

状況—行為頻度アプローチによる特性推論過程の検討

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研究発表

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1. 本研究の概要

社会的認知研究では、他者の行動から特性が推測される過程について、様々な検討が行なわれてきた。これらの研究に対する批判のひとつとして、状況要因の影響性が体系的に整理されていないという問題が指摘されている。基本的帰属錯誤傾向にみられるように、われわれは他者の行動の原因を内的に帰属しがちなことは事実だが、実際の行動は人と状況との相互作用によって決定されると考えられる。こうした相互作用論的な考え方は今日広く受け入れられている。

筆者は、先行研究として、こうした相互作用論的な視点から特性推論のメカニズムを説明する目的で、「状況—行為頻度アプローチ」を提唱し、「状況—行為プロトタイプ」の抽出が特性推論について重要な意味を持つことを明らかにした(第2章)。同時に、この研究を通じ、状況の分類枠を作成することが、この種の研究のみならず、社会心理学研究やパーソナリティ研究にとってきわめて重要な意味をもつことを指摘した。

そこで、本研究では、「状況」の体系的な整理枠の構築を主眼とする研究を行った。手法としては、これまで唯一の先例となる Van Heck(1984)の研究を参考に、基本名辞仮説に基づく辞書的なアプローチを用いた。その結果、状況要因は、環境(形態的)、場面(目的的)、役割(関係的)、機能(認知的)、文脈(時間的)という5つの視点から、同時並列的に説明し得るという着想を得た。このうち、場面、役割、機能の3側面については、分類枠もほぼ完成し、国内外の学会発表でも好意的な反応を得た。また、これらの枠組みを用いた特性推論過程の研究でも、外向性は余暇・祝祭場面、誠実性は研究教育・宗教場面、情緒安定性は危機場面で可視性が高まること、また行為頻度とともに推論が明確になることなど、「状況—行為プロトタイプ」が特性推論に重要な役割を果たしていることが明らかになった(3・4・5章)。

これに対し、環境的な側面に関しては、対人的な推論との直接的な関連性を見いだすことができず、枠組みも含めてさらに検討を行う必要があることが示唆された。また、文脈的な側面については、今回用いた辞書的な手法による分析では対応しきれないと判断し、画像情報を用いた分析を試みたが、やはり推論過程の説明につながる明確な結果は得られなかった。

一方で、状況の分類枠の妥当性に関しては、New Zealand で行われた日誌法を用いた日常的相互作用の分析を通じ、本研究で用いた状況分類の枠組が一般的に通用し得るものであることが示された(第6章)。この研究にも示されるように、今回作成された状況分類の枠組みは、特性推論過程の検討に限らず、今後も多くの心理学的・社会学的研究の基盤として使用され得るものと考えられる。

2. 特性推論における「状況一行為頻度アプローチ」の有効性の検討

Buss & Craik (1980) は、パーソナリティ特性推論の根拠を日常の行為 (act) に置いている。その基盤には、一定の期間に特定の特性に関連づけられる行為を行った頻度が特性推論の根拠になるという考え方がある。しかしバスらのアプローチには、1) 研究対象となる特性が恣意的に定められている、2) 状況的要因の影響を系統的に考慮していない、3) 行為スキルや行為を行わないことの意味が扱われていない、などといった問題がある。

本研究では、Big Five 研究や状況分類に関する研究を援用することにより、パーソナリティ特性推論における行為頻度アプローチの有効性をより系統的に検討する事を目的とする。具体的には、Big Five に示される 5 因子を特性分類の主領域と定め、状況分類研究をもとに選定した 8 状況にみられる各因子の典型となる「状況一行為」プロトタイプを抽出し、これらの行為の頻度や、行為をおこなうスキルが特性推論とどのように関連するか検討を行う。

方法

まず柏木ら(1993)の研究結果に基づき、Big Five を構成する各因子に負荷の高い特性を 5 つづつ選んだ。予備調査として行った自己評定をもとに因子分析を行ったところ妥当な 5 因子構造が得られたので、その中から各因子に負荷の高かった特性を中心に、それぞれの因子について 3 特性、計 15 特性を選定した。状況については、Forgas & Van Heck(1992)等の研究をもとに 8 つの状況 (葛藤、講義、観戦、旅行、儀礼、雇用、雑談、単独) を選定した。

次に 300 人の被験者に 8 状況×15 特性の組み合わせによってできる 120 のセットのうち 4 組を呈示し、それぞれの状況でそれぞれの特性をもつ人が具体的にどのような行為を行うか自由記述により回答させた。別の 12 名の評定者が得られた回答を整理し、2 名以上の合議のもとに、それぞれの状況で該当する特性を有することを示す典型となるような行為を 1～3 個順位をつけて抽出させた。その結果をもとに、重複がないように留意しながらそれぞれのセットについて 2 つの行為を選定し、計 240 の状況一行為の組み合わせ (以下「状況一行為セット」と呼ぶ) を作成した。

これらの「状況一行為」セットについて、被験者に 4 種類の評定を求めた。1) プロトタイプ評定：それぞれの状況でセットとなった行為を示す人物はどのようなパーソナリティの持ち主と考えられるか、前述した 15 特性を用い 7 段階 (7: 非常によくあてはまる～1: まったくあてはまらない) で評定させた。2) 行為頻度評定：自分および他者 (親しい友人 1 名) について、それぞれの状況でセットとなった行為を実際に行う頻度はどの程度か、11 段階 (10: いつもそのように行動する～0: 全くそのように行動することはない) で尋ねた。3) 行為スキル評定：自分および 2) と同一の他者について、それぞれの状況でセットとなった行為が上手にできるかどうか、11 段階 (10: いつの場合にも上手にできる～0: 上手にできたことは全くない) で尋ねた。4) 自他のパーソナリティ評定：

自分および2) 3) と同一の他者のパーソナリティについて、同じ 15 特性 11 段階で評定を求めた。

1) については 240 のセットを特性一行為ごとに 30 組に分割し (各組に同一特性に関する 8 セットが含まれる)、被験者(n=290)にその中の 2 組を呈示して回答を求めた。

2) ~ 4) はひとつの質問紙にまとめ、まず自己評定 (パーソナリティ、頻度、スキルの順) を、ついで他者評定 (同順序) を求めた。他者との親しさも 9 段階で回答させた。この質問紙については、240 のセットを因子ごとにまとめたものを 5 組作成し、その中の 1 組について回答させた(n=235)。

今回の報告では、このような手続きのもとに得られた結果のうち、外向性因子 (活動的、外向的、意欲的の 3 特性× 2 行為× 8 状況からなる 48 セット) に関する他者評定結果を分析の対象として取り上げた。したがってプロトタイプ評定については、それぞれ 17 人~22 人の異なる被験者からなる 6 タイプ (各 8 セット) の評定、その他の評定については 49 人の同一の被験者による評定結果を分析の対象とした。

結果

1) Big Five の因子分析結果: まず、他者に関するパーソナリティ評定結果の因子分析をおこなった。固有値の変化から 5 因子構造と判断しバリマックス回転を行ったところ、外向性 (E) に属する 3 特性は第 1 因子として 1 つにまとまった。その他、同調性 (A)、情緒安定性 (N)、誠実性因子 (C) については 3 特性ごとのまとまりが得られたが、開放性 (O) に関してはまとまりがみられなかった。したがって開放性については 3 つの特性の評定結果を集積することは妥当でないと判断した。

2) プロトタイプ評定結果: 48 のプロトタイプ評定に関する結果を Table 1 に示す。48 のセットのうち、活動的・外向的・意欲的という 3 特性の平均評定が 6 点以上となったものが 23 セット(48%)、5 点以上となったものが 44 セット(92%)という結果が得られた。さらに A, N, C についても同様に 3 尺度の平均評定を求め、各セットについて t 検定により E 評定との平均差を求めた。これらの結果から、プロトタイプとしての典型性をもち (E 評定の平均が 5.5 以上)、かつ A, N, C の評定結果のすべてと有意差が認められるセットを、外向的な特徴を示す「状況一行為」セットと考えることにした。こうした条件を満たすセット (以下 E セットと呼ぶ) は 28 セットで、全体の 58% を占めた。状況別にみると、雇用状況や観戦状況では 6 セットすべてが E セットとしての条件を満たしており、こうした状況では外向性を示すプロトタイプ行為が生じやすいことが示された。これに対し、儀礼状況では条件を満たすセットがひとつもみられず、こうした状況では外向的なプロトタイプ行為が見られにくいことが示された。なお、状況を被験者内要因、3 特性× 2 行為による 6 タイプを被験者間要因として評定値の分散分析を行ったところ、タイプ間には有意差はみられず ($F(5,104)=1.62, ns$)、状況間には有意差が認められ ($F(7,728)=57.89, p<.001$)、状況によるプロトタイプ評定の相違が明確に認められることが明らかになった。

3) 行為頻度評定の結果及び外向性 (パーソナリティ) 評定との相関: 各セットごとに行為頻度評定の平均値を求めた。平均値はほぼ 5 点から 7 点の間に分布し、これらの行為が実際にある程度行われうる行為であることが示された。被験者ごとに 48 セットすべて

の平均値を求め、さらにその平均値を算出したところ $X=5.60, SD=1.35$ となった。こうした中で講義状況での行為に関しては2点台や1点台の平均値がみられ、状況を通じた6セットの平均値も4.02にとどまった。講義状況でも、外向性につながるプロトタイプ行為は存在するが、実際にそうした行為が行われることは少ないものと思われる。なお、状況別に求めた平均評定値について分散分析をおこなったところ、講義状況を含めた場合にも、 $(F(7,336)=15.52, p<.001)$ 、除いた場合にも $(F(6,288)=3.96, p<.001)$ 、いずれも有意差が認められた。さらに被験者ごとに、他者に関する3つの外向性特性による評定の平均値を求め、頻度評定得点との相関を求めた。外向性評定の平均は $7.30, SD=1.63$ であった。48セットの相関は.58~.10の間に分布した。相関の大きさは状況によって明確に異なり、観戦($r=.54\sim.45$)、雇用(.58~.32)、旅行(.54~.28)状況では、6セットすべて有意な相関が得られたのに対し、儀礼(.33~.10)、雑談(.36~.18)状況では、有意な相関は2セットにとどまり相関値も低かった。全般に、プロトタイプ評定の高いセットでは、行為頻度一特性評定間の相関も高くなる傾向がみられた。そこで、Eセットと認定された28セットとそれ以外の20セットの相関の平均値を比較した結果、前者の平均は.40、後者の平均は.29となり有意差が見られた($t=3.28, p<.002$)。ところで、状況ごとに6セットの頻度評定を集積のうえ平均したものと外向性評定の相関を求めると、.63~.33という数値が得られた。この値は各セットごとの相関を状況ごとに平均した数値よりも.10程度高くなっており、状況を通じた集積効果が見られることを示している。一方、3特性×2行為による6タイプごとに8つのセット(すべての状況をひとつづつ含む)の評定の集積し平均を求めたものと外向性評定の相関を求めると、.65~.48となり、8セットの相関を平均した数値(.38~.27)に比べ.25程度高くなった。しかしこの数値の上昇は頻度のばらつきが平均化されることによるアーティファクトである可能性もある。

4) 行為スキル評定の結果：行為スキル評定の結果は、行為頻度評定結果とほとんど同一の傾向を示した。48セット全体の平均は $5.82(SD=1.49)$ で、行為頻度評定に比べやや高い傾向を示した。行為頻度評定と行為スキル評定の相関は.87~.44の間に分布し、平均でも.70という高い値になった。したがって、少なくとも外向性に関しては、行為に関するスキル評価は他者の行為頻度と一致する、すなわち「行為を行う＝スキルがある」と考えられているように思われる。

考察

プロトタイプ評定の結果は、今回選定した状況一行為セットの半数以上が、外向性に関するプロトタイプとしての妥当性をもつことを示した。一方でプロトタイプ的な行為の生じやすさには、状況による差があることも明らかにされた。行為頻度評定と外向性評定の間にも比較的高い相関が認められたが、特にプロトタイプ性の高い状況ではこうした相関が高くなることが示された。これらの結果から、他者の保有する外向的特性の推論には、プロトタイプ性の高い特定の状況での行為頻度が重要な役割を果たすものと考えられる。また今回の調査結果には、Epstein (1983) が指摘するようなデータの集積の効果がみられ、集積により行為頻度一特性評定間の相関が上昇することが示された。とりわけ通状況的な集積の効果がかなり大きいことが明らかになった。こうした結果を、さまざまな「状況一行為」セットが補完しあい、通状況的にまとめられ一般化された印象が成立すると解

積することも可能だが、現時点では意味のない平均化によってもたらされるアーティファクトである可能性も捨てきれない。どのような補完性がみられるか、また状況との関連で有効な集積のしかたがあり得るか検討することも「状況一行為頻度」アプローチの妥当性を探る課題のひとつになろう。また外向性の他者推論に関しては、行為スキルの評定結果は行為頻度評定とほとんど一致しており、スキル評定を行うことの意味は見いだせなかった。

