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ANXIETY OR IGNORANCE: THE DETERMINANTS OF INTERPERSONAL SKILL DISPLAY

By

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ABSTRACT

ANXIETY OR IGNORANCE: THE DETERMINANTS
OF INTERPERSONAL SKILL DISPLAY

By

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This study was conducted to test the effects of knowledge of assertion, motivation and fear of negative evaluation on anxiety during evaluative conditions. Furthermore, it was expected that anxiety would inhibit the display of the interpersonal skill of assertion. Subjects completed pencil-and-paper questionnaires to assess the personality variables of need for approval, Machiavellianism, and fear of negative evaluation. Knowledge of assertion was measured with situational judgment items. The subjects then participated in a negotiation role-play under either a high-evaluative or low-evaluative condition. Afterward, they completed a questionnaire to assess the level of anxiety they experienced during the role-play. It was found that regardless of condition, anxiety impacted subjects' display of assertion on the dimensions of nonverbal behavior, verbal behavior and context of conversation. Thus, those who experienced greater anxiety displayed fewer behaviors considered consistent with assertion. Implications for interpersonal skills training and future research directions are discussed.

To all African-Americans who pursue higher learning.

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Well...that's the acknowledgements and I...am...outta here!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to examine the effects of interpersonal skill knowledge, anxiety, and motivation type on the display of interpersonally skilled behavior. Two current theories of interpersonally skilled behavior are the anxiety-inhibition approach and the knowledge-based approach. The first proposes that most individuals know the appropriate behavior in certain situations to reach a goal but individual anxiety inhibits the expression of such behavior. The second theory purports that individuals who do not display appropriate behavior do not know which behaviors are socially appropriate to achieve their goals.

The purpose of this research is to integrate these two theories using the existing literature. This integration leads to the investigation of how contrasting motivations as well as anxiety influence individual desire and ability to display interpersonally skilled behavior. In particular, the literature on fear of negative evaluation, social facilitation (which has an evaluative component) and two motivation types (need for approval and Machiavellianism) are examined to help integrate the two approaches.

This integration shows that the current theories do not adequately explain the display of interpersonal skills.

Instead, these additional variables will provide additional explicatory value to this construct of interpersonal skill display. This subsequent explanation provides a broader scope of the factors contributing to individual behavior. The additional variables of fear of negative evaluation and motivation are considered with relation to the display of interpersonal skills in the particular area of assertiveness and within the particular situation of negotiation.

This introduction is divided into five sections. In the first section, interpersonal skills will be discussed through their importance in the workplace. Following this discussion, a review of previous definitions of interpersonal skills and interpersonally skilled behaviors as well as characteristics of these concepts (what they are and what they are not) is presented. Third, the importance of these constructs when examining assertive situations such as negotiation. Fourth, the importance of incorporating the influential concept (in my opinion) of motivation type is discussed. Finally, the application of these characteristics and concepts to the two current theories of interpersonal skills (i.e. the anxiety-inhibition approach and the knowledge-based approach) are described and a testable model is presented.

IMPORTANCE OF INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AT WORK

The need for these interpersonal skills (generally

considered as skills necessary to interact effectively with people) at work is becoming increasingly apparent. For example, in an attempt to identify the skills necessary for effective work performance, researchers worked on a joint project for the American Society for Training and Development and the U.S. Department of Labor. They found that employers seek workers who can get along with others, judge appropriate behavior, cope with undesirable behavior in others, deal with ambiguity, listen, inspire confidence in others, structure social interaction, and interact easily with others. All of the above skills are considered to be interpersonal in nature (Carnevale, Gainer, Meltzer & Holland, 1988). In addition, a report by the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS; U.S. Department of Labor, 1991) concluded that interpersonal skills were needed across all jobs from entry level clerks to managers and executives. Furthermore, Brinkmeyer (1994) found that interpersonal skills are increasingly mentioned by employers when providing requisite skills in employment advertisements across a broad array of employment settings.

More specifically, Keys and Case (1990) also believe that formal authority is less prevalent due to increasing team interdependence which would lead to the emerging need for **influence** (through interpersonal means). Other aspects of job performance where interpersonal skills have been found to be relevant are negotiation (Adler, Doktor, &

Redding, 1986), reasoning, appeals to supervisors and assertiveness (Schmidt & Yeh, 1992; Shwalb, Shwalb, Harnisch, Maehr, & Akabane, 1992), and conflict resolution (Bond, Leung, & Schwartz, 1992).

DEFINING INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

Despite the increasing importance of interpersonal skills, a consensus on the definition of this construct has not been reached (Hogan & Lock, 1995). From the job analysis literature, Hogan and Lock (1995) found that when required interpersonal skills were addressed, these skills were generally worker-oriented and do not address specific behaviors that are necessary. It is their opinion that the information provided by the literature adds little value beyond the descriptions given by the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. In fact, the DOT itself is viewed as inadequately describing the construct of interpersonal skills (Carnevale et al., 1988).

Hogan and Lock (1995), in their attempt to provide a taxonomy for interpersonal skills, found that research was sorely lacking in this area. They lament that research on interpersonal skills often must rely on the literature from other disciplines such as personality, social and clinical psychology in addition to management and marketing. Hogan and Lock (1995) also found that individual studies on interpersonal skills have been relatively narrow in focus

yet divergent from previous research, leading to a broad yet unconfined concept.

In fact, a vast number of terms used to refer to interpersonal skills was found by Reiss, Ones and Viswesvaran (1995) during their meta-analysis of interpersonal skill studies (see Table 1; taken from Reiss et al., 1995). In addition, the dimensions for the construct of interpersonal skills were almost as different as the terms that were used. For instance, the taxonomy of interpersonal knowledge skills and abilities required for teamwork that was developed by Stevens and Campion (1994) includes conflict resolution, collaborative problem solving, and communication. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), from the customer service literature identified responsiveness, courtesy and communication as the most important interpersonal skills. Fleishman (1992), in a review of the literature and taxonomies, proposed 13 interpersonal requirements for work. These interpersonal dimensions are agreeableness, behavior flexibility, sociability, interpersonal coordination, dependability, energy, social conformity, organization, negotiation, social sensitivity, persuasion, self-control and social confidence.

In addition, there is a lack of agreement among researchers whether interpersonal skills consist of knowledge, or skills, or abilities or behaviors. Gist, Stevens, and Bavetta (1991) view interpersonal

Table 1

Selection of Terms Used in the Literature for Interpersonal Skills

Terms for Interpersonal Skills		
Ability to get along with others	Interpersonal competence	Rel. w/ higher mgmt
Asserting displeasure with others' actions	Interpersonal contact	Rel. w/ steward
Concern for appropriateness	Interpersonal effectiveness	Rel. w/ union officials
Conflict resolution	Interpersonal relationships	Relate to others
Cooperativeness w/ rel. functions	Leaders - boss rel.	Relationship with authority
Dealing w/ others in the org.	Managing interpersonal conflicts	Relationships with associates
Dealing w/ public	Mech's reactions to supervisor	Skills w/ people
Dealing w/ co-workers	outside relationships	Social adroitness
Employee relations	Peer & passenger relationships	Social competence
Functional flexibility	Personal acceptability	Social control
Get along w/ shipmates	Personal contacts	Social expressiveness
Getting along w/ co-workers	Personal relations	Social intelligence
Global social competence	Providing emotional support	Social interaction
Human relations skills	Rel. to others	Social skills
Human relation techniques	Rel. w/ subordinates	Success. interper. rel.
Initiating relationships	Rel. w/ supervisor	
Inside relationships	Rel. w/ co-Workers	

communication, conflict resolution and performance appraisal reviews as examples of interpersonal *tasks*. McGuire and Priestly (1981) define interpersonal skills as *behavior* performed by the individual, "those kinds of behavior which are basic to effective face-to-face communication between individuals" (p. 6). According to Morrison and Bellack (1981), interpersonal skills consist of *knowing* the appropriate behaviors, as well as knowing **when** and **how** to display them. On occasion, the terms skills and abilities are even confounded. For example, consider the quote from Schlundt and McFall (1985). They define social skills as "the specific component processes that enable an individual to behave in a manner that will be judged as 'competent'. Skills are the abilities necessary for producing behavior that will accomplish the objectives of the task" (p.23).

Michelson, Sugai, Wood, and Kazdin (1983) offer six main elements that they believe comprise social skills (as shown by Table 1, the terms "social skills" and "interpersonal skills" have been used to refer to the same concept). They believe these elements: 1) are primarily acquired through learning, 2) comprise specific, discrete verbal and nonverbal behaviors, 3) entail effective, appropriate initiations and responses, 4) maximize social reinforcement from others, 5) are interactive in nature, and require appropriate timing and reciprocity of specific behavior, and 6) are influenced by environmental factors.

In his review of definitions of skilled behavior, Hargie (1986a) also suggested six featured components of interpersonal skill. These components are: 1) Socially skilled behavior is goal oriented. It consists of behaviors that are purposeful and directed toward a particular outcome. It does not entail coincidental or unintentional positive results; 2) Socially-skilled behaviors are interrelated. This means that several discrete behaviors may be displayed simultaneously to achieve a common goal; 3) Social skills should be appropriate to the situation. The socially skilled individual is able to determine the demands of each situation and adjust behavior appropriately; 4) Social skills consist of separate, identifiable behaviors; 5) Social skills are behaviors that can be learned; and 6) Social skills are under control of the individual.

Unfortunately, previous definitions have failed to provide a single unified concept of interpersonal skills. Therefore, I will discuss related constructs and then provide further detail of previously suggested dimensions, abilities and situational influences that affect interpersonal behavior.

DISTINGUISHING INTERPERSONAL SKILLS FROM OTHER CONSTRUCTS

For clarification, interpersonally skilled behavior should not be confused with mere acquiescence or the tendency to agree (e.g. Lentz, 1938). This has been viewed

as a personality trait related to conformity (e.g. Couch & Keniston, 1960; Gough & Heilbrun, 1980). Interpersonally skilled behavior, however, does not involve such passive behavior. On the contrary, the interpersonally skilled individual (the actor) often makes her/his feelings known and makes an attempt to influence others (e.g. Kolotkin et al., 1983). This requires a degree of assertiveness (Schmidt & Yeh, 1992). For example, if the desired result of an interaction is to influence a stubborn supervisor, then behavior which is simply socially desirable may not be effective.

Furthermore, interpersonal skills is not the same as impression management. According to Goffman (1959), we engage in verbal and nonverbal impression management when we interact with others. Impression management, which is often viewed as a purposeful misrepresentation of one's actual behavior or intentions (Crowne, 1979), is usually designed to present one's self favorably or to prevent one's self from being viewed unfavorably (Crowne, 1979). While the use of interpersonal skills is a deliberate attempt to influence the perceptions of a particular target (or other person), it need not entail the degree of deception usually denoted in impression management. Impression management is also often situation specific and influenced by transient motives (cf. Paulhus, 1991), such as in a job interview or a performance appraisal. While interpersonal skills can also be used in

these instances, interpersonal skills are not as self-focused. Interpersonal skills involve empathy which takes into account not only one's own position, but the position and concerns of the other (Trief, 1976). This entails not only adjusting one's own behavior to suit the situation, but conveying to the other party that his or her concerns are being taken into account as well (Keefe, 1976). (Empathy itself will be addressed later.)

In addition, while impression management can often consist of actions that do not directly involve another actor, interpersonally skilled behavior does not. For example, an instance of impression management could be when a respondent intentionally provides false answers to items on a questionnaire to appear more favorable (Paulhus, 1984, 1986). This is not interpersonally skilled behavior because it does not explicitly involve interpersonal interaction.

Finally, interpersonal skills should be distinguished from personality. Hogan and Lock (1995) present an interesting and effective distinction between these two constructs. They view personality as a broad dispositional tendency such as those measured by the NEO-PI (i.e. extroversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism; Costa & McRae, 1978). Interpersonal skills, however, act as a moderators that may enhance or inhibit action in certain situations. While personality can be an unconscious pattern of behavior, Hogan and Lock (1995)

believe that interpersonal skills are conscious skills that moderate personality. An example provided by Hogan and Lock (1995) describes an individual who is high on extroversion. This person may need to recognize situations where extroverted or dramatic behavior is inappropriate and adjust displayed behavior accordingly. This would involve interpersonal skills in the recognition of the situation and adjustment of behavioral style. On the other hand, when a situation (such as approaching a new acquaintance and possible business contact) necessitates some degree of assertiveness, this extroversion may need to be displayed. In such instances, interpersonal skills can help individuals to act within situational constraints and also take advantage of situational opportunities.

To further examine the roles of interpersonal skills, several dimensions of this construct are described. This should help to provide additional context to illuminate how these skills interact and apply to interpersonal behavior.

INTERPERSONAL SKILL DIMENSIONS

Role-taking and empathy. A critical dimension of interpersonal skill is role-taking, or viewing a problem from the perspective of the target individual (Trief, 1976). This allows the individual a greater understanding of not only what the other person (target) is feeling but how one should respond to that target. The 'when' or timing of

behavior is also important because behavior that may have been appropriate at one moment may appear inappropriate or awkward after certain points in the conversation. Morrison and Bellack (1981) also stress the importance of social perception when they comment that

> "Application of this knowledge (of interpersonal skills), in turn, depends upon the ability to accurately 'read' the social environment, determine the particular norms and conventions operating at the moment, and to understand the messages being sent and the particular emotions and intentions guiding the behavior of the interpersonal partner." (p. 70)

One must be able to understand and interpret the target's behavior (i.e. seeing beyond the words) and get a sense of (and respond to) not only what the target is saying, but what the target means and how the target is feeling.

Although role-taking (when addressed in the interpersonal skills context as opposed to the work-role context) is considered a developmental trait, it has not been found to be consistent across individuals. Role-taking, which when used in the interpersonal skills literature refers to the ability to view a situation from another person's perspective, is exhibited by older children who can view and interpret events from a different focus or perspective if asked to do so (Feffer, 1970). Furthermore, Moore & Underwood (1981) found that developmental and

individual differences in role-taking appear to underlie differences in interpersonal sensitivity, social maturity, and prosocial behavior.

A construct strongly related and similar to role-taking is empathy. Empathy also has been found to be positively related to interpersonal competence (e.g. Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Knudson & Kagan, 1982) as well as altruism (Batson & Coke, 1981; Krebs, 1975). Empathy has also been found to have a **negative** relationship with aggressive behavior (Chandler, Greenspan & Barenboim, 1974; Feshbach, 1978; Ianotti, 1978; Miller & Eisenberg, 1988; Reed, 1981; Selman, 1980).

Empathy has been given many definitions (Goldstein & Michaels, 1985). However, according to Goldstein (1988), these definitions usually followed one of two different paths. One path was to define empathy as a global construct in an attempt to operationalize it for further study while the second envisioned empathy as a multi-stage process involving several distinct cognitive components.

Initially, several theorists provided relatively general definitions of empathy. For example, Mead (1934) defined empathy as "the capacity to take the role of the others and to adopt alternative perspectives vis a vis oneself" (p. 27). Dymond (1949) viewed empathy as "the imaginative transposing of oneself into the thinking feeling and acting of another and so structuring the world as he does" (p.

127). In addition, Couto's (1951) definition of empathy was that "empathy is the process by which a person momentarily pretends to himself that he is another person, projects himself into the perceptual field of the other person, imaginatively puts himself in the other person's place, in order that he may get an insight into the other person's probable behavior in a given situation" (p. 18).

Reik (1949), expanded upon empathy as a four stage process consisting of identification (contemplating the other person and his experiences), incorporation (similar to identification, blending oneself with the other person through similar experiences), reverberation (using our own experiences and finding similarities to internalize the feelings of the other) and detachment (withdrawal from internalization to allow objective and impartial analysis of the situation).

So far, these definitions have been similar to role-taking. Keefe (1976), however, adds a critical component which takes empathy one step further. Keefe's definition is similar to that of Reik (1949), but it differs in that Keefe (1976) suggests that the process of empathy is not complete until the observer *communicates accurate feedback* to the other regarding the other's affect.

This is not to say that communication had not previously been considered part of empathy. It has been stated by Goldstein (1988) that many psychotherapists have considered

communication alone to constitute empathy without taking into account the cognitive dimensions given above. Goldstein (1988) attributes this to Carl Rogers' students who misunderstood his definition of empathy. Rogers (1957) suggested that an accurate understanding of a client's feelings could be communicated to facilitate the counseling process. Rogers (1957), however, also did not identify possible cognitive dimensions. Furthermore, the students of Rogers began to equate communication with empathy itself. Goldstein (1988) goes on to say that the communication of the role-taking perspective later became (for many scientists) the operationalization of empathy.

I feel, however, that the later definitions that were given (e.g. Keefe, 1976) are more complete and informative. These definitions provide not only the communication of understanding, but the cognitive processes that allow one to *obtain* such understanding of another.

Social misperception. As noted above, an important aspect of interpersonal skills is social perception. At the other end of the spectrum is social **mis**perception. According to Trower, Bryant, and Argyle (1978)

> "Research has shown that there is a great scope for misperceiving, particularly in unfamiliar settings, and mistaking cues in this way can lead to rapid breakdown in communication...There are several forms of failure: a) low level of discrimination and accuracy; b)

systematic errors, e.g. perceiving others as more hostile than they are; c) inaccurate stereotypes, or over-use of them; d) errors of attribution, e.g. attributing too much to a person, too little to a situation; e) halo effects, e.g. perceiving people as consistently good or bad." (p. 10)

Furthermore, Hargie et al. (1987) suggest that nonassertive individuals may have a different social misperception obstacle which prevents assertion. They suggest that nonassertive persons may perceive unreasonable requests as reasonable. These individuals would then believe it would be inappropriate behavior to deny these requests and that they do not necessarily have the right to do so.

Other factors that may affect interpersonal interactions are perceiver cognitive expectations (Forgas, 1979), perceiver self-fulfilling prophecies (Jones & Panitch, 1971) and perceiver self-confidence (Forgas, 1985). In addition, perceiver affective states have been found to contribute to social misperception, *especially anxiety* (Forgas, 1985).

Situations. While several previous researchers attribute social misperception to the situation itself (e.g. Avedon, 1981; Argyle, 1981a; Jessor, 1981; Bennett and Bennett, 1981), Forgas (1985) believes that it is not the situation. On the contrary, he believes that it is the affective states induced *by* the situation that lead to such misperception. Among these states are anxiety or self-confidence (or lack

thereof).

In addition, the *type* of situation has been hypothesized to cause particular difficulty in interpersonal interaction. Seven such situations identified by Richardson and Tasto (1976) and Stratton and Moore (1977) are: 1) assertiveness situations; 2) performing in public; 3) conflict; 4) intimate situations; 5) meeting strangers; 6) dealing with people in authority; and 7) anticipating or experiencing fear of disapproval, criticism or making mistakes.

Of particular interest in this research are the situations of assertion and experiencing fear of disapproval (fear of negative evaluation). These two types of situations are examined further in the contexts of assertiveness, negotiation and motivation.

Goals. Interpersonal skill in a situation cannot be determined unless we know exactly what the individual hopes to gain from the interaction (Hargie, 1986a). Argyle (1981a) further proposes that the skill of behavior should be evaluated by the extent to which this behavior achieves its intended *goals*. Graham, Argyle, and Furnham (1981) found that individuals could have a number of goals that could influence interpersonal behavior. Included in their 21 possible goals are: 1) to be accepted by others and 2) to persuade or influence others. I chose these two goals not only to narrow the focus of the discussion, but I feel that these two goals are quite similar to the motivational

influences (i.e. need for approval and Machiavellianism) that will be discussed later. More specifically, however, situations of interest in the present research are assertiveness situations where intended outcomes such as approval from or helping others are not ends in themselves (such as negotiating).

Assertiveness. The use of assertiveness has been deemed an important dimension of interpersonal skills by previous researchers (e.g. Scmidt & Yeh, 1992). Assertiveness is addressed in greater detail than the previous dimensions of interpersonal skills because the use of assertion incorporates the interpersonal skills described above (i.e. empathy, role-taking and social perception).

