

# The Situation Six: Uncovering Six Basic Dimensions of Psychological Situations From the Hebrew Language

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Personality psychology has enjoyed success with widely accepted and established taxonomies. This cannot be said for a psychology of situations, which has yet to establish a robust taxonomy of major dimensions of psychological situation characteristics across cultures and languages. We present 4 studies to uncover the dimensionality in the covariation patterns among characteristics with which participants describe situations. In Study 1, we conducted an emic lexical study in Hebrew, combined with an experience-sampling procedure using a closely representative sample of Hebrew-speaking Israelis. The procedure yielded six dimensions of situation characteristics that we call the *Situational Six*: Negativity, Positivity, Familiarity, Demandingness, Oddness, and Straightforwardness. We then confirmed in imposed-etic Studies 2 to 4 this 6-dimensional structure with adjectives in English among English-speaking U.S. participants. Relationships between the Situation Six and Big Five traits, emotions experienced in situ, the CAPTION model, and the DIAMONDS framework were analyzed to further interpret the meaning of the Situation Six dimensions. We discuss how this new taxonomy fits into and expands existing taxonomic models of situation characteristic dimensions.

**Keywords:** lexical studies, psychological situations, situation characteristics, taxonomization

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It was more than 80 years ago when the equation  $B = f(P, E)$  was introduced by Kurt Lewin to indicate the joint role of person and environmental variables in determining human behavior (Lewin, 1936). Since then, many advances have been made in our understanding of persons and situations as well as their interactions and transactions. Among these advances are the development, and extensive validation, of personality taxonomies such as the five-factor model of personality (Digman, 1990) and other taxonomies of characteristic adaptations and narratives (e.g., McAdams & Pals, 2006; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz et al., 2012),

which provide organizing frameworks for the person component in the equation. These taxonomies sparked voluminous streams of research which have substantially promoted our understanding of person variables that shape human behavior.

Although several attempts have been made over the years to develop a taxonomy for the situation side of the equation (e.g., Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Endler, Hunt, & Rosenstein, 1962; Ten Berge & De Raad, 2002; Yang, Read, & Miller, 2006), systematic attempts to capture and categorize the full spectrum of situation characteristics have only recently been made (e.g., Parignon, Woo, Tay, & Wang, 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014) and have only begun to uncover basic dimensions of situation attributes. We know that the person, the situation, and their interaction are important for explaining human behavior, and we have a good idea of the type of dimensions that are meaningful for capturing person characteristics. We also have a growing understanding of specific types or classes of situations and contexts, such as situations that are particularly relevant for the expression of individuals' personality (Rauthmann et al., 2014; Ten Berge & De Raad, 2001, 2002). Yet, overall, there have been very few studies that provide taxonomies of situation characteristics and we are far from achieving an agreed-upon model (for an overview of extant approaches, see Horstmann, Rauthmann, & Sherman, 2018). Before such an agreed-upon model can be identified, however, much more research is required for identifying the dimensions of situation attributes. In particular, we require research in contexts and among

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populations that have yet to be considered. As recently noted in a review of the literature on situation taxonomies, beyond the need for additional research, “cross-cultural replications, extensions, and unique methodological lexical explorations of the psychological situation are still desperately needed” (Parrigon, 2018). In the present set of studies, we answer such calls and join recent attempts at developing situation taxonomies by conducting a Hebrew lexical study of situation characteristics, using experience-sampling methodology with a closely representative sample of Israelis. We then tentatively test the extent to which the Hebrew factor structure replicates in English among U.S. participants. Thus, for our primary study we take on an emic approach, which involves taking on an insider’s view of experiences, in the aim of uncovering phenomena specific to a given language or culture (Pike, 1967). Our latter studies correspond with etic approaches, which involve taking on an outsider’s view, aimed at uncovering more general culturally patterned behaviors, typically through cross-cultural comparisons (Pike, 1967).

## Background

### The Situation

Many definitions of the term *situation* have been offered, each relating to one of two primary definition categories. The first focuses on the actual environment, including its physical-geographical, biological, and sociocultural cues and qualities (Magnusson, 1981). Such definitions refer to situations as the aggregate conditions and influences that coexist at a given place and time (e.g., Pervin, 1978). Examples of such situations include “an argument between two 22-year-old male students, in their university dorm room,” or “a 30-year-old woman’s bachelorette party.” Most psychologists, however, acknowledge that if understanding behavior is the ultimate aim of studying situations, a more meaningful definition must consider how these aggregate conditions are subjectively perceived (Block & Block, 1981). Certainly, the same physical setting can be perceived quite differently by different individuals and will therefore yield different *psychological* situations for these individuals (Funder, 2006, 2016). Whereas an argument can be perceived as threatening and debilitating to one student, it may be perceived as challenging and empowering to another. Similarly, a bachelorette party can be perceived as exciting and stimulating by some, yet would be considered annoying and offensive by others.