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表 : 外向性に関する典型性評定結果

	葛藤	講義	観戦	旅行	儀礼	雇用	雑談	単独
(活動1)								
活動的	5.87 6.25	6.22 6.15	6.37 6.45	6.42 6.50	5.45 5.35	6.37 6.35	5.50 5.80	5.85 6.05
外向的	5.40	6.00	6.40	6.25	5.40	6.30	5.55	5.85
意欲的	5.95	6.50	6.25	6.47	5.60	6.45	5.15	5.65
A	4.48(***)	5.48(***)	4.60(***)	4.58(***)	6.32(-***)	5.35(***)	4.95(***)	5.22(***)
N	3.66(***)	3.97(***)	4.25(***)	3.50(***)	4.76(*)	3.61(***)	4.47(***)	4.07(***)
C	3.60(***)	5.13(***)	3.88(***)	3.70(***)	6.13(-**)	5.31(***)	3.75(***)	3.95(***)
O	4.21(***)	5.03(***)	4.62(***)	5.43(***)	5.62(ns)	5.25(***)	4.33(***)	4.90(***)
(活動2)								
活動的	5.31 5.78	6.13 6.33	6.30 6.50	6.05 6.28	5.56 5.61	6.30 6.22	5.37 5.44	5.56 5.94
外向的	4.89	6.06	6.17	6.22	5.39	6.33	4.83	5.33
意欲的	5.28	6.00	6.22	5.67	5.67	6.33	5.83	5.39
A	4.52(*)	5.17(***)	5.04(***)	5.37(*)	5.92(ns)	5.20(***)	5.20(ns)	4.56(*)
N	4.68(ns)	2.80(***)	4.06(***)	3.93(***)	4.87(*)	3.29(***)	4.20(*)	3.56(***)
C	4.07(***)	4.96(***)	4.17(***)	4.00(***)	5.96(ns)	5.52(***)	5.02(ns)	3.54(***)
O	4.24(***)	5.59(*)	4.83(***)	4.45(***)	5.57(ns)	5.96(*)	4.64(***)	4.20(***)
(外向1)								
活動的	5.47 5.63	4.28 4.53	6.33 6.53	6.47 6.32	5.28 5.37	6.47 6.53	5.77 5.79	5.72 5.84
外向的	5.37	4.42	6.58	6.74	5.22	6.42	6.11	5.89
意欲的	5.42	3.89	5.89	6.37	5.21	6.47	5.42	5.42
A	5.32(ns)	4.91(-*)	4.99(***)	5.63(***)	6.07(-**)	5.42(***)	5.33(***)	5.73(ns)
N	4.05(*)	5.33(-*)	3.37(***)	2.63(***)	5.22(ns)	2.68(***)	3.96(***)	3.89(***)
C	5.12(ns)	4.66(ns)	3.84(***)	4.26(***)	5.59(ns)	4.84(***)	4.26(***)	4.53(***)
O	5.49(ns)	4.23(ns)	5.25(***)	5.78(***)	5.24(ns)	5.92(***)	5.60(ns)	5.00(***)
(外向2)								
活動的	5.83 6.06	5.82 5.71	6.46 6.61	6.00 6.11	6.05 6.11	6.29 6.17	4.52 4.50	4.87 5.28
外向的	5.61	5.59	6.78	5.78	6.39	6.50	4.61	4.61
意欲的	5.83	6.18	6.00	6.11	5.67	6.52	4.44	4.72
A	4.93(**)	5.15(***)	5.39(***)	5.76(ns)	5.81(ns)	5.13(***)	5.57(-***)	3.90(**)
N	2.76(***)	4.33(**)	2.80(***)	4.63(*)	3.67(***)	2.12(***)	5.09(ns)	2.81(**)
C	4.59(**)	5.33(ns)	4.41(***)	5.56(ns)	4.89(***)	5.03(***)	5.12(-**)	2.85(***)
O	4.89(**)	4.98(***)	5.76(***)	5.13(***)	5.81(ns)	6.01(ns)	4.89(-**)	3.57(**)
(意欲1)								
活動的	5.81 6.06	5.91 6.00	6.52 6.72	6.74 6.89	6.06 6.28	6.54 6.75	5.11 5.29	5.30 5.29
外向的	5.50	5.12	6.39	6.72	5.83	6.39	4.06	5.06
意欲的	5.89	6.44	6.44	6.61	5.88	6.50	5.72	5.33
A	4.72(***)	4.76(***)	4.78(***)	5.31(***)	6.02(ns)	5.06(***)	4.94(ns)	5.30(ns)
N	4.35(***)	3.78(***)	4.17(***)	3.52(***)	4.49(**)	3.02(***)	4.80(ns)	4.64(ns)
C	4.59(***)	4.70(***)	3.68(***)	4.57(***)	6.02(ns)	5.26(***)	5.04(ns)	4.61(ns)
O	4.03(***)	3.91(***)	4.81(***)	5.42(***)	5.63(**)	5.65(***)	4.01(**)	5.04(ns)
(意欲2)								
活動的	5.18 5.55	6.00 5.86	6.48 6.71	6.44 6.48	5.10 5.33	6.45 6.42	4.33 4.33	5.30 5.59
外向的	4.90	5.62	6.52	6.48	5.10	6.53	3.62	4.90
意欲的	5.10	6.52	6.19	6.40	4.86	6.42	5.05	5.10
A	4.58(*)	4.68(***)	5.03(***)	4.71(***)	4.95(ns)	5.02(***)	4.38(ns)	4.43(***)
N	3.73(**)	3.48(***)	3.19(***)	2.68(***)	4.29(*)	3.26(***)	3.52(ns)	3.83(***)
C	4.68(ns)	4.95(***)	4.01(***)	3.81(***)	4.66(ns)	4.81(***)	4.74(ns)	3.78(***)
O	4.40(**)	4.30(***)	4.79(***)	5.36(***)	4.17(**)	5.37(***)	3.53(*)	4.81(*)

表：外向性に関する典型性評定と頻度・技能評定の関連

	葛藤	講義	観戦	旅行	儀礼	雇用	雑談	単独
(活動1)								
典型性評定	5.87	6.22	6.37	6.42	5.45	6.37	5.50	5.85
頻度評定	5.80	3.59	6.33	6.41	6.20	5.65	6.76	5.61
技能評定	5.78	3.94	6.39	6.45	6.76	5.88	7.00	6.19
頻度印象相関	.44**	.39**	.51***	.51***	.18	.58***	.23	.39**
技能印象相関	.40**	.25	.42**	.36*	.19	.57***	.25	.41**
(活動2)								
典型性評定	5.31	6.13	6.30	6.05	5.56	6.30	5.37	5.56
頻度評定	4.50	4.24	6.82	7.20	6.33	5.98	7.35	5.22
技能評定	5.35	4.39	7.06	7.02	6.55	6.02	7.00	5.50
頻度印象相関	.17	.42**	.50***	.35*	.21	.57***	.33*	.28
技能印象相関	.26	.31*	.49***	.22	.19	.62***	.31*	.32*
(外向1)								
典型性評定	5.47	4.28	6.33	6.47	5.28	6.47	5.77	5.72
頻度評定	5.12	7.06	4.73	5.33	6.84	5.06	6.43	6.33
技能評定	5.22	7.22	5.17	5.78	6.80	5.12	6.71	6.29
頻度印象相関	.26	.07	.49***	.49***	.26	.44***	.30*	.12
技能印象相関	.31*	.15	.49***	.54***	.36*	.51***	.46***	.11
(外向2)								
典型性評定	5.83	5.82	6.46	6.00	6.05	6.29	4.52	4.87
頻度評定	5.94	5.29	5.29	5.16	6.92	5.12	5.67	4.96
技能評定	6.24	5.31	5.63	5.82	6.88	5.04	6.06	5.33
頻度印象相関	.54***	.36*	.54***	.28*	.36*	.32*	.32*	.12
技能印象相関	.49***	.49***	.51***	.31*	.36*	.34*	.19	.03
(意欲1)								
典型性評定	5.81	5.91	6.52	6.74	6.06	6.54	5.11	5.30
頻度評定	5.47	2.10	6.45	5.29	5.94	6.16	6.27	5.55
技能評定	5.73	2.20	6.79	5.43	6.24	6.18	6.21	5.94
頻度印象相関	.21	.27	.45***	.49***	.23	.53***	.10	.37**
技能印象相関	.35*	.29*	.41**	.58***	.21	.56***	-.12	.42**
(意欲2)								
典型性評定	5.18	6.00	6.48	6.44	5.10	6.45	4.33	5.30
頻度評定	5.51	1.88	4.47	6.59	4.86	5.09	5.98	6.02
技能評定	5.84	2.55	4.45	6.73	5.65	5.14	6.47	6.00
頻度印象相関	.46***	.17	.47***	.54***	.27	.57***	.23	.32*
技能印象相関	.28	.20	.45***	.45***	.32*	.59***	.17	.28
(状況全体)								
頻度印象相関	.51***	.46***	.60***	.59***	.33*	.63***	.38**	.36**
技能印象相関	.48***	.45***	.55***	.54***	.34*	.64***	.28*	.36*

注1) 典型性評定は7段階〔1～7〕、頻度・技能評定は11段階〔0～11〕

注2) 外向性印象評定値〔3尺度の平均〕は状況を通じて同一

3. Towards a construction of situational taxonomy for trait inference

Recent personality studies emphasize the influence of gene and biological factors on human behavior. The studies of behavioral genetics have pointed out that more than fifty percent of variance in our behavior could be explained by gene factor. On the other hand, these studies showed that the shared or non-shared situational factors could be important determinant of the behavior. However, we do not have a proper guide, like as chromosome map, for considering these situational effects comprehensively.

Situational taxonomy might give the principle that guides our research. Many researchers have pointed out the necessity of the taxonomy of situation on the research of personality or social psychology (Magnusson, 1971, Forgas, 1979). For example, Sells (1963) considered the outline of basic aspects of the stimulus situation. Recently, Van Heck (1989) showed situational taxonomy consisted from ten factors. These factors had been elicited through deliberate and systematic procedure. The taxonomy had enough appropriateness for analyze interpersonal relationships.

However, there are many differences between these two classifications. One purpose of this study is to try to construct the valid framework for classifying the situation based on fundamental lexical hypothesis. Another purpose of this study is to investigate the situational effects on the trait inference. Horike (1997) found that correlations between the act frequency and the trait rating of the target person's character were significantly higher at the typical behavior under specific situation. In this study, we investigate the difference of trait visibility based on the situational classification as previously stated.

At first, We chose the nouns which meant some 'situation' from the Japanese dictionary. The population was over 50,000. We made choice criteria following the research of Van Heck. "Those nouns that could be placed meaningfully into sentence frames of following form: 'a....situation' or 'being confronted with a situation' (Van Heck,1989)". As a result, about 10,000 words were elicited. Then, the synonymous were integrated, and classified into several type of situation referring to the Sells's taxonomy. These tasks keep on now, and do not finish yet. However, we were able to propose an hypothetical frame showed in Figure 4. We classified the situation from five viewpoints, 1) environment, 2) setting, 3) relation, 4) function, and 5) context. Maybe we have complicate processing system for treating different situational information simultaneously. In this study, we focused on the 'setting' viewpoint which meant the classification based on 'what we do in the situation. Approximately thirty thousand words are classified into the category. Two trained judges integrated them into the superordinate category independently. They agreed approximately with each other that

the supercategories were consisted from 14 aspects.

Twenty students were asked to classify these 3000 words into the 14 supercategories. Eighty-six percent of the words could be classified in it. Then, we three representative situations were chosen from each category. Forty-two situations (3 situation x 14 categories) were divided into nine groups. Two hundred and ninety-three subjects were assigned to one of nine situation groups, and asked to rate the similarity between every pair of situations in the group. Figure 1 is the result of cluster analysis based on the similarity ratings Ward Method: Euclid Distance). Similarly, we conduct the Multiscaling Analysis (ALSCAL:cf. Figure 2.). These results seemed to show that the categories were valid classification of the 'setting' aspect of situation except the crime situation and disaster situation were combined into the harm situation.

For the second purpose, more investigations were conducted. The procedure was basically the same as previous study. Namely, 1) Fifty-one subjects were asked to write an open-ended description about the act of the people, who typically possess one of the big five trait, under each situation mentioned above. 2) Three people classified the results, and most typical acts were selected for each trait-situation combination. In this way, we could construct 65 (13 situations x 5 traits) behavior (named Behavioral Facet). 3) One hundred and thirty subjects were randomly assigned to 10 facet, and asked to rate the attributability of fifteen traits about the person who carried out these behavior (typicality rating: 6 point scale). Table 1 shows the results of mean typicality rating of the three traits which relate to one of the big five aspect. Median of the rating scale was 2.5. Then, if the rating was over 3.5, the behavior might be regarded to have an appropriate typicality for the inference of the trait. Fifty-three facets (82 %) exceed the criteria. 4) Finally, another three hundred subjects were asked to rate the character of the self and the most intimate friend by 15 traits (5 points), and to rate the frequency of their acts (self and friend) under 8 facet randomly assigned. Simultaneously, they were asked to rate the trait visibility under 5 situation randomly assigned. The trait visibility meant the judgementability of the trait holder under particular situation.

Table 2 shows correlations of the behavioral frequency and the trait rating of the self in each behavioral facet. Correlations were higher at typical facets than atypical facets. These tendencies were clear at Extroversion (E) and Conscientiousness (C) facet. Moreover, situational effects were specified clearly. Correlations in E facet were higher at the conversation and work situation. On the other hand, correlations in C facet were higher at the house-keeping and religion facets. Individual differences of behavioral frequency are directly combined to the cognition of trait under these situations. The results showed that cognition of the trait on self were based on the frequency of typical acts under particular situation.

Table 3 shows correlations of friend. Similar, correlations were higher at typical facets. However, situational effects were differed from the case of the self. The cause

of these differences did not specified in this study, but we might be used different situational cues between evaluation of self and others.

Conclusion: To classify everyday situation, it is necessary to use a variant viewpoint simultaneously. From the viewpoint of 'setting,' thirteen categories were elicited. The cognition of the trait on self was based on the frequency of typical acts under particular situation. Trait inference was also influenced from situational factor.