Assertiveness, as defined by Lange and Jakubowski (1976), consists of "standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest, and appropriate ways which respect the rights of people" (p. 38). Smith's (1975) definition of assertiveness includes direct expression of one's feelings, preferences, needs and opinions in a way that does not threaten the target and does not produce *undue anxiety* (italics added) for the actor. However, the definition that most closely parallels the concept of assertiveness as it will be used in this paper is provided by Alberti and Emmons (1982). They define assertiveness as a behavior which "enables a person to act in his or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or

himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others' (p. 13).

To further distinguish assertiveness from other response styles, Alberti and Emmons (1975) differentiate assertiveness from nonassertive behavior and aggressive behavior. Their brief definitions of each are provided below.

Nonassertive responses are characterized by speaking softly, looking away, avoiding issues and inflicting discomfort inward rather than upon others. The goal here is to appease others and avoid conflict.

Assertive responses involve acknowledging one's own rights and the rights of others. This entails speaking firmly, openly expressing feelings and opinions and looking at the other person.

Aggressive responses involve threatening or violating the rights of the other person. The person utilizing this response style interrupts the other person, talks loudly and abusively and accuses or blames the other person.

There are several behavioral characteristics of assertion (as well as nonassertion and aggression) found by previous researchers. For instance, Rose and Tryon (1979) found that there is a relationship between response style (i.e. nonassertive, assertive and aggressive) and loudness of voice. As might be expected, nonassertive behavior was

accompanied by the lowest voice volume (68 decibels) with assertive behavior notably higher (76 decibels) and aggressive behavior was associated with the loudest voice level (84 decibels). Rose and Tryon (1979) also state that lapse time before responding could also be indicative of nonassertion versus assertion. They viewed pauses of 16 seconds or more before responding as nonassertive behavior. Those subjects exhibiting assertive behavior responded after pauses of only 3-4 seconds. Additional characteristics of assertive behavior identified by Rose and Tryon (1979) were increased use of gestures and increased vocal inflection. In addition, Kolotkin, Wielkiewicz, Judd, and Weisler (1983) found that duration of eye contact during interaction was greater for assertive, as compared to nonassertive, individuals.

Baldwin (1992) also identified six behavioral learning points for his assertiveness training program which were adapted from Smith's (1975) model of assertion. These six learning points were "a) speak clearly and to the point with no dramatic changes in voice tone; b) be honest about your feelings and needs and accept responsibility for them; c) be persistent in a request or answer with calm repetition; d) accept manipulative or sidetracking statements by calmly acknowledging the probability that there may be some truth in the statement; e) acknowledge and accept your feelings and faults without apologizing for them; and f) check for

closure and two-way understanding of outcomes or compromise".

Hargie et al. (1987) list several functions for the use of assertion. They propose that such functions include helping people to:

1) ensure that their personal rights are not violated.
2) withstand unreasonable requests from others
3) make reasonable requests of others
4) deal effectively with unreasonable refusals from others
5) recognize the personal rights of others
6) change the behavior of others toward them
7) avoid unnecessary aggressive conflicts
8) confidently, and openly, communicate their position on any issue.

These functions, in part, appear to follow from the research of Kolotkin et al. (1983) who found that requests for behavior change was also associated with assertion. Use of 'I' statements was associated with assertion instead of 'you' statements (that can appear accusatory) which were associated with aggression. Statements of feeling were considered an important aspect of assertion as well. In addition, Galassi et al. (1981) emphasize the importance of statement of rights, empathy statements and giving reasons for behavior.

As mentioned, however, **proper** use of assertion is important. Similar to the characteristics of interpersonally

skilled behavior, the use of assertion should be influenced by the situation. For instance, the level of assertion typical of a particular target may influence how assertive behavior is perceived. Gormally (1982) found that assertion was more favorably perceived by assertive targets. Furthermore, it has been found that nonassertive targets react less favorably to assertion than do assertive targets while assertive targets react less favorably to nonassertive behavior than do nonassertive targets (Kern, 1982). Therefore, the interpersonally skilled individual must know when to and when not to exhibit assertive behavior and adopt a different approach to certain individuals.

The research on assertiveness has provided several opinions and much evidence concerning the display of assertion, the characteristics of assertion and the functions of assertion. However, the assertiveness literature does not appear to address the personal characteristics associated with assertion. Its focus is individual characteristics that may lead to nonassertion (e.g. low self-esteem). Perhaps attention should be given to situations or individual differences that could cause assertion to be a more likely displayed behavior in interpersonal situations.

For instance, when using interpersonally skilled behavior in gaining power or influence, the emphasis appears not to address position power (e.g. a supervisor over a

subordinate) where power is not disputed. Of greater concern seems to be the extent to which an individual can *influence* the behavior of others through one's own behavior (for example, in a leaderless group or team) and not one's job position (e.g. boss or supervisor). What if there is no predetermined allocation of power or influence? How, then, does one decide to assert his/herself in such a situation? How does one's motivation or intention come into play? To address these concerns more specifically, the choices and behaviors associated with negotiation are examined.

Negotiation will be discussed because it presents a situation where approval from others is not the ultimate intended outcome. Therefore, the goal of the individual should not prevent the use of assertion. This would be in contrast, for example, to a situation where an individual was simply asking for a favor which the target was under no obligation to grant. In addition, as will be shown below, the negotiation literature further shows the importance of the use of assertion in obtaining favorable results. Furthermore, I chose to examine negotiation because unlike other dimensions identified earlier in previous taxonomies (e.g. sociability, interpersonal coordination and social confidence; Fleishman, 1992), negotiation can have an observable outcome. Such an outcome could be the amount of money or tangible goods desired by the individual as compared to the goods actually obtained through negotiation.

Therefore, I view the results of negotiation as more readily quantified and analyzed.

NEGOTIATION

Negotiation refers to discussions between opposing parties where the goal is to reach an agreement (cf. Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992). For consistency within this discussion of the negotiation literature (because the term *goal* has been used to refer to different outcomes throughout this paper), the term *'goal'* will imply this more traditional usage as applied to negotiation. Furthermore, it seems that the most appropriate criterion for successful negotiation (with respect to assertion and interpersonal skills) would be an agreement which brings an overall gain (as opposed to a loss or an unproductive standoff) in material or resources about which the negotiation was concerned. Therefore, that is the criterion that will be used in this context.

According to Carnevale and Pruitt (1992), the three strategies that have received most of the research attention have been:

1) Concession making which involves mainly accommodating the wishes of the other party.

2) Contending which involves attempts to persuade the other party to be accommodating (e.g. threats).

3) Problem solving which involves finding solutions that

address the needs of both (or all, depending upon the number of parties) parties through active listening and providing information about one's own demands or concerns.

These strategies are similar to the types of behavior addressed earlier: nonassertive (concession), aggressive (contending) and assertive (problem solving) behavior. In an attempt to show the similarities, each type of strategy will be discussed in further detail below.

Concession strategies in negotiation, combined with nonassertion could lead to negative results for the negotiator as found by previous researchers (Bartos, 1974; Benton et al., 1972; Hamner, 1974; Harnett & Vinclette, 1978). They found that lower initial demands and faster concessions produce smaller outcomes for the party employing this tactic, while providing better outcomes for the opposing party. It would seem that this would be the most likely outcome if the individual is most concerned with appeasing others and avoiding conflict which is typically the goal with nonassertive behavior.

Contending strategies often involve threats or persuasive arguments to convince the other party that they should concede. The threat dimension is similar to tactics described above with aggressive behavior. This strategy is often ineffective due to reactions of the other party. For instance, these tactics often produce minimal benefits for

both parties and can result in no agreement (Pruitt, 1981; Pruitt et al., 1991b). In addition, the opposing party may react with similar contending strategies to defend themselves (Hornstein, 1965; Kimmel et al., 1980). According to Pruitt and Rubin (1986), when **both** parties employ this tactic it often leads to failure of the tactic, in addition to conflict escalation (as opposed to conflict resolution).

Problem solving is the third technique, which attempts to find a solution that is beneficial for both parties. For this tactic to be successful, negotiators need to be firm (assertive) and flexible (R. Fisher & Ury, 1981; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Problem solving often involves information exchange as well as other tactics suggested by previous authors (e.g. Filley, 1975; R. Fisher & Ury, 1981) such as brainstorming, avoiding personal attacks on the other, putting one's self in the position of the other (role-taking) and active listening, which in this case involves checking one's understanding of the position of the other party. This tactic closely parallels the assertive style of interaction described earlier in that it entails considering the position of the other while also standing up for one's own position.

What must be examined next is how one chooses which tactic to employ. According to Thomas (1992), the conflict/negotiation literature is dominated by rational/instrumental assumptions. These assumptions purport

that individuals choose their courses of action based on the likelihood that such action will result in a desirable outcome.

In what Pruitt (1983) has termed *dual concerns models*, individual action is determined by the desire to achieve one's own goals and the desire to satisfy the needs of the other party. Therefore, use of each of the strategies above depends upon the degree to which one has a concern for one's own goal and the goals of the other party. For instance, if one has a strong desire to achieve one's own goals and little concern for the needs of the other party, a competitive (or contending) strategy is likely to be incorporated by that person.

Based on a series on laboratory experiments, Pruitt (1983) concludes that the importance of satisfying one's own goals is influenced by such variables as the strength of the desired goal and the party's fear of conflict. The importance of satisfying the goals of the other party would then depend upon interpersonal bonds (e.g. identity or attraction).

In addition, according to what Pruitt terms *feasibility* of a strategy, the incorporation of a strategy also depends upon the party's perception that the strategy will lead to the desired outcome. This perception entails the belief that certain tactics can be used effectively in the particular situation taking into account expectations of the other

party (e.g. the other party's reactions to such tactics). Furthermore, the individual considers the likelihood (and positive versus negative nature) of unintended outcomes from the use of a particular strategy (Pruitt, 1983; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). This, at first, appears to contradict Hargie's (1987) characteristics of social skills. Hargie (1987) does not include unintentional positive outcomes as indicative of interpersonally skilled behavior. The difference here, however, appears to be that the negotiator considers these alternative outcomes prior to engaging in actual behavior. Therefore, the individual may be aware of the possibility of such results and these results would not be as coincidental as they might otherwise appear.

According to the literature on emotion, however, these perceptions and assessments could be detrimentally influenced by one's emotions. Reviewing the emotion literature, Kumar (1989) concluded that affect can influence individual cognition and motivational forces. In particular, Kumar (1989) notes that negative emotions can cause a simplification of cognitive processes. This simplification, according to Pruitt and Rubin (1986), reduces the likelihood of cognitive integration and the ability to conceptualize issues adequately. This would seem to interfere with one's ability to accurately assess the actions of the other party as well as potential outcomes (intended and unintended).

Furthermore, as far as negotiation strategies are

concerned, apparently the type of emotion experienced by the individual can influence which strategy is employed. For example, anger appears to lead to an aggressive, competitive or contending strategy (Baron, 1977; Kumar, 1989). On the other hand, anxiety may lead to a withdrawal from negotiation or unassertive behavior (Kumar, 1989).

From this literature, it is apparent that the prevalence of certain types of emotion and motivation can lead to negotiation strategies which typically lead to failure of such efforts. However, perhaps because the negotiation literature suggests that different strategies are contrasting (Kelley, 1966; Lax & Sebenius, 1986; Pruitt, 1991), this approach attempts to categorize individuals into distinct motivations. Consequently, it does not adequately address possible contrasting motivations or a cognitive decision by individuals to determine which goal is most important if one or more goals are desirable but incompatible. Perhaps, Pruitt's (1983) *feasibility* notion and consideration of unintended outcomes could include such instances where it would seem that one must be willing to sacrifice being liked to successfully obtain material rewards. This willingness should enable such an individual to pursue the desired effects, while aware of (and able to accept) the potential detriment to one's 'favorability rating'. On the other hand, if an individual values the approval of others to a high degree, he/she may be unwilling

to jeopardize that approval by pursuing individual rewards (e.g. sizable gains through negotiation). However, this individual may fail to successfully obtain that particular goal (and will not have shown interpersonal skill) because while favorability has been retained the primary desired outcome of negotiation (i.e. material or personal gains) has been unrealized.

It seems that the negotiation literature could be more complete if these contrasting motivations were given more consideration. Therefore, emotion and its possible consequences is examined further in the context of social facilitation and individual motivation.

MOTIVATION

According to Tedeschi (1972), an important aspect of influencing another is the actors motivation to do so successfully. In fact, research has shown that increased motivation promotes attitude change (Robberson & Rogers, 1988). As stated in the previous discussion of dimensions of interpersonally skilled behavior, each of the two goals previously identified by Graham et al. (1981) appear to be tied directly to one's motivation to exhibit interpersonal skills and to successfully accomplish one's objectives. The motivations of interest here are: (1) need for approval (to be accepted by others) and (2) Machiavellianism (persuading or influencing others).

Need for approval. One's **need for approval** (or social desirability), a motive offered by Crowne and Marlowe (1964), could be a determining factor in the desire to behave in a interpersonally skilled manner. These individuals are most likely to be concerned with self-presentation during interaction and possibly preoccupied with the anticipated judgmental evaluations by their peers which could cause anxiety (Goffman, 1959). The subsequent anxiety may also lead to social misperception (Forgas, 1985). As suggested previously, fear of negative evaluation may be a type of anxiety that could have this effect. Therefore, the concern with gaining the approval of others may hinder the attainment of other personal goals in situations such as negotiation because these individuals may be more concerned with being liked by the target rather than achieving such goals.

In addition, even if the individual with a high need for approval attempts to display interpersonally skilled behavior, possible anxiety may hinder these attempts (Goffman, 1959). According to Shapiro (1968) this should be seen more specifically through nonverbal behavior. Shapiro (1968) states that it is possible that anxiety would cause an individual in this affective state to display contradictory behavior, such as sweating, fidgeting or voice trembling while attempting to appear assertive. However, these contradictory nonverbals may nullify spoken words for

it is likely that the target (or other person) will attend more to the nonverbal behaviors to ascertain the actor's feelings because they are not as much within the actor's control (Shapiro, 1968).

Even cognitive processes affected by anxiety may further retard the *acquisition* of interpersonal skills knowledge. Accurate listening, an important aspect of social interaction and negotiation (e.g. Filley, 1975; R. Fisher & Ury, 1981), is less likely to be achieved by anxious individuals because they typically cannot encode conversations in a rich or detailed manner (Bond & Omar, 1990). They therefore encode contradictory information about their partners as similar because their automatic processing actions form simpler impressions. Furthermore, insecure people are also likely to be anxious because they are characterized by seeking reassurance or positive evaluation by others (e.g. Marlowe & Crowne, 1964). Wicklund and Braun (1990) found that these individuals, too, rate contradictory information as more consistent than do their secure counterparts.

Research has shown that there are often situational conditions or prior experiences leading to such a state or that the individual becomes anxious because the situation is novel or unfamiliar (e.g. Avedon, 1981; Forgas, 1985). It seems that a high need for approval in such situations could lead to a fear of negative evaluation that may begin to

pervade the individual's future social interactions and hamper the acquisition of effective interpersonal behaviors.

Machiavellianism. The next motivation type, **Machiavellianism**, presents a strong desire to manipulate others in one's environment for personal gain. Christie and Merton (1958) used this term to describe the attitudes of medical students after several years in school. These students began to see others as impersonal objects and should be subject to manipulation if it served to achieve one's ends. Four conditions where Jones and Pittman (1982) believe such social influence is most likely to occur are when: (1) emotionality or task involvement is **moderate or low** enough, or other conditions exist to stimulate self-consciousness, (2) opportunities or threats create perceptions of instrumentality of influence behavior; (3) the employee believes that he/she will be successful; and (4) the situations and the potential outcomes are important to the individual. It should be noted that importance of the situation does not always imply emotional involvement. In such instances, cold and calculative intentions would allow emotionality to be maintained at a moderate or low level.

It would seem that this makes Machiavellianism the less emotionally straining motivation of the two addressed here because interpersonal behavior is seen as a means to an end and no more. In fact, in loosely structured interactions, individuals high in Machiavellianism have been found to be

less vulnerable to stress (Burgoon et al., 1972). One's emotional disassociation from the environment and viewing others as impersonal objects should significantly decrease amount of anxiety, guilt and similar inhibitions from dealing effectively with others (Kumar, 1989). This would serve to minimize possible cognitive simplification caused by such emotion (Kumar, 1989), simplification that can lead to the reduction of cognitive integration (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). In support of this notion, Schwendiman (1971) has found that Machiavellians are more likely than other personality types to win in bargain situations. Similarly, Geis (1970) found a correlation of .71 between paper-and-pencil measures of Machiavellianism and success in laboratory interpersonal bargaining situations.

Furthermore, the perceived instrumentality of influence behavior and one's belief that s/he can exhibit this behavior coincide with Pruitt's (1983) dimensions of *feasibility*. Thus, this makes it more likely that this type of behavior will be utilized by an individual.

Therefore, Machiavellianism should allow one to focus not only on one's own actions, but on the actions and possible perceptions of the target as well. In addition, individuals with this motivation should be more successful in obtaining their goals because they are able to attend to their own desires (and carry out the necessary behaviors) while still attending to the needs and rights of the target

(albeit in a dispassionate manner). This could also occur if the individual is aware of evidence that consideration for the other's outcomes, in addition to one's own, leads to more favorable outcomes for both parties (e.g. Ben-Yoave & Pruitt, 1984a; Pruitt et al., 1983). Actually, according to the literature of Machiavellianism, it would seem that Machiavellians would be less concerned about the other's outcomes. However, they (the Machiavellians) might be more concerned that others *perceive* that they (the targets) have been given a favorable outcome and that their positions have been considered by the Machiavellians. Furthermore, the ability to attend to the target would seem to be essential to support the findings of Grams and Rogers (1990). They found that people high in Machiavellianism frequently appealed to emotions and worked to put their own ideas in the heads of their targets.

A crucial distinction that needs to be made, however, is the interpretation of empathy in this influential context. In reviewing the research, experimenters apparently ascribe a lack of empathy to Machiavellians. According to the definition of empathy and the interpersonal accomplishments of Machiavellians, this seems to be inappropriate. Empathy, as noted previously, involves the understanding of the other's emotions and perspective. Another important aspect of this trait is to convey such an understanding to the other party. It does **not** necessarily imply that one should

alter his/her actions or intentions based upon empathy felt for another person. There does not appear to be any evidence that Machiavellians are blind to or unconcerned with the feelings of their targets. Their interpersonal effectiveness would seem to indicate that they **do** have an understanding of emotions displayed by others but this awareness does not detract from their ability to attend to their own concerns and desires. This distinction appears to become even more evident in Durkin's (1966) theory of encountering. Durkin (1966) focuses on the actual process and not the outcome of interpersonal functioning in differentiating between high and low Machs. This process, which Durkin (1966) terms encountering, is defined as "a process by which we *change* through direct contact with one another" (p. 260;italics added). To actually be emotionally *affected* in such a manner would seem to more closely parallel *sympathy*. Again, a lack of change of goals and/or intentions in light of another's emotions does not indicate a lack of *empathy*. Furthermore, according to Geis and Christie (1970), high Machs actually *appear* more concerned than do low Machs.

It appears that a degree of empathy is necessary to attend to the needs of the target to determine if and how the target needs to be manipulated into accepting the position of a Machiavellian. The Machiavellian would then persuade the target in a fashion that is socially acceptable so that successful negotiation results may be attained. This

contradicts Durkin's (1970) interpretation of evidence purported to show that high Machs do not respond differentially to others. Also, it has been found that Machiavellians are actually more flexible during interactions, particularly when one bargaining tactic is proving to be unsuccessful (Grams & Rogers, 1990). It is the low Machs (in such a situation) who were unable to adapt to resistance and employ an alternate strategy. A possible interpretation of this is that high Machs are able to discern differential behaviors across individuals in order to interact more effectively across situations.

