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# Effect of Internal Consistency on the CPI Social Dominance Scale on the Predictability of Dominance Behaviors

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1985



EFFECT OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY ON THE CPI SOCIAL DOMINANCE SCALE  
ON THE PREDICTABILITY OF DOMINANCE BEHAVIORS

A Thesis

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department of Psychology  
Western Kentucky University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Arts

by

Jeremy A Guttman

October 1985

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EFFECT OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY ON THE CPI DOMINANCE SCALE  
ON THE PREDICTABILITY OF DOMINANCE BEHAVIORS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLE AND FIGURES.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	v
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
PREDICTION OF BEHAVIOR FROM PERSONALITY SCALES.....	2
EVIDENCE SUPPORTING THE PRESENT THESIS.....	9
EVIDENCE FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN CONSISTENCY.....	10
EVIDENCE FOR THE MODERATING EFFECT OF CONSISTENCY ON THE PREDICTABILITY OF BEHAVIOR.....	12
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	16
METHODOLOGY.....	17
SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS.....	17
ASSESSMENT OF DOMINANCE BEHAVIORS.....	18
PRELIMINARY ANALYSES.....	22
CONSISTENCY INDEX DEVELOPMENT.....	22
PARTICIPANT SELECTION PROCEDURE.....	25
RELIABILITY OF THE DOMINANCE SCALE.....	27
RELIABILITY OF THE BEHAVIORAL RATINGS.....	28
CORRELATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS.....	31
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCALE SCORES AND BEHAVIORAL MEASURES.....	31



TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONT'D)

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SCALE	
SCORES AND BEHAVIORAL RATINGS.....	33
MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS.....	36
DISCUSSION.....	38
EXAMINATION OF HYPOTHESES.....	38
PROBLEMS OF INTERPRETATION.....	39
IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	40
APPENDIX 1.....	41
APPENDIX 2.....	52
APPENDIX 3.....	54
REFERENCES.....	56



LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

		Page
Table 1	Correlations between item response standard deviations for all scales.....	23
Table 2	Intercorrelations between the summed total of all standard deviations and each individual scale standard deviation....	24
Table 3	Corrected item-total correlations and coefficient alpha for all scale standard deviations.....	25
Figure 1	Distribution for consistency indices.....	26
Table 4	ANOVA model for intraclass correlation.....	28
Table 5	Estimated reliabilities for verbal and nonverbal measures of social dominance.....	28
Table 6	Dominance scale score means and standard deviations for consistent and inconsistent female participants.....	30
Table 7	Means and standard deviations for behavioral measures of social dominance.....	32
Table 8	Correlations between scale scores and behaviors for consistent, inconsistent, and all females.....	33
Table 9	Fischer's Z-transformation test of differences between correlations for consistent and	

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES (CONT'D)

inconsistent female groups.....	35
Table 10 Multiple correlations between behavioral ratings and dominance scale scores.....	36



EFFECT OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY ON THE CPI SOCIAL DOMINANCE SCALE  
ON THE PREDICTABILITY OF DOMINANCE BEHAVIORS

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54 pages

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The purpose of this study was to show that the degree of consistency that people demonstrate on personality measures is positively related to the degree to which behaviors representing the personality domains can be predicted. Thirty five female consistent personality scale respondents and Thirty eight female inconsistent scale respondents participated in small group discussions. The results showed that for all females, scale scores on the California Psychological Inventory subscale of dominance were predictive of three measures of dominance behaviors in the discussion group. Consistent personality scale respondents had no measures that were significantly correlated with the dominance scale score, whereas three measures were correlated with scale scores for female inconsistent scale respondents. Fischer's Z-transformations revealed no significant differences between the zero-order correlations for inconsistent and consistent groups and no significant differences were found between multiple correlations for the two groups. The results replicate past research on the prediction of behavior in single sex discussion groups, but

fail to provide evidence that consistent scale respondents are more predictable than inconsistent scale respondents in the social dominance domain.



## Review of the Literature

### Introduction

For the past two decades, many studies have focused on the problem of the relatively low predictive power of personality scales. Some researchers such as Mischel (1968) have concluded that the weak correlations between scale scores and specific behaviors reflect true variance and not a measurement failure. In summary, Mischel argued that there is little evidence for the ability of personality scales to predict trait related behaviors.

One possibility for these low correlations is that people may vary in the extent to which they behave consistently. The purpose of this study is to show that people who respond with low item response variability on personality scales will be more predictable in their scale-related behaviors than people who respond with high item response variability. The social dominance domain will serve as the personality domain in this particular study. Social dominance refers to the extent to which one can influence others' opinions or attitudes in social situations.

A possible explanation for this effect of item-response variability on the predictability of behavior is that inconsistent behavior by its very nature is less reliable



than consistent behavior. Since validity is linearly related to the reliability of measurement, response inconsistency should result in lower validities than response consistency. In theory, if one can define a sub-population of people who behave consistently, predictive accuracy can be improved.

### Prediction of Behavior

#### From Personality Scales

Several different ideas have been proposed on why behavioral prediction has been so poor. Each proposal has tried to specify conditions in which behavioral prediction can be improved.

One possibility is that low correlations between scale scores and behaviors may be due to inadequate sampling of behaviors. Epstein (1980) advocated aggregating behaviors to improve prediction. Aggregation reduces measurement error and increases the correspondence between behavioral measures and scale scores (Epstein, 1980). He argued that the lack of aggregation of behaviors is a major reason why correlations between personality scales and behaviors have been low. "Single items of behavior can be expected like single items on a test to be low in reliability and . . . be inadequate to the task of demonstrating the stability of behavior." (Epstein, 1980 p. 791). Four major types of aggregation are

1. Aggregation over subjects.
2. Aggregation over stimuli or stimulus situations.
3. Aggregation over time.
4. Aggregation over methods of measurement.

Epstein found for a wide variety of measures (physiological measures, measures of social behavior, measure of errors and carelessness, measures of positive and negative emotions) that reliability coefficients increased when daily observations of behavior were taken and odd-even reliability coefficients were calculated from the data averaged over a certain number of observations. For social behavior, when observations were made daily, the reliability increased from a coefficient of .5 averaged over 3 days to .8 averaged over 12 days. The other measures followed similar trends. Epstein also found that scale scores on personality measures produced higher correlations with aggregated behaviors than with single behaviors. Overall, aggregation over time increased the reliability of measurement.