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Figure 1: The result of cluster analysis of 42 situations

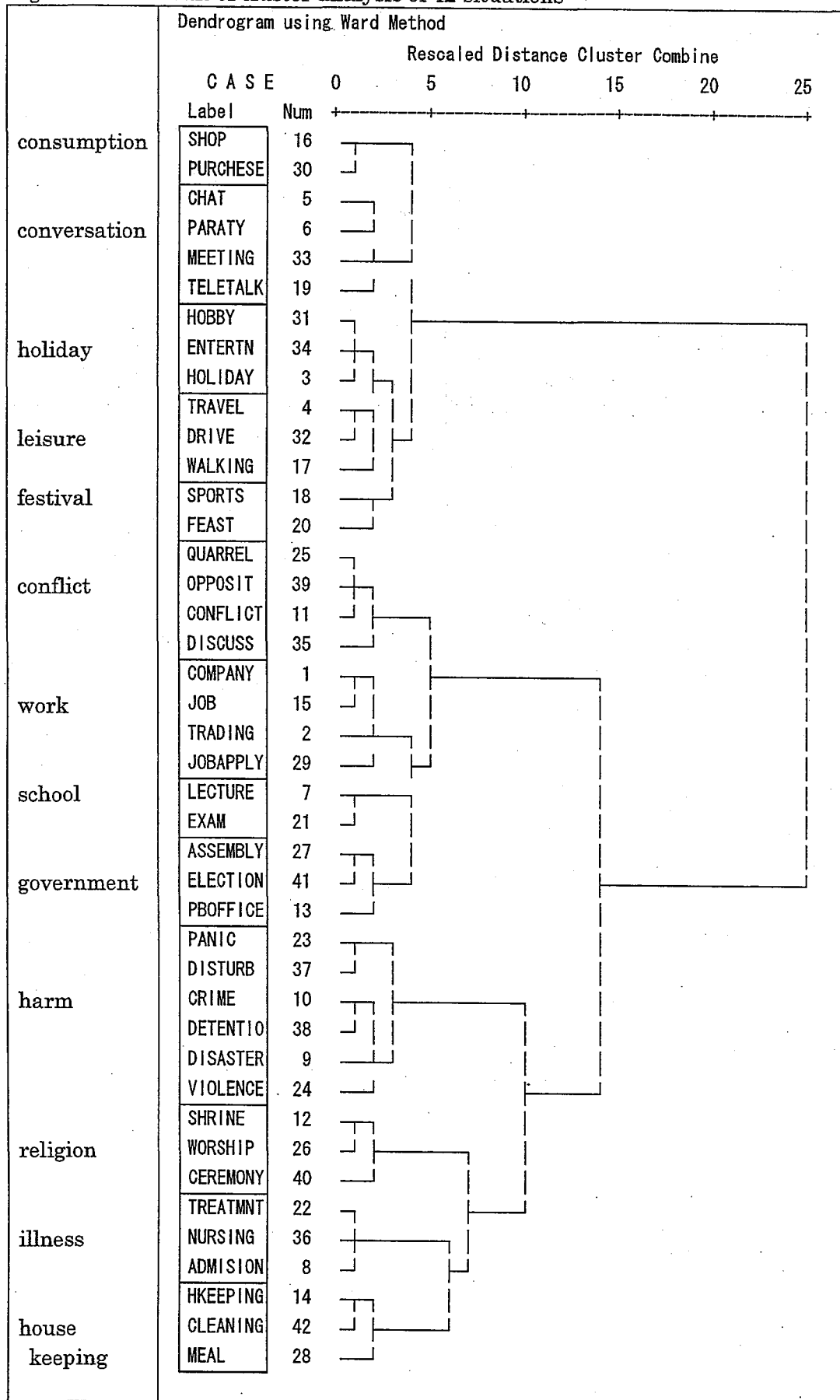


Fig.2 : The result of multidimensional scaling(ALSCAL)

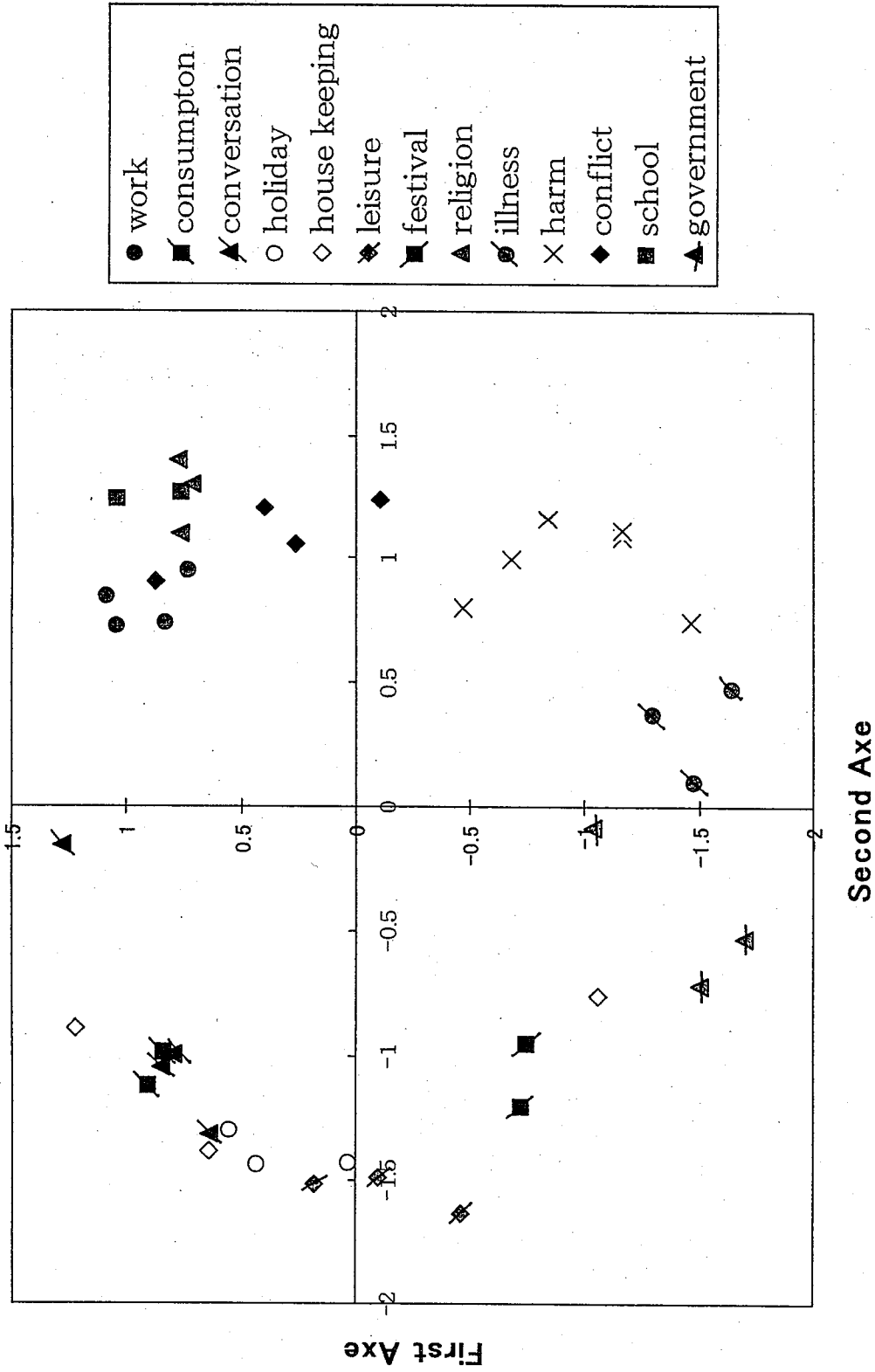


Table 3: The results of typicality rating of each facet.

	E	C	A	N	O
Work	4.36	3.76	3.79	4.07	4.38
Consumption	4.25	3.43	3.59	3.67	4.07
Conversation	4.07	4.12	4.1	3.74	4.35
Holiday	4.65	3.74	3	2.59	3.71
House Keeping	3.74	4.36	3.59	3.72	3.89
Leisure	4.59	4.67	4.48	3.74	3.1
Feast	4.59	3.51	3.64	4.1	3.74
Religion	3.69	4.59	2.82	2.33	2.84
Illness	4.2	3.74	2.61	4.64	3.35
Harm	3.61	3.1	2.87	4.25	3.94
Conflict	3.92	4.15	3.12	4.03	4.15
School	3.82	4.23	4.02	4.64	3.82
Government	4.41	4.23	3.67	4.28	4.25

Note: The yellow cell means the typicality rating of the facet are more than 3.50 (rating scale is from 0 to 5).

Table 2: Correlation coefficients of the behavioral frequency and the trait rating of the SELF in each behavioral facet.

Facet Trait	E			C			A			N			O						
	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A				
Work	0.491	0.144	0.38	0.213	0.342	0.397	-0.11	0.332	-0.07	0.528	0.062	0.204	0.412	0.349	0.218	0.242	0.346	0.018	-0.05
Consumption	0.273	-0.15	0.105	0.136	-0.12	-0.01	-0.2	0.614	0.168	0.547	-0.32	-0.37	0.015	-0.23	0.036	0.426	0.335	0.034	0.194
Conversation	0.524	0.109	0.281	0.279	0.139	0.206	0.078	0.122	-0.08	0.122	-0.24	-0.15	0.086	-0.19	-0.24	0.41	-0.17	-0.29	-0.28
Holiday	0.391	-0.13	0.024	0.152	0.143	-0.14	-0.01	0.074	-0.06	0.106	-0.2	-0.28	-0.19	-0.16	0.233	0.504	0.275	0.233	-0.34
House Keeping	0.259	-0.11	0.069	0.51	0.523	0.253	-0.07	-0.21	-0.22	-0.08	-0.21	0.424	0.337	0.084	0.121	0.017	0.314	0.288	0.196
Leisure	0.264	-0.04	0.358	0.039	0.398	-0.15	0.205	0.251	-0.11	-0.07	0.07	0.164	0.417	0.096	0.057	0.204	0.278	0.316	-0.05
Feast	0.201	-0.35	0.143	-0.57	-0.3	-0.28	0	0.353	0.041	0.098	-0.25	-0.33	0.11	-0.08	0.035	0.36	-0.02	0.15	0.075
Religion	-0.02	0.068	-0.02	0.414	0.402	0.281	-0.07	0.316	0.301	0.261	0.186	0.073	0.382	-0.33	-0.41	-0.08	-0.09	-0.16	-0.42
Illness	0.241	0.052	0.322	-0.28	0.079	-0.11	0.124	-0.09	-0.32	0.074	0.276	-0.34	-0.3	-0.41	0.473	0.209	0.106	0.154	0.063
Harm	0.429	0.1	0.245	0.174	0.206	0.077	-0.02	-0.17	0.165	-0.09	0.741	0.198	0.109	-0.04	0.257	-0.07	-0.04	0.115	-0.11
Conflict	0.443	-0.13	0.177	0.252	0.366	0.585	-0.03	0.326	0.217	0.492	-0.27	-0.02	-0.12	0.246	0.293	-0.2	0.144	-0.49	-0.28
School	0.366	-0.19	0.151	0.225	0.06	-0.04	-0.02	0.147	0.229	0.232	-0.15	-0.12	-0.17	-0.05	0.599	-0.06	0.125	0.12	-0.39
Government	0.326	0.209	0.497	-0.18	-0.225	0.297	0.222	0.136	0.09	0.222	-0.31	-0.27	-0.21	-0.02	0.36	0.303	0.387	0.274	0.082

Note: Behavioral Facet means the typical behavior associated to the particular trait under the particular situation.
 The yellow cell means a significant correlation of the frequency rating and the trait rating under the TYPICAL Facet.
 The green cell means a significant correlation of the frequency rating and the trait rating under the ATYPICAL Facet.

Table 3: Correlation coefficients of the behavioral frequency and the trait rating of the FRIEND in each behavioral facet.

Facet Trait	E			C			A			N			O						
	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A	E	C	A				
Work	0.106	0.211	0.252	0.095	0.335	0.346	0.015	0.423	0.114	-0.14	0.237	0.062	0.351	-0.02	0.366	0.308	-0.53	-0.27	-0.39
Consumption	0.161	0.28	0.48	0.315	0.072	0.011	-0.02	0.326	-0.08	-0.03	-0.17	-0.41	0.058	0.088	0.097	0.402	-0.13	0.191	-0.11
Conversation	0.439	-0.09	-0.03	0.439	0.118	0.177	0.183	0.263	0.02	0.289	-0.16	-0.1	0.229	-0.06	0.246	0.269	-0.02	-0.14	-0.02
Holiday	0.579	-0.19	0.342	0.115	0.377	-0.09	0.281	0.076	0.026	0.065	0.039	0.157	0.02	-0.08	0.299	0.382	-0.25	-0.17	-0.3
House Keeping	0.522	-0.15	0.114	0.092	0.653	-0.2	0.012	0.005	-0.2	-0.27	-0.07	-0.25	0.299	0.512	0.141	0.13	0.456	0.184	-0
Leisure	0.53	-0.2	0.156	-0.36	0.498	0.173	0.321	-0.11	0.293	0.232	0.332	0.189	0.412	0.322	-0.04	0.039	-0.14	0.024	0.076
Feast	0.262	-0.17	0.103	0.091	0.389	-0.04	-0.15	0.637	-0.1	-0.1	0.105	0.032	-0.1	-0.03	0.04	0.392	0.103	0.336	-0.13
Religion	-0.04	0.057	0.03	0.324	0.177	0.197	0.052	0.018	0.303	0.012	0.425	0.108	0.208	-0.02	0.407	-0.03	-0.1	-0.19	0.275
Illness	0.367	-0.07	0.148	-0.08	0.253	-0.12	0.254	-0.11	0.201	0.073	0.448	-0.25	0.509	0.293	0.33	0.205	-0.03	0.035	0.136
Harm	0.174	0.405	0.139	0.546	0.233	0.106	0.253	-0.31	0.143	-0.35	0.234	-0.01	0.03	-0.02	0.611	0.211	0.425	0.267	-0.36
Conflict	-0.08	-0.04	-0.12	-0.1	0.292	-0.06	-0.06	0.157	0.222	0.239	0.01	0.052	0.029	0.042	0.225	0.221	0.462	0.164	-0.13
School	0.283	0.424	0.11	0.379	0.346	0.148	-0.11	-0	0.418	0.312	0.141	-0.02	0.079	-0.15	0.271	0.295	0.235	0.016	-0.13
Government	0.225	0.373	-0.07	0.043	0.062	0.235	-0.03	0.189	0.358	0.234	0.254	-0.54	0.079	0.009	0.209	0.184	0.044	0.474	-0.06

Note: Behavioral Facet means the typical behavior associated to the particular trait under the particular situation.
 The yellow cell means a significant correlation of the frequency rating and the trait rating under the TYPICAL Facet.
 The green cell means a significant correlation of the frequency rating and the trait rating under the ATYPICAL Facet.

