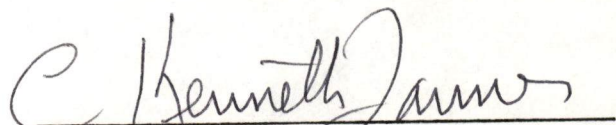
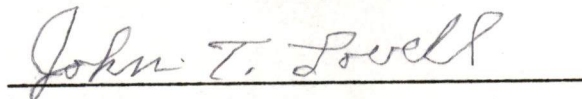


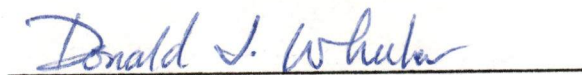
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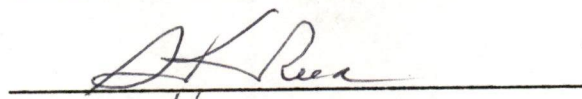
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Garnett A. Lindle, Jr., entitled "The Effects of Interpersonal Performance on Females in a Simulated Selection Interview." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.


C. Kenneth Tanner
Major Professor

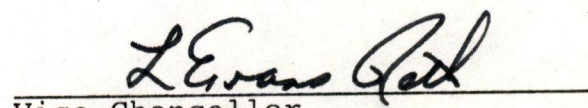
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Donald J. Whelan


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THE EFFECTS OF INTERPERSONAL PERFORMANCE
ON FEMALES IN A SIMULATED
SELECTION INTERVIEW

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Garnett A. Lindle, Jr.

August 1979

1398065

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Garnett and Dorothy. For without their love, their unfailing support, and encouragement through the years, I would have stopped long ago.

One may never fully appreciate the essentials learned to cope with life from their parents, but I sincerely thank you for your patience, understanding and direction.

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ABSTRACT

This experiment was conducted primarily in order to test some hypotheses relating the effects of interpersonal performance style to interpersonal behavior within the selection interview. Female college students ($n = 72$) at The University of Tennessee who were categorized as either a "P" (those persons who dislike to role-play) or "R" (those persons who like to role-play) type person according to Goffman's theory of interpersonal performance role-played the part of an interviewer or interviewee. Three hypotheses were tested: (1) Female interviewees who like to role-play will receive more positive mean composite interview scores than those female interviewees who dislike to role-play. (2) Female interviewers-interviewees who dislike to role-play will obtain significantly less positive mean composite interview scores for the interview than will any other combination. (3) Significantly more females who like to role-play will be recommended for employment than females who dislike to role-play. A 2×2 factorial design was systematically varied for interpersonal performance styles and an analysis of variance was performed on a composite interview score. The results indicated that the "R" type interviewees, generally, received more positive mean composite interview scores than did "P" type interviewees.

No difference was shown between the way "P" type interviewer rated the two types of interpersonal performance "P" and "R" interviewees, but the "R" type interviewer showed a tendency to rate the "P" type interviewee much less positively than the "R" type interviewee. Recommendations for future research dealing with interpersonal performance styles within the selection interview are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PURPOSE

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of interpersonal performance within a simulated selection interview with female participants. This was accomplished through the use of Goffman's interpersonal performance style instrument by selecting the participants based on their Performance Style Test (PST) scores. A secondary purpose to the above was to measure the effects of interpersonal performance styles based on a technique using a composite interview score. Another important purpose of this study was to accept or refute those conclusions offered by Young (1977). Thus, this dissertation was a replication of that study inasmuch as methodology and literature review are concerned. The population here utilized female instead of male subjects, the focus of Young's study. The main and interaction effects were tested by the use of the statistical procedure known as the analysis of variance (ANOVA).

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Some research has indicated that interviewers are unable to predict an applicant's success on specific jobs,

while other studies indicate that the interview may be used as a valid means of predicting success in various activities. A search of the literature shows that these studies have not been replicated while similar research yields conflicting results. Actually there is a pressing need for better research dealing with the effects of interpersonal performance in the selection interview. The literature shows a good indication that an unsystematic variable affecting both the reliability and validity of the interview exists. However, further investigation of unsystematic variation is needed to provide information necessary for researchers to understand and better predict the outcome of the decision-making process in the selection interview. In the same vein, little is known about the behavior of females of different performance styles. The only previous research on interpersonal performance style of females was a study by McKenna (1971).

II. HYPOTHESES

1. The female interpersonal performance style "R" interviewees will receive a significantly more positive mean composite interview score than the female interpersonal performance style "P" interviewees.

2. The female interpersonal performance style "P" interviewees and the interpersonal performance style "P"

interviewers will obtain significantly less positive mean composite interview scores for the interview than any other combination in the study.

3. Significantly more female "R" type interpersonal performance styles will be recommended for employment than female "P" type interpersonal performance styles.

III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

A "P" type interpersonal performance style reflects a person who finds performance-giving a source of considerable strain and discomfort. Thus, in this case a female wants merely to "be herself" and for others to "be themselves" too. Motivationally, she dislikes and prefers to avoid those interpersonal contexts which call for her to "act" or "play a role." She lacks acting skill and knowledge factors necessary to project herself in a favorable manner. Interpersonally, then, a "P" is likely to be something less than impressive, whenever she finds she cannot "be herself," she behaves ineptly and feels restricted and ill-at-ease.

An "R" type interpersonal performance style in this research implies a person who is typically skilled in interpersonal relations. These females generally find interpersonal relationships very pleasurable. They are versatile in knowing many roles and agile in handling these

roles to the situation at hand and generally project a very favorable image.

IV. LIMITATIONS

1. This study's population was limited to female college students at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville.

2. The sample of subjects participated on a voluntary basis.

3. Subjects consisted of relatively pure "P" and "R" type interpersonal performance styles, therefore, by excluding the "C" type interpersonal performance style, a restriction of the sample size occurred.

4. Job qualifications were not varied, thus, limiting the generalizability to a specific type of job.

5. One applicant was interviewed by each interviewer, thus, providing the interviewer no opportunity to differentiate between the interpersonal performance styles.

V. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I presented a statement of the purpose, and introduction of the problem, the hypotheses, the definition of terms, and an indication of the limitations of this study.

Chapter II presents a review of related literature and research to this study.

Chapter III focuses on the description of the procedures used in the selection of subjects, collection of the data, experimental design, and statistical methodology used to analyze the data.

Chapter IV indicates the results of the statistical analysis performed on the data that was received.

