems unreasonable. In effect,

the conclusion from this comparison would be that S who averaged one

discomfort word for every 500 spoken words felt as uncomfortable as S

who averaged one discomfort word for every five that he verbalized.

This disregard for context length limits the purported meaning of the

DRQ in comparative analyses of this kind.

Now suppose that each of the Ss had produced one relief word in

addition to the above number of discomfort words. One of the DRQs would

be reduced by approximately one percent (100/100 = 99 percent), while

the other would be reduced by 50 percent (one-half = 50 percent). This

highly differential weighting of one relief word demonstrates further

the relative imprecision of DRQ measurement.

The present study seems especially vulnerable to the potentially

distorting effects of the DRQ because relative conversational length

between Ss not in the same dyad was only time-controlled. That is, each

dyad was limited to a five minute conversation. This time-limited con-

trol, and the resultant unequal production of word quantity by different

Ss, may not be of consequence when Ss are "set," in a highly structured

manner, to produce very few or very many discomfort or relief words

(Lebo and Applegate, 1958). The present design, however, did not induce

S to consciously bias his conversation in either a pleasant or an un-

pleasant direction.

The DRQ weaknesses with respect to a study of the present type can be corrected through a simple conceptual change. Specifically, the traditional ratio should be limited by the proportion of discomfort words to the total number of subject words. That is, the DRQ should be multiplied by the number of discomfort words divided by the total number of words contributed by $\underline{S}$. This operation reduces to the following formula:

$$\text{modified DRQ} = \frac{(\text{number of discomfort words})^2}{\text{total number of words} \times (\text{number of discomfort} + \text{relief words})}$$

This modification eliminates the potentially distorting effects of the traditional formula with respect to inconsistent weighting of discomfort and relief words. In addition, it takes into account variable verbal productivity in comparing subject discomfort.

The writer hopes that research will continue to test aspects of performance style theory within non-role-enacting interpersonal contexts. In light of the number of predictions supported by this study, an improved replication of the present design may very well generate more consistent results. Hopefully, the above recommendations will be of some help to future investigations.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY

This study investigated some differential emotional effects of both actor and partner performance styles upon the actor in a non-dramatic, cooperative dyadic situation. With respect to the actor-style variable, p was expected to experience greater discomfort than r when dealing with an opposite-sex partner. With respect to the partner variable, r was expected to have more of a discomforting effect upon the actor than would p.

The Performance Style Test (PST) was administered to 156 males and 252 females enrolled in undergraduate psychology classes at Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis. Ss whose social styles were either p-dominated or r-dominated were isolated based upon the criteria used by Ring et al (1967) and upon the norms presented by Ring and Wallston (1968). Forty-eight Ss, 16 males and 32 females, engaged in the study. The experimental procedure was designed such that each male (p or r) would interact with both a female p and r in a randomly ordered sequence. The interaction required that the Ss in each dyad converse with each other for five minutes. This conversation had to be generated by an alternate word technique, that is, each S was required to say only one word at a time in alternating fashion in order to form sentences. Thirty-two conversations were constructed by this method.

Comfort-discomfort was measured by a Comfort Index (CI) based upon

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$\underline{S}$s' self-ratings, and by the Discomfort-Relief Quotient (DRQ). The statistical arrangement used to analyze the male DRQ data was a 2 x 2 factorial with repeated measures on one factor. The arrangement used to analyze both the DRQ and the CI data for females was a 2 x 2 split-plot factorial.

Based upon the CI, $\underline{r}$s did experience more comfort during the experimental interaction than did $\underline{p}$s. This prediction reached p<.05 significance for males and barely missed p<.05 significance (by less than 2/100ths) for females. In addition female $\underline{p}$s felt more uncomfortable (based upon DRQ measurement) than did female $\underline{r}$s (p<.05), although this hypothesis was not supported for males. Two other hypotheses dealing with the actor-style variable were marginally significant (p<.10) for females. With respect to DRQ and CI measurement, female $\underline{p}$ experienced more discomfort and less comfort respectively than did female $\underline{r}$ when interacting with a male $\underline{p}$-partner. No significant differences were found between $\underline{p}$ and $\underline{r}$ females when the interacting male was an $\underline{r}$, or between $\underline{p}$ and $\underline{r}$ males when interacting with either a female $\underline{p}$ or $\underline{r}$.