4. 特性推論における状況分類枠の検討

問題：パーソナリティ研究の領域では、近年、行動遺伝学的な研究などを中心に、人の行動の分散を説明するうえで、遺伝的な要因の影響の大きさが、これまで考えられてきた以上に重要な意味をもつことが示されている。また遺伝子地図の解析や多型情報の蓄積により、性格傾向の個人差と遺伝的要因との関連づけも飛躍的に進展しつつある。その一方で、共有環境や非共有環境の影響を具体的に論じることなども含め、環境的な要因の影響性を組織的に論じた研究は少ないように思われる。相互作用論的な立場からすれば、遺伝的な要因の解析と環境要因の影響性の論議は、どちらも等しい重みをもつことになる。こうした影響を組織的・系統的に論じることは可能なのだろうか。そのために我々はどのような情報を必要としているのだろうか。

本研究は、こうした問題への取り組みの一つとして行われた、状況分類の試みについて報告する。状況分類の必要性は、人間一状況論争などを通じ、これまでも数多くの研究者によって論じられてきた。けれども現実に構築された枠組としては、Sells(1963)による刺激状況の詳細な分類や、Van Heck(1989)による基本名辞仮説を基盤とした分析しか見あたらない。このうち後者は、ビッグ・ファイブと同様に、辞書に表現された状況を抽出・分類しようとする試みで、方法的には意義のある研究と考えられる。けれども、詳細に検討してみると、抽出された状況や結果的に構築された分類にはネガティブな内容、とりわけ犯罪や軍事に関する偏りがみられ、少なくとも本邦にそのまま適用するには無理があるように思われる。また抽出の際に基準により多数の用語が除外されており、その点でも再検討の余地がある。さらに、Sells の分類との対応も不明確で、2つの分類に共通する点もきわめて少ない。

そこで、本研究では、これらの問題点をふまえたうえで、状況分類の枠組みの検討を行いつつ、辞書的なアプローチによる状況の分類を試みた結果の一部について報告する。また、あわせて、これまで検討してきたテーマの継続として(堀毛、1996a,1996b,1997)、分類された状況による特性推論の相違を検討する目的で行った、状況による特性の類推可能性(可視性)判断に関する研究結果についても報告する。

方法：岩波国語辞典(第5版：約56000語収載)を使用した。第一次の抽出は、辞書を20に分割し、各部分を個別に1名が担当し、状況語の抽出を行った。抽出のしかたは、Van Heck(1989)を参考に、「・・・状況」または、「・・・という状況」という表現にした場合に意味のある名詞とした。第1次の抽出では、それ以外の条件は設けなかった。結果的に、約13000語が抽出された。これらの語彙について、3名の合議により、辞書との照合、同義語の統合等を慎重に行いながら、分類枠の検討がなされた。その結果、状況語を分類する視点として、以下に示す5つの視点が妥当であろうとの結論に達した。1) 環境的視点：季節、自然環境など、対人行動上意識されることは少ないものの、行動に影響を与えている可能性のある環境要因を表す状況用語。2) 場面的視点：仕事、余暇など、対人的な行動や相互作用がおこなわれる場の特徴を表す状況用語。3) 関係的視点：親子、師弟など、

状況に含まれる当事者間の関係を表す状況用語。4) 機能的視点：協調、敵対など、状況に関する当事者の認知的な評価や状況がもつ機能を表す状況用語。5) 文脈的視点：興隆、衰退など、状況がもつ時間的な特質や変化を表す状況用語。ひとつの用語は、必ずしも単一の視点のみから記述されるわけではなく、同時に複数の視点から分類されることもあり得ると考えた。

このうち、今回の発表では、場面的視点からの分類について報告する。該当する状況用語は、当初の分類では約 3000 語に達していた。その内容について、まず 2 名が個別に分類を作成し、さらにその結果を参照しながら筆者を加えた 3 名の合議に基づき、同意語を整理しつつ大分類を作成した結果、14 の状況カテゴリーに集約できるという結論を得た（カテゴリー内容は図 1 を参照）。この結果をもとに、再度別の 6 名の判定者に、約 500 語づつ振り分け、作成された大分類を用いてカテゴリー化するよう依頼した。その結果、8 割を越える状況用語が分類できたため、このカテゴリーを場面的視点からみた場合の状況分類の主要な枠組と見なすことにした。

引き続き、14 の状況カテゴリーから、それぞれ代表的な 3 つの状況を選択した。この選択は、サブカテゴリーとして中に含まれる用語が多いものから順に行うこととした。結果的に用意された 42 の状況について、以下に示す手順で研究を行った。

A) 状況分類の妥当性の検討：293 名の被験者に、42 の状況間の類似性を一対比較法により、類似を 1、非類似を 5 とする 5 段階で評定させた。被験者の負担を考慮して、状況間行列を 9 つに分割し、そのうちのひとつを評定するよう求めた。結果は、評定値を 0-4 に変換したうえで、評定者間の平均値を求め、これを非類似度行列とみなし、クラスター分析、ならびに多次元尺度法 (ALSCAL) により分析を行った。

B) 状況による特性の類推可能性の相違の検討：同じ 293 名の被験者に、42 の状況から 4 ないし 5 状況を割り振り、それぞれの状況で他者の性格的側面 (Big Five: 外向性、誠実性、同調性、開放性、神経症的傾向) がどの程度判断できるかを、5 段階で直接評定させた。

結果：クラスター分析の結果 (ユークリッド距離に基づく Ward 法による)、14 のカテゴリーはほぼそのまま個別のクラスターを形成することが示された。ただし、犯罪状況と災害状況は同一のクラスターを構成するものと判断されていた。多次元尺度法を用いた分析でも状況の布置はほぼ円環状となり、ほぼカテゴリーごとにまとまることが示された。これらの結果から、今回作成した場面的視点に基づく状況分類は、状況を見分ける視点としてある程度意味のある内容をもつものと判断した。

図 1 には、類推可能性判断の結果を示した。図から明らかなように、外向性や開放性は祭り、余暇、労働、休日等の状況で判断されやすいと認知されているのに対し、誠実性は宗教、労働、家事等の状況で判断されやすいと考えられている。また、同調性や神経症傾向は、全体に可視性が低くなっている。こうした結果は、外向性などの特性を可視的とするこれまでの研究結果とも合致するとともに、特性推論に状況的な要因が影響する可能性を示唆しており、状況的要因の分類が、この種の研究にとって意義をもつことを示している。(本研究の成果の一部は、International Congress of Psychology 第 27 回大会でも報告された)

(引用文献)

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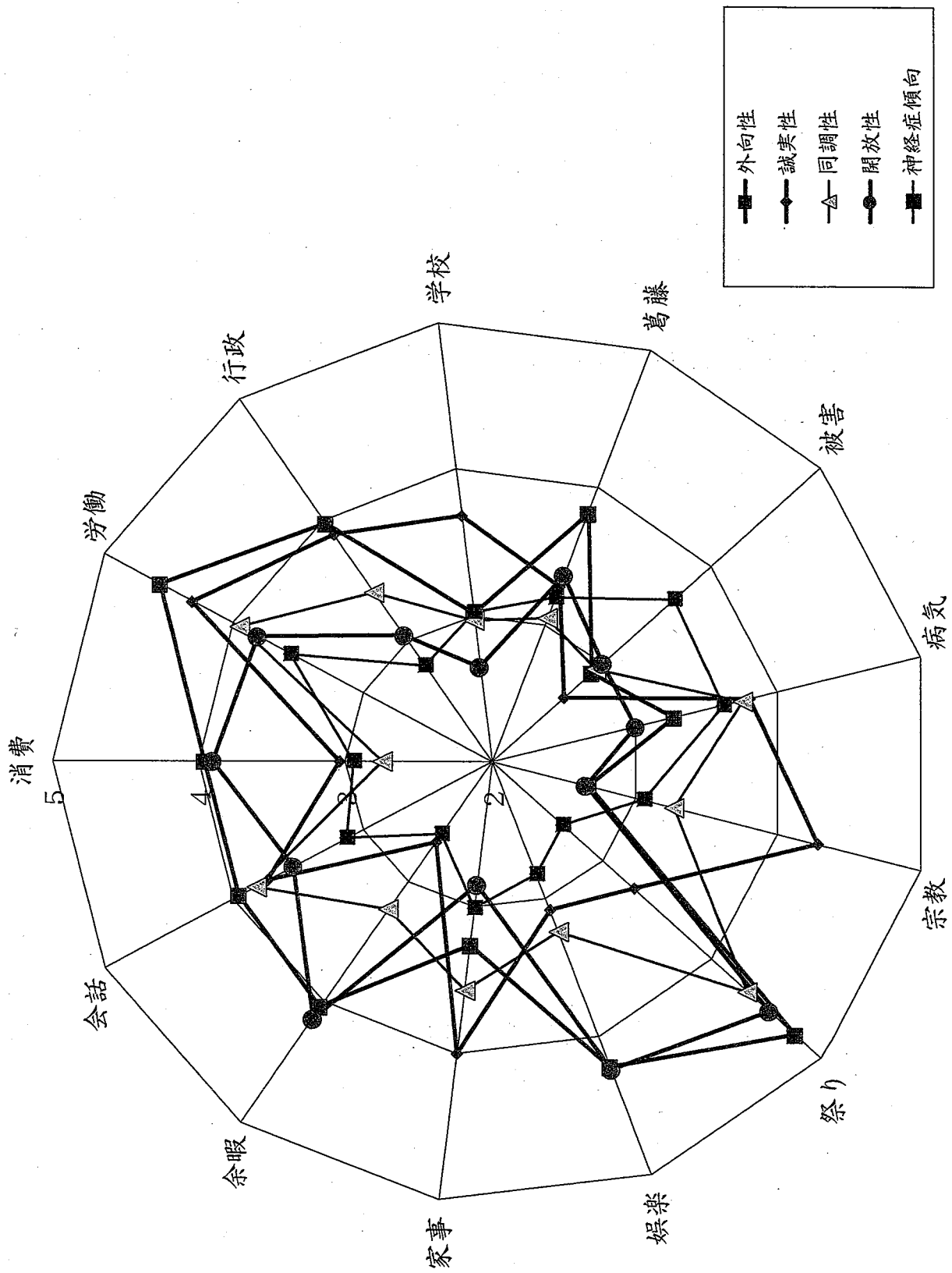
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图1: 类推可能性判断の結果.



5. Toward a Lexical Taxonomy of Social Situations

I'm very honored to have this opportunity today to speak before you, and would like to express my deep appreciation to Dr. Kashima, the Chairperson of this Congress, Dr Yang, the President of AASP, Dr. Yamaguchi, the next President of AASP, and to all the persons concerned.

This afternoon, we have a symposium titled 'The Future of Asian Social Psychology' during which our future directions will be discussed. With this in mind, I'd like to speak here about my own research concerning the lexical study of social situations.

1. Introduction

As you know, a lexical approach has been adopted regarding the study of personality which is based on the following fundamental lexical hypothesis (Goldberg, 1981).

"Those individual differences that are of most significance in the daily transactions of persons with each other will eventually become encoded into their language. The more important such a difference is, the more people will notice it and wish to talk of it, with the result that they will invent a word for it."

The Big Five, or Five Factors Model of person traits was constructed on the basis of this approach. Lexical studies have been conducted in many speech communities, such as English, German, Dutch, Italian, Hungarian, Czech, Polish, Filipino, China, Korea, and Japanese. The results from nearly all these studies suggested the same conclusion: namely, that the Big Five personality dimensions were common worldwide.

However, several researchers have come to different conclusions. Yang & Bond (1990), for example, found that the Chinese dimensions of person perception based on the document analysis of Chinese publications differed from the Big Five dimensions. Recently, Tsuji (2001) describes a Japanese lexical study. They elicited approximately eleven thousand trait-related words from the 'Ko-ji-en' dictionary, which contained two hundred and thirty thousand words. Then, they selected four hundred terms based on currency, clarity, and utility rating. Five hundred students were asked to rate themselves using these terms. Factor analysis revealed that the optimal solution was eleven factors. Moreover, they reported that a five factors solution didn't fit the Big Five dimensions.

In order to test the validity of these conclusions, we need to evaluate many more similar studies. However, these studies do imply that the emic and indigenous viewpoints are important for lexical research.

2 Research on social situation

Compared with trait studies, only a few studies have adopted the lexical approach to situation. Before we examine the problem in more detail, we need to briefly review studies on situations.

The process of person-situation debate has shown the necessity for studying coherence of personality. It demonstrated that the interaction of person and situation was important for personality and social psychological research. However, personality research tends to be concerned with the hereditary factors behind the trait. Recent approaches of psychobiology, behavioral genetics, and evolutionary psychology seem to have a common direction, i.e. explaining human personalities by genetic factors.

On the other hand, progress in situational research has far to go. Caprara & Cervone (2000) pointed out the following.

