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The effects of gender on responses to assertion.

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THE EFFECTS OF GENDER ON RESPONSES
TO ASSERTION

A Dissertation Presented

By

BRUCE BRITTON KERR

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

September 1983

Department of Psychology

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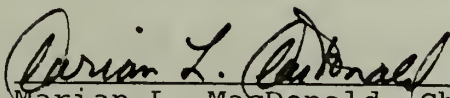
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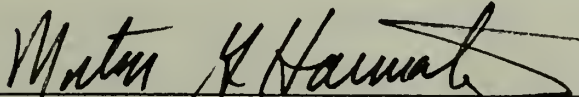
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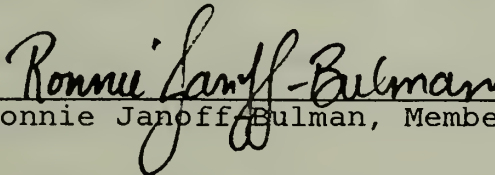
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ABSTRACT

The Effect of Gender on Responses to Assertion

(September, 1983)

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Two experiments were conducted to assess the effects of gender on responses to assertive behavior. In Experiment One, 72 male and 72 female college undergraduates listened to, and imagined themselves in, four audiotaped scenes in which they heard either a male- or female-voiced stranger ask them to change their behavior. Subjects then made two written responses: what they would actually say, and, what they would like to say. In Experiment Two, an independent sample of 40 male and 40 female undergraduates heard the same taped scenes used in Experiment One, and rated the asserting stranger along seventeen Semantic Differential scales.

The results of Experiment One showed that female asserting strangers received the same level of response from male and female respondents, but male asserting strangers received significantly different levels of response from

males and females, with males making significantly stronger responses than females. There were no significant differences in the reported desired response strengths. There was a significant tendency across all subjects to inhibit their desired responses in their actual responses, and both sexes showed a significantly larger degree of inhibition when the assertor was of the opposite sex. The results of Experiment Two indicated that there were no sex differences on the Evaluation factor scores. Both male and female respondents rated female asserting strangers as significantly higher on the Potency factor. Results are discussed in terms of the significance of decreased female response in the presence of the male asserting stranger.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. EXPERIMENT ONE	7
Subjects	7
Stimulus materials	7
Procedure	16
Results	21
Test #1: Gender differences in levels of actual reported response	21
Test #2: Gender differences in levels of reported desired response	23
Test #3: Gender differences in response inhibition	23
III. EXPERIMENT TWO	27
Subjects	27
Stimulus materials	27
Procedure	27
Results	29
Factor analysis of Semantic Differential ratings	29
Test #1: Gender differences in the evaluation of assertive male and female strangers	30
Test #2: Gender differences in the perceived potency of the assertive male and female strangers	30
IV. GENERAL DISCUSSION	34
.	
REFERENCES	49
APPENDIX A: VERBATIM INSTRUCTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT ONE	57
APPENDIX B: VERBATIM INSTRUCTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT TWO	61

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Means and Standard Deviations on Scene Ratings . . .	10
2.	Coding Categories with Frequencies per Scene and Rating Weights	18
3.	Means and Standard Deviations of Reported Actual Responses	22
4.	Analysis of Variance of Reported Actual Responses	22
5.	Means and Standard Deviations of Reported Desired Responses	24
6.	Analysis of Variance of Reported Desired Responses	24
7.	Means and Standard Deviations of Response Inhibition Scores	25
8.	Analysis of Variance of Response Inhibition Scores	25
9.	Factor Loadings on the Seventeen Semantic Differential Items	28
10.	Means and Standard Deviations of Evaluation Factor \bar{Z} Scores	31
11.	Analysis of Variance of Evaluation Factor \bar{Z} Scores	31
12.	Means and Standard Deviations of Potency Factor \bar{Z} Scores	32
13.	Analysis of Variance of Potency Factor \bar{Z} Scores . .	32

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Clinical research has increasingly identified difficulties in effectively negotiating the social environment as a major component of a wide range of behavioral disorders including schizophrenia (Eisler, Hersen, & Miller, 1973; Finch & Wallace, 1977; Goldsmith & McFall, 1975), depression (Lewinsohn, 1974; Piaget & Lazarus, 1969), alcoholism (Chaney, O'Leary, & Marlatt, 1978; Sobell & Sobell, 1973), interpersonal anxiety (Bander, Steinke, Allen, & Mosher, 1975; MacDonald, Lindquist, Kramer, McGrath, & Rhyne, 1975), phobias (Lazarus, 1971), uncontrolled aggression (Foy, Eisler, & Pinkston, 1975; Wallace, Teigen, Liberman, & Baker, 1973), and sexual deviation (Edwards, 1972). This research has also indicated that the social inadequacies seen in these target problem areas frequently result from an absence of requisite interpersonal behaviors, or "social skills," critical for successful functioning in the social environment. These findings have given rise to the view that many problems in interpersonal functioning occur largely because the individuals concerned have not acquired the behavioral patterns required for successful social adaptation (Bellack & Hersen, 1979). While the specific causes of social skills deficits may

vary with the idiosyncratic history of the individual, this social skills conceptualization of difficulties in interpersonal functioning suggests that it is the resultant deficits themselves, rather than their more distant causes, which constitute the most immediate barriers to effective social interaction. Clinical efforts to treat maladaptive behavior by the direct teaching of more adaptive social skills have become a major trend in clinical psychology (Bellack & Hersen, 1979; Phillips, 1978). The success of many of these efforts validates the utility of the social skills approach to human problems, and underscores the importance of continued research efforts in this area (Redd, Porterfield, & Anderson, 1979; Rimm & Masters, 1979).

The single social skill which has been of most interest in clinical research, as measured by the proportion of attention it has received within the social skills literature, is the social skill termed "assertion" (MacDonald & Cohen, 1981). Substantial efforts have been devoted to developing techniques to measure assertion (e.g., Galassi, Delo, Galassi, & Bastein, 1974; Gambrill & Richey, 1974; MacDonald, 1978; McFall & Lillesand, 1971; Rathus, 1973), and to teach people to behave more assertively (e.g., Adams, 1979; Alberti & Emmons, 1974; Bower & Bower, 1976; Manis, 1977; Smith, 1975). Somewhat surprisingly, however, very little attention has been paid to the environmental

effects of behaving assertively, and specifically, little is known about the types of responses made by others in response to assertive behavior. The relative absence of literature on this point is an interesting lacuna because, as Rimm and Masters (1979) point out, assertiveness training is typically conducted because of certain explicit assumptions about the results it will have, namely that "the client will be better able to achieve significant social (as well as material) rewards, and thus obtain more satisfaction from life (Rimm & Masters, 1979, p. 63). The word "assumption" here is critical because, in fact, efforts to document in vivo effects of increased assertion have lagged well behind efforts to teach people to act more assertively. Linehan and Egan (1979) make this point quite clearly when they note that "implicit in almost all definitions of assertion is the assumption that the behaviors described will be effective in producing or maintaining positive consequences while at the same time avoiding negative ones ... [but] ... almost no research has been done to specify empirically which specific behavioral responses are most likely to be effective..." (Linehan & Egan, 1979, p. 243). In other words, the widespread assertion training movement is based on certain assumptions about the beneficial results of increased assertion, but these assumptions have not been empirically validated. It is certainly important to study the responses any social

behavior typically elicits from others; it is especially important to study the responses a social behavior elicits when large numbers of individuals are being actively encouraged to increase their use of that behavior based on untested assumptions about its effects. Given that assertion falls into this latter category, the imbalance between our understanding of how to teach assertion, and our understanding of the effects increased assertion has, is quite unfortunate.