A second approach was taken by Bem and Allen (1974). They argued that there are individual differences in the extent to which people are consistent across situations. Accordingly, at best we may only be able to accurately predict behavior for some people. Bem and Allen found for the trait of friendliness that people who self-reported less cross-situational variability in friendliness showed consistently higher intercorrelations between reports of friendliness by parents and peers than intercorrelations obtained from people reporting high behavioral variability in friendliness. The average intercorrelation coefficient for the low variability group was .57 compared to .27 for the high variability group. Bem and Allen showed that



different raters in different situations show high agreement concerning the friendliness of consistent respondents. This indicates that some people are more predictable than others in the friendliness domain. Using an ipsatized variance index to categorize respondents into high and low categories, the authors found similar results in the conscientiousness domain. Low variability subjects as rated by others were significantly less variable across situations than high variability subjects in the same set of situations.

In the Bem and Allen (1974) study, subjects who self reported low cross-situational variability in friendliness had significantly higher correlations between the Eyesenck subscale for introversion and extraversion and the previously mentioned reports of friendliness than were found for subjects who self reported high situational variability in friendliness. This suggests that people who are consistent in behavior are more predictable from personality scales than people who behave inconsistently.

A third approach to improve prediction is the situationist position. The major proposition is that certain aspects of situations may moderate the relationship between personality traits and behavior. Two aspects of situations have been studied: situational constraint and situational similarity. Monson, Hesley and Chernick (1980) categorized individuals as either introverts or extraverts using the introversion-extraversion scale of the Eyesenck Personality Inventory. Participants were placed in three

situational contexts: forced extraversion, forced introversion, and neutral. The two forced conditions provided more situational constraint than the neutral condition. For example, in the forced extraversion situation, confederates used previously gathered information about the person to induce the participant to become involved in the conversation. The confederates brought up topics they thought would be of interest to the participant and acted interested in the participant's response. Introverts and extraverts showed few behavioral differences when the situations were constrained by the experimenter. However, extraverts and introverts differed significantly in the amount of time talking in the neutral condition compared to the forced-introversion and forced-extraversion conditions. When placed in neutral conditions where they could behave freely, extraverts also showed significantly more extraverted behaviors than introverts.

Situational similarity has also been studied in an attempt to improve prediction. Lord (1982) stated that prediction can be improved if one can identify situations which individuals perceive to be similar. His assumption was that people behave more consistently in situations that they identify as similar. He focused on the conscientiousness domain. A template matching technique was used, allowing individuals to describe situations according to how a hypothetical person would behave in them. Situations in which the hypothetical person behaved



similarly were assumed to be perceived as similar by the participant. He found that when people used a template matching technique to compare pairs of situations, they behaved more consistently across situations they labeled as similar. The results held only when subjects were studied ideographically. Ideographically refers to a methodology where each individual's behavior across situations was compared to his or her own unique rating of situational similarity. When behaviors were averaged across individuals, this relationship was not significant. This study also replicated Bem and Allen's (1974) finding that people identified as consistent in the conscientiousness domain displayed more consistency across six situations than individuals identified as less consistent. This result suggests that individual differences in consistency moderate the relationship between perceived situational similarity and the cross situational consistency of behavior.

A third aspect of situations that has been found to influence behavioral prediction is the selection of behavioral settings. Gormly (1983) found that when one looks at the selection of situational behavioral settings as the criterion, the correlational relationship between peer ratings of sociability and the selection of a setting that provided that opportunity to socialize with others was much greater than correlations generally reported between personality scale scores and behavioral criteria. Members of an east coast fraternity rated fellow members on the personality characteristics of energy and sociability.



Subsequently, subjects were asked to make preferences between meeting others for the first time versus watching others meet for the first time and preferences between performing physically demanding tasks versus performing tasks requiring fine motor skills. Peer ratings for energy correlated .62 with the selection of the more energetic activity ( $p < .001$ ), and peer ratings for sociability correlated .53 ( $p < .001$ ) with selection of the social interaction situations.

Another situational variable that influences behavioral prediction is the sex of the participant. Aries, Gold and Weigel (1983) studied how the sex of the participant influenced dominance behaviors in small discussion groups. Three conditions were established to assess the influence of sex on the relationship between dominance scale scores on the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and behavioral ratings of dominance. Participants were assigned to either all male, all female, or mixed sex groups. Then they were randomly assigned to five or six member discussion groups. Each group was instructed to discuss and reach a consensus decision as to whether a doctor should give a medical student amphetamines to improve his or her performance on a medical school admissions exam. The discussions were videotaped for subsequent behavioral coding. For the single sex groups, correlations were significant for many of the behavioral ratings regardless of whether the group was all male or all female. No correlations were significant

for the mixed sex group. Aries et. al. contend that " the presence of group members of the opposite sex invoked sex role expectations that inhibited the manifestations of dominance behaviors consistent with the participants' dispositional tendencies." (p. 784).

A fourth approach to improve the predictive power of personality scales is the moderating effect of personality variables on the correlations between traits and behaviors. One such characteristic is private self-consciousness. Private self-consciousness consists of attending to one's thoughts, feelings and motives (Scheier, Buss, and Buss 1978). People who score high on private self-consciousness scales write longer self-descriptions, are more attentive to their inner feelings, and give more accurate reports of their attitudes than low scorers (Cheek, 1982). Buss (1980) suggested that private self-consciousness moderates the relationship between scale scores and behaviors because high scorers know themselves well and low scorers do not. This self-knowledge permits high scorers in private self-consciousness to give accurate reports about their attitudes and typical behaviors. Cheek found that people who scored high on private self-consciousness had significantly higher correlations between self and peer ratings than people who scored low on this scale. Average correlations for high scorers were .49 while low scorers averaged .38.

Scheier et. al. (1978) tested the hypothesis that for persons high in private self-consciousness, self reports of aggressiveness should correlate higher with aggressive



behaviors than for those low in private self-consciousness. Each participant completed the Private Self-Consciousness Scale and the Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory. This inventory measures four components of aggression: assault, indirect hostility, irritability, and verbal hostility. A number of weeks later, participants were allowed to assume the role of "teacher" and given the power to shock another subject (actually a confederate of the experimenter) for errors made in learning. Shock intensity was varied by providing 5 levels of shock resulting in barely perceptible feelings of pain (level 1) to unbearably painful feelings (level 5). Participants were allowed to determine the level of shock to be administered. The results showed that self-rated aggressiveness correlated significantly with selected level of shock intensity,  $r=.34$  ( $p<.05$ ). The major finding was that participants who were high in private self-consciousness had correlations ( $r=.66$ ) which were higher than subjects who were low in private self-consciousness ( $r=.09$ ). The difference between these correlations was statistically significant ( $z=2.80$   $p<.006$ ). Thus private self-consciousness moderated the relationship between self reports of aggressiveness and aggressive behaviors.