Thus, to better understand and predict individuals’ behaviors, psychologists typically focus on how situations are perceived. Psychological situations are representations of situations’ subjective characteristics (e.g., Rauthmann et al., 2014) based on the meanings and interpretations that individuals assign to the objective situation. Parallel to how traits are used to describe and compare persons, situation characteristics can be used to describe situations. Accordingly, the aim in the present research is to establish a taxonomy of psychological situation characteristics rather than of objective situation cues. Such taxonomies highlight meaningful and basic dimensions through which people perceive situations.

In line with other lexically based taxonomies, by *basic dimensions* we refer to a small number of dimensions that can be used to reproduce the covariation patterns among the characteristics with

which people describe situations. As with respect to other taxonomies of psychological situations, a distinction needs to be made between the dimensions that can be used to describe situations, and the causal processes that bring about these dimensions. Given that psychological situations are about the manner in which people perceive situations, the dimensions of psychological situations can reflect both determinants of the objective situation and determinants of people’s perceptions. Our present study is consistent with extant taxonomies of psychological situations and focuses on the delineation of basic dimensions. We do not presume to ascertain whether these basic dimensions reflect the determinants of the situation, the determinants of people’s perceptions of the situation, or some combination of them. We revisit this issue further below.

### Extant Situation Taxonomies

Over the years, a number of situation taxonomies have been proposed, most of which focus on situations within a given domain (for a comprehensive reviews see Horstmann et al., 2018; Rauthmann, Sherman, & Funder, 2015a; Yang et al., 2006). These taxonomies are, of course, not independent from how the term situation has been defined, and thus different kinds of situational information (e.g., cues, characteristics, classes) has been taxonomized. Several taxonomies pertain to cues (i.e., objective situations) or classes (i.e., categorizing entire situations based on their degree of similarity to each other). Such taxonomies divide situations into types or classes of situations. Our current interest is in situation *characteristics*, which capture how people perceive and describe their daily situations.

Extant taxonomies also differ in their conceptual underpinnings, and accordingly in the scope and coverage of situations studied (see Table 1). Some taxonomies focus on a specific subset of situations. For example, taxonomies were proposed with respect to situations that can potentially elicit anxiety (Endler et al., 1962) that students come across during their academic study (Magnusson, 1971), on the basis of the types of demands they involve (Shoda, Mischel, & Wright, 1993) or situations that involve social interactions (Forgas, 1976; Kelley et al., 2003). Related to this latter type of situation, interdependence theory (Kelley et al., 2003) has recently been used as the basis for identifying and measuring the dimensions of interdependence within social situations (Gerpott, Balliet, Columbus, Molho, & de Vries, 2018). Another taxonomy with a focus on the social context is the Situational Affordances for Adaptive Problems framework (Brown, Neel, & Sherman, 2015), which is based on evolutionary theory (Kenrick, Li, & Butner, 2003) and describes the “situational characteristics that facilitate or threaten adaptively relevant social goals” (p. 10). In another project, Ziegler (2014) proposed a taxonomy of situation characteristics based on German adjectives for characterizing occupationally relevant situations. Although these taxonomies improve our understanding of certain types of situations, their restricted focus prevents them from capturing patterns of covariation in people’s perceptions of the broader array of daily life situations that they encounter.

A few studies have been less restrictive of the types of situations sampled (e.g., Eckes, 1995; Pervin, 1976; Price, 1974), although most of them suffer from a different problem: either the number of situations sampled or the pool of characteristics among which dimensions were sought was restricted. Several of the earlier

Table 1  
*Sample of Extant Taxonomies, Their Domain of Situations, and Conceptual Underpinnings*

Study	Taxonomy domain	Conceptual/Methodological underpinnings
Endler, Hunt, & Rosenstein, 1962 Magnusson, 1971	Anxiety-eliciting situations Student-relevant situations	Theories of anxiety (e.g., Cattell & Scheier, 1961) Cognitive organization of objects and events (e.g., Kelly, 1955; Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1975)
Price, 1974 Forgas, 1976	Students' everyday life situations Social situations	Behavioral relevance of situations (Frederiksen, 1972) Theories of social episodes (Dickman, 1963; Harre & Secord, 1972) and of symbolic interactionism (Stone & Farberman, 1970)
Pervin, 1976 Van Heck, 1989 Shoda, Mischel, & Wright, 1993	Students' everyday life situations Unrestricted domain Everyday situations in children's summer camp	Implicit personality theory (S. Rosenberg & Sedlak, 1972) Lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884) Competency demands (Wright & Mischel, 1987)
Eckes, 1995 Kelley et al., 2003 Edwards and Templeton, 2005 Yang, Read, & Miller, 2006 Rauthmann et al., 2014	Students' everyday life situations Interpersonal situations Unrestricted domain Unrestricted domain Unrestricted domain	Prototype view of situations (Cantor, 1981) Interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978) Lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884) Lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884) California Adult Q-sort (Block, 1961) and Riverside Situational Q-sort (Wagerman & Funder, 2009)
Ziegler, 2014	Occupationally relevant situations	Lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884)
Brown, Neel, & Sherman, 2015	Recurrent adaptive problems of social life	Evolutionary theory (Kenrick, Li, & Butner, 2003)
Parrigon, Woo, Tay, & Wang, 2017 Gerpott, Balliet, Columbus, Molho, & de Vries, 2018	Unrestricted domain Social situations	Lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884) Interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978)