Chapter V discusses the findings and indicates the conclusions drawn from this study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The development of new tools and techniques for appraising aptitude for training or predicting job performance continues, but the interview remains the most widely used selection device. Therefore, researchers continue to devote considerable effort and time to its improvement and refinement.

Since most investigators accept the interview as inevitable, if not indispensable, it is important to survey the research which has been done to date. Early investigators of the interview technique were interested in the question of validity by correlating some interview score with some criteria of job related performance. However, improvement in the interview was not generated by these investigations. Because of their design, these studies failed to provide an answer to the question of why the interview was valid or invalid. Only specific information limited to a specific situation was indicated. Mayfield (1964) specifies that there are two basic reasons for the current state of affairs. First, many of the studies which have been reported are not comparable due to the lack of controls and the fact that different interviewing methods were used in the different studies. Second, many of the so-called rules on "how to

interview" are actually hypotheses derived from "best guesses" and from studies undertaken in fields other than that of selection interviewing. Until these hypotheses are evaluated in the actual selection interview situation, they should not be accepted without questions. Mayfield (1964) also noted the lack of confirmed validity of the interview and the abundance of opinion articles and reports of uncontrolled observations. Mayfield maintained that two new research approaches to the interview would be useful. First, the emphasis should be on the process of decision-making as it occurs in the selection interview rather than on the results of the interview. That is, the focus should be on the variables affecting interview decisions. Secondly, this decision-making process may be studied most adequately by dividing the interview into small units and conducting controlled studies on one or two variables at a time. Later Mayfield and Carlson (1966) indicated that the ultimate objective of interview validity be postponed, while more attention should be directed to investigating the issue of why the interview is valid or invalid.

Ulrich and Trumbo (1965) agreed with earlier researchers concerning the dearth of encouraging evidence on the reliability and validity of the interview. And they posed an additional problem for the interview regarding its functional validity. Noting the expense of the interview,

they felt research should be conducted separating the predictive validity obtained from the interview from that obtained from other sources. Ulrich and Trumbo concluded that the variables having to do with personal relations and motivation were the two areas which contributed most to interview decisions and which possessed the most validity. Like Mayfield (1964), Ulrich and Trumbo (1965) believed interview research should be restricted to one or two areas as part of a sequential testing procedure. They also felt that research designed to increase understanding of the interview as a decision-making process and as interpersonal communication would be most promising. Thus, by understanding why the interview is valid or invalid, the experimenters would be able to generalize their findings to other settings, which in turn would bring research a step closer to the ultimate goals of establishing interview validity (Wright, 1969).

Investigators in an effort to find out why an interview is valid or invalid, generally have followed one of two research strategies. One method involves the use of hypothetical applicants created from photographs and written data supplied by the researcher (Dipboye, Fromkin, and Wiback, 1975; Carlson, 1967; Rowe, 1967), while the other method involves the use of a subject posing as an interviewee in a role-playing situation (Maier, 1966). However,

Springbett (1958) has implied that perhaps hypothetical applicants may not supply the necessary information about the interview because the measuring instrument in the interview is the interviewee and not a hypothetical applicant. He further compares the decision reached in a selection interview to that of a final score on a test and proposes that sources of unsystematic variance in the interview be isolated and examined to determine their effects on the outcome of the interview.

Some researchers have indicated that one source of unsystematic variance in the interview is the interviewee's actual physical presence in the interview. Maier and Thurber (1968) support this view in their study where the actual presence of the interviewee in an interview yielded different results than when the same interview transcript was read or heard from a tape recorder. The evidence indicates, depending on one's point of view, that the interviewee's presence or absence in the interview could be a source of variance that justifies further investigation.

Accurate person perception is repeatedly identified as an essential component of effectiveness in interpersonal functioning. One such study by Barocas and Vance (1973) was conducted to determine the effects, if any, of interpersonal performance on the outcome of an interview. They concluded that those candidates who accurately estimated

the interviewer's impression were identified by the recruiters as managing their interview behavior well. Also, those same candidates were seen by the interviewers as more suitable for the job than those who were less accurate in estimating the interviewer's impressions.

One social-psychological approach which has received serious attention in estimating the interviewer's impression and ability to respond in the proper way has been described as impression management by Goffman (1959). The central construct in Goffman's analysis of interpersonal behavior is "impression management," wherein the individual, or "actor," controls the impressions others receive from him through his role-playing ability.

Goffman's concept of impression management was subsequently expanded and typologized in the construct of "performance style" by Ring, Braginsky, and Braginsky (1966). These authors conceived the performance style as the characteristic mode of behavior which individuals utilize in controlling the impressions others receive from them. They proposed three classes of variables affecting interpersonal behavior: "(1) the attributes of the actors; (2) the attributes of the audience; (3) the attributes of the setting in which the performance takes place" (p. 206). However, the attributes of the actor are further defined into three components: (1) motivational factors; (2) knowledge factors; (3) skill factors.

Insofar as any performance depends upon the attributes of the actor, it depends upon these components. If the individual is not motivated to perform in a given way, that performance will, of course, not occur. Even if the individual is motivated to perform, the quality of his performance will be determined by the extent to which he knows which behavior will help him best to realize the desired performance (a knowledge of the script, as it were) as well as his skill in executing the performance (his acting ability). (p. 206)

The concept of "performance style" is defined as "an individual's characteristic mode of interaction with others" (p. 206) and it is argued that out of the many different ways of combining the motivational, knowledge and skill components of the actor "there are three primary combinations . . . which account for most of the actor-related variance in performance behavior" (p. 207). A typology of three performance styles is proposed along with "a picture of the prototypic individual associated with each of these styles" (p. 207). These styles are labeled "P," "R," and "C." However, these styles represent points on a single dimension with the "C" style falling between the "P" and "R" style, but the discussion here will entail only the "P" and "R" styles of interpersonal performance.

The "P" is a person who finds performance-giving a source of considerable strain and discomfort and who, therefore, is motivated to avoid situations in which such behavior is expected. She knows only one role, which she performs poorly, and that is to "be herself." The very

notion of acting is abhorred by the "P," and, lacking the required social agility and knowledge of scripts to give anything but a crude and embarrassing performance, the "P" either seeks to avoid social interaction altogether or tries to restructure situations such that any need for acting is mitigated and people are free to be themselves. According to Ring et al. (1966) the reasons for this lack of ability in impression management are three factors which contribute to the poor performance given by "P's": (1) lack of the appropriate skill required for social agility, (2) a general deficiency in knowledge of scripts, and (3) a personal distaste for acting, which thwarts a "P's" desire to be oneself.