#### Evidence Supporting the Present Thesis

No study has directly examined the moderating effect of individual differences in intrascale response consistency on the relationship between personality scale scores and behavior in the dominance domain. There is, however, a

consistent pattern of results across studies that support the thesis that people with low item response variability on personality scales will be more predictable in their scale-related behaviors than people who respond with high item response variability.

#### Evidence for Individual Differences in Consistency

Parker (1971) evaluated the usefulness of conceptualizing consistency of behavior as a personality construct. He gave the Gough Adjective Checklist to participants on three separate occasions. The average variance of the three scale scores for each respondent was used as index of that person's consistency. The index was used to group people into high and low stability categories. He found that high stability individuals tended to choose favorable adjectives to describe themselves such as alert, confident, and organized while low stability people tended to choose unfavorable self-descriptive adjectives such as worrying, moody, and lazy. These results suggest that consistency is related to levels of personal adjustment and self image.

McFarland and Sparks (in press) also found individual differences in the consistency of behavior. People who were older and/or more educated responded more consistently to eight popular personality inventories. A possible explanation for this relationship between age and scale response consistency is that people who are younger and less educated may still be in the process of building their self image. As a person becomes older and more educated, one's



self image may become more stable. The result of this increased stability is more consistent and reliable measures of personality for older and more educated people. It is important to note that scale response consistency still varied within each age and education level, but the general trend was that consistency was positively related to levels of age and education.

Diener and Larsen (1984) examined consistency across three life situation dimensions (work-recreation, novel-typical, social-alone). These dimensions were broad categories used to discriminate between situations that most people have experienced. For example, the social-alone dimension evaluated the degree of social interaction one has with other people. They found that across the three life dimensions, some people were more consistent than others. This was also true for the dependent variables of affect, bodily feelings, physically active behavior, productive behavior, behavioral predispositions, and cognitive judgments.

The results of these three studies (Diener and Larsen, 1984; McFarland and Sparks, in press; Parker, 1971) suggest that there are individual differences in behavioral consistency. These differences are logically related to two demographic variables, age and education. Differences in consistency are also related to other personality constructs such as self image and emotional adjustment (Parker, 1971) and private self-consciousness. (McFarland and Sparks, in



press, Underwood and Moore, 1981). These studies show that behavioral consistency is a valid personality construct.

Evidence for the Moderating Effect of  
Consistency on the Predictability of Behavior

Another group of studies show that scale reponse consistency moderates the predictability of behavior from trait ratings in a given personality domain. For the domain of friendliness the findings of Bem and Allen (1974) were replicated by Mischel and Peake (1982). Regardless of what classification procedure was used to group people into high and low consistency categories (ipsatized variance index or self report), intercorrelations between trait ratings made by self, mother, father, and peers were higher for low variance respondents. For the self reported high variability participants the mean correlation was .22. For the low variability participants the mean correlation was .68. For the ipsatized variance index the mean correlation was .56 for low variability subjects and was .39 for high variability subjects. Individual differences in consistency were shown to moderate the correlations between trait ratings made by different people.

In a related study investigating person by situation interactions, Diener, Larsen, and Emmons (1984) found that variance associated with persons accounted for the majority of variance associated with consistency of mood. This held for positive and negative affect. For positive affect, persons accounted for 52 percent total score variance. For negative affect, persons account for 72 percent of the total

variance. The authors, however, could not account for this variance associated with persons using popular personality trait measures. These measures included need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for autonomy, need for cognitive structure, need for order, need for play and extraversion. This study suggests that some type of individual difference is moderating consistency of mood. Since a large number of global personality dimensions have been ruled out, it is possible that individual differences in the consistency of behavior may be moderating the relationship between consistency of mood and variance associated with persons.

Another study that provided evidence for the moderating influence of scale response consistency on the predictability of behavior was done by Underwood and Moore (1981). They provided evidence for two distinct subpopulations of persons whose characteristics influence the validity of trait-behavior correlations. People high in private self-consciousness had correlations of .44 between ratings of sociable behavior by another person and personality measures of sociability taken from the Self-Description Survey (Olsson). People low in private self-consciousness had correlations of .03 between these scale scores and behavior. The difference between these correlations was statistically significant ( $p < .025$ ). In addition, item response variability influenced these same trait-behavior correlations. People with low item response



variability on the sociability scale had a correlation of .38 between sociability scale scores and behavioral ratings while people with high item response variability had correlations of .07. The difference between these correlations was also marginally significant ( $Z=1.51$   $p<.07$ ) The authors found that item response variability and private self-consciousness are distinct from each other, that is, there is no significant correlation between the two. Data for participants who were high on both private self-consciousness and low on item response variability were placed in one group. Data for participants who were high on item response variability and low in private self-consciousness were placed in another group. The differences for correlations between scale scores and behavior for the first group (high private, low variability) and the second group (low private, high variability) were greater than differences for correlations obtained separately for either item response variability or private self-consciousness. (.61 for high private, low variability, -.23 for low private, high variability, statistically different ( $p<.01$ )).

In a related study, Kenrick and Springfield (1980) replicated and added to the work of Bem and Allen. They allowed people to choose the personality dimension they thought they were most and least consistent on from Cattell's sixteen personality factors. The eight traits rated as most consistent were averaged into a composite. A composite was also formed for the eight traits rated as least consistent. Intercorrelations between trait ratings

made by parent, peer and self were performed separately for the most consistent and least consistent composites. An additional contribution not made by previous work was the inclusion of a set of baseline correlations formed by intercorrelating ratings made by self, parent, and peers for all subjects. The baseline correlations ranged from .21 to .27. This baseline allows one to compare the correlations formed by most and least consistent traits. For self-chosen most consistent trait, the average intercorrelation across trait dimensions was .61. It was .23 for the least consistent trait, which was right at the baseline level. This pattern of results was replicated for peer choosing the person's most and least consistent trait and for parent choosing the person's most and least consistent trait. In addition, they replicated Bem and Allen's results for the friendliness and conscientiousness domains, namely that consistent participants had higher intercorrelations between ratings made by parents and peers than inconsistent participants.

In summary, a review of the literature on the prediction of behavior indicates two things. First, people vary with respect to their behavioral consistency. Second, persons high in trait consistency have behaviors that are more predictable than persons low in consistency for several trait domains.

#### Purpose of the Study

It is proposed that the degree of consistency which



people demonstrate on personality measures is positively related to the degree to which the behaviors representing the domain can be predicted.