Another construct which could potentially be misinterpreted in this discussion is that of need for approval. It is quite plausible to assume that those adhering to a Machiavellian outlook would have a need for approval because being liked by others would help them to attain their desired goals. Need for approval, however, typically denotes that an individual's self-esteem is directly affected by perceived evaluations. The critical distinction, once again, is that Machiavellians view being liked as a means to an end (e.g. favorable negotiation outcomes). Therefore, Machiavellians may have a *necessity or instrumentality of* approval in that the opinions of others may help Machiavellians to *attain* personal gain. Those with a high *need for* approval need this approval of others because it may directly impact their ability to *gain or*

maintain levels of self-esteem.

It is quite possible, even likely, that each individual has a certain level of each motivation type (i.e. a need for approval and a desire to influence others for personal gain). From the negotiation literature, however, it seems that the more **important** goal (of these two motivation types) for that person when these two goals are conflicting or incompatible will determine the actual exhibition of interpersonal skills.

Furthermore, Kuperminc and Heimberg (1983) found that submissive or nonassertive persons usually expect negative consequences to follow from assertive behavior and expect positive outcomes from compliance with requests. These are the exact opposite expectations for assertive individuals. Assertive individuals expect positive outcomes from assertion and negative outcomes from compliance (Kuperminc & Heimberg, 1983). However, this would appear to be confounded by what each group views as positive and negative outcomes. For instance, what if a positive outcome to nonassertive people is being <u>liked</u> by the target, whereas a positive outcome to assertive individuals is being <u>respected</u> or achieving personal gains? In addition, recall that Gormally (1982) found that nonassertion and assertion are viewed differently according to the target's own individual behavioral style (i.e. assertive versus nonassertive). If being liked and being respected become incompatible in a

situation, which of the two is a positive outcome and which of the two is a negative outcome? That would appear to depend upon the desires of the individual.

From this research, however, it would seem that a nonassertive individual may have the desire to manipulate another individual in a certain situation, but expects to be evaluated negatively if s/he acts in an assertive manner and this expectation may prevent the expression of assertive behavior. In this case, the person may be more concerned with making a favorable impression (e.g. being liked) than with material gain, or influence. As a result, that person may resort to behavior more consistent with a need for approval because such a reward is more valuable to that individual. However, it is also possible that an individual would want to manipulate another but would not know which behaviors are the most appropriate to achieve the desired outcome.

I should note when one uses interpersonal skills, s/he does not necessarily have a single intended goal (e.g. being liked by other people). It appears that interpersonal skills can also include gaining influence or power **while** gaining the approval and respect of others (when possible) because interpersonal skills not only address achieving one's goals but behaving in a socially appropriate manner as well. As mentioned previously, the difference may lie in the assertive nature of the target (Gormally, 1982). Each

individual will have his/her own levels of each motivation to determine which outcome is most highly valued to determine the 'appropriate' course of action in each situation. For instance, in some cases, one may have to weigh the cost of losing favor with others against the benefit of gaining personal rewards (or vice versa).

Another influence of motivation could be within the concept of social facilitation. This addresses how individuals respond behaviorally when they feel that they are being evaluated. Therefore, as will be discussed below, one's need for approval could have effects that are equal in strength to but opposite in direction from another's Machiavellian motivation in some situations.

SOCIAL FACILITATION

Social facilitation, which involves the performance of a task while in the presence of others, often facilitates task mastery in some instances while inhibiting task behavior in others. Several explanations for the effect of others on individual behavior. Below, I will describe several of these explanations, including the "mere presence" theory, evaluation apprehension, self-awareness, and self-presentation.

Zajonc (1965) analyzed this phenomenon and explained these occurrences through a drive theory. He proposed that an arousal effect occurs when others are present and leads

to a drive. This drive motivates the individual to improve performance. Zajonc further incorporated the Hull-Spence equation to explain how drive and habit strength for a response interact to determine the likelihood of a response. Thus, from the equation, E(response tendency) = D(drive) X H(habit strength) combined with arousal, Zajonc concluded that the presence of others enhances performance given that the task is easy or familiar while debilitation of performance occurs when the task is novel or difficult. Zajonc also purported that this effect could be seen as a result of the "mere" presence of others, which incited controversy among researchers and resulted in several attempts to disprove this notion as well as several alternative explanations.

The hypothesis that the presence of others induces social facilitation only when the "others" are in some way evaluating the behavior of the target and/or have the authority to provide or deny rewards for such behavior was introduced by Cottrell et al. (1968). Other researchers (e.g. Henchy & Glass, 1968; Sasfy & Okun, 1974) have also supported this finding where audiences that evaluate (or are perceived to evaluate) are more effective at inducing arousal than are those where no perception of evaluation is present.

Cottrell (1972) proposed that this effect occurs because the evaluation and potential negative or positive outcomes

from this evaluation increases arousal. This is seen by Cottrell as a learned drive which becomes an incentive to improve performance. The increased incentive should influence behavior so as to be affected by the social facilitation phenomenon.

Implicit in social facilitation theory, is that its effect on behavior is situation specific. An individual's anxiety level may fluctuate from instance to instance (depending on the behavior and its context), which may be influenced by evaluation apprehension (e.g. Berkey & Hoppe, 1972). Therefore, an individual's behavior may not be predictable, with respect to social facilitation, across situations. This is further affected by the perceived outcome of the situation. It has been found that evaluation apprehension is prominent only where to potential outcome is expected to be negative (cf. Weiss & Miller, 1971). Studies by Geen and his students (Geen, 1976b, 1977, 1988) show that when performance is observed solely for the purpose of giving feedback on how to better perform the task, the level of apprehension decreases.

In a coaction setting, where others are simultaneously performing the same task, the individual may feel a need to compete (Cottrell, 1972; Geen, 1980a). A feeling of failure may result by not performing up to the standards set by others present who are also performing the task. Thus, a fear of evaluation by coacters who outperform the target may

cause the target to exert greater effort to match that of the others.

The presence of the experimenter in such studies can also produce the coaction effect (Geen, 1980a). This may be due to the fact that the experimenter controls the distribution of rewards which leads to competition among the study's participants. Geen, Thomas, and Gammill (1988) found that the presence of the experimenter caused greater evaluation apprehension for the coacters than did the coacters for each other.

Self-awareness, as an explanation of social facilitation proposed by Duval and Wicklund (1972), is seen as a state where an individual compares one's current behavior to one's ideal behavior. When there is a discrepancy between these two perceived behaviors, the individual acts so as to decrease or minimize this discrepancy. This elicits a greater motivation within the individual to improve performance on the task.

Carver and Scheier (1981a, 1981b) provide an additional theory to explain inhibition of performance in the self-awareness condition. They believe that the task given in an experiment indicates which behaviors are appropriate and the individual then attempts to stay "in line" with those behaviors. If the actual performance is significantly different from the ideal behavior, attempts will again be made to eliminate this discrepancy. However, if the

individual believes that s/he cannot perform the necessary or appropriate behaviors, performance will suffer.

Another explanation for the effect the presence of others has on individual behavior is that of self-presentation. Schlenker (1980) put forth the premise that individuals, in most instances, are concerned with making a positive impression. Therefore, the individual wants to prevent personal embarrassment among others by improving performance. Several studies have supported this premise (e.g. Bond, 1982; Strube, Miles, & Finch, 1981) showing that individuals (when being observed by others) make direct attempts to improve performance so as to give a favorable impression of his/her behavior to the observer.

Although the concept of social facilitation is typically applied to tasks that are psychomotor in nature, there is a possibility that these effects could also be observed in interpersonal situations. Social facilitation has previously been addressed in terms of individual motivation to be viewed positively by others. Durkin (1970) as well as Geis and Christie (1970), attempted to incorporate the concept of social facilitation to explain the differences between high and low Machs, although none performed actual investigations to test such a relationship. Nonetheless, they suggested that while social facilitation inhibits or detracts from individual performance for low Machs, high Machs, on the other hand, are not affected by an audience. However, they

all seemed to concentrate only on the inhibition that is possibly caused by social facilitation. Apparently, they ignored Zajonc's proposition that social facilitation also *enhances* the performance of well-learned tasks. If Zajonc (1965) is correct, then an evaluative audience or increased rewards should result in a difference between high and low Machs for two reasons. The first reason is that low Machs will perform lower on tasks in such situations. In addition, this discrepancy should be intensified not because the low Machs perform worse while high Machs are unaffected. Rather, there should be an increased difference because not only would the low Machs perform worse, but the high Machs would perform *better* when there exists such an audience or when the rewards are of greater value. The possibility that this motivation could also play a role in how individuals interact with others as well as with psychomotor tasks will be addressed within the context of determinants of interpersonal skill. This should function to further elaborate upon conditions where one's motivation to behave in an interpersonally effective manner can influence the process of the interaction itself.

MAJOR DETERMINANTS OF INTERPERSONAL SKILL

As far as the personal variables which influence the display of interpersonal skill are concerned, two major theories are considered. The first explains the

demonstration of interpersonal skills, or lack thereof as a function of individual anxiety (Goffman, 1959). McFall and Twentyman (1973), in contrast, suggest that individuals who do not display adequate interpersonal skills simply do not have the knowledge of the appropriate skill and thus, inherently, are unable to perform them. Each position will be addressed.

Goffman's anxiety theory. According to Goffman (1959), individuals may wish to appear favorably to others but anticipate that their attempt will result in failure and thus embarrassment. These individuals may then experience an increase in expectancy that future attempts will be negative as well. This begins a cycle where a negative performance leads to the expectation of future negative performance. This expectation of future negative performance affects behavior so that actual performance is indeed hampered through the anxiety caused by expected negative outcomes.

This perspective relates to several aspects of social facilitation described above. For instance, one's desire to gain approval may lead to anxiety and increased anxiety may block the acquisition of interpersonal knowledge or the display of interpersonally skilled behavior. In addition, the desire the present a favorable self to others is related to Schlenker's (1980) belief that we are concerned with how others view us. This leads to increased motivation to behave in a manner that would result in a favorable impression.

During negotiation, such a motivation may interfere with obtaining desirable material or situational outcomes.

The same can be said for the threat of evaluation during the interpersonal interaction process. The person towards whom one's behavior is directed (the target) becomes the controller of the rewards that are desired by the individual (e.g. a smile, a liking by the target, negotiation gains). Thus, behavior is aimed at impressing the other person to gain such rewards. If the individual feels that her/his behavior is not leading to such rewards, then attempts will be made to improve behavior so that the desired behavior from the other person will be attained.

Furthermore, self-awareness may also come into play in that the individual may notice the discrepancy between the behavior being displayed and the ideal behavior s/he wishes to display. This perceived discrepancy between ideal and actual behavior (as well as ideal and actual behavior to be elicited from the target) may lead to a greater anxiety and a decrease in effective behavior if the person is not interpersonally skilled. This could also help to explain why individuals adversely affected by social facilitation are unable to adapt and adjust to diverse responses from individuals during interpersonal situations.

The previously given literature shows that anxious individuals are often concerned with self-presentation, may be unable to take the perspective of the other person and

lack the empathy necessary for effective interpersonal communication. This state may be escalated in certain situations such as negotiation where a degree of assertion is required to attain desirable outcomes. Furthermore, social misperception brought about by this anxiety may also lead to detrimental or less favorable results.

McFall and Twentyman's knowledge-based theory. The explanation offered by McFall and Twentyman (1973), however, takes a different perspective. They believe that those individuals who do not display adequate interpersonal skills lack the knowledge of such skills which would enable them to do so. It is this lack of knowledge or underexposure to interpersonal situations which may lead to anxiety in performing such behaviors. Thus, this cycle stems from lack of knowledge which may lead to anxiety, whereas Goff (1959) believes that the knowledge is in the individual's repertoire but anxiety prevents him/her from displaying it. However, implicit in the theory by McFall & Twentyman (1973) is that the lack of knowledge prevents appropriate interpersonal behavior independently of the anxiety of the individual and that the anxiety may only intensify the inhibition of appropriate behavior.

The anxiety-based theory of Goffman (1959) and the knowledge-based theory of McFall & Twentyman (1973) leave several questions. How are interpersonal skills acquired if lack of exposure leads to further anxiety? Many situations

faced are novel at one time or another and supposedly we learn to adjust to these situations. But if anxiety prevents acquisition of knowledge, how does one ever become socially adroit? Shouldn't we all then be socially inept? However, research has shown that there are individual differences in the display of interpersonal skills. This is where I believe type of motivation comes into play.

Individuals who may be anxious due to a high need for approval (or other situations) fit nicely into not only the knowledge-based theory of McFall and Twentyman (1973), but into the Goffman's (1959) anxiety-based theory as well. Anxiety has been shown to be detrimental to the acquisition and inhibit the expression of interpersonally skilled behaviors. It seems unlikely (according to the literature) that interpersonally skilled behavior will typically be displayed if an individual is experiencing a high level of anxiety.

What these theories do not address, however, is a situation where anxiety is not an issue. For instance, what occurs when the situation is no longer novel or when need for approval is not a motive? According to Goffman (1959), everyone has the necessary knowledge of appropriate behavior and should be able to execute these behaviors. However, while sympathy for others (for instance) may lead to more appropriate behaviors, it does not ensure that an individual with such a motive will display the behaviors necessary to

accomplish predetermined objectives (as in negotiation). Such efforts may be hindered by this concern for the other person and thus subject to a feeling of obligation to help this person or prevent harm. In such an instance, attempts to attain personal goals may be preceded by attempts to appease the other individual. Therefore, individual goals may not be attained. McFall and Twentyman (1973) also do not address this issue. According to their theory, those who do not display interpersonally skilled behavior do not have the necessary knowledge to display this behavior. However, in the instance above, the individual may indeed possess such knowledge but choose not to exert influence in favor of attending to the other's needs.

Finally, how would these theories explain the following instance? What occurs if an individual does not have a high need for approval? How would one account for this individual who does not display interpersonally skilled behavior? Again, Goff (1959) could offer no explanation because according to his theory it is anxiety that inhibits the expression of knowledge that we all have. McFall and Twentyman (1973) would offer that this individual does not possess the necessary knowledge. However, this individual could possess such knowledge but not anticipate any personal gains from acting in an interpersonally skilled manner. In such an instance, knowledge of appropriate behavior could have been masked by lack of adequate motivation.

CONCLUSIONS

The literature on interpersonal skills and the display of these skills shows a severe lack of consensus with respect to a definition of interpersonal skills and the components which comprise this construct. Therefore, I feel that the most beneficial model for each skill needs to be determined in order to obtain a better understanding of these skills and conduct adequate research. The two major theories offered at this point, the anxiety-based approach of Goffman (1959) and the knowledge-based approach of McFall and Twentyman (1973), both provide quite useful insight into explaining underlying dimensions that may affect interpersonally skilled behavior. However, each taken individually is incomplete and inadequate.

Based on the literature of anxiety, assertion, negotiation and motivation, it appears that the display of interpersonally skilled behavior relies on more than anxiety and knowledge of appropriate behavior. It seems that exactly what an individual hopes to accomplish through interpersonal interaction may help to determine which course of action to pursue in order to bring about that intended result. Contrasting motivations (need for approval versus desire to influence another, for example), perhaps can prevent or promote the display of interpersonally skilled behavior such as assertion, while the prevalence of a particular motivation (e.g. need for approval) could result in

affective states (e.g. anxiety) that could, in turn, possibly not only prevent the display of assertive behavior but the acquisition of the appropriate knowledge of how and when to display such behavior.

More specifically, it appears that **two** models are necessary to explain interpersonal skills. One model may be necessary to explain individual differences in the **acquisition** of interpersonal skill knowledge and another model may be required to account for the **display** of interpersonally skilled behavior.

From the literature, it seems that one's motivation will serve to help or hinder the acquisition of knowledge of appropriate behavior. It also appears that possession of such knowledge is critical not only to the display of interpersonally skilled behavior, but to the acquisition of additional knowledge as well. A high need for approval may lead to increased fear of negative evaluation and anxiety which can prevent an individual from obtaining such knowledge of appropriate behaviors necessary to achieve certain goals (particularly goals where assertion is required). Thus, in such situations, this subsequent lack of knowledge may cause this cycle of anxiety to continue which further prevents the acquisition of knowledge. A desire to manipulate others, on the other hand, may be a more impersonal motivation which serves to diminish possible debilitating anxiety. However, it would appear that with

regard to acquisition of interpersonal skills the poor stay poor (i.e. those who are anxious due to lack of knowledge are unable to obtain such knowledge) and the rich get richer (i.e. those who are not anxious and have the appropriate knowledge are able to acquire more knowledge).

Motivation would come into play once again in a second model, when overt behavior is actually performed. If an individual with a high need for approval also experiences anxiety, but also has a desire to influence a person in a certain situation, the need for approval may prevent the expression of assertive behavior (even if the individual does possess the adequate knowledge). Conversely, the desire to manipulate others would not present such obstacles. However, assertive behavior may not be displayed if the individual does not value any possible consequence of manipulating a person in a given situation.

At this point, it is not feasible to examine the acquisition of actual interpersonal knowledge. This is a longitudinal process which cannot be measured in a laboratory study. The study of acquisition of knowledge would involve determining if a lack of knowledge caused anxiety or if anxiety prevented knowledge acquisition or if this relationship was cyclical in nature, one constantly affecting the other. Furthermore, the acquisition of knowledge is a process which can occur over an extended period of time and is not directly observable. However, it

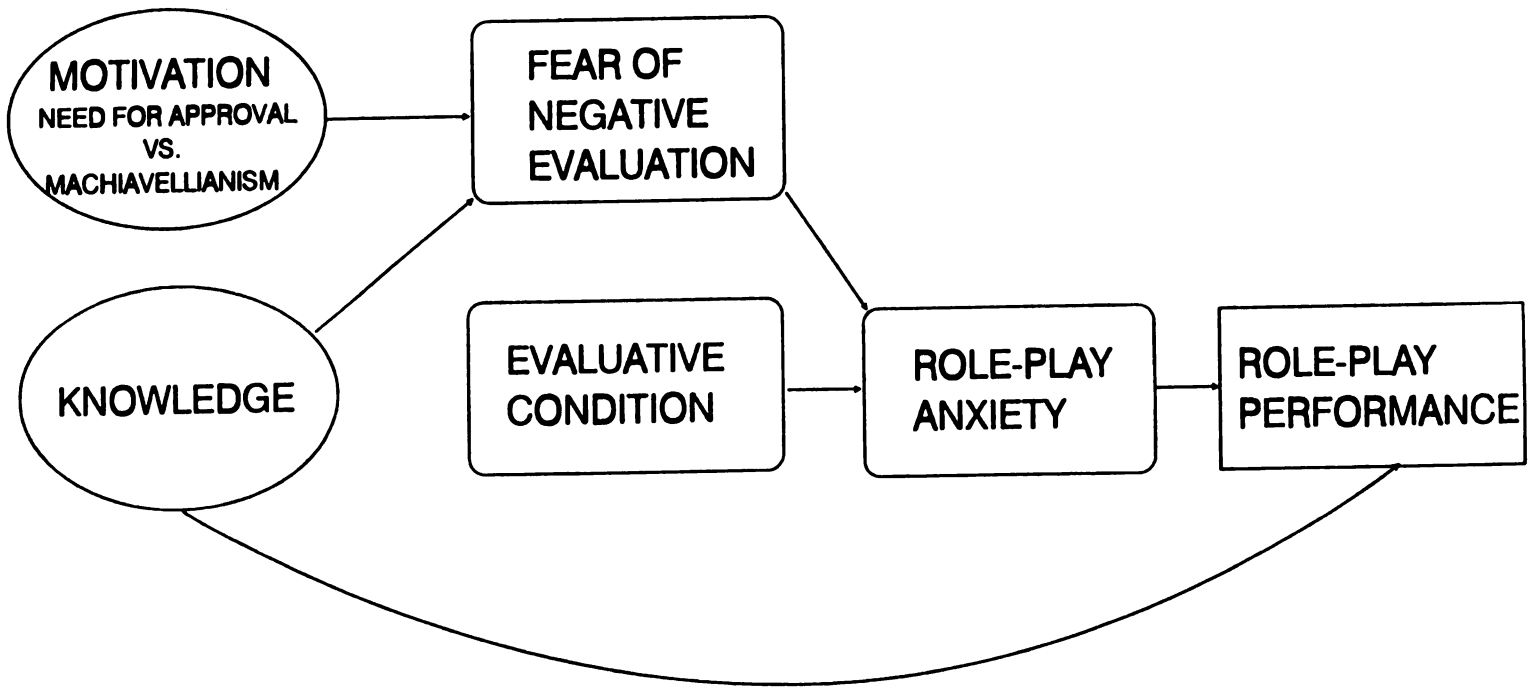
is possible to examine the hypothesized underlying factors which may influence the *exhibition of* such knowledge *through observable behavior* in certain situations. Therefore, based upon the literature and the possibilities it presents, the following model is offered. The model (illustrated in Figure 1) begins with one's level of actual knowledge of appropriate behavior. [Although a model of knowledge acquisition is not offered here, it is a safe assumption that the endpoint of such a model would be attained knowledge. Therefore, it seems to be an appropriate place to begin *this* model which describes how one acts upon such knowledge. To offer constructs that would occur prior to or influence the acquisition of knowledge would confound acquisition and display, two processes which this study intends to keep separate.]