However, in comparison the "R" is described as a person who knows many roles, possesses substantial acting ability, and has a somewhat Machiavellian social orientation. The "R" enjoys interpersonal relations, is able to handle herself gracefully and skillfully in all social contexts, and tends to exploit situations for maximum personal benefit. According to Ring and Wallston (1968) the interpersonal relationships for the "R" type person is related to the unique motivational factors of each style. The "R" has two basic motivations: to give good performance and to use this acting ability to manipulate others for one's own ends. In this latter respect, the "R" shares motivations with the

highly Machiavellian individual Christie (1962). While the "P" type person manipulates others but (1) they do so for different ends than the "R's" and (2) they are not so successful at achieving their ends through manipulative strategies as "R's" are in achieving theirs. As Ring et al. (1966) stated,

Specifically we would postulate that a "R":
 (1) is characterized by a set of needs which are gratifiable in interpersonal context; (2) has the social agility required for successful performance giving (and is truly able to satisfy his needs); (3) "knows" many scripts and may therefore be said to be interpersonally versatile. (p. 212)

Ring et al. (1966) admit that any typology, such as that of performance styles, must, of necessity, be an oversimplification of the "true nature of the world." In their own words, however:

We emphatically do not mean to suggest that any given person can be pigeon-holed as one or another of these three types, if, by such classification, one attributes to him all the postulated correlates of that type. We do, however, believe it is possible that many people are predominantly of one type in the sense that they have most of the characteristics of that type and few of those of the other types. (p. 218)

In order to test the validity and utility of the hypothesized typologies Ring and Wallston (1968) developed the Performance Style Test (PST) for selecting "Ps," "Rs," and "Cs" to act as subjects in their experiments. The PST consisted of 55 true-false items on a paper and pencil test

that reflect the characteristics attributed to "Ps," "Rs," and "Cs." Three scoring keys were developed by Ring and his associates (one for each performance style) intuitive judgments concerning how each item would be responded to by a person possessing a given typological status. As an indication of the validity of the PST keying, the item biserial correlation technique was used, showing that 77 percent of the correlations ranged from .20 to .80 over the three performance styles while only 4 percent failed to show positive values.

The stability of the PST was tested by administering it on separate occasions over a two month period to an introductory social psychology class of 36 subjects. The reliability coefficient of this test-retest procedure was found to be .85. However, the PST is a measure of a theoretical construct which presents the next issue that of construct validity. Proof of construct validity is supplied through correlations with other tests and by comparing groups of people.

Christie (1962) has proposed an individual difference variable based upon the tendency to endorse the sentiments of Niccolo Machiavelli. This tendency, which he has labeled "Machiavellianism," should be related to an interpersonal

behavior orientation which emphasizes manipulation, opportunism, and exploitation which, in turn, would be related to effectiveness in those situations where other people are open to exploitation. The relationship between Machiavellianism and performance-giving are obvious; to achieve his ends, the high Mach individual must constantly be concerned with the impression he makes on others. In view of the "R" type person being tinged with a Machiavellianism quality correlations were computed with Christie's Machiavellianism V test and the Social Desirability measure which is a scale derived from the Machiavellianism V (Ring and Wallston, 1968).

Ring and Wallston (1968) found a positive association of .15 between the "R" score and Machiavellianism. This seems to reflect the tinge of Machiavellianism that they described as somewhat typical of an "R." Their finding a negative association of -.11 between "R" and Social Desirability would also be expected in view of the "R's" exploitative manner or need to control the relationship in an interpersonal setting rather than appear socially desirable. The almost zero association .01 that are found when the "P" scale is correlated with the Machiavellianism and Social Desirability scale would be as expected due to the "P" type person having little concern for a power type relationship with people and the lack of ability

and concern for the "P's" to appear socially desirable, but rather only to be himself. However, due to the magnitude of the correlations found in this study construct validity was not conclusively demonstrated, therefore, further research is needed to settle this point of construct validation.

Another indication of construct validity for the PST was established by Young (1974a), when he correlated the persuasive scale from the Kuder Preference Record Vocational Form CP with the "P" and "R" scales of the PST. The results were a negative correlation of $-.54$ ($p < .01$) between scale "P" and persuasive scale and a positive correlation of $.45$ ($p < .01$) between scale "R" and persuasive scale of the Kuder. Although this demonstrates that those scoring high in persuasiveness also score high on the "R" scale and vice versa, for the "P" scale a case could be made that the Kuder measures interest rather than ability. However, Vroom (1964) has indicated that people tend to be interested in areas for which they have some ability.

Additional evidence of construct validity was established by Young (1974b) in a second study where performance style ("P" and "R") and ability to fake an interest inventory were correlated. Young selected pure performance style ("P" and "R") subjects and controlled for an interest factor. Subjects participating in the study were selected on the

following criteria: (1) those subjects who score at or above the 85th percentile on either the "P" or "R" scale of the PST while receiving a score at or below the 50th percentile on the remaining two scales (percentiles based on Ring and Wallston's (1968) norms using 852 subjects); (2) those subjects who also received a score at or below the 50th percentile on scale 1 (outdoors) and scale 9 (clerical) of the Kuder Preference Record Vocational Form CP. The subjects that were selected on this criteria were then administered the Kuder a second time with the directions to fake their answers so that their results would be similar to those of a statistician (scale 9) and a naturalist (scale 1). Even though the naturalist scale (1) was not used in the actual computation it was included to complicate the faking process because Barocas and Christensen (1968) found that faking a single scale alone did not discriminate among good and poor fakers. The results of scale 9 on the second administration were subtracted from the results of the scale from the first administration to yield a remainder. This remainder was then correlated with the "P" and "R" scales of the PST which resulted in a positive correlation of .48 ($p < .05$) for scale "R" and the remainder and a negative correlation of -.32 (not significant) between scale "P" and the remainder. The persons who were classified as "R" types tended to do better in manipulating their answers than those classified as "P" types, however,

an argument could be made that the ability to manipulate the results on a paper and pencil test does not indicate an ability to do so in an interpersonal context. But, there is evidence that indicates differently in a study by Barocas and Christensen (1968).