Recently, there have been attempts to understand some of the reactions elicited by assertive behavior (Hull & Schroeder, 1979; Kelly, Kern, Kirkley, Patterson, & Keene, 1980; Linehan & Siefert, 1978; Mullinex & Galassi, 1978; Woolfolk & Dever, 1979). Each of these studies has examined some facet of the types of attitudinal/evaluative responses individuals have to the assertion of others. None of these studies, however, examined the overt, behavioral responses individuals make in response to the assertion of others. Research in social psychology makes it clear that while attitudes influence behavior, they do not do so in any simple, linear fashion (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and thus the results of experiments which examine attitudinal responses to assertion are of uncertain generalizability to an understanding of the overt, behavioral responses which may accompany them. While it is ultimately important to understand both attitudinal and behavioral

responses to assertion, as well as the connections between them, currently there is a paucity of even descriptive data about the overt behavioral responses to assertion. It may well be, however, that the behavioral response is the more important level to understand, for attitudes, whatever their influence, must be expressed interpersonally via the route of some sort of overt behavior.

Several authors, in discussing variables which might influence the types of responses made to assertive behavior, have mentioned gender (Cowan & Koziej, 1979; Linehan & Egan, 1979; MacDonald, 1980), and each of the attitudinal studies cited above examined some aspect of this variable. With the exception of the Kelly, et al. study (which failed to replicate; MacDonald, 1982), the experiments have not found sex differences in responses to assertion, a finding which runs counter to the hypothesis, cited by a number of authors (Cowan & Koziej, 1979; Linehan & Egan, 1979; MacDonald, 1980), that women are punished and evaluated more negatively for assertive behavior. Linehan and Egan (1979) have criticized the attitudinal measures used in this work, arguing that there may well be a discrepancy between the attitudes reported toward assertive females and the actual behavioral responses made to the assertion of women. This critique further underscores the importance of measuring overt behavioral responses to assertion as well as attitudinal ones.

The present study consists of two experiments, both of which examine responses to assertive behavior. In each experiment, gender is varied both as a property of the assertor and as a property of the respondent. The first experiment focused on overt behavioral responses to assertion in an attempt to provide new data about this level of response; the second experiment focused on attitudinal/evaluative responses, to provide some continuity with published work in this area, and to provide a contemporaneous set of data to interpret in concert with the data from Experiment One.

CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENT ONE

Subjects

One hundred and forty-four male ($n = 72$) and female ($n = 72$) undergraduate psychology students drawn from the psychology department's subject pool participated in this experiment in return for extra credit toward their course grades. Subjects ranged in age from 17 to 29 (average age, 19.7).

Stimulus Materials

Both experiments reported in this work used the same set of stimulus materials. These stimuli consisted of four scenarios presenting face to face interactions, between strangers, in common public settings where one person asked another person to change his or her behavior. These scenes were constructed using the following procedure. A survey was conducted in which a group of nine male and eleven female psychology undergraduates were asked to write down several recent situations they had actually encountered in which they had been asked by someone else to stop or change what they were doing. This survey resulted in a pool of 33 discrete vignettes, fourteen of which involved face to face interactions between strangers in common pub-

lic settings. The most common locations, behaviors, and requests were drawn from these scenes and were used to construct a series of eight potential stimulus scenes, each of which involved a face to face interaction, between strangers, in a common public setting, where one person was asking another person to change his or her behavior.

These scenes included:

1. a request to stop talking during a movie,
2. a request not to cut into the ticket line outside of a movie theatre,
3. a request to yield a washing machine at a laundromat to someone else who claimed to have been waiting for it,
4. a request to turn a dormitory lounge television back to a program someone else had been watching,
5. a request not to cut into the checkout line at a grocery store,
6. a request to stop talking in the university library,
7. a request to yield a work table in the university library,
8. a request to yield a shopping cart to someone else who claimed to have seen it first.

A description of each of these scenes was developed specifying the setting, the role-player's (subject's) presently occurring behavior, and a stranger's verbal assertion

(request for change).

A sample of eleven men and eighteen women was asked to read each description and make unidimensional ratings of each scene on a series of seven point scales which assessed (1) the clarity and plausibility of each scene, (2) the subject's feelings about the role-players (themselves) and strangers and actions in the scene, and (3) the subject's probable response to the stranger's request made in the scene. T-tests on each of these scales indicated that there were no significant sex differences in the ratings, so the ratings were averaged across all subjects and are presented in Table 1. A criterion cut off of 3 or less, which indicated that some aspect of a scene was being evaluated as unlikely, unclear, or inappropriate was established, and two scenes, each of which occurred in the university library, were eliminated from further study on this basis.

The remaining six scenes were presented to an independent sample of male ($n = 6$) and female ($n = 6$) subjects in an intensive individual interview format. The experimenter read each scene to the subject, who indicated his or her response to the request for behavior change, and then questioned that subject as to the properties of each scene which contributed to his or her choice of response. Data from the detailed inquiry following the scene presentation suggested a number of problems with the scenes. Two of