Only two hypotheses dealing with the partner-style variable were supported. As measured by the DRQ male $\underline{p}$ did experience significantly greater discomfort when his partner was a female $\underline{r}$ than when she was a $\underline{p}$ (p<.05). A similar prediction for male $\underline{r}$ was not supported. Female $\underline{r}$ felt marginally more uncomfortable with an $\underline{r}$ male than with a $\underline{p}$ male (p<.10), as determined by the DRQ, although this difference was not evident for female $\underline{p}$. Neither female $\underline{r}$ nor $\underline{p}$ reported any significant differences in comfort (CI) whether the partner was a male $\underline{p}$ or $\underline{r}$.

The results of this study are interpreted as moderately supportive with respect to the actor-style variable, and mildly supportive with

respect to the expected effect of the partner-style variable. A major reason for the lack of more consistent confirmation of the hypotheses may have been that the DRQ does not provide precise measurement especially in this kind of design. A modified conception of the DRQ is suggested for future investigations of this type.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

PERFORMANCE STYLE TEST

For each of the statements presented below you are to decide whether it is true--as applied to you or false as it is applied to you. You are to mark your answers on the answer sheet provided. If a statement is true or mostly true, as applied to you, blacken in the first column space opposite the corresponding item number. If a statement is false or not usually true, as applied to you, blacken in the second column space opposite the correspinding item number.

Make sure, in using the answer sheet, that the number of the statement agrees with the number of the answer sheet. Please do not omit any items.

1. I would be uncomfortable in anything other than a fairly conventional dress.

2. If given the chance I would make a good leader of people.

3. I have skill in influencing others.

4. I must admit that I enjoy trying to manipulate others for my own purposes.

5. I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.

6. I often find it's difficult to get people to do my favors, even when I have a right to expect them.

7. When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about.

8. I find it easy to get along with people.

9. I dislike having to behave according to the rules of etiquette.

10. In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.

11. I can fit in pretty easily with any group of people.

12. It's usually easy for me to persuade others to my own point of view.

13. I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.

14. I think I could be a successful businessman, if I wanted to.

15. I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.

16. I usually find it difficult to change someone else's opinions.

17. When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairman.

18. I must admit I try to see what others think before I take a stand.

19. I can easily make other people afraid of me, and sometimes do for the fun of it.

20. A person should adapt his ideas and his behavior to the group that happens to be with him at the time.

21. I do not mind meeting strangers.

22. I think I'd enjoy being an actor (or actress).

23. At parties I am more likely to sit by myself or with just one other person than to join in with the crowd.

24. I can usually get people to do what I want.

25. I usually have trouble making myself heard in an argument.

26. I like to be the center of attention in a group.

27. People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was already made up on a subject.

28. Even the idea of giving a talk in public makes me afraid.

29. I think I would enjoy being a salesman.

30. I like to meet new people.

31. I don't like participating in formal ceremonies.

32. If I'm with someone I don't like, I usually don't express my real feelings to him.

33. I like to follow instructions and do what is expected of me.

34. I find it hard to talk when I meet new people.

35. I frequently feel intense sympathy for others.

36. I enjoy being with people who are suave and sophisticated.

37. I think it's important to learn how to obey.

38. I think most people would like to get ahead.

39. When in a new situation, it's best to watch what others do.

40. I enjoy being the host (or hostess) of a party.

41. I feel I can handle myself pretty well in most social situations.

42. I sometimes enjoy misleading people just for the fun of it.

43. I can deceive people, if I have to, without feeling guilty about it.

44. I don't mind pretending to like someone when I really don't if there's a good reason to do so.

45. I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.

46. I often feel like telling people what I really think of them.

47. I feel ill at ease with people I don't know.

48. I have no dread of going into a room by myself, where other people have already gathered and are talking.

49. I am a good mixer.

50. I like to go to parties.

51. In general, I find that I dislike nonconformists.

52. I don't like to be too conspicuous at social gatherings.

53. I should like to belong to several clubs or lodges.

54. I often find that my wishes conflict with those of others.

55. I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.

APPENDIX B

ANSWER SHEET

Age_____   Marital status_____   Major_____

College classification_____

Telephone number_____

    If you are chosen, would you be willing to engage in a psychological experiment that will take only a few minutes? The experiment is part of a Ph.D. dissertation._____

NAME _____

ANSWER SHEET

	T	F			T	F			T	F
1.	//	//		24.	//	//		47.	//	//
2.	//	//		25.	//	//		48.	//	//
3.	//	//		26.	//	//		49.	//	//
4.	//	//		27.	//	//		50.	//	//
5.	//	//		28.	//	//		51.	//	//
6.	//	//		29.	//	//		52.	//	//
7.	//	//		30.	//	//		53.	//	//
8.	//	//		31.	//	//		54.	//	//
9.	//	//		32.	//	//		55.	//	//
10.	//	//		33.	//	//				
11.	//	//		34.	//	//				
12.	//	//		35.	//	//				
13.	//	//		36.	//	//				
14.	//	//		37.	//	//				
15.	//	//		38.	//	//				
16.	//	//		39.	//	//				
17.	//	//		40.	//	//				
18.	//	//		41.	//	//				
19.	//	//		42.	//	//				
20.	//	//		43.	//	//				
21.	//	//		44.	//	//				
22.	//	//		45.	//	//				
23.	//	//		46.	//	//				