In order to determine if the ability to manage impressions appeared in the context of a printed inventory, Barocas and Christensen (1968) designed an experiment based on the acceptance of Goffman's premise that there were individual differences in the ability to manage impressions. Their hypothesis was that those individuals who were good in faking on a test should also be good impression managers because both tasks require the individual to project himself in a certain manner. Thus, they operationally defined impression management as the ability to fake well on a paper and pencil test. Those subjects who faked well on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank were considered good impression managers while those subjects less capable in faking were categorized as poor impression managers. The students were then dichotimized according to ability in impression management and matched in academic ability based on their college board scores. They found that students categorized as good impression managers received higher grade point averages after one semester in college than those categorized as poor impression managers. Therefore, since good impression managers

received higher grades in the classroom even though academic ability was controlled and a post hoc examination indicated no difference in the curriculum of good and poor impression managers, there is suggestive evidence of a relationship between ability to manipulate the outcomes of a printed inventory and the ability to manage the impression of others. In conjunction with Young's study, this further suggests construct validity for the PST.

Although the previous findings only suggest construct validity of the PST the literature presents one study using the PST in an experimental validation of the performance styles hypothesized by Ring et al. (1967). This experimental study used the PST to select the subjects who were to participate in the actual experiment. In order to be eligible to participate in the experiment, a student had to have a percentile rank on one of the three dimensions of at least 85 and a rank no higher than 55 on the remaining two; thus, restricting themselves to relatively pure "P," "R," and "C" performance styles in the experiment. The subjects were then asked to imagine that they were salesmen whose task it was to sell to another subject a fictional encyclopedia. The subjects were given beforehand one of three communications to read concerning their product: a highly favorable one, a mildly favorable one, or an unfavorable one. They were to use this information in any

way they wished in devising a sales pitch. Their findings, which were based on both self-ratings and observer ratings, indicated that the "R" type person was rated as being more effective than the "C" who, in turn, was rated higher than the "P" type person regardless of the type of information from which they had to make their sales presentation. Thus, this suggests further construct validity for the PST along with a situational context where performance styles might make a difference in the perceived effectiveness of an individual.

A more recent experiment by Wallston (1968) involved a more sophisticated extension of the "salesman study" approach. Dyads of interacting "Ps" and "Rs" assumed the roles of "graduate assistant" and "students." The hypothetical setting was the graduate assistant's office and the student's task was to ferret out as much information as possible concerning a fictitious forthcoming final exam. The findings were that the observers rated the "Rs" as "more active, manipulative, tenacious, open, and imaginative" than the "Ps," though a more objective measure (the amount of actual information obtained about the exam) failed to show any differential ability.

Another recent and most convincing finding of the behavioral validation of the Performance Style Test was conducted by McKenna (1971) using only female subjects.

Forty-eight female "Ss" were typologized as "P" or "R" on the basis of PST scores and assumed the role of graduate student interviewer. The performance-style theory here postulated the "P" as inept and uncomfortable in social relations, whereas the "R" is described as an individual highly skilled in the use of role-playing techniques as a means to interpersonal success. The "Rs" were rated as significantly more effective and comfortable than "Ps," providing the first validation of the performance-style construct with females. Self-justification had differential effects as hypothesized. The "Rs" ignored the morality of the situation and were primarily concerned with the procedural aspects of a good performance, while "Ps" tended to display greater comfort, ability, and task flexibility when role-playing was justified by situational contingencies. This finding replicates a similar tendency among "Ss" in Ring et al. (1967) encyclopedia salesman study and supports a trend which is apparent throughout much of the data but is usually not a powerful enough effect to reach acceptable significance.

An even more recent indication of behavioral validation of the Performance Style Test was a study by Young (1977). In his study seventy-two college students who were classified as either "P" or "R" type person according to Goffman's theory of interpersonal performance role-played

the part of an interviewee or interviewer. The interpersonal performance styles were systematically varied in a 2 x 2 factorial design and an analysis of variance procedure was performed on a composite interview rating. Young's study indicated that the "R" type interviewees received significantly higher mean composite ratings than did "P" type interviewees regardless of the interpersonal performance style of the interviewer ($p < .01$).

In light of the evidence found in laboratory and academic settings of the effects of performance styles, it seems feasible that interpersonal performance would have a significant effect in other settings. Such a setting that would provide optimal opportunity is the selection interview. If it is the case that persons of different performance types see themselves differently (and by selecting subjects on the basis of self-report measures we assume that this is true) and if, as is theoretically assumed; "Ps," "Rs," and "Cs" behave differently in the interpersonal context, then they ought to foster different impressions. Furthermore, in reference to Byrne's (1964) theory of interpersonal attraction which implies that those who perceive another as similar to one's self will perceive that person as more favorable than a person who is not perceived as similar. Therefore, the "R" type person would have a definite advantage due to this ability to project

herself in a manner that would be similar to the interviewer. Thus, this advantage, that the "R" type person experiences by assuming the "right" role by projecting herself as a qualified applicant, is no less an advantage even when considering the performance style of the interviewer. If the interviewer is a "R" type, the "R" type interviewee would project the image that the "R" type interviewer is seeking, while if the interviewer is a "P," the "R" type interviewee would also fulfill this role equally as well. However, if a "P" type individual is the interviewee it is unlikely that her role will coincide with the expectations of either the "P" or "R" type interviewer, resulting in the "P" type interviewee being viewed as an unsuitable applicant.

In light of the foregoing review, it may very well be an applicant's style of interpersonal performance that enables her to secure a job through the selection interview rather than her actual qualification; therefore, requiring a "R" type person to be successful in certain occupations where verbal skills are necessary. However, other technical occupations require little interpersonal performance to be successful. Thus, it is not surprising that low validity coefficients are found when the interview score is correlated with some criteria of job performance, if an advantage does exist for the "R" type individual in the selection interview which causes her to be selected more frequently.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. SUBJECTS

Seventy-two female graduate and undergraduate subjects residing in residence halls during winter quarter 1979 at The University of Tennessee, were selected on the basis of their Performance Style Test (PST) scores.

II. PREEXPERIMENTAL TEST AND SUBJECT SELECTION CRITERIA

The subjects were asked to complete the Performance Style Test (PST) (Appendix A). As in previous research, subjects were selected on the basis of "pure types" ("P," "R," and "C"). The individuals were classified as representative of one of the performance-style types only if they scored above the 80th percentile on that particular scale of the PST and no higher than 50th percentile on either of the remaining two scales based on norms developed by Ring and Wallston (1968). The items on the PST were scored with three separate keys. Thus, each individual received three scores that were used to determine her performance-style. However, the study was limited to only types "P" and "R." Therefore, a subject was required to

score above the 80th percentile on either the "P" or "R" scale and no higher than the 50th percentile on the remaining two scales ("P" $\geq$.80, "R" $\leq$.50, and "C" $\leq$.50, or "R" $\geq$.80, "P" $\leq$.50, and "C" $\leq$.50).

III. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

When the subjects arrived at the designated area for this study, they were taken into separate rooms where they were briefed on the particular role that they would play in the experiment.

Once the interviewer was seated behind a desk in the interviewing room the following instructions were read aloud by the experimenter's assistant:

In this study we are attempting to simulate a selection interview that is typical of the interview that most applicants go through before they are hired on a job. You have been chosen on the basis of your test scores to be the interviewer. Your task will be to interview an applicant for the job of a computer operator. Then you will be asked to rate her on a number of scales. The rating scales (Appendix B) that you will use are on the left-hand side of the desk. Please turn them over and read the instructions and each scale to see if you have any questions. On your right is a job description (Appendix C) of a computer operator that will aid you in the interview. Please read the job description. The interview will last ten minutes. The timer is in front of you. I will give you a few minutes to become familiar with the material and then I will return to answer any questions that you may have. Once this stage is finished I will bring the applicant in and introduce her and turn the interview over to you. Please be serious about this experiment and evaluate the applicant the best you can. Even

though the applicant will never know how you rate her, please wait until she has left the room before filling out the scales.

Once the interviewee was seated in a separate room the following instructions were read aloud by the experimenter's assistant:

In this study we are attempting to simulate a selection interview that is typical of most selection interviews that most applicants go through before they are hired. The job that you will be interviewing for is that of a computer operator. Have you ever worked as a computer operator or around a computer? If the subject has had experience with computers she will be dismissed after being thanked for her willingness to participate along with any explanation of the contamination effects her experience would induce in the experiment.

In front of you there is a brief job description for a computer operator (Appendix D). Please read the job description so that you will have an idea of what a computer operator does. Although the job description is not very detailed and you may not know exactly what all the requirements for the job are, let me assure you that you are as qualified as any of the other applicants. I will give you some time to familiarize yourself with the job description and return to answer any questions that you may have. In order to make this experiment as real as possible, pretend that acquiring the job is a very important factor in your future. When we enter the interview room I will introduce you as Kathy Jones and leave the rest up to you and the interviewer. Are there any questions.

After answering all the questions, the experimenter's assistant brought the applicant into the interviewing room and introduced her as Kathy Jones to the interviewer. The assistant then set the timer for ten minutes and left the room. Once the interview was completed and rated by the

interviewer, the subjects were debriefed and asked not to discuss the matter with their friends.

IV. DESIGN

A 2 x 2 factorial design was utilized where the variables of interviewee performance style "P" and "R" and the variables of interviewer performance style "P" and "R" and the interaction of these variables were considered. Designation of the interviewee and interviewer were randomly determined. Following are the groups and their designations.

		Interviewer	
		P	R
Interviewee	P	(A) n = 9 P-P	(B) n = 9 R-P
	R	(C) n = 9 P-R	(D) n = 9 R-R

1. Group (A)—Interviewer "P," Interviewee "P" (P-P)
2. Group (B)—Interviewer "R," Interviewee "P" (R-P)
3. Group (C)—Interviewer "P," Interviewee "R" (P-R)
4. Group (D)—Interviewer "R," Interviewee "R" (R-R)

V. ANALYSIS

The interviewer's ratings of scales 1 through 4 (ability to communicate, dependability, compatibility, and expected

effectiveness) were summed to yield a composite score of each interview session. The data were analyzed by utilizing the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the main effects of the type of interviewer, the interviewee, and the interaction of these variables in the interviewee impression management. The Scheffe's S method was utilized to make all possible comparisons for difference among the means.

Also the data that were obtained from question 5 which required the interviewers to categorize the interviewees' responses into a scale with continuous categories, utilized a Chi Square one-sample test to determine if significantly more "R" than "P" interviewees were recommended for employment.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

During the period of winter quarter 1979, the Performance Style Test (PST) was administered to 1938 graduate and undergraduate students residing in resident halls (Clement, Hess, Humes, Massey, and Melrose) at The University of Tennessee (Knoxville). From the initial population, only 237 females responded to the survey questionnaire, 111 subjects were selected as "Rs" and 47 as "Ps."

Out of each interview, four items were evaluated with frequencies of each scale point (1 "positive" through 7 "negative") by each scale item (ability to communicate, dependability, compatibility, and expected effectiveness). These are indicated in Table 1. Item 1 (ability to communicate) was recoded for compatibility purposes with the other three scales. After this modification of the scale on item 1, the frequencies shown in Table 1 reveal that most applicants were given a fairly positive evaluation on all these scales by the interviewers. Because the interviewers restricted their ratings to the lower portion of each of the scales, the summing of these scale scores into one composite interview score for each interview seems to be appropriate. In using this composite interview score,

Table 1. A frequency of scale points by response item.

Scales	Scale Points						
	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0
Communication	7	13	12	3	1	0	0
Dependability	15	9	5	3	0	1	3
Compatibility	16	11	5	0	3	0	1
Effectiveness	10	18	5	3	0	0	0

the normality assumptions for the analysis of variance procedure were more likely to be met.

Additional investigation was undertaken to examine the interrelationships between the four scales (ability to communicate, dependability, compatibility, and expected effectiveness) to form a composite interview score as seen in Table 2. These intercorrelations were low, which indicated independence of the items. This supports the notion of using a composite interview score as a means of evaluating an applicant's performance within a selection interview.

The analysis of variance for the overall model on the composite interview score is presented in Table 3. These results ($F(3,32) = 5.12, p \leq .005$) indicated that the sources of variation within the model accounted for more of the variation in the composite interview score than would be expected by chance alone.

Further analysis of the variations in the overall model for the analysis of variance (ANOVA) are presented in Table 4. These results were that the main effect of interviewer was not significant, while both the main effect of interviewee ($F(1,32) = 4.81, p \leq .04$) and the interaction of the interviewer-interviewee ($F(1,32) = 9.67, p \leq .004$) were found to be significant. Because of this significant interaction, the interpersonal performance style of the

Table 2. Intercorrelations among the four items after being summed into a composite interview score.*

	Communication	Dependability	Compatibility	Effectiveness
Communication	1.0000	.3018	.3158	.3476
Dependability	.3018	1.0000	.3337	.3668
Compatibility	.3158	.3337	1.0000	.6979
Effectiveness	.3476	.3668	.6979	1.0000

Note. n = 36.