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations on Scene Ratings

Question		Scene							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. How would you feel about yourself for doing what you are described as doing? (7 = very positive)	M	4.52	4.93	5.48	5.00	4.20	3.70	4.07	5.38
	SD	1.57	1.81	1.30	1.49	1.61	1.54	1.75	1.11
2. How appropriate would it be for you to refuse the request? (7 = very appropriate)	M	3.83	5.31	4.90	3.48	4.55	2.24	2.70	5.35
	SD	1.87	1.97	1.90	2.06	1.68	1.48	2.07	1.82
3. How reasonable was the request? (7 = very unreasonable)	M	4.07	5.38	5.76	4.21	4.86	2.00	2.90	5.93
	SD	1.91	1.52	1.35	2.08	1.68	1.39	2.08	1.16
4. How likely is it you would encounter this scene? (7 = very likely)	M	4.28	4.67	5.24	4.65	4.59	5.38	4.21	4.66
	SD	1.69	1.86	1.84	2.00	2.04	1.78	1.92	2.04
5. How easy is it to imagine yourself in this scene? (7 = very easy)	M	6.14	6.07	5.70	5.97	4.31	5.07	4.07	6.03
	SD	1.06	1.44	1.87	1.48	2.00	2.19	2.42	1.43
6. How realistic is this scene? (7 = very realistic)	M	5.07	5.59	5.07	5.48	5.03	6.24	4.45	4.55
	SD	1.67	1.35	1.98	1.96	1.84	1.24	2.00	1.80

Table 1 (continued)

Question		Scene							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7.	How clear is this scene? (7 = very clear)	M 5.97 SD 1.40	6.17 1.36	5.45 1.96	6.24 1.27	6.07 1.28	6.28 .80	5.55 1.80	6.10 1.20
8.	How appropriate was your action? (7 = very appropriate)	M 5.14 SD 1.48	5.52 1.80	6.31 .97	5.97 1.50	4.20 1.68	4.34 2.06	3.66 2.27	5.66 1.70
9.	How anxious would it make you to refuse the request? (7 = very unanxious)	M 3.48 SD 1.24	3.34 1.56	3.24 2.064	3.56 1.30	3.41 1.40	2.79 1.40	2.66 1.80	3.97 1.68
10.	How hard would it be to refuse the request (7 = very easy)	M 4.21 SD 1.80	4.65 1.97	3.90 1.97	3.28 1.65	3.37 1.66	2.51 1.50	2.48 1.60	4.28 2.05
11.	How would you feel about yourself if you refused the request? (7 = very positive)	M 3.44 SD 1.43	3.41 1.50	3.27 1.60	3.55 1.78	4.20 1.66	5.07 1.41	5.17 1.61	4.10 1.76
12.	How would you feel about the other person? (7 = very negative)	M 5.31 SD .97	5.86 .833	5.59 1.18	4.86 1.48	5.31 1.17	4.14 1.25	4.28 1.60	5.41 1.40
13.	How appropriate was the request? (7 = very inappropriate)	M 4.03 SD 1.66	5.10 1.67	5.66 1.52	4.03 2.15	5.03 1.55	5.49 1.82	4.90 2.19	6.34 1.05

Table 1 (continued)

		<u>Scene</u>							
<u>Question</u>		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
14.	How reasonable was your action? (7 = very reasonable)	M 5.02 SD 1.52	6.38 .820	5.70 1.78	5.90 1.54	4.62 1.70	3.90 1.74	4.56 2.19	6.70 1.14
15.	How likely would you be to refuse the request? (7 = very likely)	M 4.00 SD 1.95	6.14 1.27	4.86 2.20	3.07 1.81	4.69 1.80	2.59 1.94	2.38 1.78	4.97 2.10

the scenes, each of which involved someone cutting into a line, once outside of a movie and once in a store, were identified as redundant. The behavior of talking during a film was viewed by all of the subjects as inappropriate, and therefore as not being a behavior they would defend if asked to stop. In all of the scenes, most subjects indicated that the cost of compliance was so low that they would, and did, in fact comply. Data from the detailed interviewing also indicated that the wording of some of the requests was perceived as overly impolite by a number of the interview subjects.

In response to these findings, several changes were made in the scenes. The two scenes which had been judged redundant were combined into a single scene involving a person cutting into line at the university bookstore. The scene which involved talking during a film was eliminated. The response cost in all of the remaining scenes was increased by stressing the role-player's lack of alternatives, and the word "please" was added to each stranger's assertive request. Further intensive interviewing ($n = 13$) presenting the vignettes as modified indicated that different subjects gave a range of responses from compliance to strong refusal to the scenes, and viewed the actions of both the role players (themselves) and the stranger in the scenes as plausible, clear, and at least moderately appropriate. These changes resulted in the following final

set of four stimulus vignettes:

1. You walk into the T.V. lounge in your dorm to watch a special show you've been dying to see. The T.V. is on, but there is no one else in the room, so you turn the channel to the show you want to watch and sit down to watch it. A few minutes later, someone comes into the room and (he/she) says:

"Hey, I was watching that! Please turn it back!"

2. You walk into the laundramat to do some wash, and are really in a hurry to get done so you can join some friends who are all going out. The laundramat is pretty full, but you do see one empty, open machine way in the back. You go over and drop your clothes in. As you are reaching in your pocket for some change, a person comes up to you and says:

"Hey, I was waiting for that machine! Please take your clothes out and let me use it!"

3. You walk into a crowded grocery store to do some shopping. You don't see any empty carts so you walk around the store looking for one. Finally you see an empty, unattended cart over behind the checkout line. You go over and get it and start to push it away. As you do, a person comes up to you and says:

"Wait a minute, I was just about to use that cart. Please find another one!"

4. You are in the textbook annex and are really in a rush to get out so you can go to your next class. As you head for the checkout lines, all of which are pretty crowded, you see the line at the far end is almost empty, so you quickly take your books over there. You get there just at the same time as someone else does, but you slide into the line just before they do. The person says to you:

"Hey, I was here first! Please let me go ahead of you!"

These final scenes were then recorded onto audiotape for use in both experiments. For each scene, a brief description of the setting and the role player's (subject's)

behavior was recorded by the same male narrator. Then, to allow for the study of the effects of the asserting stranger's gender on the role player's response to the stranger's assertion, the stranger's request for behavior change was recorded in both a male and female voice. To provide a sample of same sexed voices, six male and six female volunteers were asked to rehearse each of the four scenes until they were familiar with the scripts and their performance was judged to be representative of a forceful, but not aggressive, manner. Each volunteer then recorded all four scenes. Two undergraduate research assistants, one male and one female, listened to all of the recorded scenes, and agreed upon the most natural and assertive sounding male- and female-voiced recording of each scene, with the restriction that no two scenes used the same model's voice. The chosen scenes were recorded, in the same order, onto two separate tapes, one using the four chosen male-voiced scenes and the other using the four chosen female-voiced scenes. Two additional tapes were then prepared, each of which was an exact duplicate of one of the first two tapes, except that the order in which the scenes were presented was reversed. This enabled half of the subjects in any experimental condition to be presented with the scenes in reverse order, thus counterbalancing the order of scene presentation across the experimental design. These four tapes comprised the stimulus materials

used in each of the two experiments in the present study.