“The most common thing to be said about situations in reviews of psychological literature is that they have received insufficient study. There are innumerable studies of the qualities of people, but relatively few systematic investigations of the situations in which they live.”

However, they also referred to another viewpoint.

“One should recognize that many investigators have systematically explored the nature of situations and attempted to develop situation taxonomies. Although outnumbered by personologists, their efforts are significant.”

The most famous contributions in this area are the studies by Forgas (1979) and Argyle, et al. (1981). Forgas showed the history of the situational research, and insisted on the importance of episode analysis. Similarly, Argyle reviewed several approaches to situation, and arranged them into six categories.

Unfortunately, not a great deal of research followed these studies due to the difficulty in treating situational factors systematically in our research. However, there have been two studies that showed new directions for the area. One is the study of Karhe (1990,1992) conducted from the viewpoint of interactionism. I will not review this in detail here, but, for those interested in this study, please refer to my translation (into Japanese) of her book. The other work of interest in this area is the lexical study by Van Heck (1984). Let us return to the lexical approach now.

3. Lexical approach to situations

As mentioned earlier, research adopting the lexical approach is quite limited. In fact,

as far as I know, Van Heck's (1984,1989) study is the only case. Van Heck chose nouns from Dutch a dictionary that referred to situation. Selection criteria are as follows.

- 1) Those nouns that could be substituted meaningfully in phrases like "Being in a..... situation" or "Being confronted with asituation."
- 2) Those nouns that refer to following category were excluded.
 - a) Molecular event.
 - b) Inner processes.
 - c) Emotional and motivational states.
 - d) Personality traits.
 - e) Evaluations of acts or events.
 - f) Historical processes.
 - g) Periods.
 - h) Biological processes and bodily states.
 - i) Sociological and economic positions.
 - j) Enduring stable relations between persons or person and institutions.
 - k) Roles.
 - l) Specific locations. Animals.
 - m) Plants.
 - n) Objects.
 - o) Proper names.
 - p) Geographical names.

Van Heck selected approximately 750 nouns. Then, he eliminated superfluous words, leaving 263 terms. On the other hand, content analysis of taped interviews yielded 558 separate cues that suggested objective situational characteristics or attributes. These cues were analyzed by cluster analysis, leaving 254 cues. Finally a factor analysis of situation by cue matrix identified ten factors. These ten factors are as follows.

4. Lexical approach to situations in Japan

Van Heck's study was conducted deliberately and has many implications for research relating to personality and social psychology. However, the number of the words selected for this analysis seems to be limited for expressing various everyday situations. This might be caused by a property of Western languages. For example, Bem & Allen (1974) pointed out the following.

English language presents us with a rich vocabulary for describing traits but an impoverished vocabulary for situations...Researchers must be aware of this obstacle and find ways to overcome it.

. On the other hand, Japanese culture is often regarded as having a high context quality. Several researchers have pointed out that the Japanese are sensitive to situational cues and tend to predict other people's intentions from the situational atmosphere, rather than from direct behavioral cues. If this is true, the Japanese language may include more situational terms than do Western languages.

Now, I will discuss my own lexical study.

The goal of the study was to use a Japanese dictionary to produce a database of situational terms and it did not use the same intensive methodology seen in Van Heck's study. At the beginning of this task, I established a hypothetical framework based on the classic studies to classify the terms. The framework is illustrated in the table.

In an approach to situation, we need to differentiate at least five aspects of situation, i.e. environmental aspects, behavioral settings, relational aspects, functional aspects, and the context of the situation. The blue rectangles indicate those aspects emphasized by each of six approaches. Accordingly, we will use five broad standards to conduct this lexical study. The aspects are also shown in this figure. The next section deals with the results of the classification of the settings and the relations.

5. Results of the 'settings' classification

First, we chose the nouns from the Japanese dictionary that indicated some 'behavioral setting'. The population was over 50,000. Three persons were asked to categorize 500 terms per week, based on whether these terms fit the five aspects mentioned above. With regard to setting aspects, we used the same criteria that were proposed by Van Heck. That is, "Those nouns that could be placed meaningfully into sentence frames of following form: 'a...situation' or 'being confronted with a ..situation'." We used the term 'setting' instead of the term 'situation'. As a result, approximately thirty thousand words were selected. Twenty trained judges then integrated them into their respective middle range categories, using by K-J clustering method. This resulted in 42 middle categories being identified.

In the next step, the representative terms of the 42 categories were divided into nine groups. Each of two hundred and ninety-three subjects was randomly assigned to one of the nine setting groups and asked to rate the similarity between every pair of settings on a five-point scale. Cluster analysis (Ward Method: Euclid Distance) yielded the following results.

Similarly, we conducted a Multiscaling Analysis (ALSCAL: cf. Figure 2.). The results suggested that the 'setting' terms should be grouped into 13 higher categories.

Let us compare the results with Van Heck's classification.

- Generally speaking, these two classifications are very similar.
- The Japanese classification has three more categories.
- The result of MDS shows 13 categories may converge into five superior categories.
- Indigenous aspects are not so clear, but some categories that differed from Dutch model might be unique for Japanese in their contents.

6. Results of the 'relations' classification

Next, we will show you the results of relationships categories. Methods of word selection were identical to the setting selection. Approximately, twenty-one hundred terms are selected. The same two trained judges integrated them into sixty middle categories. The representative terms were divided into sixteen groups. Each of two hundred and sixty-eight subjects was randomly assigned to two of the sixteen relations groups and asked to rate the similarity between every pair of relations on a five-point scale. Let me show the results of Cluster analysis (Ward Method: Euclid Distance).

Twenty-one higher cluster were yielded. Similarly, this is the result of MDS.

- Twenty-one clusters may be converged into eight superior categories
- We do not have any study directly comparable with this result. However, two of four axes which have pointed out by Wish, et al. are adaptable on this result.
- Interpersonal circumplex model by Wiggins(1996) might be also related for understanding the result.

7. Conclusion

Those are the results of my lexical study. I do not finish the arrangement of the results of environment and functional taxonomy. I'll show you the results another chance of meeting.

Finally, let me show you some implications of lexical study.

First of all, it can be used as a guideline for many personality and social psychological studies. In many studies, situational variables seemed to be defined arbitrary. We need to have systematic viewpoint of situational variable in every research area. Lexical study is useful as the basic guideline.

Secondly, it is especially useful in research into attribution and trait inferences. For example, researches on Kelley's ANOVA model might become more concretely, by using these taxonomy.

Thirdly, it might be contributed to the research of personality coherence. Mischel & Shoda(1995) insisted the importance of the coherent understanding of our personality. Situational taxonomy might be useful for their concepts of behavioral signature.

Let me say my conclusion. To classify everyday situation, it is necessary to use a

various viewpoints simultaneously, and the lexical approach is a useful tool for producing these variant taxonomies. Generally speaking, the results of setting and relationship classification showed us that these taxonomies are common for both Eastern and Western cultures. However, an indigenous viewpoint is also important for the analysis.

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Toward a Lexical Taxonomy of Social Situations

Kazuya HORIKE
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1. Lexical approach to personality

- Fundamental lexical hypothesis (Goldberg,1981)
 - “Those individual differences that are of most significance in the daily transactions of persons with each other will eventually become encoded into their language. The more important such a difference is, the more people will notice it and wish to talk of it, with the result that they will invent a word for it.”

Lexical studies in various language families

- English Allport & Odbert, 1936 ; Norman, 1967
Goldberg, 1981
- Dutch De Raad, et al. 1988
- German Angleitner, et al. 1990
- Italian Caprara & Perugini, 1994
Di Blas & Forzi, 1999
- Hungarian Szirmak & De Raad, 1994
- Czech Herbickova & Ostendorf, 1994
- Polish Szarota, 1996
- Filipino Church, et al. 1996, 1997
- Korean Hahn & Ashton, 1999
- Japanese Isaka, 1990 ; Tsuji, 2001

2. Research on social situations

- Caprara & Cervone (2000)
 - “The most common thing to say about situations in reviews of psychological literature is that they have received insufficient study. There are innumerable studies of the qualities of people, but relatively few systematic investigations of the situations in which they live.”
- “One should recognize that many investigators have systematically explored the nature of situations and attempted to develop situation taxonomies. Although outnumbered by personologists, their efforts are significant.”

Several approaches to research for situations (Furnham & Argyle,1981)

- Dimensional : Perceptual
(Forgas,1976 ; Wish & Kaplan,1976)
- Componential : Structural
(Argyle, Furnham, & Graham,1981)
- Process: Applied (Stebbins,1975)
- Environmental (Cantor,1977)
- Ecological (Barker,1968)
- Ethnogenic:Roles-Rules
(Marsh,Rosser & Harre,1978)

3.Lexical approach to situations

- Van Heck (1984,1989)
Those nouns that could be substituted meaningfully in phrases like “Being in a... situation” or “Being confronted with a ...situation.”
- Those nouns that refer to following category were excluded.
 - Molecular event. Specific locations.**
 - Historical processes. Periods.**
 - Inner processes. Emotional and motivational states.**
 - Personality traits. Biological processes and bodily states.**
 - Evaluations of acts or events.**
 - Sociological and economic positions.**
 - Enduring stable relations between persons or person and institutions.**
 - Roles.**
 - Animals. Plants. Objects. Proper names. Geographical names.**

Van Heck's situation taxonomy

(Forgas & Van

Heck, 1992)

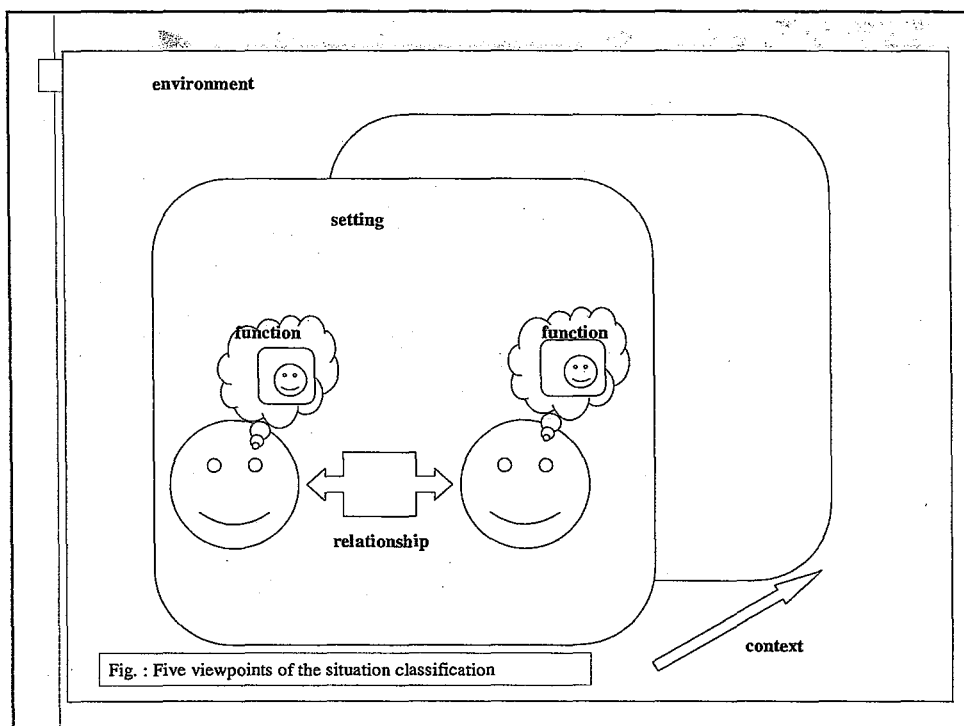
- 1. Interpersonal Conflict : conflict, quarrel, attack...
- 2. Joint Working : lecture, work, negotiation...
- 3. Intimacy and interpersonal relations : wedding, divorce, visit...
- 4. Recreation : reception, dinner, concert...
- 5. Travelling : arrival, walk, transport...
- 6. Rituals : funereal, cremation...
- 7. Sports : contest, match, race...
- 8. Excesses : fornication, obscenity...
- 9. Serving : housekeeping, nursing...
- 10. Trading : market, auction, sale...

4. Lexical approach to situations in Japanese

- Bem and Allen (1974) have noted, the English language presents us with a rich vocabulary for describing traits but an impoverished vocabulary for situations...
Researchers must be aware of this obstacle and find ways to overcome it. (Ickes, Snyder, & Garcia, 1997)
- Japanese culture is often regarded as having a high context quality. Several researchers have pointed out that the Japanese are sensitive to situational cues, and tend to predict other people's intentions from the situational atmosphere, rather than from direct behavioral cues. If this is true, Japanese language may include situational terms more than Western languages.