APPENDIX C

EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT AND ARRANGEMENT

Table

Screen

Experimental
Room

Waiting
Room

E S
S

Door

Microphone

Recorder
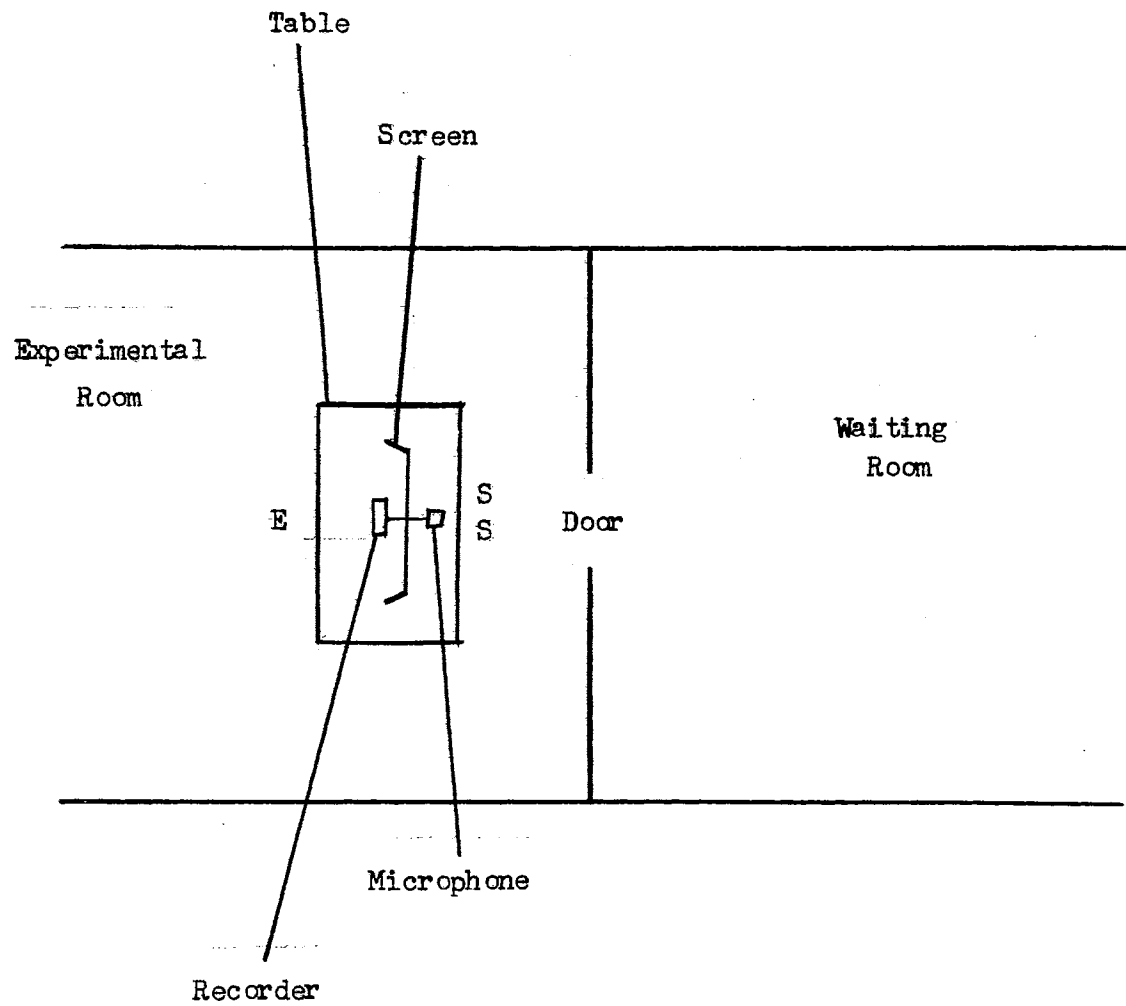
APPENDIX D

SAMPLE DYADIC CONVERSATION

Psychology is a very boring subject. I dislike everything because
I am an idiot. However sometimes I do things that people shouldn't do.
For instance I stood in a barrel and was waving at everybody. Then I
fell into the barrel. It toppled right over me. People sometimes
drive very carelessly. I almost had an accident on Kessler Boulevard
yesterday. This was a scary experience. I almost went crazy. I tore
parts of the dash off my car. Tomorrow will be a very sunny day. Today
was a rotten day because it rained all day. This room is very small and
yellow. It is also a very quaint room. Let's stop talking and start
punching out paper clips. That was very stupid. I agree. Thank you
again for the card. What card? Card. It is a very nice conversation.
I really don't think so. What time is it anyway? I feel that I cannot
go to the ...