Procedure

Participants were run in small, mixed sex groups which ranged in size from four to fourteen. Half of the subjects (36 males and 36 females) heard a tape presenting assertion by male-voiced strangers, while the other half of the subjects (36 males and 36 females) heard a tape presenting identical assertions in identical situations by female-voiced strangers. Within each stranger-gender condition, half of the subjects (18 males and 18 females) heard the scenes in reverse order to counter-balance the order of scene presentation.

Subjects were instructed to listen to each scene, imagine her or himself in that scene, and then make two written responses to that scene (see Appendix A for verbatim instructions). Each response was to be in the form of a quotation, the first being "what I would say" and the second being "what I would like to say." The tape was stopped after each scene, and subjects were given as much time as they needed to complete the two responses. Each scene was played only once. Subjects were not told how many scenes they would be hearing, and they were instructed to write a complete response to both questions, even if the responses were the same. This procedure resulted in a set of 288 responses for each of the four scenes, 144 "what I

would say" responses, and 144 "what I would like to say" responses.

A category coding system for this response set was then developed using rater judgments. Two undergraduate psychology majors, one male and one female, were used as judges. Each judge took the total of 288 responses for the first scene and independently sorted those responses into categories ranging from "forceful responses" to "weak responses." Each judge was then asked to articulate the criteria she or he had used in identifying categories and in assigning specific responses to various categories. These criteria were discussed, refined, and recorded, and the response set elicited by the second scene was sorted using the category system derived on the basis of the responses to the first one. Ambiguities in this second sort were discussed, and were used to further clarify the category distinctions. This procedure resulted in a category system consisting of seven gradations of submission, nine gradations of refusal, two categories of negotiation, and one category of indeterminate response. Descriptions of these categories and their relative frequencies per scene are presented in Table 2. The judges then independently sorted the responses to the final two scenes using this category system, with 91.7 percent and 94.4 percent agreement. Following this demonstration of the system's utility, the judges re-sorted the first two scenes with 90.3

Table 2

Coding Categories with Frequencies per Scene
and Rating Weights

Category	Frequency per Scene				Weight
	1	2	3	4	
Refusal					
1. Refusal with profanity or threat	2	2	1	2	8.625
2. Refusal with belittlement or sarcasm	9	19	12	16	8.028
3. Refusal with statement of own needs	1	3	1	19	6.520
4. Unelaborated refusal	0	2	5	3	6.480
5. Refusal with brief explanation	16	32	56	0	6.444
6. Refusal with contradiction of other's statement	11	21	12	9	6.282
7. Refusal with elaborated explanation	4	5	0	6	5.801
8. Refusal with minimization of conflict	0	9	15	11	5.550
9. Request for permission	25	9	0	10	4.819
Submission					
1. Submission with profanity or threat	0	1	0	1	5.973
2. Submission with belittlement or sarcasm	2	3	1	13	4.569
3. Submission with question of other's statement	5	4	2	6	3.565
4. Submission with expression of own needs	0	1	0	0	2.960
5. Submission with excuse	30	14	11	8	2.468
6. Submission with minimization of conflict	1	1	0	11	1.831
7. Unelaborated submission	17	6	16	28	1.653

Table 2 (continued)

Category	Frequency per Scene				Weight
	1	2	3	4	
Negotiation					
1. Contradiction of other and offer to negotiate	2	1	0	0	5.387
2. Agreement with other and request to negotiate	11	2	3	0	4.016
Non-committal					
1. Non-committal	8	9	9	1	5.298

percent and 96.9 percent agreement. All remaining disagreements after these final sorts were settled by rater discussion.

A system for scoring the categorized responses was then derived empirically in the following manner. A questionnaire was developed which presented each scene and a representative response to that scene from each response category. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 31 male and 31 female subjects who were asked to rate each of the representative responses within scenes on a nine point scale ranging from anchors of "very submissive" to "very aggressive." Ratings were averaged across scenes to yield a single weight for each sex for each response category. T-tests for sex differences in the rating weights were conducted, and no significant sex differences were found in the category weights. As a consequence of these results, response category ratings were averaged across gender to yield a single scoring weight for each response category. These weights are shown in Table 2.

The derived category weights were then assigned to the sample's categorized responses, allowing for the quantitative analysis of those responses. Each subject's "would say" responses were averaged across the four scenes yielding a single averaged measure of each subject's reported actual response level. Each subject's "would like to say" scores were also averaged across all four scenes

yielding a single averaged measure of the subject's reported desired level of response. By subtracting a subject's actual level of response from his or her desired level of response, a third score was calculated for each subject which indicated the degree to which the subject inhibited her or his desired response.

Three tests were planned, a priori, on these data:

(1) a test for gender differences in the levels of reported actual response of males and females to the assertion of women and men, (2) a test for gender differences in the levels of reported desired response of males and females to the assertion of women and men, and (3) a test for gender differences in the degree of inhibition shown by males and females in their responses to the assertion of women and men.

Results

Test #1: Gender differences in levels of actual reported response. Subjects' reported levels of actual response were analyzed in a 2 x 2, sex of subject by sex of asserting stranger, completely randomized analysis of variance. The results are presented in Tables 3 and 4. There were no significant main effects of sex of subject, or sex of asserting stranger; however, there was a significant interaction, $F(1,140) = 4.029$, $p < .05$, of sex of subject and sex of asserting stranger. Post hoc analysis indicated that

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of
Reported Actual Responses

<u>Sex of Subject</u>	<u>Sex of Asserting Stranger</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Male		
M	5.3933	5.0111
SD	.9927	1.2526
Female		
M	4.6969	5.0821
SD	1.2276	1.0963

Table 4
Analysis of Variance of Reported Actual Responses

<u>Source</u>	<u>S.S.</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>M.S.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Sex of subject	3.520	1	3.520	2.675
Sex of asserting stranger	.0	1	.0	<1
Interaction	5.301	1	5.301	4.029 ^a
Residual	184.222	140	1.316	
Total	193.043	143	1.350	

^a_p < .05

the significant interaction was primarily due to a significant difference, $df = 70$, $t = 2.65$, $p < .05$, between the levels of males' and females' responses to the assertion of men, with males making significantly stronger responses than females to men's assertion.

Test #2: Gender differences in levels of reported desired response. Subjects' levels of reported desired response were analyzed in a 2×2 , sex of subject by sex of asserting stranger, completely randomized analysis of variance. The results are presented in Tables 5 and 6. There were no significant main or interaction effects, indicating that there were no significant differences in the desired levels of response of women and men to the assertion of other men and women.