Taxonomical standards of lexical study and the relationship with other approaches

	Environ ment (noun)	Behav. Setting (noun)	Relation Role (noun)	Function Goal (adj.)	Context (?)
Dimensional		O	O	O	
Componential	O	O	O	O	O
Process		O			O
Environmental	O				
Ecological	O	O	O	O	O
Ethnogenic		O	O	O	O

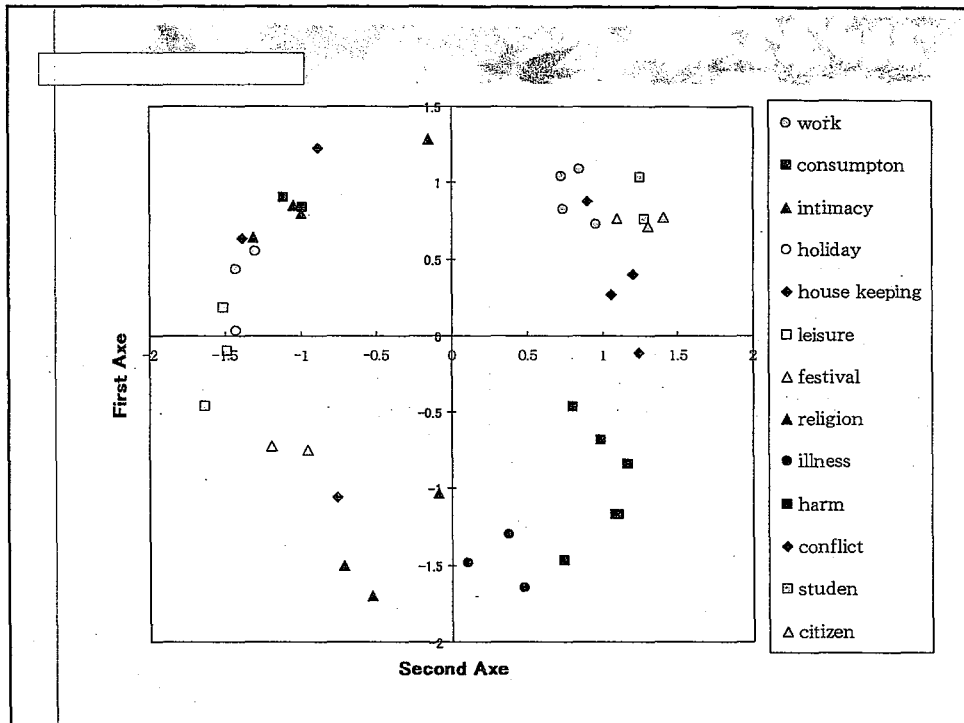


Comparisons with Van Heck's criteria

Inner processes. Emotional and motivational states. Personality traits. Biological processes and bodily states. Proper names.	Excluding
Animals. Plants. Objects. Geographical names.(partly)	Environments
Molecular event. Specific locations.	Settings
Roles. Sociological and economic positions. Enduring stable relations between persons or person and institutions.	Relations
Evaluations of acts or events.	Functions
Historical processes. Periods.	Contexts

5. Results of the 'settings' classification

- 1.Work
- 2.Studentship
- 3.Citizenship
- 4.Consumption
- 5.Intimacy
- 6.House keeping
- 7.Holiday
- 8.Leisure
- 9.Festival
- 10.Religion
- 11.Illness
- 12.Harm
- 13.Conflict

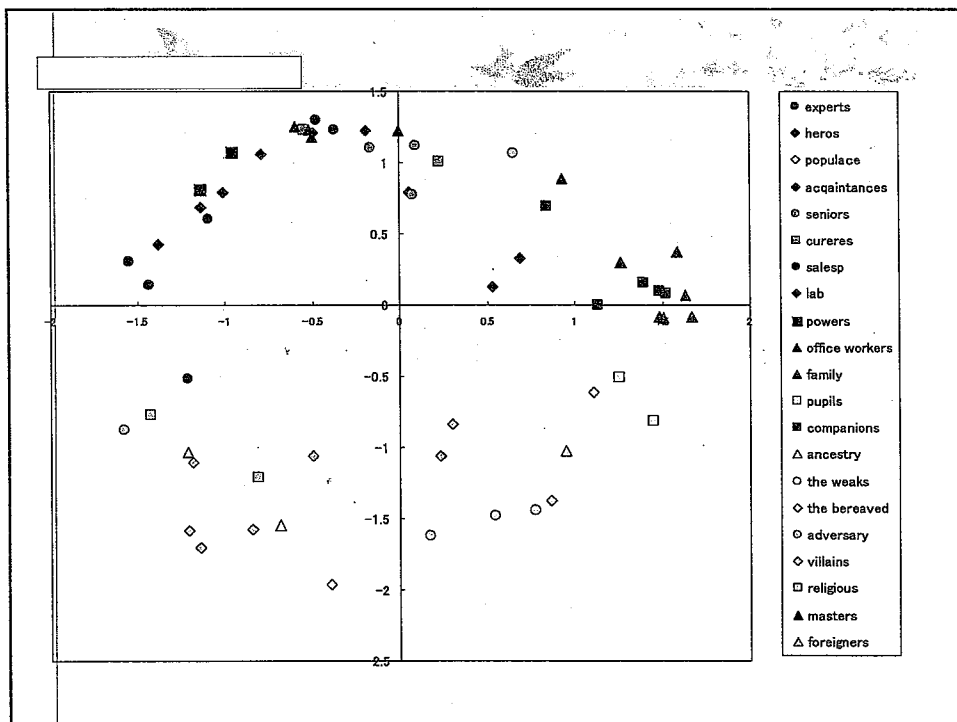


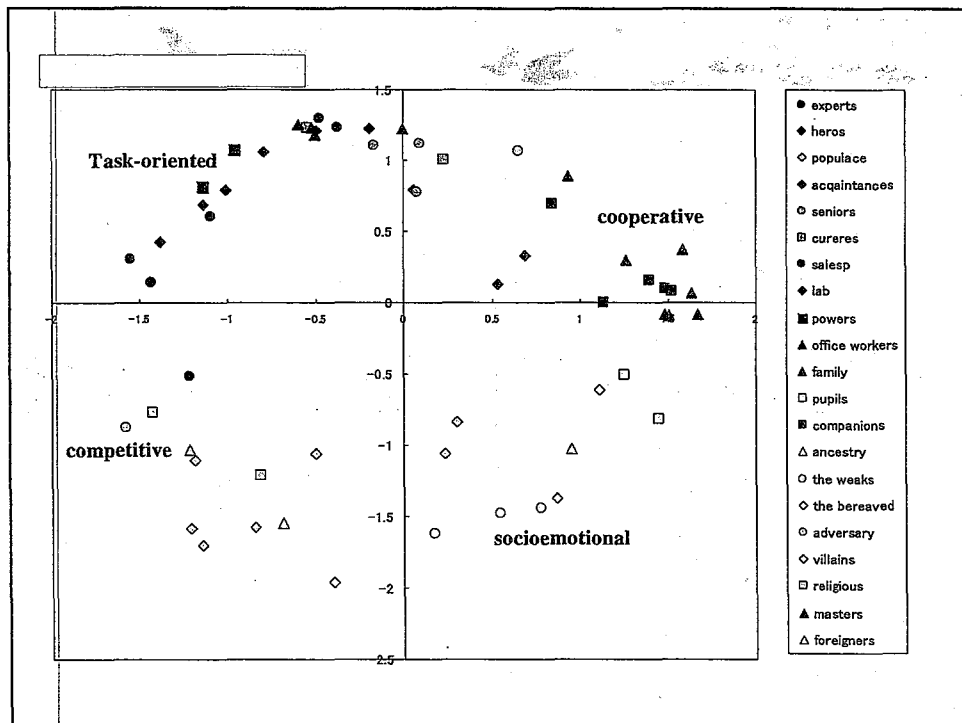
Comparison between Dutch and Japanese setting categories

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| ■ 2. Joint Working | ■ 1. Work |
| ■ 10. Trading | ■ 2. Studentship |
| | ■ 3. <u>Citizenship</u> |
| | ■ 4. <u>Consumption</u> |
| ■ 3. Intimacy | ■ 5. Intimacy |
| ■ 9. Serving | ■ 6. House keeping |
| | ■ 7. Holiday |
| ■ 4. Recreation | ■ 8. Leisure |
| ■ 5. Traveling | ■ 9. Festival |
| ■ 7. Sports | |
| | ■ 10. Religion |
| ■ 6. Rituals | ■ 11. <u>Illness</u> |
| | |
| ■ 8. Excesses | ■ 12. Harm |
| ■ 1. Interpersonal Conflict | ■ 13. Conflict |

6. Results of the 'relationships' classification

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| ■ 1. Experts | ■ 11. Acquaintances |
| ■ 2. Heroes | ■ 12. Companions |
| ■ 3. Powers | ■ 13. Family |
| ■ 4. Masters | |
| | ■ 14. Pupils |
| ■ 5. Labors | ■ 15. Ancestry |
| ■ 6. Office workers | ■ 16. The bereaved |
| ■ 7. Salespersons | ■ 17. The weeks |
| | |
| ■ 8. Seniors | ■ 18. Adversary |
| ■ 9. Curers | ■ 19. Villains |
| | |
| ■ 10. Populace | ■ 20. Religious |
| | ■ 21. Foreigners |





7. Conclusion

- Implications of my research.
 - It can be used as a guideline for many personality and social psychological studies.
 - It is especially useful in research into attribution and trait inferences.
 - It may contribute to the research of personality coherence.
- Conclusion
 - To classify everyday situation, it is necessary to use a various viewpoints simultaneously, and the lexical approach is a useful tool for producing these variant taxonomies.
 - The results of setting and relationship classification showed us that these taxonomies are common for both Eastern and Western cultures.

6 . The Impact of Interpersonal Situations on Intraindividual

Emotional Variation in Romantic Relationships

Abstract

The present study examined contextual influences of intraindividual emotional variation in romantic relationships. Towards this goal, a taxonomy classifying the different types of interpersonal situation (e.g. relaxing, romance, eating, and conflict) that people commonly reported when describing their interactions with their romantic partner was developed. These classes of interpersonal situation showed a high level of correspondence with Van Heck's (1989) more general lexical taxonomy of situations. The taxonomy of interpersonal situations developed in the present research was then used to calculate the **situation distribution** of social interaction diary ratings. If the different situations that we encounter in our everyday lives influence our emotions, then it follows that the situation distribution, i.e. the standard deviation of the time that participants spent with their romantic partner across different classes of everyday situation, should be correlated with the level of intraindividual emotional variation across romantic interactions. This was indeed shown to be the case. Discussion focuses on the incorporation of more detailed measures of contextual influence, such as the measurement of situation distribution, for the assessment of change and stability in close relationships, as past research in this area has focused predominantly on individual difference measures such as working models of attachment and emotional intensity.

Research has repeatedly identified the necessity of considering the independent and interdependent effects of both external contexts and internal factors, such as personality, on behavior and emotion (Mischel, 1968). This is especially true of research on interpersonal relationships. Indeed, one has only to consider Ainsworth's strange situation procedure (Ainsworth & Wittig, 1969) to recognize the importance of both internal factors (in this case attachment style) and the external context (in this case the strange situation itself) on how people function in close relationships. However, although there is a wealth of research documenting stable individual differences in various aspects of how people act and feel in their romantic relationships (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986); research on the affective properties of different situations and their impact on behavior and emotion in romantic relationships lacks systematic classification. This is surprising given that a considerable research effort in the personality and situation interaction literature has gone into developing a comprehensive lexical taxonomy of different situations that we encounter in our everyday lives (Van Heck, 1989; Horike, 2001). As far as we are aware, a similar taxonomy has not yet been developed for profiling the affective properties of different interpersonal situations and behaviors.

The present research firstly seeks to extend Van Heck's (1989) lexical taxonomy of situations by categorizing the open ended descriptions of the different interpersonal situations that people commonly encounter in their interactions with their romantic partners. A profile mapping the relative differences in emotional experience that characterize different classes of interpersonal situation will then be developed. The second goal of the present research is to examine the impact of the **situation distribution** (i.e. the standard deviation of time spent interacting with one's romantic partner across different classes of situation), on **intraindividual emotional variation** (commonly measured by the within-subject standard deviation of repeated diary ratings; e.g. Eid & Diener, 1999). Personality differences in emotional variation over both time per se (e.g. Larsen, 1987) and over repeated opposite gender social interactions (e.g. Tidwell, Reis & Shaver, 1996) have been dealt with extensively by previous research. However, we are unaware of any research that has examined the impact of different classes of everyday interpersonal situation on emotional variation in romantic relationships.

Categorizing Situations.

For the most part, previous research on interpersonal relationships and the impact of different situations on emotion has tended to focus on specific classes of

situation. These include stressful or high conflict lab situations (e.g. Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992; Miller, 1996; Feeney & Collins, 2001), naturally occurring strange situation analogues (Fraley & Shaver, 1998), high conflict social interactions (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997), and general stressful events (see van Eck, Nicolson & Berkhof, 1998).

In contrast, research in the personality and situation interaction literature provides a more extensive overview of general classes of situation. Research in this area has defined the situation in a variety of ways (Pervin, 1975), ranging from objective characteristics of the physical environment, to the subjective interpretation of the situation itself (Murray, 1938). In addition, situations have been classified using a variety of different taxonomies (e.g. Van Heck, 1989; Diener & Larsen, 1984; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Pervin, 1975; Forgas, 1983). One of the most comprehensive situation taxonomies is undoubtedly Van Heck's (1984, 1989) lexical taxonomy of situations. Van Heck (1989) derived his taxonomy through the exhaustive analysis of common situational terms recorded in a variety of Dutch dictionaries. Each situational term was then classified using ratings of each situation's perceived similarity on a variety of different characteristics. As Van Heck (1989) noted, the way in which situations are classified depends, in part, on the weighting given to different clusters of situational characteristics. For example, when classifying situations, one could consider similarities based on structural characteristics of the environment, or similarities based on affective responses and the types of social interaction that are likely to occur within given situations. Using combined ratings from a variety of different clusters of situational characteristics, Van Heck (1989) reported ten different situational factors (displayed in Table 1). Recent Japanese research has partially supported Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy, suggesting a similar thirteen factor model that may be present in Japan (Horike, 2001).

In comparison to Van Heck's (1989) general lexical taxonomy, other researchers have identified highly specific types of social interaction. For example, Forgas (1983, see also Forgas 1981) asked participants to describe the nature of every social interaction that they had during one day. This yielded a detailed list of specific interpersonal situations (e.g. complaints about noise, washing-up, talk before lecture). The complete list of specific interpersonal situations was then rated by a second group of participants on a variety of different dimensions. One consistent finding to come out of research in this area was that different classes of interpersonal situation were differentiated primarily by their affective characteristics (e.g. enjoyment, intimacy, feelings of self-worth, level of activity) rather than their structural characteristics (Forgas, 1978, 1981, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Battistich & Thompson, 1980).