studies were restricted to a very small number (~30) of situations, self-reported by students (Eckes, 1995; Pervin, 1976; Price, 1974). Most recently, the DIAMONDS taxonomy (Rauthmann et al., 2014) is based on a much more comprehensive sample of situations (see further details below), and includes eight dimensions of psychological situations. To uncover the eight dimensions, participants were asked to characterize situations using 89 items from the Riverside Situational Q-Sort, which is adapted from a measure of personality. Thus, although the range of situations sampled was very broad and the number of situations very large, the focus was restricted to situational features that allow for the expression of personality. The pool of items used may therefore exclude other important attributes of the situations people encounter.

Alongside these taxonomies, which focus on specific types of situations (e.g., social situations, situations that allow for the expression of one's personality), another set of taxonomies has been established using the lexical approach (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Galton, 1884), which makes it possible to capture a comprehensive set of situation characteristics, within a given culture (Parrigon, 2018). As we elaborate below, these studies use the lexicon of a given language, within a given cultural context, as a means of tapping how people perceive situations.

Although several of the studies within this approach have not restricted the domains of situations tapped (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017; Van Heck, 1989; Yang et al., 2006),<sup>1</sup> they each have their own restrictions and boundaries. First and foremost, each of these studies is restricted to a given cultural context, and a given subset of the population (e.g., undergraduate students, MTurk workers). Given that insights from lexical studies are bound to a given language and a given cultural context, additional studies, focusing on different cultures, languages, and populations, are necessary for advancing our understanding of psychological situations and the dimensions through which they

can be described. Accordingly, our aim in the present studies is to incorporate the lexical approach in a cultural context not previously studied, using experience sampling methodology with a particularly heterogeneous and closely representative sample. In the process of validating the taxonomy we develop, we will also tentatively test its replicability in another cultural context. We begin by reviewing extant taxonomies of psychological situations, developed through the lexical approach.

### The Lexical Approach and Its Application to the Study of Situations

The lexical approach relies on the assumption that all characteristics that are meaningful and of interest or utility to humans ultimately become encoded in language. As noted by Austin (1957), "our common stock of words embodies all the distinctions men [and women] have found worth drawing, and the connections [sic] they have found worth making, in the lifetimes of many generations . . ." (p. 8). Furthermore, the more meaningful the characteristic, the more likely it is to be represented by a single word (Goldberg, 1982). Thus, an unabridged dictionary should include the entire set of characteristics that are meaningful to people in their respective socioculture.

Depending on the particular question of interest, words from the dictionary can be selected and categorized to yield taxonomies of psychologically meaningful characteristics. Indeed, the lexical ap-

<sup>1</sup> As noted above, there have been other lexical studies that relate to situations (Saucier, Bel Bahar, & Fernandez, 2007; Ten Berge & De Raad, 2001, 2002), yet these studies were grounded in a personality perspective and were restricted to situations that allow for the expression of individual differences, thus excluding a substantial range of meaningful situations (Yang et al., 2006).

proach has a long and rich history in the development of personality trait taxonomies (Allport & Odbert, 1936; Cattell, 1943; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1985). Since the beginning of the previous century, psychologists have conducted lexical studies with the aim of finding the dimensions that are most meaningful for describing and comparing individuals' traits. These studies culminated in the generally accepted five factor model of personality (Digman, 1990; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008) and its six- and seven-factor variants (Almagor, Tellegen, & Waller, 1995; Ashton & Lee, 2001; Church, Katigbak, & Reyes, 1996).