Due to the vast number of behaviors that can be considered interpersonal in nature, a more precise definition of knowledge and appropriate behavior needs to be offered. Therefore, in this study, inadequate knowledge will refer to the state of being incognizant of assertive behaviors and the effectiveness of assertive behavior. Likewise, adequate knowledge will refer to knowledge of assertion and the effectiveness of assertive behavior. This will provide the distinction between ineffective (nonassertive) and effective (assertive) behavior.

The knowledge of appropriate behavior would influence

FIGURE 1

HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERPERSONAL SKILLS KNOWLEDGE, MOTIVATION, FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION, EVALUATION, ROLE-PLAY ANXIETY AND ROLE-PLAY PERFORMANCE



fear of negative evalution in such a fashion that the lack of knowledge would increase this fear because individuals may anticipate negative evaluation from one's peers (Goffman, 1959). As stated previously, nonassertive individuals believe that assertive behavior will be viewed negatively and will lead to negative consequences. This should contribute to the fear of negative evaluation trait because these individuals would typically anticipate or make conscious attempts to avoid meeting with disapproval by not exhibiting assertion and these individuals may become overly concerned that their behavior will be viewed unfavorably by others. Conversely, possession of such knowledge should help to prevent this fear of negative evaluation from developing because such knowledge should provide an individual with confidence that one can behave appropriately given a certain situation. These assertive individuals may also believe that their behavior will lead to positive outcomes and actually be viewed favorably by those with whom they interact.

This is not to say that only one's level of assertion can contribute to one's fear of negative evaluation. Fear of negative evaluation is a general trait where individuals are concerned with being judged by others. Believing that one may behave inappropriately and thus regarded poorly by others can be a belief that one holds across situations.

However, fear of negative evaluation may also be influenced by type of motivation. For instance, an

individual who lacks adequate knowledge *and* has a high need for approval should have a higher fear of negative evaluation than an individual who lacks adequate knowledge but does *not* seek approval from others. In addition, an individual who possesses adequate knowledge and does not seek approval from others should have less fear of negative evaluation than an individual who possesses adequate knowledge but *also* has a high need for approval. Likewise, individuals possessing adequate knowledge and high in Machiavellianism, indicating that one's priority is to attain benefits for one's self (and not approval from others) should experience less fear of negative evaluation than those lacking adequate knowledge and/or low on Machiavellianism. Thus, it seems that those who wish to attain benefits for one's self (and not approval from others) should experience less fear of negative evaluation than those lacking adequate knowledge and/or low on Machiavellianism.

The next link in this model is that of fear of negative evaluation and evaluative demands. It is quite possible that the trait of fear of negative evaluation becomes more apparent and observable in anxiety situations. However, this fear may not be apparent if an individual does not sense that anyone is forming an opinion about him/her.

This leads to the next link in this model where fear of negative evaluation becomes apparent through anxiety which

is induced by an evaluative situation and then the behavioral dispositions associated with such a state can be observed. In support of this notion, it has been suggested that accurate social perception is an important ability for effective interpersonal interaction (Morrison & Bellack, 1981), and anxiety may lead to social *mis*perception which would be detrimental to such interaction. In such an instance, knowledge of appropriate behavior would be masked because an individual burdened with anxiety would be responding to inappropriate (or nonexistent) cues and would, in turn, be oblivious to or less cognizant of the cues and behaviors actually displayed by his/her interaction partner. Thus, to an extent, fear of negative evaluation and its subsequent anxiety would prevent the display of appropriate knowledge even though such knowledge could be in the individual's repertoire. In addition, anxiety may lead to unassertive behavior (Kumar, 1989) which in situations such as negotiation would be *in*effective (Bartos, 1974; Benton et al., 1972; Hamner, 1974; Harnett & Vinclette, 1978).

Furthermore, an important aspect of social interaction and negotiation is accurate listening (e.g. Filley, 1975; R. Fisher & Ury, 1981). Such listening is less likely to be achieved by anxious individuals because they typically cannot encode conversations in a rich or detailed manner (Bond & Omar, 1990). In addition, insecure people (also characterized by a high fear of negative evaluation) are

also likely to be anxious because they are characterized by seeking reassurance or evaluation by others (e.g. Marlowe & Crowne, 1964). Wicklund and Braun (1990) found that these individuals, too, rate contradictory information as more consistent than do their secure counterparts. It would follow, then, that inaccurate encoding of behavior would less likely result in appropriate *responses* than would *accurate* encoding. In other words, individuals who are less anxious can encode the behavior of others more accurately and thus should have the capacity to respond to others in a more appropriate manner than would individuals experiencing high levels of anxiety.

Finally, at this point, the display of several behaviors may be affected which could indicate anxiety or a fear of negative evaluation (e.g. fidgeting and voice trembling, Shapiro, 1968; lack of eye contact, Kolotkin et al., 1983). In addition, this fear of negative evaluation could prevent the display of behaviors that are considered to be characteristic of assertive behavior such as use of gestures and voice inflection (Rose & Tryon, 1979). In accordance with the behaviors previously examined in the literature of assertiveness, the behaviors of interest in the study will consist of three categories which are verbal behavior, nonverbal behavior and context of conversation (see rating scales, Appendices M, N and O for specific behaviors and previous discussion of assertiveness for how these behaviors

relate to use of assertion).

Therefore, while it has been well documented in the literature that individuals that score high on the trait of Machiavellianism outperform low scorers on the same trait in loosely structured situations (e.g. Kosa, 1961; Budner, 1962; Geis, 1970), it needs to be further examined if the hypothesized effects of fear of negative evaluation (and its possible causes) are present. In previous studies, the effects of anxiety have been assumed to be present as indicated by self-report measures. This study, however, seeks to examine subjects in a high-evaluative and a low-evaluative situation to determine the extent to which fear of negative evaluation (clustered with its possibly related constructs of motivation, evaluative demands and social facilitation) can differentiate between two types of situations where actual behavior is observed. Therefore, at the conclusion of this study it is anticipated that there will exist further insight as to if and how fear of negative evaluation and hypothesized related variables (i.e. motivation, evaluative demands, and knowledge of appropriate behavior) inhibit or enhance the display of interpersonal skills. In particular, however, the interpersonal skill of assertion in a negotiation situation is of interest.

The interpersonal skill of assertion is of particular interest because there are certain observable behaviors that are believed to differentiate between assertive and

nonassertive behavior. In addition, assertion incorporates the interpersonal skill dimensions of role-taking and empathy because it involves recognizing and acknowledging the rights of others. The interpersonal skill dimension of social misperception is also viewed as affecting responses in assertion situations. Situations where assertion is required, such as negotiation, have also been identified as producing anxiety and social misperception.

Negotiation ties in with the use of assertion because negotiation presents a situation where assertion is required to act in one's own best interest. Therefore, in negotiation situations, the use of assertion can distinguish effective behavior from ineffective behavior. Negotiation also allows a goal to be assigned so that the display of appropriate behavior (i.e. behavior consistent with that particular goal) can be examined. This being the case, the use of assertion can be measured by observing those behaviors associated with assertion and thus indicating the degree to which effective behavior was exhibited.

In summary, a model has been presented which purports that in negotiation situations where behavior is evaluated, a number of factors could impact the behavior which one displays. The first set of hypotheses deals with these factors. For instance, one's level of anxiety could enhance or debilitate the behavior exhibited on all three dimensions of interest in this study (i.e. nonverbal behavior, verbal

behavior and context of conversation). More specifically, high levels of anxiety were expected to lead to impaired display of assertive behavior while low levels of anxiety should allow one to perform appropriate behaviors. As stated in the literature review, heightened levels of anxiety can serve to limit individuals' cognitive capacity to attend to the cues provided by one's role-play partner. Thus, those subjects who were more anxious during the role-play were expected to display fewer assertive behaviors (and more nonassertive behaviors) than those subjects who are not anxious. In addition, fear of negative evaluation could affect the display of behavior, but only through one's level of anxiety. It was expected that only those subjects with a high fear of negative evaluation would be adversely affected by the design of the role-play due to the evaluation component. It was not anticipated that subjects who have a low fear of negative evaluation would be anxious due to the evaluation component of the role-play. This was also the case with the evaluative condition experienced where the high evaluative condition (which involved the presence of the experimenter, enacting the role-play with a negotiation expert and the recording of the role-play and the participant expecting a performance critique immediately afterward) was intended to induce a greater level of anxiety. The low-evaluative condition involved only the recording of the role-play witha partner whom the

participant believed was another subject (as opposed to a confederate). Therefore, as with fear of negative evaluation, condition was expected to impact behavior but only through anxiety. Also, knowledge was presumed to have a direct impact upon behavior because those who are more aware of assertive responses and their effectiveness would be more likely to display assertive behaviors than those who cannot identify assertive responses or believe that they are ineffective. In other words, if two participants differed on knowledge, but not on anxiety, the participant with the higher level of knowledge was expected to display more assertive behaviors than the participant with less knowledge. Therefore, anxiety was not expected to serve as a moderator for this direct link between knowledge and display of assertive behavior. These possibilities are addressed in Hypotheses 1 through 4.

H_1: Level of anxiety will be negatively correlated with all three dimensions of assertive behavior (i.e. nonverbal behavior, verbal behavior and context of conversation).

H_2: Level of anxiety will mediate the relationship between fear of negative evaluation and all three dimensions of assertive behavior.

H_3: Level of anxiety will mediate the relationship between condition and all three dimensions of assertive behavior.

H_4: Knowledge will be positively related with all three dimensions of assertive behavior.

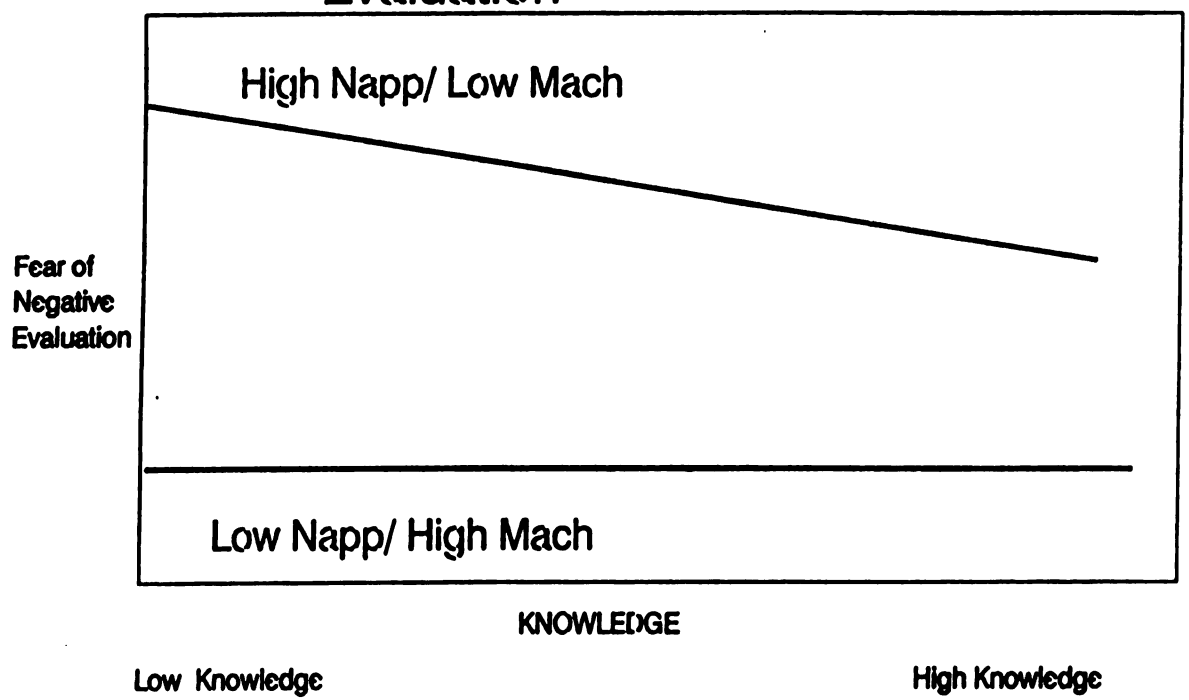
The second set of hypotheses deals with other factors which affect level of anxiety indirectly through fear of negative evaluation. Fear of negative evaluation involves a concern or preoccupation with the opinions of others. Those with a high fear of negative evaluation, while wanting to make a favorable impression, are often overly concerned with the opinions others may be making of them and fear that these opinions may be negative. Individuals low on this trait are not so apprehensive of judgments that others with whom they interact may be forming. Furthermore, they may not anticipate negative evaluations, rather positive ones.

Two factors suspected to influence this fear of negative evaluation were Machiavellianism and need for approval. As stated earlier, these variables were expected to be negatively correlated. Previous research has indicated that these motivations are contrasting in that those with a high need for approval are less willing to obtain personal gains at the expense of viewed unfavorably by others. Those high on Machiavellianism, on the other hand, are less willing to

sacrifice obtaining personal gains in return for being viewed favorably by others. Furthermore, it was expected that those with a high need for approval, because they are concerned with how others view them, would also have a higher fear of negative evaluation. Conversely, those high on the trait of Machiavellianism, because they are more concerned with personal gain than with other individuals, were expected to obtain lower scores on the fear of negative evaluation measure. Moreover, it was anticipated that those with less knowledge of assertive behavior **and** a high need for approval (or low Machiavellianism) would have a high fear of negative evaluation because those who chose nonassertive responses for the situational judgment items may have done so because they fear being viewed negatively and will acquiesce to others to avoid confrontation. However, it was believed that those with a **low** need for approval (or high Machiavellianism), regardless of knowledge would score low on this measure. Therefore, Machiavellianism and need for approval were each expected to interact with knowledge to affect fear of negative evaluation (see Figure 2). In addition, these two variables were hypothesized to affect anxiety through fear of negative evaluation. In addition, although knowledge of assertive behavior was expected to have a direct impact upon display of behavior, it was also expected to affect behavior indirectly through fear of negative evaluation and anxiety. Those with more

FIGURE 2

Expected Interactions for Napp/Mach and Knowledge on Fear of Negative Evaluation



Variable abbreviations: NAPP= Need for Approval; MACH= Machiavellianism

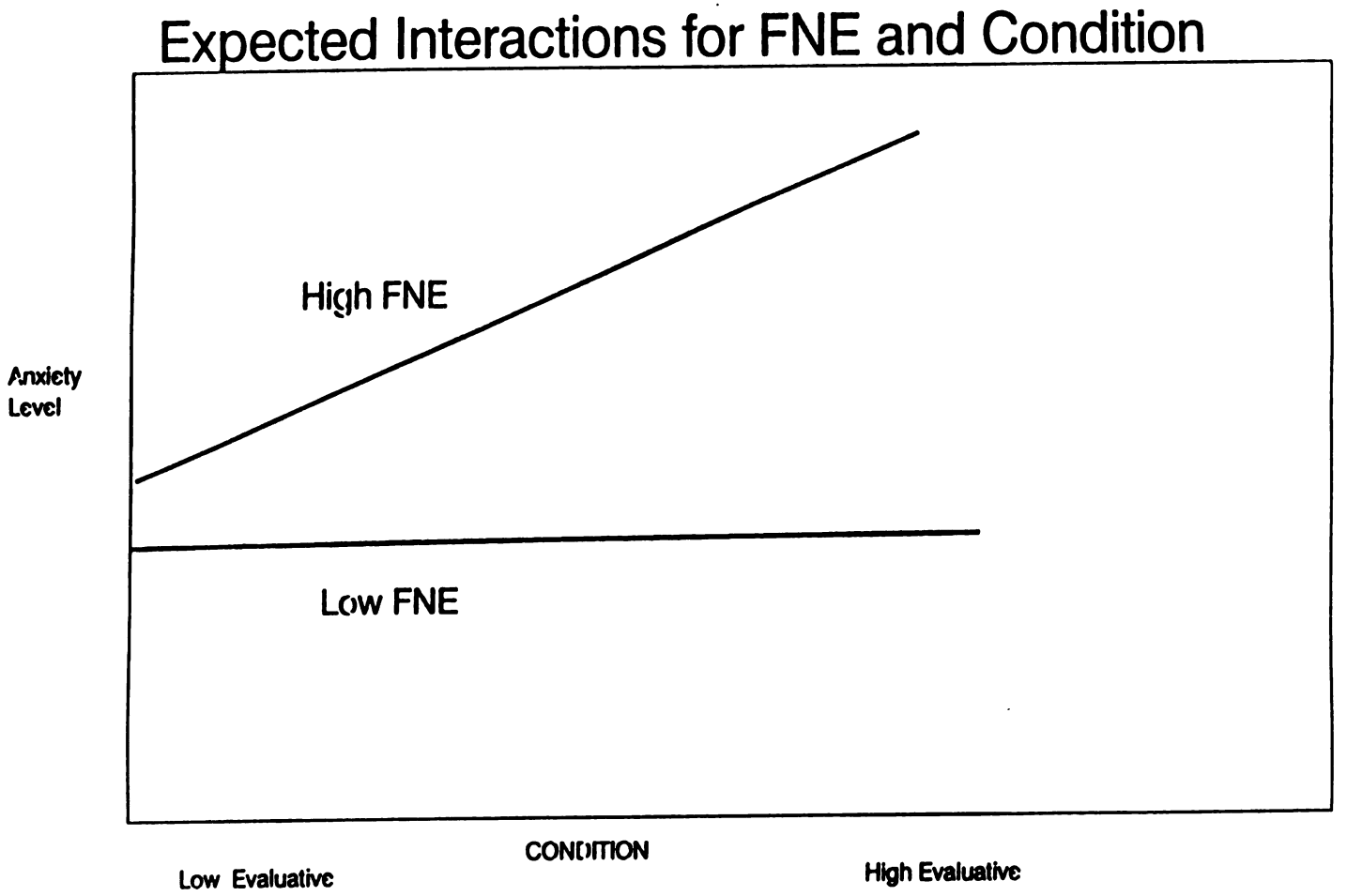
knowledge were expected to have a lower fear of negative evaluation because they are more confident of their ability to exhibit these necessary behaviors effectively during their interactions and less anxious when the display of behavior is required to obtain particular outcomes. On the other hand, those with less knowledge were expected to be less secure when their behavior is being evaluated in an instance where one needs to display appropriate behavior to attain a particular goal because they anticipate being judged poorly. In addition, as stated in the literature review, nonassertive individuals believe that others will react unfavorably to assertive behavior and may feel that the display of assertive behavior would be viewed negatively by others. Therefore, they may fear or anticipate negative evaluation by others if they display such behavior or attempt to display such behavior and fail. This was expected to lead to experienced anxiety in a situation where assertive behavior was necessary to attain positive outcomes. Thus, primarily, knowledge was expected to affect anxiety through fear of negative evaluation. Next, knowledge was expected to affect actual behavior through its relationship with anxiety. Moreover, fear of negative evaluation and condition were each anticipated to impact anxiety level. Those with a high fear of negative evaluation were presumed to experience greater anxiety than those with a low fear of negative evaluation because they are more

concerned with the impressions others are forming of them. In addition, it was expected that subjects would experience more anxiety during the high-evaluative condition due to the obvious evaluation component present in the manipulation. Finally, it was expected that fear of negative evaluation and condition would interact to impact anxiety. That is to say, anxiety would be greater when there is high fear of negative evaluation combined with the high evaluative condition than with any other fear of negative evaluation/condition combination (see Figure 3). It was envisioned that those with a high fear of negative evaluation would be most anxious when evaluation is high. Those with a low fear of negative evaluation would not be greatly affected by the increased presence of evaluation, thus exacerbating the difference in anxiety levels between those with a high fear of negative evaluation and those with a low fear of negative evaluation. These issues are addressed in Hypotheses 5 through 13.