APPENDIX E

JUDGE'S INSTRUCTIONS

The accompanying booklet is composed of 32 pages with each page
containing one paragraph. As a judge, you are being asked to <u>carefully</u>
<u>study</u> each paragraph in order to identify the <u>discomfort words</u> and the
<u>relief words</u>. For our purposes these categories are defined as follows:

<u>discomfort words</u>: those indicating negative feelings,
i.e., suffering, tension, pain,
unhappiness, displeasure, dislike,
etc.

<u>relief words</u>: those indicating positive feelings, i.e.,
comfort, satisfaction, enjoyment,
affection, well-being, etc.

On the pad provided, using one page per paragraph, list the <u>discomfort</u>
<u>words</u> on the left and the <u>relief words</u> on the right. Words that are
not scored as either discomfort or relief should be only those that you
consider to be emotionally neutral.

Guidelines

A. In general, do not score a word indicating either <u>discomfort</u> or
<u>relief</u> unless the meaning of the word will "stand alone," that is,
the meaning will be clear after the word is taken out of context.
Here are some examples:

(1) "He <u>loves</u> her." "Loves" is a <u>relief</u> word.

(2) "She feels that he is a <u>dope</u>." "Dope" is a <u>discomfort</u> word.

B. There <u>are cases</u> in which the context <u>must be considered</u> in order to
score appropriately.

(1) When the "sign" of a word is determined by the context, the
latter must be taken into account. For example:

(a) "He was not <u>pleased</u> with the results." Since "pleased"
is qualified by a negative term, it should be listed in

the _discomfort_ column and recorded as "pleased - ."

(b) "The person was no longer in _pain_." In this case "no

longer in pain" should be scored as "pain -" and put in

the _relief_ column.

(2) Sometimes the "sign" of a word is not given by the sentence

in which the word occurs, but is to be found in the following

sentence. For example:

(a) "Are you _happy_ today?" "No." "Happy" should be placed

in the _discomfort_ column and recorded as "happy - ."

(3) When phrases, clauses, or sentences are contrary to fact, they

can often be put into scorable form by making the conditions

conform to fact. For example:

(a) "I would have been there if he had not _insulted_ me."

"Insulted" should be placed in the discomfort column

because the context actually is communicating: "I was

not there because he _did_ _insult_ me."

(4) If a word can have more than one meaning out of context, then

the context becomes all important. Here are some examples:

(a) "I _like_ that tie." "Like" is a _relief_ word. "The book

is like the movie." This sentence contains _no_ scorable

words; "like" is a neutral term and _does_ _not_ indicate

either discomfort or relief.

(b) "He was in an airplane _accident_." "Accident" is a dis-

comfort word. "I met him by accident." This sentence

contains no scorable words.

(c) "The doctor _cured_ the people." "Cured" is a _relief_ word.

"In the new process, the ham is cured." This sentence

contains no scorable words.

(5) If a slang or colloquial expression is used which cannot be
rendered by a single word, record the entire expression.

Score all _discomfort_ and _relief_ words. If the same word appears
several times in the same paragraph, record it each time it appears.

Please take your time. While reading these paragraphs you may
feel that there are some typographical errors, but I emphasize that
each page has been carefully reviewed and that all paragraphs are as
they should be. The validity of your judgment can be insured _only_ if
you _do not_ discuss any of your ideas, _directly_ or _indirectly_, with any
of the other judges until _all_ materials have been returned to me.

I will answer any questions you may have before asking you to judge
the _sample_ paragraph.

APPENDIX F

GUIDELINES FOLLOWED IN CREDITING EACH

DISCOMFORT AND RELIEF WORD TO THE

RESPONSIBLE S

1. Generally, the dyadic partner who had verbalized the particular word judged as discomfort or relief was credited with one discomfort score or one relief score.

2. When a word that ordinarily would indicate discomfort or relief was judged as signifying the opposite emotional direction because of the preceding context, S who had verbalized that word was credited with a score corresponding to the opposite direction. Example from conversation 1b (underlined words were verbalized by male S):

   Studying is something that I don't like.

   The word "like" had been judged as indicating discomfort; one discomfort-score was credited to the male dyadic partner.