Test #3: Gender differences in response inhibition. The mean level of inhibition, calculated as the mean difference between the reported desired and actual response levels, was tested and found to be significantly different, $df = 143$, $t = -15.48$, $p < .001$, from zero, indicating that there was a statistically valid difference between subjects' levels of reported actual and desired responses. Subjects' levels of response inhibition were analyzed in a 2×2 , sex of subject by sex of asserting stranger, completely randomized analysis of variance. The results are presented in Tables 7 and 8. There were no significant main effects of

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations of
Reported Desired Responses

<u>Sex of Subject</u>	<u>Sex of Asserting Stranger</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Male		
M	6.8228	6.7309
SD	1.0461	1.1828
Female		
M	6.5715	6.4301
SD	1.1250	.9387

Table 6
Analysis of Variance of Reported Desired Responses

<u>Source</u>	<u>S.S.</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>M.S.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Sex of subject	2.743	1	2.743	2.365
Sex of asserting stranger	.490	1	.490	<1
Interaction	.022	1	.022	<1
Residual	162.404	140	1.160	
Total	165.659	143	1.158	

Table 7
Means and Standard Deviations of
Response Inhibition Scores

<u>Sex of Subject</u>	<u>Sex of Asserting Stranger</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Male		
M	1.4295	1.7199
SD	1.1844	1.3571
Female		
M	1.8746	1.3480
SD	1.1510	1.2140

Table 8
Analysis of Variance of Response Inhibition Scores

<u>Source</u>	<u>S.S.</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>M.S.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Sex of subject	.048	1	.048	<1
Sex of asserting stranger	.503	1	.503	<1
Interaction	6.008	1	6.008	3.977 ^a
Residual	211.512	140	1.511	
Total	218.071	143	1.525	

^a_p < .05

sex of subject or sex of asserting stranger. There was, however, a significant interaction between these two factors, $F(1,140) = 3.98$, $p < .05$. Post hoc analyses indicated that the significant interaction was primarily due to a significantly larger tendency, $df = 142$, $t = -2.01$, $p < .05$, on the parts of both sexes to inhibit their responses in cross-sex situations. However, neither sex showed a significantly larger degree of inhibition than the other sex in the cross sex situation, nor a significantly smaller degree of inhibition in the same sex situation.

CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENT TWO

Subjects

An independent sample of eighty male ($n = 40$) and female ($n = 40$) undergraduate psychology students drawn from the departmental subject pool participated in Experiment Two in return for extra credit toward their course grades. The age of the subjects ranged from 17 to 25 (mean age, 19.1 years).

Stimulus Materials

The same set of stimulus vignettes used in Experiment One were used in Experiment Two. Subjects heard identical assertions in identical scenes from either a male- or female-voiced stranger.

Procedure

Half of the male ($n = 20$) and female ($n = 20$) subjects heard the male asserting stranger tapes, while the other 20 male and 20 female subjects heard the female asserting stranger tapes. Within each group, half of the subjects heard the reverse order tapes. Subjects were asked to listen to each scene and then rate the asserting stranger on 17 Semantic Differential scales (see Table 9). These

Table 9

Factor Loadings on the Seventeen Semantic Differential Items

<u>Dimension</u>	1	2	<u>Factor</u>		
			3	4	5
bad-good	.73339	-.02113	-.04363	.36005	.03485
small-large	-.05818	-.08732	.68792	.31375	-.04105
weak-strong	.04032	.51531	.33289	.35184	.09897
worthless-valuable	.24026	.01081	-.04599	.65962	.22383
light-heavy	-.16054	.24014	.71744	-.11749	.04459
feminine-masculine	.04685	-.03401	.48186	-.17232	.09641
awful-nice	.83611	-.08989	-.10405	.21066	.11930
soft-hard	-.39136	.57700	.31925	-.15231	-.24397
unpleasant-pleasant	.82778	.00869	-.00832	.17692	.14248
coward-brave	-.18985	.80575	-.04348	.08232	.03177
unfair-fair	.74505	-.10136	.05436	.03369	.11983
dishonest-honest	.21073	.11006	.04818	-.01230	.35891
smooth-rough	-.42982	.44582	.34639	-.14720	-.08094
passive-active	.01854	.50380	-.07388	.08052	.15967
cruel-kind	.66246	-.38291	-.17783	-.07814	.01432
unemotional-emotional	.04740	.02436	.06315	.16990	.84692
sick-healthy	.11852	.10395	-.04078	.40971	-.00985

items were drawn from Osgood's work (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957) to represent the dimensions of Evaluation and Potency. The Evaluation dimension was included to test for differences in the evaluation of assertive females and males, and the Potency dimension was included to test for differences in the perception of the forcefulness of the assertive gestures of males and females. Subjects were asked to make these ratings after each scene, and each scene was played only once. These ratings were averaged across scenes yielding a single score on each of the 17 items for each subject. Two a priori tests were planned on these results: one testing for gender differences in the evaluation of assertive males and females by women and men, and one testing for gender differences in the perception by women and men of the potency of the assertive gestures of males and females.

Results

Factor analysis of the Semantic Differential ratings. The averaged cross scene Semantic Differential scores were factor analyzed using the SPSS computer program, version 8.0, factor analysis option PA2 (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). Five factors with eigenvalues greater than one emerged, and these five factors were subjected to a Varimax factor rotation. Item loadings from the rotated solution (see Table 9) were inspected to select

factor markers, designated as items with loadings above .5. On the basis of these markers, following Osgood's work on the Semantic Differential technique (Osgood, et al., 1957), the first two factors were identified as the Evaluation and Potency factors. Factor scores on each of these factors were calculated for each subject using the complete estimation method (Kim, 1975), and these scores were used to test for gender differences in the evaluation of assertive female and male strangers and in the perceptions of the potency of their assertion.

Test #1: Gender differences in the evaluation of assertive male and female strangers. Factor scores for the Evaluation factor were analyzed using a 2 x 2, sex of subject by sex of asserting stranger, completely randomized analysis of variance. The results are presented in Tables 10 and 11. There were no significant main effects for sex of asserting stranger, or sex of subject, and there was no significant interaction.