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which individual differences in scale response consistency moderate the relationship between personality scale scores on the CPI dominance subscale and behavioral measures of social dominance. The dominance domain was chosen because well defined measures of dominance behavior existed. The hypotheses were as follows:

1. There will be significant relationships between dominance related behaviors and dominance scale scores within each sex.
2. Consistent personality scale respondents will have higher correlations between individual dominance related behaviors and dominance scale scores than inconsistent personality scale respondents.
3. Consistent personality scale respondents will have higher multiple correlations between the weighted sum of dominance related behaviors and dominance scale scores than inconsistent personality scale respondents.

The first hypothesis was based on a study conducted by Aries, Weigel and Gold (1983). It is expected that this thesis will replicate their finding that there are significant correlations between scale scores and behaviors for single sex discussion groups. The second and third hypotheses state that prediction can be improved by categorizing participants on the basis of item response variability.

## Methodology

### Selection of Participants

The objective of the participant selection process was to identify one group of participants who responded to personality scales with low item response variability and another group who responded with high item response variability on each scale. About 400 participants, half from each sex, filled out 5 personality scales in their Introductory History or Psychology classes. Since these classes were required for most degree programs and were often prerequisites for upper level courses, they provided the most heterogenous pool of freshmen and sophomores on campus.

These scales included a short form of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) Dominance Subscale, Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, the Self Monitoring Scale, and the Private Self-Consciousness Scale. These 5 scales were combined into a single questionnaire named the "Personal Attitudes Questionnaire." The final version consisted of 137 items. Participants coded their responses on a separate, machine scorable answer sheet.

For each participant, standard deviations of item responses from each scale were computed. These standard deviations were summed into a composite index of a person's



tendency to respond in an internally consistent manner to personality scales. The smaller the value of the index, the more internally consistent a person was in responding to personality scales. This measure is a highly reliable index of internal consistency in response to personality scales (McFarland and Sparks, In Press; Parker, 1971). People scoring in the top forty percent of the distribution were labeled as "inconsistent scale respondents," and people falling in the bottom 40 percent of the distribution were labeled as "consistent scale respondents." One hundred participants were invited by phone to take part in the main experiment in which they would participate in small discussion groups in a laboratory setting. Each person was offered \$4.00 for his or her participation.

#### Assessment of Dominance Behaviors

The main phase of the study examined the extent to which dominance behaviors were predicted by the dominance scale for each group of participants. The following procedure was devised by Aries, Gold, and Weigel (1983). In this method participants are randomly divided into six-person groups. Past research has shown that personality scales predict behaviors only in same sex discussion groups (Aries, Weigel, and Gold 1983). Therefore, all groups were composed of same sex participants. Each group was given thirty minutes to discuss an ethical dilemma. Each group was read a scenario describing a woman who was involved in an uncertain relationship and who had become pregnant. The

participants were asked to discuss the legal, moral, and ethical considerations of an abortion. The participants were instructed to reach a consensus decision about what course of action would be best for the woman.

The discussions in all experimental groups were videotaped. All subjects were informed of the taping prior to the study. After the discussion all participants were debriefed concerning the purposes of the study.

Past research has identified several behaviors indicating dominance in discussion situations (Bales, 1970; Zimmerman and West 1975; Aries, Gold and Weigel, 1983). These behaviors include the total time a person talks in a conversation, the number of verbal acts initiated, and the number of interruptions a person makes. The greater the frequency of these behaviors, the more socially dominant a person is. Coding procedures for these behaviors developed by Aries, Gold and Weigel include the following.

- A. Total Time Talking -- The number of seconds a person actually spent talking during the discussion session.
- B. Verbal Acts Initiated -- The number of times a person spoke during a discussion session.
- C. Interruptions -- The number of instances in which a person began to speak while another member of the group was still speaking.
- D. Interruptor Continues -- The number of separate instances in which a subject interrupted another group member and then persisted to speak after the period in which both people were speaking at the same time, and then



continued to be the only speaker.

E. Interrrupted Continues -- The number of separate instances in which a subject, after being interrupted, persisted in speaking so as to be the only speaker.

F. Continues After Overlap -- The number of separate instances in which after beginning to speak at the same time as another person, the subject persists in speaking so as to be the sole speaker. On all aforementioned measures, higher scale scores reflect higher dominance.

Past research has shown that several nonverbal behaviors also indicate dominance (Frieze and Ramsey, 1976; Henley, 1977; Mehrabian and Friar, 1969). These include keeping arms away from the body, keeping legs open and leaning backwards. The presence of these behaviors indicate dominance and their absence indicates submissiveness.

Participants received a score of zero or one every time the behavior was observed with a one indicating the presence of the behavior and a zero indicating the absence of the behavior. Higher scores on the measures reflected higher nonverbal dominance. The following specific body postures were assessed:

A. Arms away from body -- The number of instances in which at least one of a subject's arms was not touching the trunk of the body.

B. Open legs -- The number of instances in which the subject's legs were not touching or in which one of the subject's ankles was crossed over the opposite knee.

C. Lean backward -- The number of instances in which the subject's torso formed more than a 90 degree angle at the waist.

Previous studies have shown that both these verbal and nonverbal measures can be scored with high interrater reliability (Bales, 1970, Zimmerman and West 1975, Aries, Gold and Weigel 1983). A ten minute segment of the videotape was edited from the entire group discussion film. The reason for doing this was two-fold. First, a videotape of the discussion allowed raters to review or go back to observe a section again, which aided in resolving interrater discrepancies. Second, a videotape allowed the rater to slow down the action when rating. The procedure for editing was as follows. For each tape, the edited version began at the opening of the discussion. This edited version lasted ten minutes into the discussion. The overall objective of the videotaping was to increase the precision of rating.

To assess nonverbal behaviors, the videotape was stopped at fifteen second intervals, and each participant's nonverbal behaviors were checked by a rater. The ten minute tape allowed a possible of forty fifteen second intervals. Given the ten minute tape, each respondent's score for each nonverbal measure could range from zero to forty.



## Preliminary Analyses

### Consistency index development

A total of four hundred participants completed the "Personal Attitudes Questionnaire." The first step in developing the consistency index was the calculation of standard deviations measuring item-response variability for each scale. For each scale, the value assigned to an item response ranged from one to five with one indicating strong agreement to a statement and five indicating strong disagreement. Variances for each scale were calculated by summing the squared deviations of each item from the mean item response and then dividing by the total number of items. Standard deviations were simply the square root of this variance.

Several analyses were computed on these standard deviations to determine their suitability for summation into a composite index of item response variability. Zero-order Correlations between the standard deviations yielded by each scale were calculated to determine whether there was any commonality between item response standard deviations from these different scales. These correlation coefficients are listed in Table 1.