H_5: Machiavellianism and need for approval will be negatively correlated.

H_6: Machiavellianism and need for approval will each interact with knowledge to affect fear of negative evaluation.

Figure 3


Expected Interactions for FNE and Condition
High FNE
Low FNE
Anxiety Level
CONDITION
Low Evaluative
High Evaluative

H_7: Fear of negative evaluation will mediate the relationship between Machiavellianism and anxiety.

H_8: Fear of negative evaluation will mediate the relationship between need for approval and anxiety.

H_9: Fear of negative evaluation will mediate the relationship between knowledge and anxiety.

H_{10}: Knowledge will affect behavior through fear of negative evaluation and anxiety.

H_{11}: Fear of negative evaluation will be negatively correlated with anxiety.

H_{12}: Evaluative condition will be positively correlated with anxiety.

H_{13}: Fear of negative evaluation and condition will interact to affect anxiety.

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects were 132 undergraduate psychology students from a large Midwestern university as fulfillment of a class requirement. A total of 123 subjects completed both the paper-and-pencil and scenario phases of the study. However, one subject did not complete the fear of negative evaluation measure. Therefore, analyses involving this scale consist of 122 subjects.

Measures

Among the measures was a series of situational judgment items which evaluated each subject's knowledge of, or ability to recognize, appropriate social behaviors when presented. The situational judgment items were taken from scenarios collected from a job analysis of entry-level investigative agents (for collection procedures, see Tsacoumis et al., 1993). A group of 17 supervisors provided responses to each of the scenarios. A separate group of 34 supervisors (from the same agency) rated these responses to the scenarios and individually chose the best and worst responses. The original scoring for these items was determined through a scoring procedure similar to that

described by Motowildo et al. (1990). (See Schmitt et al., 1994 for detailed description.) For the current study, however, to prevent an increased likelihood of either assertive or nonassertive responses, it was desired that only one "correct" (assertive) and "incorrect" (nonassertive) response was provided for each item. Some responses were then neither correct nor incorrect had a neutral value, whereas correct and incorrect responses were given values of +1 and -1, respectively. In addition, because the purpose of using this measure was to distinguish between assertive and nonassertive behavior, assertive responses were considered correct and nonassertive responses were considered incorrect. The original items are given in Appendix A while the edited items appear in Appendix B. Rationale for any editing of the scenarios, response options and scoring is indicated in Appendix C. Because these items had never been used for the purposes of this study, this test was administered to 30 individuals prior to the beginning of the investigation to provide an indication of reliability (alpha coefficient) for this measure. This reliability was .64.

However, because the coding of these items was determined solely by the researcher, the items (and literature concerning assertive and nonassertive behavior) were given to 8 graduate psychology students to help determine assertive and nonassertive responses. In addition,

3 new items were created for the test. Each item where 7 of the 8 students agreed on both the assertive option and the nonassertive options were accepted as written and included in the measure. Items which did not have acceptable agreement were altered and administered to a separate group of 8 graduate psychology students. Items which then had adequate agreement were deemed appropriate for the study and the remaining items were eliminated. The final set of items administered for the study are presented in Appendix D.

The measures also included a battery of personality scales to determine individual motivation for interacting effectively with others. These motivation scales were a Machiavellianism scale (Mach IV; Christie & Geis, 1970; Appendix E; item wording was slightly altered for administration for purposes of gender neutrality) and the Marlowe-Crowne need for approval scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Appendix F). In addition, Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1953; Appendix G; two items referring to biological functions were omitted) was administered to provide a measure of anxiety and was used only for the purposes of screening individuals with abnormal levels of anxiety which could cause elevated degrees of stress. The Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (Watson & Friend, 1969; Appendix H) is designed to tap individuals' concern with being evaluated or judged by other people. High scores on this measure indicate a fear of appearing foolish or meeting

with disapproval. This was given not only for this purpose, but to identify individuals who could have knowledge of interpersonal skills but are less likely to demonstrate them because they are so little concerned with how others judge them. This was also to give an indication of subjects who may be adversely affected by possible social facilitation during the role-play exercises because they are overly concerned with such judgment. In addition, this was intended to help identify those persons who may have had knowledge of interpersonal skills but did not wish to impress or get along with others, and therefore, had no desire to demonstrate these skills. Thus, it should be noted that there was also the possibility that some subjects may have had a different motivation to behave effectively which was not tapped by the study. Due to this possibility, each subject was given a goal commitment questionnaire (Hollenbeck, Klein, O'Leary, & Wright, 1989; presented in Appendix I) with a five-point Likert scale, immediately prior to the enactment of the role-play exercise to determine the acceptance of the goal which was assigned by the experimenter.

For the second phase of this study, a negotiation role-play was developed (Appedix J) and was performed by each subject. Immediately following the role-play, each subject completed a role-play reaction questionnaire for either the high- or low-evaluative condition (Appendices K and L) to

indicate the degree to which the subject was nervous or anxious during the role-play. [Due to the different environmental context for the two conditions, some variation among items was necessary. For the purpose of analyses, only items which the two measures have in common were used for the primary analyses. Also, for data analyses, condition was coded '0' for the low-evaluative condition and '1' for the high-evaluative condition. The two complete scales were used for post hoc analyses.]

The performance was rated by two judges (one of whom was the principal investigator). Drawing on the literature of assertion and interpersonal skills, rating scales (Appendices M through O) were developed to evaluate each subject's exhibition during the role-play exercises on the dimensions of non-verbal behavior, verbal behavior and context of conversation. More specifically, behaviors which have been previously researched and identified within these dimensions were examined. To assess non-verbal behavior, the behaviors of increased gestures (Rose & Tryon, 1979), eye contact (Kolotkin et al., 1983), and fidgeting (Shapiro, 1968) were observed. Verbal behavior was assessed through the evaluation of voice trembling (Shapiro, 1968), speaking clearly with no dramatic changes in voice tone (Baldwin, 1992), as well as voice inflection and lapse time before responses (Rose & Tryon, 1979). Finally, context of conversation was evaluated on the criteria of expressed

empathy (Galassi et al., 1981), use of 'I' statements (Kolotkin et al., 1983), as well as Baldwin's (1992) dimensions of checking for closure and persistence in one's request (which was measured by how many attempts the subject makes to increase his/her outcome).

Because interpersonal skills is viewed as a multi-dimensional construct, it was desired that relationships be found for separate dimensions. These distinctions would be of greater assistance to the existing literature because the general construct of interpersonal skills is not currently well-defined. Therefore, although highly inter-correlated, each of these behaviors were measured separately.

There was also an additional performance dimension (for which there are no hypotheses), the overall rating (Appendix P). The overall rating, however, was not simply an average of the three ratings of interest. It was not scored in this fashion because while one could display nonverbal behaviors (e.g. eye contact, hand gestures) as well as effective verbal behaviors (e.g. speaking in a clear tone, using voice inflection), a participant's overall negotiation strategy could prove ineffective if not accompanied by appropriate context of conversation (e.g. persuasive arguments, expressions of empathy or expressions of one's own feelings). Thus, the overall rating was designed to be mostly determined by the context of conversation dimension rating and less determined by verbal and nonverbal behavior.

Therefore, taking an average of the three ratings would not necessarily be representative of a participant's negotiation success because these averages could be inflated simply due to increased hand gestures, eye contact and voice inflection. However, according to the negotiation literature, these behaviors must be accompanied by empathy statements and expression of one's own feelings in order to be effective in a negotiation situation. As stated above, the overall rating was simply to provide an indication of overall success in the role-play, not just a compilation of assertive behaviors which were displayed. To account for this, the overall rating also used a behaviorally anchored rating scale which focused upon the use of assertive behavior *and* outcomes of negotiation.

This score reflects the overall effectiveness of one's negotiation strategy, including the starting salary that the subject obtained at the conclusion of the role-play. The increases in salary were designed to be given in increments of $2000 for every three assertive behaviors displayed by the subject. However, at least one of the three behaviors had to be contextual where the subject used an 'I' statement, expressed empathy, etc. Any combination of three behaviors which included an assertive statement was adequate for a salary increase.

Ratings for video-taped role-play performances were completed and the inter-rater reliabilities were as follows:

nonverbal behavior, .66; verbal, .76; context of conversation, .84; and overall rating, .87. For any rating where there was a discrepancy of more than one point, the two raters viewed the video performance again and came to a mutual agreement. Therefore, although the original inter-rater reliabilities for nonverbal and verbal behavior were not as high as desired, the divergence was minimized by re-evaluating the performances and using the agreed upon score for analyses. For ratings where the difference was only one point, the average between the two ratings were used (e.g. two ratings of a four and a five became 4.5).

It was found that, as designed, the overall rating was mostly determined by contextual factors of the role-play performance. Not only did context of conversation have the strongest correlation with the overall performance compared to the other behavioral dimensions, as shown in Table 2, regression analyses show that it had the strongest predictive value for the overall performance rating. With all three behavioral dimensions entered into the regression equation for overall performance, only context of conversation received a significant beta weight. The beta weight for context of conversation was .85 ($p < .001$) while nonverbal and verbal behavior recieved beta weights of .08 and .06, respectively (both nonsignificant at $p < .05$).

These correlations and regression analyses provide additional validity to the ratings. Furthermore, as

indicated in Table 2, the final salary obtained by the subjects was significantly correlated with all of the

Table 2

VARIABLE[1] CORRELATIONS AND RELIABILITIES

	KNOW	NAPP	MACH	FNE	COND	ANX	NV	VB	CONT	OVER
KNOW	(.41)									
NAPP	.00	(.78)								
MACH	.05	-.48***	(.65)							
FNE	-.23**	-.25**	.07	(.89)						
COND	.05	.04	-.06	-.05						
ANX	.17	-.04	-.07	.18*	.20*					
NV	-.12	.10	-.04	-.20*	-.12	-.23**				
VB	.05	.09	.02	-.22*	-.14	-.26**	.76***			
CONT	-.05	-.06	.07	-.09	-.28***	-.12	.57***	.64***		
OVER	-.05	-.10	.07	-.05	-.22**	-.15	.60***	.67***	.94***	
SAL	-.05	-.12	.07	-.03	-.41**	-.34***	.28***	.31***	.49***	.54***

* p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001

[1] Variable abbreviations: KNOW = Knowledge; NAPP = Need for approval; MACH = Machiavellianism; FNE = Fear of negative evaluation; COND = Evaluative condition; ANX = Anxiety; NV = Nonverbal behavior; VB = Verbal behavior; CONT = Context of conversation; OVER = Overall rating; SAL = Salary

[2] Values in parentheses present scale reliabilities

behavioral measures as well as overall performance. This shows that the assistants, throughout the study, adhered to the instructions regarding when to concede salary raises to the participants.

To give an indication of what the subject was trying to accomplish during the role-play, standard questions [(1) "Did you understand the facts of the scenario?" and (2) "Did you understand your objective in the scenario?"] were asked to ascertain the subject's interpretation of the scenario and the purpose of his/her behavior throughout the scenario. The answers to these questions were relevant in case her/his behavior was contradictory to the experimenter's expectations or interpretations. For instance, if it had been found that a subject had interpreted facts within the scenario differently than intended by the experimenter (e.g. believing that one had to stop negotiation once the minimal salary of forty thousand dollars was offered), that subject's data would have been eliminated from the analysis. However, there were no instances where the behavior of the subject indicated misinterpretation of the facts or goals of the scenario as determined by the experimenter. In addition, no subject expressed confusion following the role-play exercise. The majority of subjects verbalized an understanding of the scenario while the remaining subjects, despite probing, would respond only with a simple "yes" or affirmative comment.

Procedures

The procedures involved a between-subjects design. In the first phase of the study, the subjects were administered the battery of written tests (i.e. situational judgment items, Marlowe-Crowne scale for need for approval, the Mach IV scale, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale). The results from the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale were calculated to identify those subjects who possessed levels of anxiety which may have caused serious discomfort to those individuals during the role-play. However, all subjects scored within the range of the normal population. Therefore, no subjects were eliminated on this basis.

After the first session, when the written tests were administered, there was a second session at a later date where the subjects participated in the role-plays so that their actual behavior in simulated situations could be evaluated. The role-play scenario was pilot tested to determine if the desired effects of increased perceived evaluation were actually obtained. This was done through the role-play reaction questionnaire which asked the subjects to indicate the degree to which the evaluation, coaction and presence of the experimenter caused any anxiety. It was found that 8 of 10 subjects who completed both the situational judgment test and the role-play scenario (in the pilot study) found at least one aspect of the study anxiety

inducing. Also, it was found that 8 minutes was adequate for subjects to complete the negotiation. Therefore, an 8 minute time limit was imposed for the role-play exercise during the actual study.

Participants were randomly assigned to a role-play condition during the paper-and-pencil phase of the actual study. A sign-up sheet with available times was passed around and subjects made an appointment according to their own schedules. The role-play condition and times had been predetermined according to the schedules of the four research assistants. For example, evening hours had been previously assigned to an assistant who enacted only the high-evaluative condition. Therefore, any subject who made an appointment during this time would participate in the high-evaluative condition.

The scenarios themselves were loosely structured. A situation was presented along with a limited number of facts. The subject was told that any information not given left room for 'improvisation'. This was intended to take advantage of findings that Machiavellians typically outperform low Machiavellians in situations that are not well-defined or structured and perform no better than low Machiavellians in less ambiguous situations (e.g. Kosa, 1961; Budner, 1962; Geis, 1970).

The subjects were notified prior to the experiment that monetary awards would be given to the three subjects who

received the highest overall ratings for the role-play exercises as an incentive for those characterized as Machiavellian by the written tests. Therefore, it was expected that they would see the experimenter as one to be manipulated or falsely impressed so that the award could be attained. In addition, the experiment itself may have had a "built-in" motivation. Geis et al. (1970) found that high scorers on a Machiavellianism measure simply enjoy manipulating and/or influencing others more than do low scorers on such a measure. Therefore, it was expected that Machiavellians would be motivated to perform well during these exercises, independently of the monetary award. (However, the monetary award is expected to further increase motivation for these subjects.)

For the actual experiment, in the low-evaluative condition, the subject was seated with an assistant posing as a subject. Each subject was given directions for the role-play and then completed the goal commitment questionnaire. The experimenter ostensibly randomly assigned roles to the subject and confederate. However, the subject was always assigned the role of the job candidate while the confederate was assigned the role of the personnel manager. Both were told that the experimenter would not be present for the role-play, but it would be recorded for future evaluation.

The experimenter assigned each subject the goal of

obtaining the best monetary award possible through negotiation. Therefore, each subject had the same goal which would make the interpretation of behavior possible because we must know the objective of behavior to assign any meaning in terms of interpersonally skilled behavior. Prior to the role-play, each subject (and the confederate) then completed the goal committment questionnaire.

After the role-play was completed, each subject (and the confederate) completed a role-play reaction questionnaire. At this point, the subject was told that his/her role-play partner was, in fact, a research assistant. The subject was then asked the standard questions about his/her role and goal in the scenario and was invited to ask questions. After this debriefing, the participant was dismissed.

The use of a confederate was intended to serve three functions. The first benefit of this approach was that the literature shows that when a subject is performing the same task as is a counterpart, the situation further provokes social facilitation due to the perceived competition. The subject would believe that the subject and confederate would each be evaluated and compared. Therefore, the subject would also believe that s/he must perform better than the confederate to have an opportunity to receive the fifty-dollar award for achieving the highest role-play rating for the study. Second, it would convince the subject that the counterpart also has actual outcomes of the negotiation

(i.e. being rated by the experimenters and an opportunity to gain a monetary award). This should have introduced a decision to be made on the part of the subject. One possible decision would have been to engage in concession behavior toward the confederate so the subject would avoid negative evaluation and be liked by the confederate (need for approval). The other possible decision (of interest in the current study) would have been to show assertion and outperform the confederate (by obtaining as favorable an outcome for his/herself as possible), with disregard to the confederate's opinions of the subject, in hopes of earning the fifty-dollar award (Machiavellianism). The third benefit was to ensure that the counterpart engaged in the typical response behaviors to each negotiation strategy. For instance, lack of assertion is usually exploited by one's negotiation counterpart. According to the literature, less assertive subjects usually receive less favorable outcomes. It would therefore be problematic and less representative of negotiation outcomes if two subjects had each interacted in a nonassertive manner and merely conceded benefits to one another. In such an instance, a subject may have received favorable outcomes through the concessions of one's role-play partner instead of through one's own assertive behavior.

To ensure the fulfillment of this third goal, all research assistants were trained in the three major

negotiation strategies discussed previously as well as in the behaviors associated with each strategy. They also practiced the scenario with the experimenter to gain experience before the actual study began. The assistants were also trained to detect behaviors that the literature identifies as assertive as well as those behaviors deemed as nonassertive.

During the high-evaluative condition, a role-play assistant served as the subject's role-play partner. The participant was told that the assistant had been trained in the skills and behaviors necessary for effective negotiation and was a negotiation skills expert. The experimenter was present and ostensibly taking notes. The subject was told that this performance was being recorded for the purpose of evaluation. The subject was also led to believe that the performance would be critiqued by the assistant and experimenter immediately following the role-play and that the two would offer an opinion concerning the participant's negotiation skills.

According to the literature, obvious evaluation *as well as* the presence of the experimenter each, separately, are sufficient to induce social facilitation. Therefore, with the two combined, the effects of social facilitation should be observable. In addition, the thought of being critiqued afterward was included to further induce anxiety during the performance. Therefore, this condition was expected to be

much more anxiety inducing than was the low-evaluative condition.

It must also be kept in mind that it was not essential in this experiment that anxiety be eliminated in the low-evaluative session. Of particular interest is the **difference** between the two role-play conditions across subjects. For instance, if subjects are anxious in the low-evaluative role-play session, it is expected that subjects will be **more** anxious during the high-evaluative condition, making the relationship stronger. In addition, it was expected that such subjects would receive lower performance ratings than subjects with a lower fear of negative evaluation (as measured by the test battery).

The procedures following the role-plays in the high-evaluative condition were the same as for the low-evaluative where the subject completed the role-play reaction questionnaire, was debriefed, invited to ask questions and then dismissed.

In rating subjects, there was the issue that each of the raters was unaware of the salary increases given to each subject by the confederate. To minimize this potential problem, neither rater (purposefully) took salary increases into account when making the actual ratings on the behavior dimensions. Therefore, in instances where a confederate may have increased the participant's salary before the requisite number of assertive behaviors were displayed, each rater

counted only the number of behaviors, not salary awarded. Because the investigator was present ony for the high-evaluative role-plays, the condition in which each role-play was enacted was also apparent to each rater. Investigator bias was less of a concern, however, because individual scores on the written measures were unknown to all observers. Therefore, a bias to rate a subject overly favorably or unfavorably could have actually led to contradictions to the previously stated hypotheses. For instance, if there had been a severity bias for the high-evaluative condition, this would have served to diminish the hypothesized relationship between fear of negative evaluation and the behavior dimensions (mediated by anxiety). If all participants would have been rated harshly, even subjects who did not express high levels of anxiety would have received poor ratings which would have contradicted the hypothesis that those scoring low on this measure would perform well during the scenario.