Test #2: Gender differences in the perceived potency of the assertion of male and female strangers. The Potency factor scores were analyzed using a 2 x 2, sex of subject by sex of asserting stranger, completely randomized analysis of variance. The results are presented in Tables 12 and 13. There was no main effect for sex of subject, and there was no interaction of sex of subject and sex of

Table 10
Means and Standard Deviations of
Evaluation Factor Z Scores

<u>Sex of Subject</u>	<u>Sex of Asserting Stranger</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Male		
M	.2781	-.2158
SD	.8556	.9897
Female		
M	-.0826	.0203
SD	1.0209	.8774

Table 11
Analysis of Variance of Evaluation Factor Z Scores

<u>Source</u>	<u>S.S.</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>M.S.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Sex of subject	.078	1	.078	<1
Sex of asserting stranger	1.781	1	1.781	2.021
Interaction	.765	1	.765	<1
Residual	66.952	76	.881	
Total	69.575	79	.881	

Table 12
Means and Standard Deviations of
Potency Factor Z Scores

<u>Sex of Subject</u>	<u>Sex of Asserting Stranger</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Male		
M	-.3689	.4003
SD	1.0470	.5562
Female		
M	-.2194	.1880
SD	.9028	.8514

Table 13
Analysis of Variance of Potency Factor Z Scores

<u>Source</u>	<u>S.S.</u>	<u>D.F.</u>	<u>M.S.</u>	<u>F.</u>
Sex of subject	.020	1	.020	<1
Sex of asserting stranger	6.992	1	6.992	9.40 ^a
Interaction	.665	1	.665	<1
Residual	55.966	76	.736	
Total	63.562	79	.805	

^a_p < .05

asserting stranger. There was, however, a significant main effect, $F(1, 76) = 9.4, p < .05$ for sex of asserting stranger, with both males and females rating assertive females as more potent than assertive males.

C H A P T E R I V

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The results from Experiment One suggest that gender does influence overt responses to assertion in an interesting, and not entirely straightforward, way. The men in this study were not, in general, less compliant than the women in the face of strangers' assertions; moreover, the female assertive strangers presented in this study did not, in general, meet with greater resistance to their assertive acts than did the male assertive strangers. However, when confronted with assertive male strangers, there were significant differences in how the two genders responded to them. In this specific situation, where subjects were confronted with assertive gestures enacted by males, women responded with significantly less assertion than did men. No such gender difference was found when subjects were confronted with assertive gestures enacted by females. In the latter circumstance, male and female subjects made essentially the same strength of response, and those responses fell in between the response extremes seen when the assertor was a male.

The results from Experiment One suggest as well that the observed gender differences in actual responding to male stranger's assertive acts did not arise from gender

differences in preferred levels of responding. Reported desired responses showed no significant main effects or interactions, regardless of the sex of the assertor or respondent, indicating that in a situation free from constraint, neither men nor women would choose to modify their responses to assertive behavior because of the sex of the assertor.

In the situations presented in this study, however, both women and men did evidence significant inhibition of their preferred responses: there were significant differences between desired and actual response strengths reported by both sexes. Further analysis of the inhibition scores from Experiment One suggests that there were at least two components to the observed general inhibition. First, there was a tendency across all subjects to soften their desired response in their actual response. Given that desired responses tended to fall within the scale anchors of "extremely assertive" to "slightly aggressive," this inhibition may represent a general tendency to censor responses that would be viewed consensually as overly aggressive. Although response inhibition is often viewed as a problem preventing comfortable and effective assertion (Linehan, 1979), insofar as inhibition leads to the transformation of an overly aggressive response into an effectively assertive one, it would be desirable. Insofar, of course, as inhibition leads to a submissive and noneffec-

tive response, however, it would become an appropriate clinical target. In general, however, it seems that response inhibition is a widespread feature of responses to assertive behavior, and is, in and of itself, not necessarily problematic. It is only when the amount of inhibition applied becomes too great, or, on the other hand, is insufficient, that a problem might be observed.

The second source of inhibition observed in the data from Experiment One was the tendency on the parts of both sexes to inhibit their response significantly more when the assertor was a member of the opposite sex. Because a response to assertion is also an opportunity for assertion on the part of the respondent, this result is consistent with a finding about assertion by Stebbins, Kelly, Tolor, and Power (1977). They reported data indicating that males and females assert themselves more with same-sex than opposite-sex others, a finding which they attributed to the "deeply entrenched attitude that members of the opposite sex deserve special consideration, at least prior to the establishment of a more permanent relationship" (Stebbins, et al., 1977, pp. 314-315). Given that the stimulus scenes used in the present work consisted of interactions between strangers with no permanent relationship, this explanation is plausible here as well.

The analysis of the Evaluation factor scores in Experiment Two suggests that gender does not influence the

evaluation of assertive individuals: assertive male and female models were rated similarly by both male and female respondents; moreover, there was no assertor gender-responder gender interaction. This finding is in agreement with a number of other studies reporting no gender differences in the evaluation or perceived social effectiveness of the assertion of men and women (Hull & Schroeder, 1979; Linehan & Siefert, 1978; Mullinex & Galassi, 1978; Woolfolk & Dever, 1979), although it conflicts with the finding by Kelly, et al. (1980) that assertive women are less well liked. One possible reason for this difference is that the Kelly, et al. work used a broad range of scales which tapped not only the assertor's behavior as an assertive individual, but also more global aspects of their interpersonal attractiveness. Their use of more broadly based evaluative measures may be an important difference from the present study, a point which will be amplified below.

It is important to note that while the evaluative measure in Experiment Two did not show any effects of gender, gender did influence overt responses made to assertive behavior in Experiment One. The discrepancy between the results found using the attitudinal and behavioral measures suggests that the two measures tap different aspects of the total response individuals have to assertive behavior, and that the measures cannot, therefore, be regarded as inter-

changeable with one another. Thus, research which is primarily interested in the behavioral aspects of assertion should use behavioral, rather than attitudinal, measures.

The analysis of the Potency factor scores from Experiment Two suggests that gender, while it did not influence the evaluation of the assertive models per se, did influence the perception of those individuals. Both male and female respondents saw the assertive females as more potent, or forceful, than the assertive males, a finding which agrees with MacDonald's (1981) observation that the assertive behavior of women is often seen as more extreme and aggressive than the same assertive gesture when performed by a male. This difference likely reflects the fact that assertion is traditionally much more role discrepant for females than males (Bem, 1974; Heilbrun, 1976; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975), and thus is seen as a more extreme, or in this case aggressive, behavior.

Certainly one of the more prominent questions which emerges from the present work is why the female respondents inhibited their responses to assertive male models to the degree that they did. One common explanation which has been offered to explain lower assertion levels for women, especially in response to men, has been summarized by Linehan and Egan (1979): "in most, if not all, instances, women are nonassertive because of a high probability of punishing consequences" (Linehan, et al., 1979, pp. 253-254).

These authors further point out, however, that they were "unable to uncover any well-controlled empirical studies which directly confirm this contention" (Linehan, et al., 1979, p. 254), and the results from the present work also fail to provide evidence to support this proposition: while the female respondents in Experiment One showed lowered levels of response strength to male assertive models, female assertive models did not receive stronger responses from male than female respondents and, in Experiment Two, the assertive females were not rated more negatively on the Evaluation factor than were the assertive males. It does not seem, therefore, that at least along the response dimensions measured in this study, women received more negative or punishing responses from men or women than did the men.