Table 1  
Correlations Between Item Response Standard  
for All Scales

	Standard Deviation			
	Privsd	Domsd	Marsd	Dogsd
Domsd	.29			
Marsd	.31	.64		
Dogsd	.29	.48	.51	
Selfsd	.32	.62	.58	.54

Note. Privsd = Standard deviation for Private Self-Consciousness Scale

Domsd = Standard deviation for California Psychological Inventory Subscale for Dominance

Marsd = Standard Deviation for the Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale

Selfsd = Standard Deviation for the Self-Monitoring Scale

Dogsd = Standard Deviation for Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale.

All correlations were significant ( $p < .001$ ) and of moderate to moderately high magnitude. This indicates a common relationship between all standard deviations for all scales. This suggests that item response variability is not scale specific and represents an authentic individual difference.



The next step in developing the consistency index was the formation of a composite score made by the sum of all the individual scale standard deviations. This was done for each participant. A correlational analysis was performed to test the relationship between this composite and each of the individual scale standard deviations. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Intercorrelations Between the Summed Total of All Standard Deviations and Each Individual Scale Standard Deviation

	Standard Deviations				
	Privsd	Domsd	Marsd	Dogsd	Selfsd
Total	.67	.77	.78	.73	.79

Note. All correlations ( $p < .001$ )

These numbers show strong correlations between each of the scale standard deviations and the composite. All relationships were significant at the .001 level. However, these relationships may be somewhat inflated as the total included each of the scales it was correlated with. Therefore, another analysis was done to examine the internal consistency of these scale standard deviations, correcting for the overlap of each standard deviation with the sum total.

Each scale standard deviation was treated as an item on

a test. Coefficient alpha was computed for the 5 "items." The rationale was that if reliability was at an acceptably high level, the standard deviations could be summed into a composite just as items on a test or inventory are summed into a raw scale score. Table 3 lists the corrected item-total correlations for each scale.

Table 3

Corrected Item-total Correlations and Coefficient Alpha for all Scale Standard Deviations

Standard Deviation	Corrected Item-total Correlation
Marsd	.64
Dogsd	.66
Domsd	.67
Selfsd	.64
Privsd	.44

Note. Coefficient Alpha = .80

If one considers the standard deviations as test items, the reliability analysis confirmed the idea that the individual scale standard deviations can be summed into an internally consistent total. The corrected item-total correlations were strong and coefficient alpha was at a magnitude acceptable for most tests and inventories.

Participant Selection Procedure

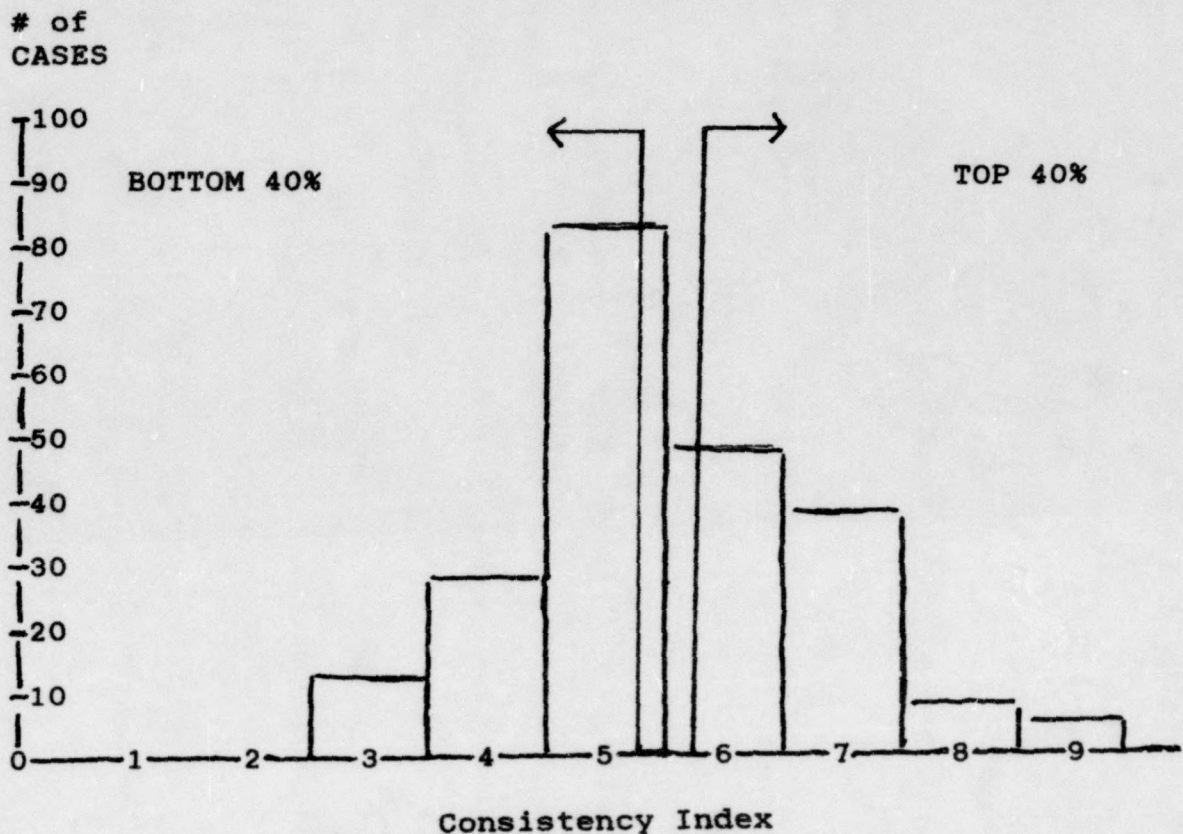
For each participant, a total of all scale standard deviations was computed. This was their index of item



response variability. A frequency histogram based on two hundred fifty seven cases was developed. Cutoffs for consistent and inconsistent subpopulations are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Frequency Distribution for Consistency Indices



All of the distribution to the left of the first black line represented the bottom 40% of those sampled regarding their index of consistency. All of those people with indices falling to the right of the second black line made up the top 40%. For purposes of participant selection, those in the bottom 40% were labeled consistent scale respondents, while those in the top 40% were labeled

inconsistent scale respondents. Those people falling in the middle 20% were not selected. The exact cutoff for consistent participants was an index of 5.20 or less. The exact cutoff for inconsistent participants was 5.80 or greater.

#### Reliability of the Dominance Scale

In order for measures to correlate to their highest possible magnitude, it was necessary to establish and increase the reliability of these measures. The first measure to be examined was the California Psychological Inventory Subscale for social dominance. The other measures were the behavioral ratings of dominance outlined previously. The reliability of each of these measures will be discussed.