Table 1. Situational taxonomy and example situations (from Van Heck, 1984; Van Heck, 1989).

Factor	Factor Label	Sample Situations
1.	Interpersonal Conflict.	Blackmail, murder, intimidation, fight, attack, boycott, obstruction, accusation, teasing, quarrel, physical violence, punishment, criticism, conflict, provocation, protest, interruption, intrigue, deceit, manipulation, etc.
2.	Joint working; exchange of thoughts, ideas, and knowledge.	Lecture, test, job application, examination, interview, appointment, talk/conversation, judgment, instruction, work, job, co-operation, report, discussion, negotiation, deliberation, exchange of thoughts, therapy, lesson, phone call, etc.
3.	Intimacy and interpersonal relations	Pregnancy, death-bed, seduction, declaration of love, divorce, offer of marriage, gossip, wedding, courtship, flirt, visit acquaintance(ship), etc.
4.	Recreation	Reception, dancing-party, inauguration, celebration, dinner, jubilee, reunion, feast, concert, diversion, show, game, etc.
5.	Traveling	Motor tour, transport, farewell, arrival, walk, traffic, queue, collision, etc.
6.	Rituals	Funeral, cremation, religious ceremony, etc.
7.	Sport	Contest, match, race, etc.
8.	Excesses	Fornication, obscenity, orgy, drinking-bout, gambling, etc.
9.	Serving	Housekeeping, nursing, breakfast, meal, etc.
10.	Trading	Bankruptcy, market, auction, fair, sale, exhibition, etc.

Contextual Influences on Emotional Variation.

Given that one of the ways in which situations can be differentiated is through their affective characteristics, it is quite plausible that the situations encountered in people's daily routines may influence their overall levels of emotional variation. However, to date the majority of research examining intraindividual variation in emotion has focused on stable individual differences in personality. For example, Tidwell et al., (1996) reported that anxious-ambivalent participants may experience a higher level of intraindividual variation in positive affect in their interactions with the opposite gender when compared to other styles of attachment. Various other measures have also been shown to predict different types of emotional variation over time per se, rather than over social interactions. These include self-esteem, self-complexity (Campbell, Chew, & Scratchley, 1991), neuroticism (Larsen & Kasimatis, 1990), extraversion (Brown & Moskowitz, 1998), affect intensity (Larsen, 1987; Larsen, Diener & Emmons, 1986), and more recently emotional intensity (Schimmack & Diener, 1997; Bachorowski & Braaten, 1994).

Among the most well researched personality correlates of intraindividual emotional variation is emotional intensity (Schimmack & Diener, 1997; Larsen, 1987; Bachorowski & Braaten, 1994). One prediction that can be derived from emotional intensity theory is that there may be a mediational relationship in which personality differences influence the intensity of emotional reactions to different stimuli which in turn predicts differences in intraindividual emotional variation (Larsen et al., 1986; see also Schimmack & Diener, 1997). Thus, individuals with a high level of emotional intensity are more likely to experience an emotional roller coaster of both intense positive reactions to positive stimuli, and intense negative reactions to negative stimuli. In comparison, people with a low predisposition for emotional intensity will be more likely to show relatively minor emotional reactions to both positive and negative causal stimuli.

Research on other aspects of intraindividual emotional variation has also raised the possibility that the situations encountered in people's daily routines may influence their overall levels of emotional variation (Eid & Diener, 1999; Diener & Larsen, 1984). Recently, Eid and Diener (1999) suggested that intraindividual emotional variation may be multidimensional, consisting of seven different classes of emotion that can be differentiated by their intraindividual standard deviations. The emotions in question were: love, happiness, joy, anger, fear, shame and sadness. Eid and Diener (1999, p. 673) identified the importance of considering contextual impacts on emotional variation when they argued that "one reason for a multidimensional structure [of variation in emotion] might be that the different emotions are elicited by

different situations, and the frequency of the relevant situations can differ between emotions and weeks." This may particularly true of positive affect, as it had a relatively high level of variance that remained unexplained by personality measures as compared to variation in other emotions (Eid & Diener, 1999).

Research in other areas also provides converging evidence supporting for the possibility that different situations are likely to influence emotion in different ways, and are thus also likely to influence overall levels of emotional variation (e.g. Campbell, et al., 1991; Diener & Larsen, 1984; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Larsen et al., 1986). For example, Savin-Williams and Demo (1983) sampled adolescent's self-feelings at random moments over the course of a week. They reported that adolescent's self-feelings were unrelated to the location in which they occurred (e.g. home, school). However, female adolescents self-feelings were influenced by an interaction of the location, activity (e.g. school work, social interaction), and who they were with at the time (e.g. alone, with friends). Using a similar methodology, Diener and Larsen (1984) examined emotional stability across different situational pairs (e.g. social versus alone, work versus recreation). They reported that some variables, such as life satisfaction and to a lesser extent positive affect, were extremely consistent across different situations. In contrast, variables such as sociability and self-esteem were relatively less consistent across different types of situation, and their consistency also differed across different situational pairs. For example, self-esteem was more consistent across work versus recreational situations than it was across social situations versus situations where the participant was alone.

As far as we are aware research the impact of everyday situations on intraindividual emotional variation remains inconclusive and has received only indirect support. One reason for this may be the difficulty in gaining accurate measures of the distribution of everyday situations using diary measures that provide information on emotion over time per se. In most cases intraindividual emotional variation has been assessed using a daily diary method in which subjects complete various ratings once or twice daily at relatively evenly spaces intervals (e.g. Larsen et al., 1986; Diener & Larsen, 1984; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Eid & Diener, 1999). Data can then be aggregated in order to create equidistant time periods (e.g. Campbell et al., 1991). Although the use of standardized time series are useful for examining trends over time, they provide only limited information on the distribution of time spent in different situations, as different types of situations may be unevenly distributed over time (see Eid & Diener, 1999 for a similar argument). A related problem is that differences in the level of affect across situations may be confounded by differences in the distribution of different social interaction partners across different settings (e.g. Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Diener & Larsen, 1984).

An alternative option is to examine contextual impacts on emotional variation by measuring repeated social interactions across different interpersonal situations using a social interaction diary. In this type of research participants keep a record of various properties of all the interactions (e.g. the interactions' participants, the time and nature of the interaction, intimacy, and enjoyment) that occur during a specified time period (typically 2 weeks). Social interaction diary data thus yields a sequence of ratings that can be averaged over different interaction types and periods, as well as examined for potential patterns and differences in the level of variation (see Tidwell et al., 1996; Reis & Wheeler, 1991).

The Present Study

In summary, personality differences in various aspects of emotion in close relationships have received far more research effort than situational influences. This is especially true of previous research on intraindividual variation in emotion. Although a variety of different researchers have provided indirect evidence suggesting that the situations people encounter in their everyday lives may influence overall levels of emotional variation (e.g. Diener & Larsen, 1984; Eid & Diener, 1999), in our opinion more substantial evidence remains desirable.

In an attempt to address this issue, the present study firstly seeks to extend Van Heck's (1989; Horike, 2001) lexical taxonomy of situations in order to develop a comprehensive taxonomy of the types of interpersonal situations that people commonly interact with their romantic partner in. Research in this area will provide a useful addition to the lexical taxonomy, firstly by testing it's validity in an English speaking sample, and secondly by examining its utility in classifying a specific type of situation, i.e. the interpersonal situations that people commonly experience in interactions with their romantic partner. If a high level of correspondence between our specific interpersonal taxonomy and Van Heck's (1989) more general lexical taxonomy is found, then it will provide additional evidence suggesting that the lexical taxonomy is robust across different cultures, social interactions with specific partners, and different methodologies (i.e. diary descriptions versus more general lexicons). Thus, hypothesis one predicts that:

Hypothesis 1: The classification of the different situation descriptions that people recorded for their interactions with their romantic partner will reveal categories of situation similar to those in Van Heck's (1989) more general lexical taxonomy. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that different classes of situation experienced during everyday romantic interactions can be differentiated by their affective properties.

The classification of participant's social interactions with their romantic partner into different situations provides the ability to then calculate the situation distribution of the time each participants spent with their romantic partner. If, as previous researchers have suggested, the different situations that we encounter in our everyday lives influence our emotions (e.g. Eid & Diener, 1999; Diener & Larsen, 1984), then we propose that the situation distribution of time spent with one's romantic partner should be correlated with intraindividual emotional variation across romantic interactions. Consider the following example: Person A interacts with their romantic partner for relatively even amounts of time in a number of different settings (e.g. two hours studying, two hours romancing, two hours eating, two hours relaxing, and two hours in conflict). Person B spends the same amount of time with their partner but it was distributed differently (e.g. 0 hours studying, 5 hours romancing, 0 hours eating, 5 hours relaxing, and 0 hours in conflict). Thus although both people spent 10 hours with their partner, the situation distribution of Person A's time with their partner is even across situations and has a standard deviation of 0, whereas the situation distribution of Person B's time with their partner is uneven and has a standard deviation of 2.7. If common everyday situations do indeed influence emotions then, all else being equal, we predict that Person A will experience a higher level of variation in their emotions towards their partner over the ten hour period than Person B will. Thus, hypothesis two predicts that:

Hypothesis 2: The more even the situation distribution of the time each participant spent with their romantic partner, the higher the level of intraindividual emotional variation across their interactions with their romantic partner will be.

Method

Participants

One hundred and thirty one students from an undergraduate psychology course completed a two week social interaction diary for partial course credit. Analyses were limited to the 77 participants who had a regular romantic partner (58 females, 19 males, mean age=22, $SD=5.9$). A total of 2104 romantic interactions were recorded ($M=26.9$ romantic interactions per participant, $SD=13.13$).

Measures

The present research used a variant of the social interaction diary originally developed by

Wheeler and Nezlek (1977; see also Reis & Wheeler, 1991). Each diary contained 100 interaction forms, each of which recorded the number of people present during one social interaction and the participant's relationship to each person (e.g. romantic partner, friend, family, work colleague). Each diary form also included various bipolar seven point scales which participants rated for each interaction. These items measured enjoyment (The interaction was very pleasant/The interaction was very unpleasant); self-esteem (I felt bad about myself and had low self-esteem/I felt good about myself and had high self-esteem); emotional closeness (I was comfortable with the level of emotional closeness/I wanted more independence and emotional space); gender salience (I was not especially aware of my gender identity/I was very aware of my gender salience) and group identity (I did not feel like part of a group/I felt like part of a group). Participants were also asked to provide an open ended description of the nature of each social interaction.

Procedure

Participants were asked to record every interaction of 10 minutes or longer during a two week period. Participants were taken through a detailed 60 minute tutorial outlining various instructions for the completion of the diary. This included defining the nature of an interaction, a discussion of how to describe different situations, explanations of the various ratings scales in the RIR form, and a practice session where participants completed an RIR form for a prior interaction. Participants were instructed to complete a new interaction record if the nature or setting of the social interaction changed (e.g. if they continued to interact with the same person but the activity changed, or if they traveled to somewhere else with the same person). Consistent with previous research (Reis & Wheeler, 1991), participants were also provided with detailed written instructions that were attached to their RIR booklets. It was stressed that in order to create an accurate record it was necessary to record social interactions in the RIR as often as possible with a minimum of two or three times a day. After the first week participants were contacted in order to assess performance and answer any questions that may have come up.

In an attempt to increase the overall accuracy of RIR data, participants were contacted at the end of the trimester once all internal assessments for the course had been marked. They were then given a second consent form that outlined the importance of accuracy in the RIR. Participants were asked to sign the second consent form only if their diary data was accurate and they had completed the diary a minimum of 2 to 3 times a day for the entire 2 week period. Consent forms were collected anonymously by a research assistant previously unknown to participants. It was stressed that consent would have no impact on any aspect of their assessment.

Coding Situations

In almost all cases participants described the nature of their interaction in one or two

words (for examples see the common descriptions presented in Table 2¹). Situation descriptions were coded by two research assistants. Each research assistant was provided with a copy of Van Heck's (1989) lexical taxonomy of situations and taught to use it as a foundation when coding situations. Research assistants were instructed to use Van Heck's (1989) categories as a basis but were also trained to add or change categories as necessary. Research assistants worked together through the first 5 social interaction diaries (362 social interaction records) in order to identify general categories of situation. Each research assistant then independently coded half of the remaining situation descriptions. Interobserver reliability based on 10 diaries (12.4% of total interactions recorded with romantic partners) was 94%.

Results

Hypothesis One: Affective differences in categories of social interaction.

Analysis of the open ended descriptions that people wrote when describing the nature of their social interactions revealed 12 different categories of interpersonal situation in which romantic interactions commonly occurred. These different categories of interpersonal situation, along with the most common descriptions, and the percentage of time that people spent interacting with their romantic partner in each type of situation are displayed in Table 2. The taxonomy of interpersonal situations is based on a total of 2104 situation descriptions. 33 (1.6%) situation descriptions were excluded due to their limited occurrence, as the aim of the analysis was to provide a taxonomy of commonly occurring interpersonal situations in romantic interactions. Excluded interactions included employment, medical related interactions, and religion. It is noteworthy that all three of these situations are included in Van Heck's (1989) more general lexical taxonomy of situations.