A second explanation which has been offered for the lower assertion level of women in the presence of men, which takes into account the negative empirical findings cited above is that women are underassertive because of an erroneous expectation of male disapproval (Linehan, Goldfried, & Goldfried, 1979). Evidence to support this explanation was presented by Linehan and Siefert (1978). Their study indicated that women, but not men, expected the opposite sex to be more disapproving of their assertion than was the same sex, in spite of the fact that no actual sex differences were found in the evaluation of the appropriateness of men's

and women's assertive behavior. On the basis of this argument, several authors have recommended that assertion training programs be altered to include an educational component designed to simply counter this supposedly erroneous belief (Linehan, Goldfried, & Goldfried, 1979).

The problem with this second argument is the use of the term "erroneous." It assumes the presence and persistence of an irrational belief, not within a single individual or cohesive sub-cultural group, but across a huge population of diverse individuals, namely women. It assumes, in short, the presence of a widespread belief which persists in the absence of environmental support for it. Perhaps an alternative, empirically testable, hypothesis to the erroneous belief one can be developed from the data in the present work. The results from Experiment Two indicate that there were differences in the perceptions of assertive males and females. Assertive females were seen as more aggressive (Potent), perhaps because their assertive behavior was a greater violation of the role expectations placed upon them. While this greater role violation did not seem to affect the evaluation of assertive females as assertive individuals, or strengthen the responses their assertion received, it is an open question as to whether it might not affect the evaluation and response they receive in other areas of interpersonal functioning.

Linehan and Egan (1979) point out that the effects of

assertive behavior can be evaluated from a number of stand-points, two of which are the "objective" effects of the behavior, and the "relational" effects of the behavior. The objective effects of assertive behavior refer to the relatively immediate, short term, goal-oriented effects of assertion. The relational effects of assertion refer to the longer term, affective, interpersonal consequences of the behavior. Put simply, objective effects concern power and influence in the moment, while relational effects concern interpersonal attraction and relationship maintenance over time. A number of studies from the social psychological literature have shown that the relationship between these interpersonal spheres is such that behaviors which typically maximize objective effectiveness often conflict with the maintenance and enhancement of relational effectiveness (Falbo, 1977; Marriott & Foster, 1978; Ford & Hogan, 1978).

A number of authors have noted that women are traditionally socialized to be attuned to, and to value, the relational aspects of interpersonal functioning, while men are socialized to be more concerned with the objective effects of interpersonal behavior (Bardwick & Douvan, 1972; Bem, 1974; Horner, 1970; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Schaffer, 1980). These authors have also noted how assertion is compatible with the traditional male sex role, and incompatible with the traditional female sex role. It is interesting to speculate, then, whether male and female asser-

tion, while having primarily the same effects in the objective sphere of interpersonal behavior, might not in fact have very different effects in the relational sphere, and that these differential effects are such that they support male assertion, and inhibit female assertion. Put more simply, it may be that the cost of successful assertion for males and females in terms of interpersonal attractiveness (especially, perhaps, to members of the opposite sex) are quite different. An "assertive" male may well be more interpersonally attractive than an "aggressive" female, even though both may be objectively effective, and a "passive" female may be more interpersonally attractive than a "weak" male, even though neither may be objectively effective.

There is some evidence in the literature which supports this line of reasoning. Greenwald (1978) reports data which show that high-frequency dating females are less assertive than low-frequency dating females. Meyer and Lewis (1976) found that as husbands rated their wives as becoming more assertive, they also rated them as becoming less affectionate and less loving. Lao, Upchurch, Corwin, and Grossnickle (1975) found that, with levels of objective assertiveness held equal, assertive women were seen as less interpersonally attractive, and Kelly, et al. (1980) found that assertive females were judged as less interpersonally attractive than unassertive females, while

assertive males were actually judged more favorably on measures of appropriateness, intelligence, and social skill than were unassertive males. In each of these studies, there appears to be a trade-off between assertion and interpersonal attractiveness for women which is either not present, or is less strongly present, for men. In each of these cases, the relevant finding is that there was an interpersonal relational cost for effective assertion that was higher for, and perhaps more valued by, women than for men.

If it is true that the relational consequences of male and female assertion are in fact different, even though the objective consequences may not be, then the lower level of assertion found with women confronted with male assertors may not represent the effects of an "erroneous" assumption on their part, but rather a sensitivity to the potentially complex relational outcomes of their assertive behavior. Furthermore, the failure of most studies in this area, including the present one, to detect different outcomes for the assertion of women in the types of common social situations examined may reflect the narrowness of the consequences measured, rather than an absolute lack of differences per se. Although assertion is a behavior aimed largely at increasing an individual's objective effectiveness in interpersonal situations, it would be naive to assume that individuals would adopt it in situations where its

relational costs might outstrip the objective gains to such an extent that the objective gains constitute a Pyrrhic victory. Future research on assertion will likely have to increase the scope of the effects that it considers if it is to truly understand the topography and function of assertive behavior.

Fortunately, the above speculations do yield a testable empirical problem. What is needed to determine if, in fact, there are gender differences in the relational consequences of male and female assertion is a design which confronts male and female subjects with assertive models of both sexes, and then measures not only the subjects responses to the models as assertors, but also as potential dates, friends, co-workers, and in other relational social roles. Measures could be taken not only of how effective and acceptable the model's assertive behavior was, but also on how the model's assertion influenced broader, more relationally-directed ratings of the model's interpersonal attractiveness. In this way, both the immediate objective and the more enduring relational effects of assertion could be studied concurrently. It would also be important for this research to vary the subjects' demographic characteristics (such as age and sub-cultural affiliation), relationship to the assertive model (stranger, friend, intimate, boss, etc.), and the content of the scene (for example, common social situations versus an Equal

Rights Amendment debate). Assertion has been shown to be a highly situationally specific behavior (Rich & Schroeder, 1976), and thus it is perhaps logical to assume that the responses made to assertion will also vary considerably with changes in the situational parameters within which the response occurs. Further research which systematically varies these factors will be required to delineate the situational parameters which most affect the responses made to assertive behavior.