Reliability for the Dominance scale was in the form of internal consistency. The specific measure of internal consistency was coefficient alpha. The entire twenty-nine item short form used by Aries, Weigel and Gold (1982) showed a reliability of .75. All items with item-total correlations less than .10 were dropped from the scale. The rationale was that items that correlate with less than .10 were likely to have a very low relationship with overall construct of social dominance. This resulted in the loss of 6 items. When these 6 items were dropped from the scale, the internal consistency stepped up to .80. After removing these items, item-total correlations ranged from .10 to .61 with an average of .35. Appendix 2 contains the items used to



compute dominance scale sums.

Reliability of the Behavioral Ratings

Reliability coefficients for the verbal and nonverbal measures of social dominance were estimated by intraclass correlations. This method was used because participants were rated by multiple raters. This procedure is described by Ebel (1951). For each measure, seventeen targets (participants) were rated by three raters. One-way ANOVAS were computed following the model detailed in Table 4.

Table 4

ANOVA Model for Intraclass Correlation

Target	Ratings	# of Raters	Sum
Person 1	18, 19, 16	3	53
Person 2	12, 10, 5	3	27
Person 17	7, 3, 5	3	15

Note. After an ANOVA was computed, the following formula was used to estimate the reliability coefficient.

$$\text{Rel.} = \frac{\text{Mean Square rates} - \text{Mean Square Error}}{\text{Mean Square rates} + (\text{raters}-1)(\text{Mean Square Error})}$$

Table 5

Estimated Reliabilities For Verbal and Nonverbal  
Measures of Social Dominance

---

Measure	Reliability
Total Time Talking	.98
Verbal Acts Initiated	.92
Interruptions	.67
Interrupted Continues	.56
Interrruptor Continues	.15
Continues After Overlap	.25
Arms Away From Body	.93
Lean Backwards	.77
Open Legs	.97

---

Four measures have reliabilities in the .90's. These measures are Total Times Talking, Verbal Acts Initiated, Arms away From Body and Open Legs. These numbers indicate very good interrater reliability. Interruptions and Lean Backwards have somewhat lower reliabilities and may be low enough to attenuate correlations between scale scores and the behavioral measures. Finally, three measures have low reliabilities. These are Interrupted Continues, Interruptor Continues, and Continues After Overlap. These reliabilities may be relatively low for two reasons. First, since all three measures are types of interruptions, raters first have to agree that an interruption occurred. Raters then must



make a judgment about what type of interruption occurred. Thus they have to make finer discriminations about the discussion compared to the other behavioral measures. Second, the behaviors that were being measured tended to occur infrequently. This reduced the variance of the scores in the sample and probably attenuated the reliabilities.

### Correlational Relationships

Due to the low number of males with complete data sets, only data from female participants were included for the remaining analyses. For each subgroup of females, zero-order correlations were computed between scores on the CPI Subscale of social dominance and each of the six verbal and three nonverbal measures of social dominance. Stepwise regressions were computed for each group, regressing each of the nine behavioral measures on the dominance scale scores.

#### Descriptive Statistics For Scale Scores and Behavioral Measures

The following table lists means and standard deviations for the dominance scale scores and behavioral criteria for female consistent and inconsistent subgroups. The dominance raw scale scores could range from a low of twenty-three to a high of one hundred fifteen.



Table 6

Dominance Scale Score Means and Standard Deviations for  
Consistent and Inconsistent Female Participants

Measure	Participant	
	Female Consistent	Female Inconsistent
Mean	59.85	60.55
Standard Deviation	9.14	13.82

Note. For Female Consistent N = 35,

For Female Inconsistent N = 38

Both subgroups scored nearly the same on the dominance scale. The inconsistent group averaged less than a scale point higher than the consistent group. The standard deviations differ substantially in magnitude with the inconsistent group's scores varying more than the consistent group's scores.

Table 7 lists the means and standard deviations for the behavioral measures for consistent and inconsistent females. For total time talking, scores could range from a low of zero to a high of six hundred seconds. The three nonverbal measures could range from a low of zero to a high of forty. The other measures have a lowest possible frequency of zero, but no defined upper limit.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Behavioral Measures of Social Dominance

Measure	Participant			
	Female Consistent		Female Inconsistent	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total Time Talking (sec.)	97.04	12.60	97.85	13.17
Verbal Acts Initiated	14.26	9.08	12.55	8.09
Interruptions	3.00	2.43	3.26	2.89
Interruptor Continues	1.65	1.74	1.78	1.72
Interrupted Continues	0.62	1.27	0.96	1.37
Continues After Overlap	0.12	0.43	0.14	0.36
Arms Away From Body	15.20	14.89	13.63	13.52
Legs Open	5.94	12.68	9.58	14.36
Lean Backwards	15.09	17.03	12.00	15.55

Correlations Between Scale Scores and Behavioral Ratings

Zero-order Correlations were computed between scale scores and behavioral criteria for the consistent group, the inconsistent group, and all participants. These correlations were calculated to assess the predictive



relationship between dominance scale scores and behavioral criteria. These results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Correlations Between Scale Scores and Behaviors for Consistent, Inconsistent and All Females

Measure	Participant		
	Consistent	Inconsistent	All
Total Time Talking	.29	.17	.20*
Verbal Acts Initiated	.17	.45*	.33*
Interruptions	.01	.28*	.18
Interruptor Continues	.08	.15	.12
Interrupted Continues	.21	.38*	.31*
Continues After Overlap	.08	-.02	.02
Arms Away From Body	.19	.22	.04
Legs Open	-.13	.03	-.02
Lean Backwards	-.18	-.07	-.11

Note. \* indicates  $p < .05$

The zero-order correlations revealed only no significant relationships for the consistent female group. For the inconsistent group, three significant relationships

were present. These were for verbal acts initiated, interrupted continues, and arms away from body. All of these relationships were positive and of moderate magnitude.

For all females, the results showed 3 significant relationships. These were between scale scores and total time talking, verbal acts initiated, interruptions, and interrupted continues. All of these relationships were positive and of moderate strength.

Each of the correlations for female consistent and inconsistent groups was compared to test whether they differed significantly. This was done by Fischer's Z-Transformation. These Z-scores were then compared to a critical value to assess significance. These Z-scores are presented in Table 9.