*All correlations have a $p \geq .05$.

Table 3. The analysis of variance model for the composite interview score.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P > F
Model	3	164.75	54.9167	5.14	.0052
Error	32	342.00	10.6875		
Total	35	506.75			

Table 4. Sources of variation within the analysis of variance model for the composite interview score.

Sources	DF	SS	F	PR > F
Interviewer	1	10.0278	0.94	0.3400
Interviewee	1	51.3611	4.81	0.0358
Interviewer x Interviewee	1	103.3611	9.67	0.0039
Error	32			

interviewer cannot be ignored in considering the outcome of the interview.

The results of the Scheffe's procedure for multiple comparisons are shown in Table 5. A (.10) significance level was used to compensate for the decreased sensitivity of this procedure. The results of this procedure substantiated those differences described in the previous paragraph, but did not reveal any further significant differences between the four cells.

In viewing Table 6, these results, generally, indicated that "R" (those persons who like to role-play) type interviewees obtained significantly more positive mean composite interview scores than did "P" (those persons who dislike to role-play) type interviewees. Thus, showing this data to be consistent with hypothesis 1 which suggested that "R" type interviewees would obtain a significantly more positive mean composite interview score than would the "P" type interviewees.

However, Table 6 did not indicate support for hypothesis 2 which suggested that the mean composite interview score would be less positive for interpersonal performance style "P" interviewee-interviewer combination. The mean composite interview score data did indicate, however, that the interpersonal performance style "P" interviewee-"P" interviewer was not statistically different

Table 5. All possible comparisons among the different interviewer-interviewee combinations.

Comparison	Means	PP				Σa_i	Di	Di ²	MSDi	F'
		ΣX_1	ΣX_2	PR	RR					
	71	111	ΣX_3	ΣX_4	59					
A vs B	1	-1	0	0	0	2	-40	1600	88.89	8.315*
A vs C	1	0	-1	0	0	2	-9	81	4.50	.421
A vs D	1	0	0	-1	-1	2	12	144	8.00	.748
B vs C	0	1	-1	0	0	2	31	961	53.39	4.994
B vs D	0	1	0	-1	-1	2	52	2704	150.22	14.052*
C vs D	0	0	1	-1	-1	2	21	441	24.50	2.292
A vs B+C	2	-1	-1	-1	0	6	-49	2401	44.46	4.159
A vs B+D	2	-1	0	0	-1	6	-28	784	14.52	1.358
A vs C+D	2	0	-1	-1	-1	6	3	9	.17	.016
B vs A+C	-1	2	-1	0	0	6	71	5041	93.35	8.732*
B vs A+D	-1	2	0	-1	-1	6	92	8464	156.74	14.662*
B vs C+D	0	2	-1	-1	-1	6	83	6889	127.57	11.934*
C vs A+B	-1	-1	2	0	0	6	-22	484	8.96	.838
C vs A+D	-1	0	2	-1	-1	6	30	900	16.67	1.559
C vs B+D	0	-1	2	-1	-1	6	-10	100	1.85	.173
D vs A+B	-1	-1	0	2	2	6	-64	4096	75.85	7.095*
D vs A+C	-1	0	-1	2	2	6	-33	1089	20.17	1.887
D vs B+C	0	-1	-1	-1	2	6	-73	5329	98.69	9.232*
A+B vs C+D	1	1	-1	-1	-1	4	43	1849	51.36	4.804
A+C vs B+D	1	-1	1	-1	-1	4	-19	361	10.03	.938
A+D vs B+C	1	-1	-1	1	1	4	-61	3721	103.36	9.669*
A vs B+C+D	3	-1	-1	-1	-1	12	-37	1369	12.68	1.186
B vs A+C+D	-1	3	-1	-1	-1	12	123	15129	140.08	13.104*
C vs A+B+D	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	12	-1	1	.01	.001
D vs A+B+C	-1	-1	-1	3	3	12	-85	7225	66.90	6.258

*p $\geq$.10.

Table 6. Means and marginal means for the interpersonal performance style interviewer-interviewee combinations.

Interviewee Style	Interviewer Style		Marginal Means
	P	R	
P	7.8889	12.3333	10.1111
R	8.8889	6.5556	7.7222
Marginal Means	8.3889	9.4445	

from the interpersonal performance style "R" interviewee-"P" interviewer or "R" interviewee-"R" interviewer, but was statistically more positive than "P" interviewee style-"R" interviewer style. Also, these results, generally, indicated that the "P" interviewee-interviewer and the "R" interviewee-interviewer combinations tended to rate the interviewees more positive than did the "P" interviewee-"R" interviewer and "R" interviewee-"P" interviewer combinations. Further these results indicated a significant difference between "R" interviewer-"P" interviewee and ("P" interviewer-interviewee and "R" interviewer-interviewee) at the 10 percent (.10) level of significance (see Table 5, page 35).

Further investigation of the interaction effect indicated no difference between the way the "P" type interviewer rates the two types of interpersonal performance "P" and "R" interviewees, but the "R" type interviewer showed a tendency to rate the "P" type interviewee much less positive than the "R" type interviewee. Also, there was a general tendency for similar interpersonal performance styles to evaluate the interviewees more positively than dissimilar interpersonal performance styles; thus, showing these data, as described in the preceding paragraph, to be contradictory to hypothesis 2.

In analysing hypothesis 3, which suggested that significantly more interpersonal performance style "R"

interviewees than "P" interviewees would be recommended for employment, a one-sample Chi Square test indicated the following results as presented in Table 7. These data do not substantiate hypothesis 3. In actuality, 83.33 percent of all the interviewees were either likely or very likely to be recommended for future employment. Further specifics of this finding in contrast to the differences found with respect to the mean composite interview scores for the interpersonal performance style "P" and "R" interviewees will be elaborated on in the discussion section.

Table 7. The total number of Ps and Rs subjects recommended for future employability on a continuous scale.