The consequences of the present research for assertiveness training programs are unclear, precisely because it remains an open question why the female subjects, and not the male ones, lowered their responses in the presence of male assertive models. In fact, in light of the highly situationally specific nature of assertion for both women and men, this question could be broadened to one of a lack of understanding of why any person might not use assertion in a social conflict or rights infringement situation. If all failures to use assertion when it might be effectively used are based on a social skills deficit, erroneous expectation, or anxiety-based response inhibition, then some type of direct clinical intervention to overcome the problem and increase the use of assertion would be appropriate. If, however, the decision not to use assertion sometimes reflects the existence of a more complex cost/benefit structure than has hitherto been delineated, it

may well be inappropriate to encourage the blanket use of the types of direct, unembellished communicational patterns which are typically taught in assertiveness training programs. This is not to argue that individuals should not defend and promote their personal and social rights. It is, however, to argue that the goal of clinical efforts in this area is not increased assertion per se, but increasingly effective interpersonal functioning in problematic situations. As noted earlier, it is an untested assumption that a direct and unembellished communicational style is necessarily the most effective, for women or men, in all cases of social conflict or rights infringement. (It could be noted in this regard that in Experiment One, the assertive male models received strong responses from the male respondents, suggesting that between males, the use of this type of direct assertion might tend to escalate, rather than resolve, the conflict situation.) Insofar as assertion is a successful and socially acceptable behavior for males in certain situations, there is no reason why it should not be so for females. This is an important matter of social equity whose full realization still requires complex changes in our socio-cultural conceptualization of sex roles and sex role appropriate behavior. Insofar, however, as there are conflict situations in which the exclusive or preponderant reliance on this style of behavior is counterproductive, then a more differentiated behavioral

repertoire would be called for, for both women and men.

The interpersonal environment is an extremely complex and multi-faceted area, and the abilities and behaviors required to effectively negotiate this area are correspondingly diverse. If enabling individuals to effectively negotiate their interpersonal environments is, in fact, the overarching goal of the social skills training movement in clinical psychology, then perhaps researchers in this area should consider broadening the focus of their research from "assertive behavior" to "socially effective behavior." This would place the study of the types of direct communicational patterns taught in assertiveness training programs within the broader context of all socially effective communicational styles, which might include such patterns as diplomacy, negotiation, compromise, lying, etc., and ask which pattern(s) is (are) the most effective in which rights infringement situations given which interpersonal goals. The clinical offshoot of this approach to difficulties in interpersonal functioning might not be "assertion training" at all, but rather a more complex "social effectiveness" or "effective interpersonal problem solving" training which would recognize that there may be more to socially skillful effective conflict resolution than simple assertion.

Of course, before such programs could be designed and implemented, much more information would be needed on the

critical factors which determine the relative efficacy of different strategies in different situations given different desired outcomes. This is where significant new efforts are needed in the social skills research movement. The fact that the answers we pursue are likely to become more complex as our questions become more differentiated should serve only to challenge us as researchers, and remind us of the complexity of that which we seek to understand.

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APPENDIX A
VERBATIM INSTRUCTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT ONE

Hello, my name is _____. I am a research assistant in the department of psychology and will be conducting today's session. In this experiment we are investigating the ways in which people respond to certain types of situations. You will be hearing a series of short tape recorded scenes in which someone says something to you. We would like you to listen to each scene, picture yourself in that scene¹ at that very moment, and then write down two things on your response form.

The first thing we would like you to write down is what you think you would actually say if you were in that scene. We would like you to write a direct quotation of what you would say, not just a summary of what you would say. This is very important, so let me repeat myself; we want you to write down a direct quotation of what you would actually say in that situation. for example, please look at the top page of the booklet in front of you which is labelled "sample scenes and responses." There is a sample scene, like the ones on the tape that you will be hearing, which says "You are walking out of the theatre after watching a movie you really liked. A person in the line waiting to get in for the next show says: 'Hey, how was the film? Is it any good?'" Then there are two sample responses which illustrate the correct and incorrect

¹Underlining was provided to indicate needed areas of emphasis to research assistants.

forms of the response. The first sample response is in the correct form. It is where you might write, quote, it was really good, I really liked it, unquote. This response would be correct not because of its content, but because it was expressed as a direct quotation. The second sample response shows what an incorrect response might look like. It is where you write, "I would tell the person I liked the film" or "I would say that I liked it." These responses are incorrect not because of their content, but because they are summaries of what you would say, rather than direct quotations of what you might say. Your responses must be in the form of a direct quotation of what you would say, like the correct example above. Are there any questions so far?

The second response we will be asking you to make may be a little different than the first one. In some of the scenes you will be hearing, there may or may not be a difference between what you'd actually say, and what you might feel like saying. In the second response, we would like you to write down what you might feel like saying in the situation described on the tape. Again, this may or may not be different from what you write down in your first answer to the scene, but even if it is the same, we would like you to write it out again. Please do not write the word "same" for the second response. Also, just as in the first response, make sure you write your response as a

direct quotation, and not jut a summary of what you would like to say.

So, to review, I will play a tape recorded scene. You will listen to the scene, picturing yourself in that scene right now, and picturing the exact words that you would be saying in that scene. You will then write down: 1) a direct quotation of what you would actually say in that scene, and 2) a direct quotation of what you would really feel like saying in that scene, which may or may not be different than your first response. Any questions about the procedure?

O.K., now if you will turn to the first response form in your booklet, you will see that each page has spaces for two responses. You will use a new page for each scene, and write the first response, what you would actually say, on top, and the second response, what you would like to say, on the bottom.

O. K., is everyone ready? I will play the first scene and then stop the tape while you write down your two responses. When everyone is done, I will play the next scene, and so on for all the scenes. Please listen carefully as I will only play each scene once. All set? O. K., here is the first scene.

APPENDIX B
VERBATIM INSTRUCTIONS FOR EXPERIMENT TWO

Hello, my name is _____. I am a research assistant in the department of psychology and will be conducting today's session. In this experiment we are investigating the ways in which people respond to certain situations. You will be hearing a series of short tape recorded scenes in which someone says something to you. We would like you to listen to each scene, and picture yourself in that scene. Then we would like you to rate the person who spoke to you in that scene on each of the scales on the response form in front of you.

If you will look at the response form, you will see that there are seventeen scales you will be rating the person on. You will make your ratings by simply placing a check mark in the space on the scale that corresponds to your judgment. For example, looking at the first scale, "good-bad," if you wanted to rate the person as "somewhat good," you would place a check mark in the second space from the left, the space over the word "somewhat" and near the word "good." If you wanted to rate the person on the tape as "somewhat bad," you would place a check mark in the second space from the right, the space over the word "somewhat," and near the word "bad." Please be sure to place your check marks in the spaces between the lines and not on the lines themselves. Also, please be sure to mark all of the scales; do not leave any blank. The spaces on the first scale are labelled to help orient

you to the scale, and you may treat all the other scales as if the spaces were labelled in the same way. After you have finished rating the person in the first scene, I will play the next scene, and you will rate that person on the next rating form, and so on until we are done. Any questions?

So, to review, I will play a tape recorded scene in which someone says something to you. You are to picture that scene, and then rate the person who spoke to you in that scene on each of the scales on the response form. Please listen carefully as I will only play each scene once. Any questions? O. K., here is the first scene.

(After all scenes are completed). O. K., now please turn your response booklet over and write your age, sex, and year in school on the back of the last page.