Table 9

Fischer's Z-Transformation Test of Differences Between  
Correlations For Consistent and Inconsistent Groups

Measure	Z-Score
Total Time Talking	.3908
Verbal Acts Initiated	1.1400
Interruptions	.9253
Interruptor Continues	.3420
Interrupted Continues	.5826
Continues After Overlap	.3427
Arms Away From Body	.1228
Legs Open	.6500
Lean Backwards	.4497

None of the Z-scores exceeded the critical value at the .05 or .10 significance level. The only measures that approached significance were verbal acts initiated and interruptions. These were in the direction of the female inconsistent participant's scale scores being more predictive of behaviors than the consistent respondent's scale scores.

Multiple Regression Results

Separate stepwise multiple regression equations were computed for consistent and inconsistent female groups using the SPSS Regression subprogram. Each of the behavioral

ratings was entered into the equation based on the strength of relationship between the rating and the dominance scale score. These correlations are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Multiple Correlations Between Behavioral Ratings and Dominance Scale Scores

Measure	Participant	
	Female Consistent	Female Inconsistent
Multiple R	.51	.54
R Square	.26	.29

The results of this analysis show that behavioral ratings from the female inconsistent group account for 3% more variance in the dominance scale scores than the ratings from the consistent group.

The data were dummy coded according to whether scores and ratings were received from consistent or inconsistent females. This was done to test for significant between group differences (inconsistent vs. consistent) for the proportion of variance accounted for in the criterion. The regression analysis was recomputed including the group variable as an additional predictor. The results failed to show significant differences between the multiple correlations for consistent and inconsistent females.



## Discussion

### Examination of Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were proposed before the study was began. The first hypothesis,

There will be significant relationships between dominance related behaviors and dominance scale scores within each sex,

was supported for females. For all females three of the six verbal measures showed significant correlations, and seven of the nine measures had correlations that were positive. This replicates the work of Aries, Gold and Weigal (1983), who found significant correlations between dominance scale scores and behavioral ratings for single sex discussion groups. The second hypothesis,

Consistent personality scale respondents will have higher correlations between individual dominance related and dominance scale scores than inconsistent personality scale respondents,

was not supported. For the zero-order correlations, no significant differences were found between groups. In fact there was a nonsignificant trend in the data for inconsistent participants being more predictable from scale scores than consistent participants. Hypothesis three,

Consistent personality scale respondents will have higher multiple correlations between the weighted sum of of dominance related behaviors and dominance scale scores than inconsistent personality scale respondents,

was also not supported. When looking at all the behavioral

ratings in combination, both groups account for about the same amount of variance in scale scores (Consistent R Square = .26, Inconsistent R Square = .29). This shows that for either group combining the ratings provides about the same predictive accuracy.

#### Problems of Interpretation

One of the problems of nonsignificant results is the formation of definite conclusions. The safest conclusion is that no support was found for hypotheses two and three. However, this does not necessarily mean that there are no differences between the prediction of behaviors for inconsistent and consistent scale respondents.

The fact that internally consistent respondents were more consistent in responding to personality scales should have made their dominance scale scores more predictive. Why didn't it? One explanation may be psychometric. The inconsistent group had a larger variance in their dominance scale scores (13.82 vs. 9.14). All other things being equal the larger variance will tend to inflate correlations with other measures. For the inconsistent group, seven of the nine correlations are higher in magnitude compared to those for the consistent group. This suggests that chance variations due to sampling error may be inflating these correlations. The consistent group is relatively restricted in the range of scores compared to the inconsistent group. This restriction of range may have attenuated the correlations for this group.



### Implications for future research

The results of this study suggest that psychometric considerations are very important in the design of studies that investigate the predictive power of personality scales. Since differences in scale score variances can influence the results, every caution should be taken to prevent this confound from occurring. One possibility would be to try to match groups for scale score variances. Although, a participant-to-participant match would be impractical, elimination of extremely low and extremely high scale scorers could be easily accomplished. If a priori matching is not feasible, standard correction formulas exist for restriction of range in the predictor. These are professionally accepted techniques used to deduce what the true correlation would be when there is adequate variance in the predictor. Hopefully, these suggestions would give the researcher a greater understanding of the effect of internal consistency on the predictability of behavior.

APPENDICES



## Appendix 1

## Personal Attitudes Questionnaire



## PERSONAL ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questionnaire explores many aspects of your feelings and beliefs. Read each statement carefully and mark the response which most accurately describes your feelings. Most of the responses vary on the following 5-point scale:

A=Completely Agree (CA)  
 B=Somewhat Agree (SA)  
 C=Uncertain (U)  
 D=Somewhat Disagree (SD)  
 E=Completely Disagree (CD)

Please mark all your answers on the separate answer sheet provided by blackening in the answer.

Example:

A B C D E 1. I am often quiet around other people.

It is important that you read each statement carefully and answer every statement as honestly as possible.

Please give the following information on the answer sheet

Name (LINE PROVIDED ON ANSWER SHEET)

I.D. # (FILL IN ORANGE SECTION UNDER PART 1)

FILL IN ABOVE THE SCAN-TRON LOGO ON ANSWER SHEET

work phone #

home phone #

Sex:

Class Standing (Freshman, Sophomore, etc.):

Age:

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes and beliefs.
3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
4. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics which I have almost no information.
6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
8. I would probably make a good actor.
9. I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.
10. I sometimes appear to be experiencing deeper emotions than I really am.
11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.
12. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different people.
14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
15. Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.
16. I'm not always the person I appear to be.



17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.
18. I have considered being an entertainer.
19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
21. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
22. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.
24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.
26. I doubt whether I would make a good leader.
27. I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job.
28. When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about.
29. School teachers complain a lot about their pay, but it seems to me they get as much as they deserve.
30. When I work on a committee I like to take charge of things.
31. If given the chance I would make a good leader of people.
32. A person does not need to worry about other people

- if only he looks after himself.
33. I am a better talker than a listener.
  34. I would be willing to give money myself in order to right a wrong, even though I was not mixed in it in the first place.
  35. We should cut down on our use of oil, if necessary, so that there will be plenty left for the people fifty or a hundred years from now.
  36. When the community makes a decision, it is up to a person to help carry it out even if he had been against it.
  37. I would rather have people dislike me than look down on me.
  38. I must admit I try to see what others think before I take a stand.
  39. People should not have to pay taxes for the schools if they do not have children.
  40. In a group, I usually take the responsibility for getting people introduced.
  41. I would be willing to describe myself as a pretty "strong" personality.
  42. There are times when I act like a coward.
  43. I have strong political opinions.
  44. I think I am usually the leader in my group.
  45. Disobedience to any government is never justified.
  46. I enjoy planning things, and deciding what each person should do.
  47. It is pretty easy for people to win arguments with me.