However, there were steps taken to minimize bias on the part of the other raters. There was a total of five assistants for this study, two for each condition. There were two and only two assistants who served as confederates for the low-evaluative condition while two and only two assistants served as negotiation experts for the high-evaluative condition throughout the study. Only the fifth assistant (along with the experimenter) rated the subjects.

In addition, this fifth assistant did not help to conduct any of the role-plays. Therefore, the assistant did not evaluate the performance of any subject with whom s/he had enacted the actual role-play exercise. However, all assistants were trained by the experimenter on possible rater biases. They also had the opportunity to practice rating subjects through the video tapes of subjects who participated in the pilot study.

Data Analyses

Hypotheses 1, 11 and 12 were tested through a test of significance for the correlations between level of anxiety (role-play reaction) and behavior ratings. Tests of significance for correlations were also performed to test Hypotheses 4 and 5. In addition, simple regressions were performed where the predictor variable was regressed on the dependent variable.

Hypotheses 2, 3, 7, 8 , 9 and 10 were evaluated by tests of mediation (when correlations revealed the possibilities of such relationships). Here the two predictor variables were entered into the regression equation for the dependent variable, with the mediated variable entered first and then followed by the mediator variable. The significance of the change in R^2 was then observed. This procedure was repeated in the second equation except the mediator variable was entered prior to the mediated variable and the significance

of the R^2 change was observed.

Hypotheses 6 and 13 were tested through regression where each predictor variable was regressed on the dependent variable. Also included in the equation was the interaction component of the two predictor variables and the significance of the change in R^2 was examined for each variable as well as for the interaction compenent of the two variables combined.

RESULTS

Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations for each of the variables in the study. One score of -7 on this measure was eliminated because it was four units away from its nearest score and thus considered an outlier. Therefore, to eliminate possible inflation of the results, this score is eliminated from initial analyses. However, this score was included for post hoc examinations.In addition, there is one missing score for the fear of negative evaluation measure because one subject failed to complete all of the items for the scale.

The reliabilities for the written measures and the correlations among all of the measures are presented in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the reliability for the situational judgment test is exceptionally low (.41). In addition, a factor analysis was performed which yielded a scree plot that indicated that there were two principle factors to describe the data. An additional factor analyses for two factors was then conducted. These two factors, though, explained only 15.3 percent of the variance, combined. However, given the small amount of variance

provided by these factors, it is unlikely that they fit the data particularly well. As evidence of this, the reliabilities for the two subsequent scales were only .34 and .45. In addition, no theoretical connections nor

Table 3
VARIABLE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS[a]
(Total, Low-evaluative Condition, High-Evaluative Condition)

VARIABLE	MEANS		
	Total	Low	High
KNOWLEDGE	3.67	3.32	3.66
	(2.94)	(3.00)	(3.26)
FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION	6.53	6.69	6.24
	(4.74)	(4.67)	(4.69)
MACHIAVELLIANISM	9.45	9.61	9.25
	(3.08)	(3.27)	(2.84)
NEED FOR APPROVAL	14.30	14.02	14.41
	(5.16)	(5.11)	(4.95)
NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR	4.02	4.26	3.95
	(1.26)	(1.20)	(1.39)
VERBAL BEHAVIOR	4.37	4.61	4.24
	(1.31)	(1.35)	(1.29)
CONTEXT OF CONVERSATION	3.10	3.53[b]	2.81[b]
	(1.26)	(1.29)	(1.18)
OVERALL RATING	3.27	3.61[b]	3.07[b]
	(1.21)	(1.18)	(1.22)
ANXIETY (COMPLETE SCALE)	3.15	3.02	3.29
	(.78)	(.82)	(.72)
ANXIETY (SHORT SCALE)	3.26	3.10[c]	3.42[c]
	(.84)	(.87)	(.79)

N= 123, n= 62 (low-evaluative), n=61 (high-evaluative)

[a] Standard deviations in parentheses
[b] Means are significantly different at p< .05
[c] Means are significantly different at p< .01

distinctions could be made for the two scales. An additional possibility which was tested (using visual inspection) was the separation of items which involved situations where the subject was hypothetically interacting with professors or supervisors as opposed to co-workers or classmates. The eight item scale with items involving interactions with professors or supervisors, however, also had a low reliability (.20) as did the four item scale for classmates or co-workers (.35). One item, which involved an interviewee, was not included in either scale. In addition, visual inspection was also employed to separate items on the basis of content. Separate scales were developed for directly work-related items (e.g. "You have been involved in a long project that is rather unique in scope...When your new supervisor begins to interject his ideas and then begins to force you to adopt these suggestions, what do you do?") and for items dealing with personal issues (e.g. "You are advised by a co-worker that your supervisor has been discussing your personal life with other co-workers. What would you do?"). The reliabity of the nine-item scale for work-related situations was .40, which is equavalent to that of the full scale while the reliability of the four item scale for personal situations was only .11.

Also as shown in Table 2, level of anxiety is negatively correlated with two of the three performance dimensions with effects present in the display of subjects' verbal as well

as nonverbal behavior (Hypothesis 1). There was no relationship, however, between anxiety and context of conversation.

It was also found that anxiety fully mediated the relationships between fear of negative evaluation and verbal as well as nonverbal behavior as predicted in Hypotheses 2 and 3. This test involved regression equations for verbal and nonverbal behavior (separate equations) where fear of negative evaluation was entered previously to entering anxiety and then reversing the order in which these variables were entered. The significant change in R^2 when fear of negative evaluation was entered before anxiety but not when it was entered after anxiety indicates that this variable does not account for signficant variance above and beyond that which was accounted for by anxiety (see Tables 4 and 5).

The experimental condition yielded even fewer opportunities to test for mediating effects through anxiety to behavior. The evaluative condition was correlated only with the behavior dimension of context of conversation. Anxiety was not tested for mediation in this relationship because context of conversation and anxiety were not correlated.

The relationships between knowledge and the role-play performance dimensions anticipated in Hypothesis 4 were not found. Knowledge was not correlated with verbal behavior,

Table 4
Anxiety as a Mediator Between Fear of Negative Evaluation and Verbal Behavior (regression analyses)

VARIABLE	Beta	R	R^2	R^2 change
EQUATION 1				
Step 1:				
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.22	.22	.05	.05*
Step 2:				
Anxiety	-.24	.32	.10	.05**
EQUATION2				
Step 1:				
Anxiety	-.27	.27	.07	.07**
Step 2:				
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.17	.32	.10	.03

n= 122

* p< .05
** p< .01

Table 5
Anxiety as a Mediator Between Fear of Negative Evaluation and Nonverbal Behavior (regression analyses)

VARIABLE	Beta	R	R^2	R^2 change
EQUATION 1				
Step 1:				
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.20	.20	.04	.04*
Step 2:				
Anxiety	-.20	.29	.08	.04*
EQUATION2				
Step 1:				
Anxiety	-.23	.23	.06	.06**
Step 2:				
Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.17	.29	.08	.03

n= 122

* p< .05
** p< .01

nonverbal behavior, nor context of conversation.

As hypothesized in Hypothesis 5, Machiavellianism and need for approval were negatively correlated. However, neither of these variables interacted with knowledge to affect fear of negative evaluation (Hypothesis 6). The interaction component of need for approval and knowledge had an R^2 change of only .02 ($p > .05$) for fear of negative evaluation while the R^2 change for the interaction component of Machiavellianism and knowledge was .00 ($p > .05$). Furthermore, their relationships with other variables in the study were contrary to Hypotheses 7 and 8. For instance, Machiavellianism was not related to any other variable including its expected correlations with fear of negative evaluation and anxiety. This precluded the tests of the hypothesized mediated effect of fear of negative evaluation upon the relationship between Machiavellianism and anxiety. In addition, need for approval was negatively correlated with fear of negative evaluation when it was predicted that there would be a positive relationship between the two. Also, need for approval was not correlated with anxiety. As was the case with Machiavellianism, this eliminated the possibility of a mediated effect of fear of negative evaluation upon the relationship between need for approval and anxiety.

Knowledge of assertive behavior was not significantly correlated with role-play reaction. Its correlation was not

significant, which eliminated the possibility that knowledge would impact anxiety through fear of negative evaluation (Hypothesis 9) as well as the possibility that knowledge would affect behavior through fear of negative evaluation and anxiety (Hypothesis 10).

Finally, although fear of negative evaluation and condition were each correlated with anxiety (Hypotheses 11 and 12), regression analyses (Table 6) show that the two did not interact to affect anxiety as predicted in Hypothesis 13.

Table 6
Condition, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Interaction as Predictors of Anxiety (regression analyses)

VARIABLE	Beta	R	R^2	R^2 change
Condition	.20	.20	.04	.04*
Fear of Negative Evaluation	.19	.28	.08	.04*
Condition X Fear of Negative Evaluation	-.16	.29	.08	.007

n= 122

* p< .05
** p< .01

When entered into the regression equation for anxiety, fear of negative evaluation had a change in R^2 of .04 ($p < .05$) and condition also had a change in R^2 of .04 ($p < .05$). The interaction of these two constructs, however, yielded an R^2 change of only .007 ($p > .05$) indicating that it did not account for any additional variance after fear of negative

evaluation and condition were entered.

When post hoc analyses were conducted to examine individual items for the role-play reaction in the high-evaluative condition, it was found that the general questions (e.g. "I was not nervous at all during the role-play" and "Nothing about the role-play itself caused me any anxiety") were not related to subjects' fear of negative evaluation. However, fear of negative evaluation was positively correlated with those items tapping the effects of the particular aspects of the study designed to induce anxiety (i.e. "I was tense during the role-play because I was being video taped" and "The thought of being critiqued at the end of the role-play did not make me nervous"; the second item was reverse coded) with correlations of .21 and .33 ($p < .05$). Therefore, while subjects with a low fear of negative evaluation may have experienced anxiety due to one or more factors not measured by the study (e.g. novelty of the task or unfamiliar setting), subjects with a high fear of negative evaluation experienced anxiety due to the evaluation components (i.e. being video taped and/or critiqued) designed to induce anxiety. This provides further evidence that the manipulation was effective because those subjects with a high fear of negative evaluation were adversely affected by the evaluative components of the design.

Furthermore, when the outlier score which was eliminated

for initial analyses was included, it was found that knowledge did significantly impact role-play reaction with an R^2 change of .04 ($p < .05$). In addition, fear of negative evaluation also served as a mediator for this relationship. This procedure was similar to the analyses outlined above testing anxiety as a mediating variable. Knowledge was entered into the regression equation separately and then entered after fear of negative evaluation. When fear of negative evaluation was entered before knowledge, fear of negative evaluation yielded an R^2 change of .06 ($p < .01$). However, there was then an R^2 change of only .02 ($p > .05$) for knowledge of assertive behavior indicating that fear of negative evaluation was able to account for the variance which knowledge of assertive behavior explained. This was the only relationship which was significantly changed by including the outlier in the data analyses.

Also, additional analyses were performed to test possible mediator relationship from fear of negative evaluation to overall performance and salary. However, the correlations for these relationships were -.06 and -.03, respectively, and not significant at $p < .05$, eliminating the possibility of such mediated relationships between the variables.

Post hoc analyses were also performed to examine possible interaction effects for need for approval and fear of negative evaluation on anxiety (Table 7). Similar tests

were performed to test interaction effects for need for approval and condition on anxiety (Table 8).

Table 7
Need for Approval and Fear of Negative Evaluation Interaction on Anxiety (regression analyses)

VARIABLE	Beta	R	R^2	R^2 change
Need for Approval^	-.04	.04	.00	.00
Fear of Negative Evaluation	.18	.18	.03	.03*
Need for Approval X Fear of Negative Evaluation	.12	.20	.04	.00@

n=122
* p< .05
^Need for approval was entered separately due to data analysis restrictions of SPSS.
@ Values are not precise due to rounding error.

Table 8
Need for Approval and Condition Interaction on Anxiety (regression analyses)

VARIABLE	Beta	R	R^2	R^2 change
Need for Approval^	-.04	.04	.00	.00
Condition	.20	.20	.04	.04*
Need for Approval X Condition	.02	.20	.04	.00•

n=123
* p< .05
^Need for approval was entered separately due to data analysis restrictions of SPSS.
• Values are not precise due to rounding error.

These results for need for approval and fear of negative evaluation show that need for approval did not have a direct effect on anxiety (R^2 change = .00, p> .05) nor was there a significant interaction component for need for approval and fear of negative evaluation on this measure (R^2 change = .004, p> .05). This indicates that need for approval and fear of negative evaluation did not interact to impact anxiety.

Similar results were found for need for approval and condition. The interaction component for these variables on anxiety was also insignificant (R^2 change = .00, p> .05). Thus, no interaction effect was found for need for approval and condition on anxiety.

Additional post hoc analyses were conducted to explore any relationships between goal commitment and other variables of the study. Goal commitment had a mean of 3.5

with a standard deviation of .41, indicating that, on average, participants were slightly more than indifferent toward the assigned goal. This measure was not correlated with any of the behavioral dimensions or the overall rating. However, goal commitment was positively correlated with need for approval ($r = .21$, $p < .05$). Therefore, need for approval has predictive value for responses to the goal commitment questionnaire.

Finally, simple regressions were conducted to test the overall model for each of the behavioral ratings as well as overall performance. The variables in the study (i.e. knowledge, need for approval, Machiavellianism, fear of negative evaluation, condition, and anxiety) were simultaneously entered into separate equations for nonverbal behavior, verbal behavior, context of conversation and overall performance. For nonverbal behavior, the model was able to account for 13% of the variance observed (R^2 change =.13, $p < .01$) with anxiety receiving the largest beta weight (.23). Anxiety also had the greatest impact among all of the predictors for verbal behavior. For this test, the model explained 11% of the variance (R^2 change = .11, $p < .05$) and the beta weight for anxiety was .24. The model did not receive significant R^2 changes ($p > .05$) for context of conversation (.10) or for overall performance (.08).

DISCUSSION

The results of this study support several of the main hypotheses. For instance, it was found that anxiety does affect the display of verbal as well as nonverbal behavior. These are the most likely consequences of anxiety because as stated in the literature review, verbal and nonverbal behavior are often not under complete control of the individual. Even when one attempts to behave in an assertive fashion, making requests or stating one's feelings, one's verbal and nonverbal behavior will belie this tactic by showing that the individual is actually nervous or uncomfortable and thus exposing his/her vulnerability to refusal or counter demands.

Those who were less anxious, on the the other hand, were able to conduct themselves in a fashion consistent with assertion as defined by the specific behaviors provided in the rating scales. They maintained eye contact, spoke firmly and used hand gestures to convey messages to their role-play partners. These subjects were not only more comfortable during the experiment but were able to convey this through verbal and nonverbal behavior which is a better indicator of comfortableness with others than are actual spoken words. This would support the notion that it is not only important what one says but how one says it.

Fear of negative evaluation, as predicted, heightened

one's anxiety experienced during the role-plays. Apparently, preoccupation with being evaluated negatively, especially when an evaluation component is clearly present, does increase anxiety. More specifically, subjects with a high fear of negative evaluation were most affected by particular environmental aspects of the study that indicated that the subjects' behavior would be observed and rated.

Also, as predicted, these relationships between fear of negative evaluation and role-play behaviors were completely mediated by anxiety. Therefore, although a person may have a high fear of negative evaluation, its effects will only be seen if circumstances exist which induce anxiety. If there is no obvious presence or threat of evaluation, this trait does not necessarily lead to nonassertive behavior. However, when an anxiety inducing agent is present, this fear of negative evaluation can alter behavior.

It would seem, then, that those individuals most concerned with how others view them were apparently the most nervous when interacting with their role-play partners. This fear of being judged negatively by other people caused subjects to experience anxiety and subsequently display nonassertive behaviors such as voice trembling or fidgetting. Apparently, through anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, in addition to provoking these behaviors, may have served to suppress assertive behaviors such as hand gestures and eye contact so as to not appear threatening to

others.

Those subjects low on this trait, however, were either less concerned with the evaluation of others or more confident that they could make a positive impression while still obtaining the desired outcome. Thus, they were comfortable using hand gestures and maintaining eye contact with their role-play partners.

In addition, condition also served to influence or induce anxiety during the role-plays. The heightened presence of evaluation by those who were in a position to judge not only the *subject* (as would all interaction partners) but knowledgeable of the skills to be exhibited (or not exhibited) *by* the subject, consequently increased anxiety for the subject. This is to say that the experimenter and the assistant could pass personal judgment as well as objective analyses of the effectiveness of the subject's behavior. The anticipation of this evaluation led to increased anxiety compared to the low-evaluative condition where the subject believed that the role-play partner was only another subject who could evaluate the subject on a personal level but could not evaluate the subject's use of effective behavior.

Also as predicted, knowledge of assertive behavior was related to fear of negative evaluation. Those individuals who recognized assertive actions and their beneficial results for interpersonal interaction were less likely to be

overly concerned with the opinions of others. This was anticipated not because these individuals are flippant about or impervious to the opinions of others, but because individuals possessing this knowledge probably believe that they can display the necessary behavior. Futhermore, they are also more likely to believe that these actions will be interpersonally effective. Subjects not possessing this awareness or belief that assertive behavior is effective are more likely to anticipate negative evaluation as a result of displaying such behavior.

Additional analyses which included the outlier score on knowledge show that knowledge also had an indirect affect on anxiety with fear of negative evaluation mediating the relationship between the two constructs. Therefore, it is quite possible that knowledge of assertive behavior does impact anxiety in such a way that those with greater knowledge of assertive behavior will experience less anxiety when the display of such behavior is necessary if these individuals also have a low fear of negative evaluation.

Results also show that two constructs expected to impact fear of negative evaluation, Machiavellianism and need for approval, were correlated. These results are typical of previous research which indicate that the two constructs present contrasting or competing motivations in determining one's behavior.

Tests for the overall model found that it was able to

account for significant portions of variance for nonverbal and verbal behavior. In particular, anxiety definitely influenced the display of these behaviors. As addressed above, it is these behaviors which are perhaps most susceptible to the effects of anxiety because they are not under direct control of the individual.

However, there were several results which were not consistent with the hypotheses of this study. For example, knowledge was not related to any of the behavior dimensions. Perhaps these subjects, though they may have been able to recognize assertive responses to certain situations, may have been unfamiliar with the actual behaviors or statements necessary to execute these strategies. In general, the effects of knowledge of assertive behavior were not as strong as envisioned as it failed to have direct relationships with the performance dimensions.

It was also expected that anxiety would mediate the relationships between condition and the behavior dimensions. As was the case with fear of negative evaluation, condition had a direct effect on anxiety. Unlike fear of negative evaluation, however, condition also directly impacted context of conversation, but did not affect verbal nor nonverbal behavior. Furthermore, anxiety was not related to this one behavior which condition affected.

A high level of evaluation was related to context of conversation as subjects in this condition were less likely

to provide persuasive arguments, express empathy, or use 'I' statements to communicate one's own desires. Therefore, it is possible that something inherent in the high-evaluative condition affect subjects' behavior. Perhaps this behavior which is most under control of the individual (as compared to verbal and nonverbal behavior) was the behavior most stifled by an evaluative component. Each individual, while not able to directly regulate verbal and nonverbal behavior, can decide exactly what words are actually spoken. Therefore, individuals who were not persuasive in the high-evaluative condition were more likely to succumb to the demands of their interactive partners by ceasing to make demands on their own behalf although they may have felt that they deserved more goods than they were receiving. Also, these demands may have discontinued possibly because these individuals were easily influenced into thinking that they, in fact, did not deserve more money during the negotiation scenario. Another possible factor here could be that subjects were simply not as confident in their ability to persuade the assistant who was presented as an expert. As stated in the literature review, persuasive tactics are most likely to be used when the individual believes that such efforts will be successful. Therefore, although subjects were more nervous in this condition, context of conversation may have suffered due to lack of confidence that assertion would lead to fruitful results. This does not necessarily

mean that all subjects believed that they could not perform the appropriate behaviors, only that those behaviors may not be successful under these circumstances. They were aware that they were not competing with the assistant in this condition and the assistant did not benefit in any way by reaching an agreement (as opposed to what subjects were led to believe in the low-evaluative condition). Therefore, they may have viewed the assistant as more steadfast during the negotiation.