	Interviewee Type		Total
	P	R	
Recommendation	*		
Very Unlikely	0	0	0
Unlikely	1	2	3
Undecided	3	0	3
Likely	5	3	8
Very Likely	9	13	22
Totals	18	18	36

* $\chi^2 = 4.5606$, $DF = 3$, Chi Square not significant.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

I. DISCUSSION

This experiment was designed to be a partial replication of a previous investigation by Young (1977) as well as an extension of the performance style procedure and formulations. Evidence indicated that the interpersonal performance style "R" interviewees received a more positive mean composite interview score than did the interpersonal performance style "P" interviewees, even with the same exposure to factual information prior to the interview.

The present investigation generally substantiated the finding of Young (1977) that "R" subjects were rated more effective interpersonally than were "P" subjects. Although not every rating employed in this experiment resulted in R's being significantly more positive than P's, the pattern of the ratings shows that R's perform their roles better than P's. However, the statistical interaction between the different interviewer-interviewee combinations indicated that the interpersonal style of the interviewer has a significant influence on the mean composite interview score given to the interviewee. Also, in this study, there was a tendency for similar interpersonal performance styles

to be rated more effective than dissimilar interpersonal performance styles, a fact that Young's (1977) study using male participants did not reveal. Furthermore, it is very likely that the highly positive mean composite interview scores given by the "P" type interviewers are due to the way they have perceived their role in society, lack of competitiveness, and a feeling of moral and ethical responsibility to help and understand the emotional situation of the interviewee. These highly positive evaluations by the "P" interpersonal performance style interviewers are indicated by the data that shows there to be no difference in the way "P" type interviewers rate the two types ("P" and "R") interviewees, but the "R" type interviewer showed a tendency to rate the "P" type interviewee much less positive than the "R" type interviewee.

Although the interviewers made differentiation between interpersonal style "P" and "R" interviewees on the mean composite interview score, little differentiation was indicated on their recommendation for future employability. This finding could be due to the design of the study, subject selection procedures, type of subjects, and/or scale measurement in the experiment.

However, because the study had no manipulation check taken from the subjects, there was no evidence that the interviewers were aware of whether the person being

interviewed was a good or poor impression manager. It was impossible then for the interviewer to determine whether to hire or reject the interviewee based on the interpersonal performance style of the interviewee. Also, the design did not provide the interviewer the opportunity to discriminate among the different interpersonal performance styles. Therefore, if each interviewer had interviewed both "P" and "R" interpersonal performance style persons a different proportion of "P" and "R" recommended for employment may have occurred.

Another concern that should be emphasized is the procedure used for selecting subjects. In this study, the subjects were chosen from a well defined population of students residing in resident halls (Clement, Hess, Humes, Massey, and Melrose) at The University of Tennessee (Knoxville) who met specific criteria. Only those meeting this criterion participated in the experiment. Thus, this criterion may have restricted the range within the defined limits of this study; if so, weakening the power of the statistical test. Also, the type of subjects chosen was a definite constraint of this study, using only female students.

In the literature there are many studies addressing the selection interview which have direct comparison bearing on the judgment of college student subjects and professional interviewers. These studies have generally indicated that

college student subjects and professional interviewers differ only slightly in their evaluation of applicants. Haccoun (1970) investigated the favorability of and order of information as decision determinants in the employment interview process. The result indicated a correlation between professional interviewers and college students to be .93. This finding led Haccoun (1970) to conclude that "a good behavior is a good behavior no matter who judges it" (p. 20). Similarly, Rowe (1967) found strong similarities between college students and army recruits with regard to their evaluations of applicants' background histories.

Chlopak (1974) examined the relative influence of applicants' job qualifications and personal and family background on hiring decisions. Both the professional interviewers and the college students used information about qualifications to the same extent in making their ratings. The results showed that the contaminating effects of background were minimal in each group. There was no difference between the professional interviewers and college students despite an adequate sample size. Hakel, Ohnesorge, and Dunnette (1970) investigated the relative importance of contrast effects in employment interviewers' decisions about job applicants' resumes using professional interviewers and college students. The results showed that

the contrast effects play a minor role in the evaluation of job applicants' resumes. In reviewing six studies, Bernstein, Hakel, and Harlan (1975) found no significant differences between professional interviewers and college students with respect to variances, intercorrelations, interrater agreement, and main effects due to independent variables. However, college students tend to be more lenient in their ratings.

As indicated above, then it is not surprising that a large number of applicants were recommended for hire by the interviewers due to this leniency effect. In fact, this was also indicated by Dipboye, Fromkin, and Wiback (1975) when they used college students and professional interviewers rated and ranked bogus resumes in which applicant sex, physical attractiveness, and scholastic standing were systematically varied. The only difference between college students and professional interviewers ratings was the college student's tendency to rate applicants, in general, more favorably. Given that college students were rating their peers, it seems reasonable to expect a more favorable response to other college students like themselves. Moreover, since Hakel, Dobmeyer, and Dunnette (1970) and Landy and Bates (1973) found no difference between the suitability ratings of college students and professional interviewers, the admonition by Landy and Bates (1973)

that college students are an "inappropriate" sample population seems premature. Thus, the high percentage of recommendations should have been expected in light of the leniency tendency and lack of opportunity for discrimination provided the interviewers.

II. CONCLUSIONS

To reiterate the position established in the introduction, the main purpose of this study was to determine if the interpersonal performance styles of "P" and "R," as categorized by Goffman were functioning within the selection interview. From the standpoint of Goffman's standards, this study can be viewed as a success. But, from an applied standpoint these findings should not be generalized to other settings and populations without further research. There is much needed research in this area of interpersonal performance in the selection interview that is necessary before going beyond the laboratory setting into actual field application. Therefore, the researcher supports the replication of this study with substantial modification as well as the continuation of similar studies. Young's previous study and the present study suggest a number of concerns that must be evaluated when developing a study dealing with interpersonal performance style as its focus.

Future research should continue to explore these aspects to interpersonal performance, even though the different interpersonal performance styles in this study had a measurable effect on the composite interview score. The design of the study was such that it did not specify the tactics employed by the interviewers in rating the interviewees. In order to provide this type of information future research should investigate the possible differences between the interpersonal performance styles of "P" and "R" interviewees regarding their knowledge factors, skill factors, and motivational factors within the interviewing process.

As indicated earlier, caution should be observed in interpreting the data from this study. First of all, college students were used rather than professional interviewers. Even though past research has used college students caution should be taken in generalizing to other types of subjects. Second, the subject pool consisted of female subjects only, which failed to consider any effects that sex may have had in relation with the interpersonal performance styles on the composite interview score. Third, further experimentation is needed for other jobs, interviews, applicants, and settings before one can infer reliability and generalizability to interpersonal performance style in the selection interview. Fourth, if repeated, the present

study would use a larger number of subjects. Though the statistical procedure used was sufficient, the study may have been strengthened statistically had the number of subjects been larger.