48. I have a natural talent for influencing people.
49. I like to give orders and get things moving.
50. I am embarrassed with people I do not know.
51. The one to whom I was most attached and most admired as a child was a women (mother, sister, aunt, or other women).
52. People seem naturally to turn to me when decisions have to be made.
53. I dislike to have to talk in front of a group of people.
54. I have more trouble concentrating than others seem to have.
55. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
56. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
57. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
58. Most people don't know what's good for them.
59. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers his own happiness primary.
60. A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.
61. I'd like it if I should find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
62. Of all the different philosophies which have existed in this world there is probably only one which is correct.

63. It is when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that his life becomes meaningful.
64. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what is going on is to rely upon leaders and experts who can be trusted.
65. There are a number of persons I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
66. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
67. It is better to be a dead hero than a live coward.
68. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
69. It is only natural that a person should have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.
70. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, I sometimes have the ambition to become a great man, like Einstein, or Beethoven, or Shakespeare.
71. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary at times to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
72. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all."
73. Most people just don't give a damn about others.
74. A person who gets enthusiastic about a number of causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy washy" sort of person.



75. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
76. If given the chance I would do something that would be of great benefit to the world.
77. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by certain people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.
78. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what the others are saying.
79. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
80. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are on the side of truth and those who are against it.
81. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
82. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
83. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
84. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
85. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is the future that counts.
86. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't

really understand what is going on.

87. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonely place.
88. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
89. The worst crime a person can commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
90. In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
91. Most of the ideas which get published nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
92. It is only natural for a person to be fearful of the future.
93. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
94. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
95. Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.
96. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.
97. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.
98. I have never intensely disliked anyone.
99. On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to



succeed in life.

100. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.
101. I am always careful about my manner of dress.
102. My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out at a restaurant.
103. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.
104. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.
105. I like to gossip at times.
106. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.
107. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
108. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.
109. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
110. I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake.
111. I always try to practice what I preach.
112. I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud-mouthed obnoxious people.
113. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.
114. When I don't know something, I don't at all mind admitting it.
115. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

116. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.
117. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.
118. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.
119. I never resent being asked to do a favor.
120. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
121. I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.
122. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.
123. I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.
124. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.
125. I have never felt that I was punished without cause.
126. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved.
127. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
128. I'm always trying to figure myself out.
129. Generally, I'm not very aware of myself.
130. I reflect about myself a lot.
131. I'm often the subject of my own fantasies.
132. I never scrutinize myself.
133. I'm generally attentive to my inner feelings.
134. I'm constantly examining my motives.



135. I sometimes have the feeling that I'm off somewhere watching myself.
136. I'm alert to changes in my mood.
137. I'm aware of the way my mind works when I work through a problem.

## Appendix 2

California Psychological Inventory Subscale  
of Social Dominance: Short Form

1. I doubt whether I would make a good leader.
2. I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job.
3. When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about.
4. School teachers complain a lot about their pay, but it seems to me they get as much as they deserve.
5. When I work on a committee I like to take charge of things.
6. If given the chance I would make a good leader of people.
7. I am a better talker than a listener.
8. When the community makes a decision, it is up to a person to help carry it out even if he had been against it.
9. I must admit I try to see what others think before I take a stand.
10. People should not have to pay taxes for the schools if they do not have children.
11. In a group, I usually take the responsibility for getting people introduced.
12. I would be willing to describe myself as a pretty



"strong" personality.

13. I have strong political opinions.
14. I think I am usually the leader in my group.
15. I enjoy planning things, and deciding what each person should do.
16. It is pretty easy for people to win arguments with me.
17. I have a natural talent for influencing people.
18. I like to give orders and get things moving.
19. I am embarrassed with people I do not know.
20. People seem naturally to turn to me when decisions have to be made.
21. I dislike to have to talk in front of a group of people.
22. I have more trouble concentrating than others seem to have.
23. I would rather have people dislike me than look down on me.

Appendix 3  
Script For Experiment

Good evening (afternoon). My name is Jerry Guttman and I will be conducting this study. Please take off your coats and make yourselves comfortable in one of these chairs.

Tonight (this afternoon) we will have a discussion that will last for 30 minutes. We will be video taping you so please speak clearly and do not move your chairs.

Now I want to read you a story concerning the topic of our task as a group is to discuss the various issues and try to reach a consensus decision concerning your views on the subject.

Story A man and a woman have a very close relationship. Separated for the summer, they grow apart and return with very mixed feelings about each other. One evening, feeling again their former closeness and attraction, they go further and further and have sexual intercourse. But afterwards the doubts about the relationship return. A few weeks later the woman finds that she is pregnant.

What would be the right thing for them to do? Why?

She knows that she could arrange an abortion. Would it be right or wrong for her to arrange an abortion? Why?



She considered having the baby and placing it for adoption as an alternative to abortion. Would it be the right thing to do? Why?

They decide that abortion is the best solution. Is ending the life of an unborn baby any different from ending any other human life? Why?

Are there any conditions that might make abortions right (or wrong)? What and Why?

Would it make any difference if abortion was legal or illegal? Why? Should abortions be legalized?

Again your task is to reach agreement as a group as to what would be the best thing to do in this situation. There will be pauses in the conversation, please don't let this make you feel too uncomfortable. Feel free to try to convince each other. The discussion will last 30 minutes.

To get you all better acquainted and for identification purposes, I would like you to go around in a circle and state your name and Social Security number.

(After they do this LEAVE THE ROOM)

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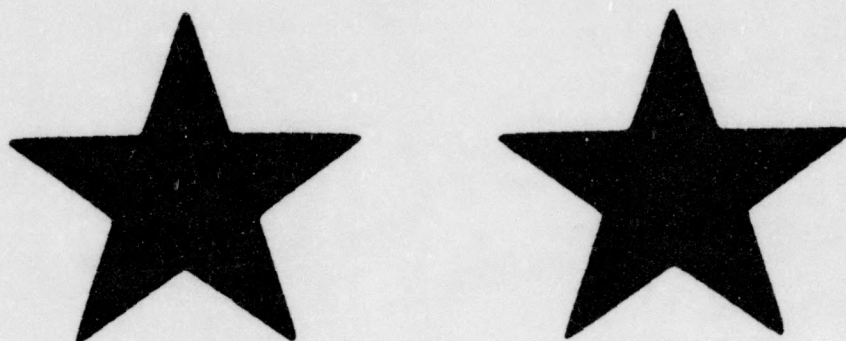


Hadden,

Edwin

1933

# **CORRECTION**



***PRECEDING IMAGE HAS BEEN  
REFILMED  
TO ASSURE LEGIBILITY OR TO  
CORRECT A POSSIBLE ERROR***