This study also failed to find any relationship between Machiavellianism and any of the hypothesized variables, other than need for approval. Subjects characterized as Machiavellians by the measure for this study were no less concerned with the opinion of others than were subjects with low scores on the Machiavellianism measure. In addition, there was no relationship between Machiavellianism and anxiety experienced during the role-play.

Need for approval was negatively correlated with fear of negative evaluation when this relationship was expected to be positive. A possible explanation for this is that the items for the fear of negative evaluation scale are blatantly intended to tap undue concern with the opinions of others. Perhaps those high in need for approval did not wish to indicate such a high degree of concern because it would be viewed unfavorably. Thus, not indicating a fear of negative evaluation may also be seen by these subjects as

socially desirable.

This is supported with a nonsignificant relationship between need for approval and anxiety. The responses for the anxiety scale may have been more representative of actual feelings due to fact that the subjects completed this questionnaire in direct view of the experimenter. Therefore, it would have been more difficult to misrepresent the level of anxiety experienced during the experiment (especially those subjects who directly verbally expressed nervousness immediately before or after the role-play). However, the lack of a relationship between need for approval and anxiety is still contrary to hypotheses.

Nonetheless, need for approval was correlated with goal commitment which is consistent with the notion that those with a high need for approval want others to have a favorable impression of them. This questionnaire was completed in the presence of the experimenter and perhaps those with a high need for approval wanted to indicate that they accepted the goals assigned by the experimenter and would put forth a great deal of effort to attain these goals. Therefore, it is possible that social desirability response influenced responses on the fear of negative evaluation measure as these results also seem to contradict the negative relationship between need for approval and fear of negative evaluation.

Finally, the overall model was not able to predict

context of conversation or overall performance for this sample. This may or may not be particular to the population from which this sample was drawn. Results show, however, that, in general, subjects were not able to (or know that they should) express empathy, provide persuasive arguments, use 'I' statements to assert one's position or remain persistent in requests.

The results of this study give further indication that even when one may want to appear assertive, anxiety may prevent one from doing so which supports Goffman's (1959) anxiety model. Subjects who were anxious may or may not have chosen assertive responses for the knowledge test, however, regardless of knowledge, those subjects who were anxious were unable to perform assertive behaviors such as expressing empathy and being persistent in one's requests. This anxiety, in this study, was caused in part by one's fear of negative evaluation. Therefore, other situations which may contribute to this fear should be examined such as dealing with conflict or with people in authority. More specifically, situations concerning subordinates and managers should be examined due to the importance of interpersonal interaction in the workplace. The current study investigated only the display of assertion (in negotiation situations) which is only one of many interpersonal skills. Other studies should be conducted to detect more behaviors which may be affected by fear of

negative evaluation.

However, this study was unable to support the McFall and Twentyman (1973) theory that it is knowledge that drives the display of assertive behavior. In this case, though subjects were able to identify and choose assertive responses to situations, they were not able to actually perform these behaviors. This was found to be the case in the low- and high-evaluative conditions. Nonetheless, perhaps this theory could be supported with a study measuring the knowledge of actual behaviors associated with assertiveness (or other interpersonal skills), not simply general assertive methods of adapting to certain situations.

IMPLICATIONS

As the results of this study found that it was anxiety and not knowledge which was a significant predictor of the display of assertive behavior, future attention should be devoted to how anxiety affects not only the acquisition of knowledge but how it contributes further to one's fear of negative evaluation. This could potentially be a cyclical process where anxiety has a negative effect on the display of behavior. This poor display of behavior, in turn, contributes to one's fear of negative evaluation and this increased fear of negative evaluation causes elevated anxiety and this anxiety serves to further debilitate the display of these behaviors, and so on.

Although , this study and its results pertain only to situations of negotiation. In this context, however, it appears that one's fear of negative evaluation is a critical component in determining which behaviors are displayed and not displayed in a negotiation situation. Therefore, to improve individual display of assertive behavior under these circumstances it may be most important to make people aware of the effectiveness of this type of behavior in interpersonal interactions. Knowledge of assertive behaviors and anxiety reduction should then be secondary to this

awareness. Attempts to train assertive behaviors without showing instances where this behavior can be effective and evaluated *positively* may prove unfruitful because these individuals may still experience degrees of apprehension in employing these tactics.

Therefore, this gives further indication that personal evaluations in group training situations should be avoided. Trainers should continue to stress that participants should not form judgments on individuals and only provide objective feedback concerning the display of the behaviors of interest.

When individuals become advised of the importance of displaying assertive behaviors, they may become more receptive to the notion of behaving in an assertive manner. This awareness combined with anxiety reduction may assist individuals in gaining interpersonal knowledge through their own experiences. In novel environments, for instance, a decreased fear of negative evaluation and reduced anxiety may allow individuals to become more cognitively aware of others in the environment and the cues supplied by them. As a result, these individuals should become more confident during their interpersonal interactions which would serve to further reduce fear of negative evaluation and anxiety while increasing the use of assertive behavior.

However, because this sample consisted solely of undergraduate college students, the knowledge component may

not have played as important of a role when compared to the general population. It may very well be that the majority of these students may not have the adequate life experience necessary to know the actual behaviors required for effective communication and negotiation even though they may be quite confident during their interactions that they do. In such instances, individuals may have a low fear of negative evaluation and low anxiety yet still not exhibit effective behaviors in a given situation. Therefore, in the general population, knowledge may serve a more discriminatory function in separating those who exhibit effective behavior from those who do not. Thus, perhaps future research should further examine the knowledge component and how it relates to the variables of this study in the general population.

Furthermore, better tests should be developed to measure this construct. Although the scale to assess knowledge of assertive behavior had a low reliability and was apparently multidimensional through factor analyses, this does not necessarily indicate improper measurement of the construct of assertiveness. A possible explanation for these results is that subjects did not choose to respond in an assertive fashion for each and every instance. However, data analyses show that this scale is strongly related to fear of negative evaluation. A step in the direction of improving such a measure, however, could be the development of a test where

subjects are asked which actual behaviors they would display instead of overall methods of handling certain situations.

I believe that it is the knowledge measure which may have masked the possible relationships between knowledge, anxiety and behavior, as opposed to the design of the role-play. It was found that the aspects of the study designed to induce anxiety were, to an extent, effective. These results provide evidence that anxiety did lead to a debilitation of the display of assertive behavior. The relationships between anxiety and assertive behaviors (verbal and nonverbal) coupled with the variance of the knowledge and role-play reaction measures, refutes the possibility that the aspects of the study were not sufficient to induce anxiety and discriminate among the level of assertion displayed by the participants.

In personnel selection situations where the display of assertive behaviors is necessary for effective performance, a test for the personality variable of fear of negative evaluation (or equivalent measure), should definitely be administered to applicants. This would give a better indication of individuals who will actually display this behavior in job-related situations than will simple interviews or questionnaires asking how comfortable applicants feel when interacting with others.

The confusing, contradicting and counterintuitive results for the need for approval measure definitely deserve

further attention. Need for approval was negatively related to fear of negative evaluation, not related to anxiety, but positively related to goal commitment. The negative relationship with fear of negative evaluation indicates that those higher on need for approval had a lower fear of negative evalution. The opposite end of the spectrum is even more perplexing in that those scoring lower on need for approval had a *higher* fear of negative evaluation. These results fly in the face of the definition of the two constructs. If one does not seek approval from others, then it should follow that one would not be preoccupied with the evaluations of others.

Although, it is possible that while some subjects with a high need for approval were purposefully responding so as to indicate a low fear of negative evaluation, those who were not high on need for approval were responding more honestly. These individuals may be less reluctant to admit to a moderate degree of fear of negative evaluation.

However, need for approval was positively correlated with goal commitment. These results may indicate that subjects with a high need for approval feel that positive behaviors, such as goal acceptance, will be viewed favorably and should be exhibited. Less positive behaviors, however, such as admitting to having a fear of negative evaluation or experiencing anxiety, should be avoided. Therefore, perhaps this possibility should be tested in future research. If

there was this distortion on the fear of negative evaluation and anxiety measures on the part of subjects with a high need for approval, perhaps the results of the study would have been even stronger had subjects responded more honestly.

In addition, there were additional behaviors throughout the role-play which were not measured in this study. There were several strategies of persuasion that were used by the participants. These strategies were not successful only because the requirements to obtain salary increases did not allow them to be beneficial. In an effort to limit this broad range of behaviors and tactics that could be displayed, only the presence or absence of assertive behaviors that were examined.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Situational Judgment Items

1. You are consistently requested to make reports, complete surveys, and prepare briefings that clearly are the responsibility of your immediate supervisor. Doing these projects causes you to have to work many additional hours. What would you do?

__+__ A. Tactfully and openly discuss your workload with your supervisor and try to resolve the situation by discussing alternatives.

__0__ B. Tactfully discuss the problem and seek advice from the next level supervisor.

__0__ C. Follow the direction of the supervisor.

__0__ D. Have a light discussion with the supervisor and in a subtle way, suggest that you are doing his/her work.

__0__ E. Keep track of the work hours and any work that you feel is "extra," and use this information to support your performance appraisal.

2. You are conducting an interview to obtain some information for a project you are working on. The interviewee becomes personally insulting. What would you do?

__0__ A. Continue on with the interview; as long as you are getting the information you need and you are not being treated too badly, it does not matter that the interviewee is insulting.

__0__ B. Stop the interview, explain to the person that she/he is acting inappropriately, try to continue with the interview. If there is no change in the behavior, terminate the interview, and seek out another source of information.

__-__ C. Tell the interviewee that you will be back when and if she/he decided not to be so insulting.

__0__ D. End the interview and advise the individual's

3. You overhear an opposite-sex worker in the office refer to you in a sexually provocative manner. What would you do?

__0__ A. Nothing, unless it continued to the point of being offensive or was followed by actions.

__+__ B. Let the person know that you overheard the conversation and that you do not feel that his/her comments are appropriate in a professional setting.

__-__ C. Report the incident to your supervisor and ask for her/his intervention.

4. A co-worker has been working to recruit new people into the job. The co-worker has identified several potential employees who are well qualified. The co-worker personally knows some of these potential recruits and as a result did not collect the necessary background information on them. The co-worker even went so far as to create fictitious information about them. You confront the co-worker with the fact and he explodes at you stating that you don't have the right to intrude because you are not his supervisor. What would you do?

__+__ A. Inform your supervisor of the co-worker's actions.

__+__ B. Explain to the co-worker why his actions are unfair and potentially harmful to the organization, and then report the co-worker to your supervisor if the co-worker does not immediately conduct the necessary applicant checks thoroughly and accurately.

__0__ C. Ask the co-worker to treat all applicants fairly and to refrain from any favoritism.

__0__ D. Explain to the co-worker that he could help his friends by providing a complete and properly done formal recommendation.

__-__ E. Conduct the appropriate background checks yourself.

5. You and a co-worker are asked to make an oral presentation to several colleagues, including some senior management members. You are each allotted 1/2 hour of presentation time. Your colleague, known to be very ambitious, exceeds his allotted time and seems to have plenty of remaining material. The total presentation cannot exceed one hour. What would you do?

__0__ A. Overtly remind your colleague of the time constraint.

__0__ B. Shorten your presentation to the allotted remaining time.

__0__ C. Wait for your co-worker to finish, and then ask the audience if it is all right to fully present your report, despite your co-worker's abuse of time.

__+__ D. Tactfully motion to your co-worker to wrap it up, and then interrupt if your co-worker continues.

__0__ E. Do nothing during the presentation, but confront your co-worker later.

6. A senior, highly commended co-worker has recently experienced some personal difficulties. He has confided these problems only to you. You have experienced an increased workload because of his problems. You have talked to him about your concerns, and empathetically requested that he resume full duties as soon as possible. A month passes and you are still doing too much of his work. What would you do?

__+__ A. Inform your co-worker that you understand his problems, but are no longer able to perform his work for him.

__0__ B. Ask your co-worker to take vacation, sick days, or a leave of absence until he has resolved his problems.

__-__ C. Continue to inform your co-worker of your concerns until he resumes his full job duties.

__0__ D. Talk to your supervisor about the situation.

__-__ E. Report your co-worker's actions to his supervisor.

7. You are assigned to work with another person for whom you have little regard. You will need to depend on this person to accomplish your work and you know that the supervisor is aware of this person's deficiencies. How do you proceed?

__0__ A. Explain to your professor that the project would suffer due to the involvement of the deficient classmate and strongly request a replacement for that person.

__+__ B. Enter the working relationship with an open mind and make the best of the situation.

__-__ C. Personally see to it that all the work was accomplished, even if it meant doing it all yourself.

__+__ D. Perform the work and confront individual problems as they arise.

__0__ E. Ask the professor to take an active role in ensuring the smooth performance of the project.

8. You are advised by a co-worker that your supervisor has been discussing your personal life with other co-workers. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would confront the supervisor and tell him or her to stay out of your business.

__+__ B. You would stop discussing your personal business so that it could not be an issue at work.

__0__ C. You would report your supervisor's actions to his or her superior.

__0__ D. You would ask a peer how they would handle the situation.

__-__ E. Ask for a transfer.

9. You are to participate in a presentation at a board meeting. You have only been on the job for two months. You receive a briefing on what you and others will be doing in this presentation. You feel that there are some areas where certain issues were not addressed. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would bring this matter up with the rest of the participants.

__0__ B. Bring up this matter to the superior who assigned you.

__0__ C. You would ask a more senior, trusted co-worker for his or her advice on how to proceed.

__-__ D. Address it yourself during the presentation.

10. A co-worker is constantly interrupting your work and asking for assistance. You try to be as much assistance as you can because you feel it's your responsibility. The co-worker you've been assisting receives recognition for an excellent project he completed with a great deal of your assistance. The co-worker does not recognize you for your help and tells everyone that he worked night and day to get the project completed. How would you respond to the co-worker the next time he comes to you for assistance?

__+__ A. You would tell the co-worker that you do not mind helping if you are given respect and credit when due.

__0__ B. You would refuse to help him or her, explaining why.

__-__ C. You would help him, no questions asked.

__0__ D. You would let a supervisor know what happened.

11. You have been involved in a long project that is rather unique in scope. The project is far from being finished. When your new supervisor begins to interject his ideas and then begins to force you to adopt these suggestions, what do you do?

__-__ A. You would do as he suggests because he is your superior, but document the times you disagreed.

__0__ B. You would explain your vision of the project, and stand firm with the direction you think it should be headed in.

__+__ C. Explain your point of view, and try to reach a compromise.

__-__ D. Explain that you have been working on this longer than him, and you are best qualified to determine the direction of the project.

__0__ E. You would talk to his supervisor about your concerns.

12. You work with people who are not as well educated as you and who seem to resent your presence there. As a result, you are finding it hard to get their cooperation when you need it. What would you do?

__-__ A. You play dumb and try not to appear educated.

__+__ B. You try to talk with them to resolve the problem and stress the importance of teamwork.

__+__ C. You make sure that you do not talk above their level or talk at them to facilitate communication.

__0__ D. You keep working hard so that you can gain their respect.

__0__ E. You try to be their friend and create the impression that you are all alike.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Edited Situational Judgment Items

1. You are consistently requested to make reports, complete surveys, and prepare briefings that clearly are the responsibility of your immediate supervisor. Doing these projects causes you to have to work many additional hours. What would you do?

__+__ A. Tactfully and openly discuss your workload with your supervisor and try to resolve the situation by discussing alternatives.

__0__ B. Tactfully discuss the problem and seek advice from the next level supervisor.

__-__ C. Follow the direction of the supervisor.

__0__ D. Have a light discussion with the supervisor and in a subtle way, suggest that you are doing his/her work.

__0__ E. Keep track of the work hours and any work that you feel is "extra," and use this information to support your performance appraisal.

2. You are conducting an interview to obtain some information for a project you are working on. The interviewee becomes personally insulting. What would you do?

__-__ A. Continue on with the interview; as long as you are getting the information you need and you are not being treated too badly, it does not matter that the interviewee is insulting.

__+__ B. Stop the interview, explain to the person that she/he is acting inappropriately, try to continue with the interview. If there is no change in the behavior, terminate the interview, and seek out another source of information.

__0__ C. Tell the interviewee that you will be back when and if she/he decided not to be so insulting.

__0__ D. End the interview and advise the individual's supervisor of his/her behavior.

3. You overhear an opposite-sex student in the classroom refer to you in a sexually provocative manner. What would you do?

__0__ A. Nothing, unless it continued to the point of being offensive or was followed by actions.

__+__ B. Let the person know that you overheard the conversation and that you do not feel that his/her comments are appropriate.

__-__ C. Report the incident to your professor and ask for her/his intervention.

4. A co-worker has been working to recruit new people into the job. The co-worker has identified several potential employees who are well qualified. The co-worker personally knows some of these potential recruits and as a result did not collect the necessary background information on them. The co-worker even went so far as to create fictitious information about them. You confront the co-worker with the fact and he explodes at you stating that you don't have the right to intrude because you are not his supervisor. What would you do?

__-__ A. Inform your supervisor of the co-worker's actions.

__+__ B. Explain to the co-worker why his actions are unfair and potentially harmful to the organization, and then report the co-worker to your supervisor if the co-worker does not immediately conduct the necessary applicant checks thoroughly and accurately.

__0__ C. Ask the co-worker to treat all applicants fairly and to refrain from any favoritism.

__0__ D. Explain to the co-worker that he could help his friends by providing a complete and properly done formal recommendation.

5. You and a classmate are asked to make an oral presentation to several students and some senior professors. You are each allotted 1/2 hour of presentation time. Your classmate, known to be very ambitious, exceeds his allotted time and seems to have plenty of remaining material. The total presentation cannot exceed one hour. What would you do?

__0__ A. Overtly remind your classmate of the time constraint.

__-__ B. Shorten your presentation to the allotted remaining time.

__0__ C. Wait for your classmate to finish, and then ask the audience if it is all right to fully present your report, despite your classmate's abuse of time.

__+__ D. Tactfully motion to your classmate to wrap it up, and then interrupt if your classmate continues.

6. A senior, highly commended co-worker has recently experienced some personal difficulties. He has confided these problems only to you. You have experienced an increased workload because of his problems. You have talked to him about your concerns, and empathetically requested that he resume full duties as soon as possible. A month passes and you are still doing too much of his work. What would you do?

__+__ A. Inform your co-worker that you understand his problems, but are no longer able to perform his work for him.

__0__ B. Ask your co-worker to take vacation, sick days, or a leave of absence until he has resolved his problems.

__0__ C. Continue to inform your co-worker of your concerns until he resumes his full job duties.

__0__ D. Talk to your supervisor about the situation.

__-__ E. Report your co-worker's actions to his supervisor.

7. You are assigned to work with another student for whom you have little regard. You will need to depend on this person to accomplish your work and you know that the professor is aware of this person's deficiencies. How do you proceed?

__0__ A. Explain to your professor that the project would suffer due to the involvement of the deficient classmate and strongly request a replacement for that person.

__-__ B. Personally see to it that all the work was accomplished, even if it meant doing it all yourself.

__+__ C. Perform the work and confront individual problems as they arise.

__0__ D. Ask the professor to take an active role in ensuring the smooth performance of the project.

8. You are advised by a co-worker that your supervisor has been discussing your personal life with other co-workers. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would confront the supervisor and tell him or her to stay out of your business.