As can also be seen in Table 2, the majority of the interpersonal situations described in our research correspond closely to the more general categories of lexical situation identified by Van Heck (1989). However, our taxonomy of interpersonal situations also distinguishes certain classes of situation that were originally combined in Van Heck's (1989) more general taxonomy. Among these differences are the distinction between talking/conversations and romance, both of which were originally defined under the more general category of intimacy and interpersonal relations. Our taxonomy of interpersonal situations also differentiated between alcohol related interpersonal situations (e.g. partying, clubbing and drinking) and other more general

¹ An appendix listing all terms used by participants in this classification is available upon request from the authors

Table 2. Common interpersonal situations in romantic interactions.

partner	Category label	Corresponding category in Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy	Common descriptions used social interaction in diary	% of time with romantic
1.	Conflict	(1) Interpersonal conflict	Conflict, arguing, fighting, breaking up, disagreement.	2.8%
2.	Study	(2) Joint working	Studying, reading, tutorials, talking about assignment,	5.5%
3.	Talking	(3) Intimacy	Chatting, conversation, talking communication, discussing day.	7.8%
4.	Romance 16.5%	(3) Intimacy	Romance, in bed.	
5.	Relaxing	No corresponding category	Relaxing, watching TV, chilling out, hanging out.	12.5%
6.	Socialising	(4) Recreation	Socialising, social occasions, eating out.	18.8%
7.	Partying	(4) Recreation; (8) Excesses	Partying, dancing, drinking, clubbing, alcohol	7.1%
8.	Traveling	(5) Traveling	Transport, commuting, driving, walking.	3.2%
9.	Sport	(7) Sport	Sports, training, aerobics, gym, working out, hockey, cricket, netball.	4.5%
10.	Chores 9.1%	(9) Serving	Cooking, cleaning, washing dishes, getting ready for day, chores, housekeeping	
11.	Eating	(9) Serving	Breakfast, lunch, dinner, coffee, meal, eating.	8.8%
12.	Shopping	(10) Trading	Shopping, ordering, buying.	3.4%

types of socialising. These two categories were originally combined in Van Heck's (1989) research under the category of recreation. The present research also separates eating and other food related situations from Van Heck's (1989) more general category of serving and chore related situations. We also added a category referring to relaxing activities, such as watching TV and hanging out, which was not identified in Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy.

An aggregated mean rating for each of the five social interaction diary ratings (enjoyment, self-esteem, emotional closeness, gender identity, and group identity) based on interactions with romantic partners in each of the categories of interpersonal situation was then created. The following number of participants (total $n=77$) recorded at least one instance of each of the following types of interpersonal situation in their romantic interactions: relaxing/TV ($n=23$), study ($n=31$), chores ($n=29$), eating ($n=51$), talking/communication ($n=60$), sport ($n=12$), partying/drinking ($n=22$), socialising ($n=77$), transport ($n=38$), conflict ($n=29$), romantic activity ($n=68$), shopping ($n=30$).

The ability of the social interaction diary ratings to differentiate categories of interpersonal situation was examined using discriminant function analysis (refer to Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Two discriminant functions were identified. As can be seen in Table 3, the first function represented the affective properties of the situations and was defined by ratings of enjoyment, self-esteem, and emotional closeness. This function accounted for 85.2% of the variance ($\chi^2(55)=309.385$, $p < 0.001$). The second discriminant function was defined by social identity related process, specifically feeling like part of a group and increased gender salience. This function accounted for an additional 9.1% of the variance ($\chi^2(40)=56.935$, $p < 0.05$).

The group centroids for each of the twelve interpersonal situations are shown in Figure 1. As can be seen in Figure 1, the interpersonal situations with the highest level of positive affect were parties/drinking and romantic activity. Sports and socialising are also characterized by positive affect, and are differentiated from more common day to day situations, such as chores, eating, relaxing and transport, by their increased salience of social identity related processes. Interestingly, both shopping and talking are characterized by negative affect and individualism. Shopping is an especially solitary activity. Study related interactions appear to be neutral on both functions, whereas interactions involving conflict are distinguished by an extreme level of negative affect.

Table 3. Correlations between social interaction diary ratings and the two canonical discriminant functions.

Interaction Rating	Function 1	Function 2
Enjoyment	.885	-.026
Self-esteem	.732	-.080
Emotional closeness	.482	-.383
Gender salience	.054	.760
Group salience	.148	.528

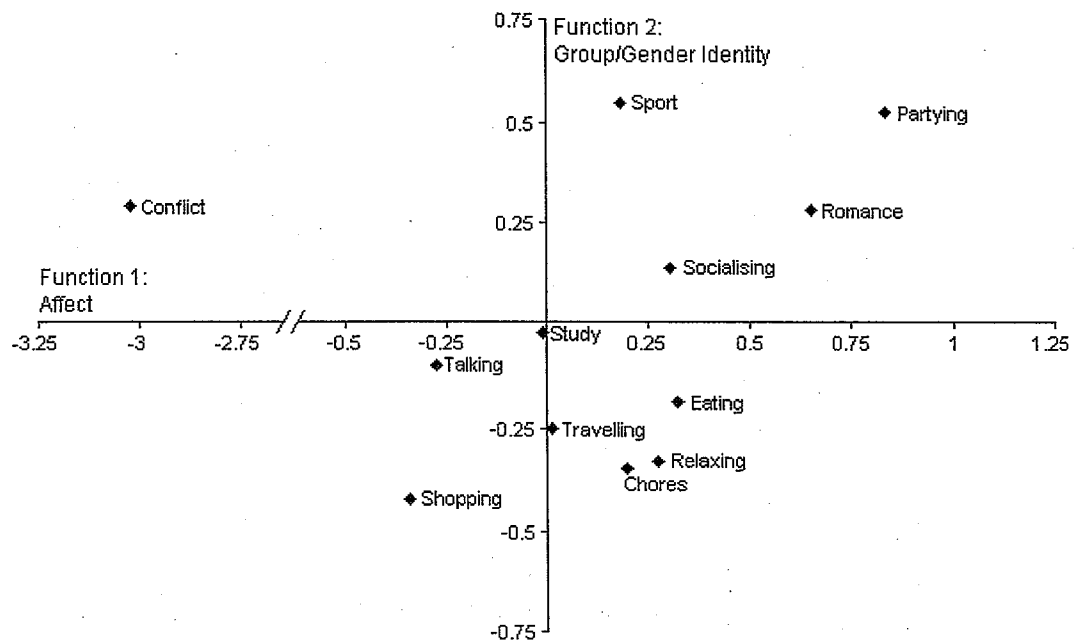


Figure 1. Discriminant map of interpersonal situations derived from social interaction diary ratings of each participant's interactions with their romantic partner.

Hypothesis Two: Intraindividual emotional variation and the distribution of interactions with one's romantic partner across situations.

The second prediction was that people who experienced interactions with their romantic partners over a wider variety of interpersonal situations (i.e. had a more even situation distribution) would also experience an increased overall level of emotional variation in their interactions with their romantic partners. In order to assess this possibility the total amount of time that each participant spent with their romantic partner in each of the twelve different categories of interpersonal situation was identified. The standard deviation of the amount of time each participant spent interacting with their romantic partner across the twelve categories of situation was then calculated². This provided a measure of the situation distribution of the time each participant spent with their romantic partner. Accordingly, a higher standard deviation suggests that the majority of a participant's interactions with their romantic partner occurred primarily in a limited number of interpersonal situations. Intraindividual emotional variation was measured by calculating the intraindividual standard deviation of social interaction diary ratings across all the interactions in which each participant's romantic partner was present.

As can be seen in Table 4, intraindividual variation in enjoyment and self-esteem were negatively correlated with the situation distribution of time spent with romantic partners across interpersonal situations. Consistent with hypothesis two, these correlations suggest that participants whose interactions with their romantic partner are more evenly dispersed across situations (i.e. those with a lower standard deviation of interaction distribution) experienced a higher level of emotional variation in their romantic relationships. On the other hand, intraindividual variation in perceived emotional closeness, gender salience and group salience were unrelated to the distribution of time spent in different types of interaction.

It is possible that the increased levels of emotional variation may be due primarily to differences in the prevalence and duration of emotionally intense situations (i.e. conflict and romance), rather than the distribution of ordinary everyday situations. In order to examine this possibility, we recalculated the distribution of time across settings while excluding romantic and high conflict situations. As can be seen in the third column of Table 4, the correlations between situation distribution and both

² Note that if a participant did not interact with their romantic partner at all in one or more types of situation then the time spent in these situations was set to 0 rather than system missing. Thus, all 12 classes of interpersonal situation were included in the calculation of the standard deviation of time across settings.

enjoyment and self-esteem not only remained significant, they even increased. In addition, when conflict and romantic situations were removed from the analysis, the correlation between situation distribution and variation in ratings of emotional closeness became significant. The correlations for group salience and gender salience remained unchanged.

Table 4. Correlations between intraindividual variation in romantic interactions and the situation distribution of time spent with romantic partners.

Intraindividual variation of interaction diary ratings in romantic interactions across	Situation distribution of time spent with romantic partners all interpersonal situations	Situation distribution of time spent with romantic partner excluding romantic and conflict situations
Enjoyment	-0.246*	-0.320**
Self-esteem	-0.247*	-0.367**
Emotional closeness	-0.173	-0.287*
Group salience	-0.033	-0.031
Gender salience	-0.009	0.011

* = $p < 0.05$; ** = $p < 0.005$

Discussion

The present research provided a taxonomy identifying twelve different classes of interpersonal situation. This taxonomy was based on the open ended descriptions of the nature of each participant's interactions with their romantic partner over a two week period. Consistent with our predictions, the results suggested that the different interpersonal situations people experienced during their interactions with their romantic partner were differentiated primarily by positive affect. The present research also provided evidence suggesting that one factor influencing emotional variation in romantic relationships is the situation distribution of participant's interactions with their romantic partners. Specifically, people who had a more even situation distribution, i.e. those who interacted with their romantic partner over a wider range of different interpersonal situations, were also more likely to experience a higher level of variation

in their emotional reactions to their romantic partners on a day to day basis.

Categorizing Interpersonal Situations

Consistent with the first hypothesis, Van Heck's (1989) lexical taxonomy of situations appears to provide a robust framework for categorizing the different classes of interpersonal situation common in romantic relationships. This finding also provides evidence supporting the cross-cultural validity of Van Heck's lexical taxonomy in an English speaking sample. The primary discrepancy between Van Heck's more general taxonomy and the taxonomy of interpersonal situations developed in the present study was degree of specificity in defining separate classes of social interaction. Certain classes of interpersonal situation identified in the present research were originally subsumed under Van Heck's more general categories (e.g. the differentiation between partying/clubbing/drinking and more general types of socialising, both of which were originally included in Van Heck's (1989) recreation category. A related difference was that some of the situations originally identified by Van Heck (1989) were excluded due to their limited occurrence in the romantic relationships of our student sample (this included work, religion, and medical related interactions). The only type of situation that was not previously identified by Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy was one referring to relaxing, (e.g. watching TV, hanging out). This is surprising, as relaxing related interactions accounted for 12.5% of all time that participants spent with their romantic partner.

The present research also suggests that the different classes of interpersonal situation common in romantic relationships can be differentiated by their affective properties. This finding is consistent with a variety of previous research that has shown that general everyday situations can also be differentiated primarily through their affective properties (e.g. Forgas, 1978, 1981, 1982, 1983a, 1983b). More specific to the present study is the finding that different classes of interpersonal situation may also be partially differentiated by their identity salience properties. Although this finding is not the focus of the present study, it may be useful to intergroup theorists, especially those in the social identity or self-categorization tradition.

As expected, conflict based interactions are characterized by extreme negative affect. However, it is less clear why participants experienced negative affect in talking and shopping based interactions with their romantic partner. One possible reason for the negative emotion reported during talking situations may be that participants tended to describe highly positive conversations as romantic interactions rather than communication per se. Thus the talking based situations identified here may be better described as non-romantic communication. However, future research is necessary to

ascertain this possibility.

When considered alone, the interpersonal taxonomy of situations presented in the present study is not as methodologically robust as Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy. Unlike Van Heck (1989), we did not classify different situations using cluster analysis of the objective ratings of various situation characteristics. Instead, the present research took a more qualitative approach and identified different categories of situation based on their perceived similarity and overlap with Van Heck's (1989) taxonomy. Both Van Heck's approach and our more qualitative approach have different strengths and weaknesses. For example, the way in which Van Heck's (1989) situations were classified was dependent on the weighting given to different clusters of situational characteristics. However, due to the high degree of overlap between Van Heck's (1989) empirically derived categories of situation and the classes of interpersonal situation identified in the present research, we believe that a good argument can be made supporting the validity of the different categories of interpersonal situation presented in this study.

Contextual Influences on Emotional Variation.

The second hypothesis, that participant's who spent relatively even amounts of time with their romantic partner over the different categories of interpersonal situation would experience an increased level of emotional variation in their romantic relationships, was also supported. This finding suggests that contexts in which people spend time with their romantic partner have a significant impact on emotional variation in their romantic relationship. Although this possibility has been raised by previous researchers, as far as we are aware it had not been previously tested (e.g. Eid & Diener, 1999; Schimmack & Diener, 1997; Savin-Williams & Demo, 1983; Diener & Larsen, 1984). In addition, the correlation between situation distribution and emotional variation in romantic relationships could not be accounted for simply by differences in the prevalence and duration of emotionally intense situations, as all correlations remained significant when emotionally intense situations, i.e. conflict and romance, were excluded from the analyses. Thus the present research suggests that emotional variation is influenced by overall differences in the amount of time spent in common everyday situations, such as eating, relaxing and doing chores.

The measurement of the situation distribution provides an important addition to previous research on intraindividual emotional variation, which has focused primarily on the impact of individual differences factors such as working models of attachment (Tidwell et al., 1996) and emotional intensity (Schimmack & Diener, 1997). The development of a measure of situation distribution is particularly promising

because it provides a way for future diary research to easily measure overall contextual influence and apply it to a variety of different areas including the assessment of change and stability in interpersonal relationships and emotional liability in general.

Future research could examine the interaction between situations and personality for the assessment of change and stability in both close relationships and emotional liability in general.

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(注：本論文は Chris G. Sibley, James H. Liu (Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand) との共著である)