By and large, research in the interpersonal performance style should continue to focus on enhancing knowledge of interpersonal interaction in the selection interview. Researchers must become more cognizant of any factors that can influence interpersonal performance within the selection interview.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

For each of the statements presented below you are to decide whether it is true as applied to you or false as it is applied to you. You are to mark your answers on the answer sheet provided. If a statement is true or mostly true as applied to you, blacken in the first column space opposite the corresponding item number on the answer sheet. If a statement is false or not usually true as applied to you, blacken in the second column space opposite the corresponding item number. Make sure, in using the answer sheet, that the number of the statement agrees with the number on the answer sheet. Please use No. 2 lead pencil and do not omit any items.

1. I would be uncomfortable in anything other than fairly conventional dress.
2. If given the chance I would make a good leader of people.
3. I have skill in influencing others.
4. I must admit that I enjoy trying to manipulate others for my own purpose.
5. I often find it's difficult to get people to do me favors, even when I have a right to expect them.
6. I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.
7. When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about.
8. I find it easy to get along with people.
9. I dislike having to behave according to the rules of etiquette.
10. In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.
11. I can fit in pretty easily with any group of people.
12. It's usually easy for me to persuade others to my own point of view.
13. I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.

14. I think I could be a successful businessperson if I wanted to.
15. I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
16. I usually find it difficult to change someone else's opinions.
17. When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairperson.
18. I must admit I try to see what others think before I take a stand.
19. I can easily make other people afraid of me, and sometimes do for the fun of it.
20. A person should adapt her ideas and her behavior to the group that happens to be with her at the time.
21. I do not mind meeting strangers.
22. I think I'd enjoy being an actor (or actress).
23. At parties I am more likely to sit by myself or with just one other person than to join in with the crowd.
24. I can usually get people to do what I want.
25. I usually have trouble making myself heard in an argument.
26. I like to be the center of attention in a group.
27. People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was already made up on a subject.
28. Even the idea of giving a talk in public makes me afraid.
29. I think I would enjoy being a salesperson.
30. I like to meet new people.
31. I don't like participating in formal ceremonies.
32. If I'm with someone I don't like, I usually don't express my real feelings to him (or her).

33. I like to follow instructions and do what is expected of me.
34. I find it hard to talk when I meet new people.
35. I frequently feel intense sympathy for others.
36. I enjoy being with people who are suave and sophisticated.
37. I think it's important to learn how to obey.
38. I think most people would like to get ahead.
39. When in a new situation, it's best to watch what others do.
40. I enjoy being the host (or hostess) of a party.
41. I feel I can handle myself pretty well in most social situations.
42. I sometimes enjoy misleading people just for the fun of it.
43. I can deceive people, if I have to, without feeling guilty about it.
44. I don't mind pretending to like someone when I really don't if there's a good reason to do so.
45. I like people to notice and to comment on my appearance when I am out in public.
46. I often feel like telling people what I really think of them.
47. I feel ill at ease with people I don't know.
48. I have no dread of going into a room by myself, where other people have already gathered and are talking.
49. I am a good mixer.
50. I like to go to parties.
51. In general, I find that I dislike nonconformists.
52. I don't like to be too conspicuous at social gatherings.

- 53. I should like to belong to several clubs or lodges.
- 54. I often find that my wishes conflict with those of others.
- 55. I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEWER'S RATING BOOKLET

DIRECTIONS

This rating should reflect your assessment of the interviewee's qualities. To aid in the accuracy of your ratings the following suggestions are offered regarding the use of this booklet.

1. Consider only "one" scale at a time.
2. Study each factor and the specifications for each scale.
3. Review upon completion to see that the rating of each factor applies to the interviewee.
4. Comment on the last page any matter which in your opinion needs explanation.

Position: Computer Operator

1. Ability to communicate with faculty and students.
(explain changes in procedures)
(explain malfunctions of machines)

VERY
POOR

EXCELLENT

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Position: Computer Operator

2. Dependability
(punctuality and attendance)

VERY DEPENDABLE	VERY UNDEPENDABLE
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1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Position: Computer Operator

3. Compatibility with other employees

VERY
COMPATIBLE

VERY
INCOMPATIBLE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Position: Computer Operator

4. Expected overall effectiveness as an employee.

VERY
SUITABLE

VERY
UNSUITABLE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Position: Computer Operator

5. Please make a recommendation for the future employment chance of this applicant.

VERY UNLIKELY	UNLIKELY	UNDECIDED	LIKELY	VERY LIKELY
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>

APPENDIX C

Job Description

Job Title: Computer Operator

Work Performed: Under the supervision of computer programmer and instructional staff employed by the University Computing Center. Operates key punch, and printer. Prepares equipment for operations according to oral instructions and replaces paper spools on the printer and observes materials for creases, tears, or printing defects. Watches the machines for error lights and other indications of malfunctions. Notifies supervisor of any malfunctions. Load and unload cards in card reader and separates and sorts all printed materials for distribution. Accepts data cards to be processed and offers assistance to faculty and students in the computer center.

Daily Duties:

1. Prepares print-outs for distribution by placing data cards with print-outs and addressing complete package to proper personnel.
2. Continuously monitor the computer center for malfunctions to be reported to the supervisor.
3. Insure that students sign computer log for time they use on the computer.
4. Notify staff and students of machines that are malfunctioning.
5. Supply general information to faculty and students about the operation, time schedule and other pertinent information relating to the computer center.

Experience Required: None

Training: On job training. Continual during the period of employment.

APPENDIX D

Job Description

Job Title: Computer Operator

Experience Required: None

Training: On job training. Continual during the period of employment.

Duties: Duties include preparing print-outs to be delivered, watch the computer for break-downs, make sure students sign log when using the computers and pass around general information about the computer center.

VITA

The author was born in Sturgis, Kentucky, on October 25, 1947. He was graduated from Union County High School, Morganfield, Kentucky, in June of 1965. He attended Western Kentucky University where he received his B.S. degree in Business Administration in 1970. While employed by Singer in Morganfield, Kentucky, he entered the University of Evansville. He received a Master of Arts degree in Guidance and Counseling in the summer of 1974.

In the winter of 1976, he entered The University of Tennessee. He was granted the Doctor of Education in August 1979.