3. With idiomatic-like expressions of more than one word, the S responsible for the first word of that expression was credited with the score. Example from conversation 10a (underlined words were verbalized by the male S):

   There is the forty people I don't care for.

   "Care" ("care for") had been judged as indicating discomfort; one discomfort-score was credited to the male partner.

4. In conversation 3a the following sentence had been constructed (underlined words were verbalized by the male S):

   Years past I was driving to Florida for a good rest and vacation and suntan.

   The three raters judged the above relief units as follows:

Judge A	Judge B	Judge C
good	good	good rest --
rest	good	vacation --
vacation	good	suntan --
suntan		

In this case, the male partner was credited with one relief score ("good"); the female partner was credited with two relief scores ("vacation" and "suntan").

APPENDIX G

WORDS JUDGED UNANIMOUSLY AS INDICATING

DISCOMFORT OR RELIEF FOR EACH S

Conversation	Male partner Discomfort	Male partner Relief	Female partner Discomfort	Female partner Relief
1a	stupid		nothing right	
1b	like anxious	worthwhile like	anxious	
2a				
2b	dull	living good healthy		beautiful
3a		happy exciting interesting good helpful		vacation suntan
3b	difficult exasperated dirty			
4a		fine swell	bad	fantastic
4b	boring crazy rotten		dislike idiot scary stupid	
6a	stolen old dirty scolded bad seizure conducive sick	like	sick	
6b	lose		boring	happiness
8a			hot	excited like cool clear
8b		pretty		nice sunny warm nice

Conversation	Male partner Discomfort	Relief	Female partner Discomfort	Relief
9a		interested		interesting satisfactorily
9b	miss			satisfied
10a	care (for) dislike happy	like calm	unhappy	like
10b		enjoy		vacation fun pleasurable enjoy
12a	confusing	helps	confusion pain confusion cold inhuman	understand
12b	rough difficult		hard (times) problems hard (times)	
13a	tired irritable messes hard (to manage)		exhausting	great pleasurable
13b	difficult foul unhealthy	brave	bad	
14a		(good...?)yes (good...?)yes		good enjoy
14b			bad bad	
15a		fun	dullest drag	
15b	bummer tediously obnoxious			
16a		fun	tired exhausted	

Conversation	Male partner		Female partner	
	Discomfort	Relief	Discomfort	Relief
16b	like	enjoy love helpful	destructive	good like like enjoy good
18a	(...ball?)no		like	
18b			trouble miss	enjoy
20a		enjoy	bad	interesting
20b		interesting	boring	interesting interesting worthwhile
21a	like mean	like likes		like gentleness
21b	like like	like		

APPENDIX H

STATISTICAL VALUES AND PROCEDURES USED IN

MALE DRQ ANALYSES

TABLE IX

SUMMARY TABLE FOR MALE DRQ ANALYSES

Source	df	SS	MS
Between Ss	15	2.946	
Male performance "type"	1	.036	
Ss within groups	14	2.910	.208
Within Ss	16	3.044	
Partner "type"	1	.210	
Interaction (Male "type" x partner "type")	1	.399	
Partner "type" x Ss within groups	14	2.435	.174

MS within cells = .191

The above Mean Squares were used in the individual comparisons
between means. Each comparison was analyzed by a one-tailed t test of
the form t = √F (Winer, 1962). As such, the result was always express-
ed as a positive value. Minus signs were added when appropriate in
order to indicate the direction of the difference between means.

APPENDIX I

STATISTICAL VALUES AND PROCEDURES USED IN

FEMALE DRQ ANALYSES

TABLE X

SUMMARY TABLE FOR FEMALE DRQ ANALYSES

Source	df	SS	MS
Partner "type"	1	.512	
Error (a)	14	3.277	.234
Female performance "type"	1	.488	
Interaction (Female "type" x partner "type")	1	.006	
Error (b)	14	1.571	.112

All t tests used to compare means were based upon standard errors calculated from the above Mean Squares. These procedures are presented in Steele and Torre (1960).

APPENDIX J

STATISTICAL VALUES AND PROCEDURES USED IN

FEMALE CI ANALYSES

TABLE XI

SUMMARY TABLE FOR FEMALE CI ANALYSES

Source	df	SS	MS
Partner "type"	1	4.500	
Error (a)	14	67.375	4.813
Female performance "type"	1	10.125	
Interaction (Female "type" x partner "type")	1	.500	
Error (b)	14	46.375	3.313

All t tests used to compare means were based upon standard errors calculated from the above Mean Squares. These procedures are presented by Steele and Torre (1960).

VITA

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Doctor of Philosophy

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