__0__ B. You would report your supervisor's actions to his or her superior.

__0__ C. You would ask a peer how they would handle the situation.

__-__ D. Ask for a transfer.

9. You are to participate in a presentation at a board meeting. You have only been on the job for two months. You receive a briefing on what you and others will be doing in this presentation. You feel that there are some areas where certain issues were not addressed. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would bring this matter up with the rest of the participants.

__0__ B. Bring up this matter to the superior who assigned you.

__0__ C. You would ask a more senior, trusted co-worker for his or her advice on how to proceed.

10. A fellow classmate is constantly interrupting your work and asking for assistance. You try to be as much assistance as you can because you feel it's your responsibility. The classmate you've been assisting receives recognition for an excellent project he completed with a great deal of your assistance. The classmate does not recognize you for your help and tells everyone that he worked night and day to get the project completed. How would you respond to the classmate the next time he comes to you for assistance?

__+__ A. You would tell the classmate that you do not mind helping if you are given respect and credit when due.

__-__ B. You would help him, no questions asked.

__0__ C. You would let the professor know what happened.

11. You have been involved in a long project that is rather unique in scope. The project is far from being finished. When your new supervisor begins to interject his ideas and then begins to force you to adopt these suggestions, what do you do?

__-__ A. You would do as he suggests because he is your superior, but document the times you disagreed.

__0__ B. You would explain your vision of the project, and stand firm with the direction you think it should be headed in.

__+__ C. Explain your point of view, and try to reach a compromise.

__0__ D. Explain that you have been working on this longer than him, and you are best qualified to determine the direction of the project.

__0__ E. You would talk to his supervisor about your concerns.

12. You work with people who are not as well educated as you and who seem to resent your presence there. As a result, you are finding it hard to get their cooperation when you need it. What would you do?

__-__ A. You play dumb and try not to appear educated.

__+__ B. You try to talk with them to resolve the problem and stress the importance of teamwork.

__0__ C. You make sure that you do not talk above their level or talk at them to facilitate communication.

__0__ D. You keep working hard so that you can gain their respect.

__0__ E. You try to be their friend and create the impression that you are all alike.

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

* The first digit gives the number for the item as it is listed for the study. The number in the parentheses indicates the number as it is listed in the actual inventory.

Item 1(7)

Response option C will be scored negatively. The response "Follow the direction of the supervisor" fails to deny unreasonable requests which is considered to be a distinction between nonassertive and assertive behavior (e.g Galassi et al., 1981; Hargie et al., 1987; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Item 2(14)

Response option B will be scored positively. In the original scoring it was given a neutral response because it did not receive adequate votes according to the numerical calculations incorporated. However, it did receive more ratings as "best response" than did any other response option for the item. In addition, it involves standing up for one's rights and an attempt at behavior change. In addition, response option A will be scored negatively. The response "Continue on with the interview;...it does not matter that the interviewee is insulting" indicates that the individual is not standing up for one's own rights, an action which is at the heart of assertive behavior. This response may be appropriate in an FBI setting due to the critical nature of information that may be gathered. In the context of this study, however, there are no immediately apparent negative repercussions of ending the interview. The proposed scoring will help to discriminate between individuals who are assertive versus nonassertive in their responses. Finally, response option C will be scored neutrally. The response "Tell the interviewee that you will be back when and if she/he decided no to be so insulting" is more indicative of aggression. To reiterate, the primary intention of these items is to distinguish between assertive and nonassertive responses.

Item 3(21)

The scenario was changed to reflect a classroom setting. More specifically, the word "classmate" replaced "worker" and the word "classroom" replaced "office".

Item 4(65)

Item 9(85)

Response option D, "Address it yourself during the presentation", will be eliminated. Although assertion is displayed, it was determined by the raters as the worst response in that situation.

Item 10(88)

To edit this scenario and provide a classroom setting, the word "classmate" replaced "co-worker" and the word "professor" replaced "supervisor". In addition, response option B will be eliminated. The response "You would refuse to help him or her, explaining why" could also be considered assertive. In order to include no more than one positive response, response option A will remain because it received more votes for "best response" than did response option B.

Item 11(94)

Response option D will be scored neutrally. The response "Explain that you have been working on this longer than him, and you are best qualified to determine the direction of the project" is more indicative of aggression and not assertion or nonassertion.

Item 12(115)

Response option C will scored neutrally. The response "You make sure that you do not talk above their level or talk at them to facilitate communication", although rated favorably, does not involve assertion.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Final Situational Judgment Items

1. You are consistently requested to make reports, complete surveys, and prepare briefings that clearly are the responsibility of your immediate supervisor. Doing these projects causes you to have to work many additional hours. What would you do?

__+__ A. Tactfully and openly discuss your workload with your supervisor and try to resolve the situation by discussing alternatives.

__0__ B. Tactfully discuss the problem and seek advice from the next level supervisor.

__-__ C. Follow the direction of the supervisor.

__0__ D. Have a light discussion with the supervisor and in a subtle way, suggest that you are doing his/her work.

__0__ E. Keep track of the work hours and any work that you feel is "extra," and use this information to support your performance appraisal.

2. You are conducting an interview to obtain some information for a project you are working on. The interviewee becomes personally insulting. What would you do?

__-__ A. Continue on with the interview; as long as you are getting the information you need and you are not being treated too badly, it does not matter that the interviewee is insulting.

__+__ B. Stop the interview, explain to the person that she/he is acting inappropriately, try to continue with the interview. If there is no change in the behavior, terminate the interview, and seek out another source of information.

__0__ C. Tell the interviewee that you will be back when and if she/he decided not to be so insulting.

__0__ D. End the interview and advise the individual's supervisor of his/her behavior.

3. You overhear an opposite-sex student in the classroom refer to you in a sexually provocative manner. What would you do?

__-__ A. Nothing, unless it continued to the point of being offensive or was followed by actions.

__+__ B. Let the person know that you overheard the conversation and that you do not feel that his/her comments are appropriate.

__0__ C. Report the incident to your professor and ask for her/his intervention.

4. You and a classmate are asked to make an oral presentation to several students and some senior professors. You are each allotted 1/2 hour of presentation time. Your classmate, known to be very ambitious, exceeds his allotted time and seems to have plenty of remaining material. The total presentation cannot exceed one hour. What would you do?

__0__ A. Overtly remind your classmate of the time constraint.

__-__ B. Shorten your presentation to the allotted remaining time.

__0__ C. Wait for your classmate to finish, and then ask the audience if it is all right to fully present your report, despite your classmate's abuse of time.

__+__ D. Tactfully motion to your classmate to wrap it up, and then interrupt if your classmate continues.

5. A senior, highly commended co-worker has recently experienced some personal difficulties. He has confided these problems only to you. You have experienced an increased workload because of his problems. You have talked to him about your concerns, and empathetically requested that he resume full duties as soon as possible. A month passes and you are still doing too much of his work. What would you do?

__+__ A. Inform your co-worker that you understand his problems, but are no longer able to perform his work for him.

__0__ B. Ask your co-worker to take vacation, sick days, or a leave of absence until he has resolved his problems.

__-__ C. Continue to inform your co-worker of your concerns until he resumes his full job duties.

__0__ D. Talk to your supervisor about the situation.

__0__ E. Report your co-worker's actions to his supervisor.

6. You are assigned to work with another student for whom you have little regard. You will need to depend on this person to accomplish your work and you know that the professor is aware of this person's deficiencies. How do you proceed?

__+__ A. Explain to your professor that the project would suffer due to the involvement of the deficient classmate and strongly request a replacement for that person.

__-__ B. Personally see to it that all the work was accomplished, even if it meant doing it all yourself.

__0__ C. Perform the work and confront individual problems as they arise.

__0__ D. Ask the professor to take an active role in ensuring the smooth performance of the project.

7. You are advised by a co-worker that your supervisor has been discussing your personal life with other co-workers. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would confront the supervisor and tell him or her to stay out of your business.

__0__ B. You would report your supervisor's actions to his or her superior.

__0__ C. You would ask a peer how they would handle the situation.

__-__ D. Ask for a transfer.

8. You are to participate in a presentation at a board meeting. You have only been on the job for two months. You receive a briefing on what you and others will be doing in this presentation. You feel that there are some areas where certain issues were not addressed. What would you do?

__+__ A. You would bring this matter up with the rest of the participants.

__0__ B. Bring up this matter to the superior who assigned you.

__-__ C. You would ask a more senior, trusted co-worker for his or her advice on how to proceed.

9. A fellow classmate is constantly interrupting your work and asking for assistance. You try to be as much assistance as you can because you feel it's your responsibility. The classmate you've been assisting receives recognition for an excellent project he completed with a great deal of your assistance. The classmate does not recognize you for your help and tells everyone that he worked night and day to get the project completed. How would you respond to the classmate the next time he comes to you for assistance?

__+__ A. You would tell the classmate that you do not mind helping if you are given respect and credit when due.

__-__ B. You would help him, no questions asked.

__0__ C. You would let the professor know what happened.

10. You have been involved in a long project that is rather unique in scope. The project is far from being finished. When your new supervisor begins to interject his ideas and then begins to force you to adopt these suggestions, what do you do?

__-__ A. You would do as he suggests because he is your superior, but document the times you disagreed.

__+__ B. You would explain your vision of the project, and stand firm with the direction you think it should be headed in.

__0__ C. Explain your point of view, and try to reach a compromise.

__0__ D. Explain that you have been working on this longer than him, and you are best qualified to determine the direction of the project.

__0__ E. You would talk to his supervisor about your concerns.

11. You disagree with a project grade given by one of your professors. You believe you should have received more points. What would be the best way to handle this situation?

__-__ A. Accept the grade and continue to work hard.

__+__ B. Present your professor with arguments as to why you deserve a higher grade and try to receive more points for the assignment.

__0__ C. Ask your professor for feedback, while subtely hinting that you received an unfair grade.

__0__ D. During class, compare your grade with those received by your classmates.

12. You have been working for a company for two years when you find that a less senior working is receiving a higher salary than you are. What would be the best way to handle this situation?

__+__ A. Go to your supervisor and give reasons why you should receive a higher salary than your co-worker.

__-__ B. Tell your supervisor that you will quit if you do not immediately receive a pay raise.

__0__ C. Wait until the performance review which will show that you deserve a higher salary.

__0__ D. Use offers from other companies as leverage to gain a pay raise.

13. Your supervisor asks you to work overtime this weekend, but you have plans which you do not want to break. What would be the best way to handle this situation?

__-__ A. Cancel your plans and work that weekend.

__+__ B. Tell your supervisor that you understand her situation, but you will not cancel your plans.

__0__ C. Flatly tell your supervisor that you refuse to work weekends.

__0__ D. Find another co-worker who is willing to work that weekend and refer him/her to your supervisor.

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

MACH IV SCALE

1) Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.

2) The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.

3) One should only take action when sure it is morally right.

4) Most people are basically good and kind.

5) It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.

6) Honesty is the best policy in all cases.

7) There is no excuse for lying to someone else.

8) Generally speaking, men won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.

9) All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than important and dishonest.

10) When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which might carry more weight.

11) Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.

12) Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.

13) The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught.

14) Most men are brave.

15) It is wise to flatter important people.

16) It is possible to be good in all respects.

17) Barnum was very wrong when he said that there's a sucker

born every minute.

18) It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.

19) People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.

20) Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

MARLOWE-CROWNE SCALE

1) Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.

2) I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.

3) It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.

4) I have never intensely disliked anyone.

5) On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life.

6) I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.

7) I am always careful about my manner of dress.

8) My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.

9) If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.

10) On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.

11) I like to gossip at times.

12) There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.

13) No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.

14) I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.

15) There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

16) I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake.

17) I always try to practice what I preach.

18) I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud-mouthed, obnoxious people.

19) I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

20) When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.

21) I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

22) At times I have really insisted on having things my way.

23) There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.

24) I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.

25) I never resent being asked to return a favor.

26) I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.

27) I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.

28) There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.

29) I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.

30) I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.

31) I have never felt that I was punished without cause.

32) I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved.

33) I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

MANIFEST ANXIETY SCALE

1) I do not tire quickly.

2) I am often sick to my stomach.

3) I am about as nervous as other people.

4) I have very few headaches.

5) I work under a great deal of strain.

6) I cannot keep my mind on one thing.

7) I worry over money and business.

8) I frequently notice my hand shakes when I try to do something.

9) I blush as often as others.

10) I worry quite a bit over possible troubles.

11) I practically never blush.

12) I am often afraid that I'm going to blush.

13) I have nightmares every few nights.

14) My hands and feet are usually warm enough.

15) I sweat very easily even on cool days.

16) When embarrassed I often break out in a sweat which is very annoying.

17) I do not often notice my heart pounding and I am seldom short of breath.

18) I feel hungry almost all the time.

19) I have a great deal of stomach trouble.

20) At times I lose sleep over worry.

21) My sleep is restless and disturbed.

22) I often dream about things that I don't like to tell

other people.

23) I am easily embarrassed.

24) My feelings are hurt easier than most people.

25) I often find myself worrying about something.

26) I wish I could be as happy as others.

27) I am usually calm and not easily upset.

28) I cry easily.

29) I feel anxious about something or someone almost all of the time.

30) I am happy most of the time.

31) It makes me nervous to have to wait.

32) At times I am so restless that I cannot sit in a chair for very long.

33) Sometimes I become so excited that I find it hard to get to sleep.

34) I have sometimes felt that I faced so many difficulties I could not overcome them.

35) At times I have been worried beyond reason about something that really did not matter.

36) I do not have as many fears as my friends.

37) I have been afraid of things or people that I know could not hurt me.

38) I certainly feel useless at times.

39) I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job.

40) I am more self-conscious than most people.

41) I am the kind of person who takes things hard.

42) I am a very nervous person.

43) Life is often a strain for me.

44) At times I think I am no good at all.

45) I am not at all confident of myself.

46) At times I feel that I am going to crack up.

47) I don't like to face a difficulty or make an important decision.

48) I am very confident of myself.

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H

FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION SCALE

1) I rarely worry about seeming foolish to others.

2) I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.

3) I become less tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up.

4) I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me.

5) I feel very upset when I commit some social error.

6) The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.

7) I am often afraid that I may look ridiculous or make a fool of myself.

8) I react very little when other people disapprove of me.

9) I am frequently afraid of other people noticing my shortcomings.

10) The disapproval of others would have little effect on me.

11) If someone is evaluating me I tend to expect the worst.

12) I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on someone.

13) I am afraid that others will not approve of me.

14) I am afraid that people will find fault with me.

15) Other people's opinions of me do not bother me.

16) I am not necessarily upset if I don not please someone.

17) When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking of me.

18) I feel that you can't help making social errors sometimes, so why worry about it.

19) I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make.

20) I worry a lot about why my superiors think of me.

21) If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me.

22) I worry that others will think I am not worthwhile.

23) I worry very little about what others may think of me.

24) Sometimes I think I am too concerned about with what other people think of me.

25) I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things.

26) I am often indifferent to the opinions others have of me.

27) I am usually confident that others will have a favorable impression of me.

28) I often worry that people who are important to me won't think very much of me.

29) I brood about the opinions my friends have about me.

30) I become tense and jittery if I know I am being judged by my superiors.

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I

GOAL COMMITTMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

1) It's hard to take this goal seriously.

2) It's unrealistic for me to expect to reach this goal.

3) It is quite likely that this goal may need to be revised, depending on how things go.

4) Quite frankly, I don't care if I achieve this goal or not.

5) I am strongly committed to this goal.

6) It wouldn't take much to make me abandon this goal.

7) I think this goal is a good goal to shoot for.

8) I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort beyond what I'd normally do to achieve this goal.

APPENDIX J

APPENDIX J

ROLE-PLAY SCENARIO

A job candidate has been offered a job and s/he is about to negotiate a salary. The typical starting salaries in this field range between $40,000 and $50,000.

Arguments for the Candidate

* The candidate graduated from a reputable university and has taken many relevant classes, performing well in all of them.

* The candidate has also gained experience by working with his/her professors.

* The candidate's professors have provided excellent letters of recommendation which also say that s/he gets along with others, an attribute very important to the atmosphere of this particular company and in interacting with clients.

Arguments for the Company

* The candidate has no "first hand" experience working for an actual company.

* The candidate has always worked under a professor who was ultimately responsible for her/his work and there were no serious consequences if s/he made mistakes.

* The company also offers a standard benefits package (which will not be negotiated) in addition to the offered salary.

* The geographical location is perfect for the candidate because of family and climate.

The candidate will be talking to the personnel manager (the two will never work together) and the candidate should try to negotiate a deal that gives him/her as much of the $50,000 as possible given his/her qualifications for the job. The personnel manager should try to hire the candidate for as little money as possible. * *Although the arguments above are to be accepted as true, you are not limited to facts and*

APPENDIX K

APPENDIX K

ROLE-PLAY REACTION
(High-Evaluative Condition)

9) The presence of the experimenter made me nervous during the role-play.

10) I was tense during the role-play because I was being video taped.

11) Enacting the role-play with a negotiation expert made me anxious during the role-play.

12) I was not nervous at all during the role-play.

13) I was nervous about having my performance judged.

14) Nothing about the role-play itself caused me any anxiety.

15) The thought of being critiqued at the end of the role-play did not make me nervous.

16) I felt at ease throughout the role-play.

APPENDIX L

APPENDIX L

ROLE-PLAY REACTION
(Low-Evaluative Condition)

9) I was tense during the role-play because I was being video taped.

10) Enacting the role-play with another subject made me anxious during the role-play.

11) I was not nervous at all during the role-play.

12) I was nervous about having my performance judged.

13) Nothing about the role-play itself caused me any anxiety.

14) I felt at ease throughout the role-play.

APPENDIX M

APPENDIX M

ROLE-PLAY RATINGS

NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOR

1 2	3 4 5	6 7
Did not use any hand gestures to convey messages; did not look role-play partner in the eye during conversation; often shifted in seat, fidgetted, displayed nervous behaviors such as wringing hands, tapping feet or trembling	Occasionally used hand gestures; looked role-play partner in the eye during some (but not most) of the conversation; exhibited nervous behavior only 3 or 4 times during the role-play	Used hand gestures throughout the discussion; maintained eye contact through most of the role-play; did not exhibit any nervous behaviors

APPENDIX N

APPENDIX N

ROLE-PLAY RATINGS

VERBAL BEHAVIOR

1 2	3 4 5	6 7
Gave long pauses (more than 10 seconds) before responding to role-play partner; spoke in a monotone voice; speech was mumbled or difficult to understand, voice trembled while responding	Responded to role-play partner within 5 to 10 seconds; occasionally changed tone of voice (e.g. for emphasis); voice rarely trembled; speech was usually clear	Responded to role-play partner in less than 5 seconds; often changed tone of voice or used voice inflection during conversation; voice never trembled; speech was clear throughout the role-play

APPENDIX O

APPENDIX O

ROLE - PLAY RATINGS

CONTEXT OF CONVERSATION

1 2	3 4 5	6 7
Never expressed empathy or an understanding of the role-play partner's situation or feelings; quickly succumbed to the demands of the role-play partner; did not check for closure; rarely used 'I' statements	Occasionally expressed empathy (2 or 3 times) for role-play partner's situation; put up some resistance to the demands of the role-play partner; often used 'I' statements	Often expressed empathy (more than 3 times) for role-play partner's situation; held firm in own position; checked for closure and mutual understanding at the end of negotiation; usually used 'I' statements

APPENDIX P

APPENDIX P

ROLE-PLAY RATINGS

OVERALL PERFORMANCE RATING

1 2	3 4 5	6 7
Did not maintain eye contact; engaged in nervous behaviors; long pauses before responses; voice trembling; did not express empathy; was not persistent in requests; did not check for closure	Occasionally maintained eye contact; engaged in limited nervous behaviors; expressed empathy 2 or 3 times during negotiation; put up some resistance to demands of role-play partner	Consistently maintained eye contact; engaged in no nervous behaviors; expressed empathy more than 3 times during negotiation; held firm to own position

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