Lexical studies of situation characteristics therefore seem to offer a promising route for establishing a taxonomy, relevant for characterizing situations within a given cultural context. Of the few lexical situation studies that have been conducted thus far, the first was based on nouns in Dutch (Van Heck, 1989). Van Heck's analyses yielded a set of 10 situation classes and is thus not about subjective characteristics per se. More recently, a taxonomy of situations was pursued through the lexical study of Chinese idioms (Yang et al., 2006). Cluster analyses of U.S. and Chinese data resulted in a 17-cluster solution. At the broadest level, the main consistent finding was the distinction between positive and negative idioms, pertaining to successes versus failures of goal-pursuit. Alongside the value in Yang et al.'s study, however, most of the dimensions uncovered were very abstract and ambiguous (e.g., "Morally or ethically challenged," "lack of vision"). Moreover, although idioms provide content that is richer than the objective situation nouns chosen in Van Heck's (1989) research, they appear to refer more to person *states* than to situations or situation characteristics (see problems with this in the circularity principle proposed by Rauthmann, Sherman, & Funder, 2015b).

Three other lexical studies focused explicitly on subjective perceptions of situations using adjectives (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017; Ziegler, 2014). Edwards and Templeton (2005) examined people's perceptions of the characteristics that people ascribe to situations based on adjectives found in an unabridged English dictionary. Factor analyses yielded three- to six-factor solutions, with a four-factor solution being the most comprehensible. This solution contained factors of positivity (e.g., excellent, pleasurable), negativity (e.g., bad, idiotic), goal achievement and productivity (e.g., professional, necessary), and ease of negotiation (e.g., effortless, predictable). Whereas the set of characteristics sampled in Edwards and Templeton's study was representative of the population of possible characteristics, the situations sampled were restricted to those recalled by college students from within a limited time range during the prior day (at 4 p.m. or 9 p.m.). Thus, the situations sampled were likely not representative of the breadth of daily situations that people experience.

The lexical study by Parrigon et al. (2017) constitutes a comprehensive empirical advancement toward providing a lexical taxonomy of situation characteristics from adjectives in subtitles of U.S. films made between the years 1900 and 2007. These adjectives were used in a set of studies with a large number of MTurk participants who were asked to recall and rate the situation they were in at a random hour between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. the day before. Their analyses pointed to a seven-factor taxonomy, creating the acronym CAPTION: Complexity (e.g., analytical, academic), Adversity (e.g., stressful, fatiguing), Positive valence (e.g., heartwarming, cherished), Typicality (e.g., typical, regular), Importance (e.g., effective, useful), humOr (e.g., wacky, mischievous), and

Negative valence (e.g., repulsive, despicable). The validity for their taxonomy is supported through its significant points of convergence with other nonlexical taxonomies of situations, such as the DIAMONDS model (Rauthmann & Sherman, 2018).

We present in Table 2 a comparison of the various taxonomies that sampled broad sets of situations and that employed a broad pool of items for describing situations. The right-hand column includes descriptions of the dimensions identified in each taxonomy. The bottom row includes the Situation Six framework that we develop in the present studies, although we restrict our discussion of this table at this point to the previously established taxonomies. As can be seen in the table, both similarities and differences exist across these taxonomies. Excluding Van Heck's (1984, 1989) taxonomy, which involved classes of, rather than characteristics of, situations, all of the taxonomies include dimensions that are, or are related to, positive and negative valence. These dimensions are explicit in Edwards and Templeton (2005), Rauthmann et al. (2014), and Parrigon et al. (2017) and implicit in Yang et al. (2006; e.g., Victory over others [positive] and Morally or ethically challenged [negative]). In addition, all of the extant taxonomies have dimensions that involve adversity or other forms of difficulty (Adversity in both Rauthmann et al. and Parrigon et al. [although in each of these two frameworks the dimension has a slightly different meaning], Ease of negotiation in Edwards & Templeton, Conflict in Van Heck, and Having conflicting interests with others in Yang et al.). Finally, with the exception of Parrigon et al., all of the taxonomies have a dimension that has to do with people's orientation toward work (Joint working in Van Heck, Productivity in Edwards & Templeton, Achieving one's goals in Yang et al., and Duty in Rauthmann et al.).

Alongside these points of similarity, there are also meaningful differences across taxonomies. Even beyond the distinction between Van Heck's dimensions and the other taxonomy dimensions, taxonomies differ in the number of dimensions identified, and each taxonomy includes dimensions or nuances that are unique to that taxonomy. For example, Parrigon et al.'s taxonomy, developed among U.S. MTurk workers, includes Typicality and Humor dimensions that are unique. Similarly, Rauthmann et al.'s DIAMONDS, which pertain specifically to personality-relevant situations, and was developed among diverse sets of participants from several countries, include the Mating dimension which is unique among the taxonomies of situation attributes. Yang et al.'s taxonomy includes several dimensions that are unique both in their content and levels of specificity and abstraction (e.g., "enduring humiliation," "at a standstill," "making up for previous bad behavior"). Even in Edwards & Templeton's taxonomy, developed among U.S. undergraduates, which had the fewest dimensions, the "ease of negotiation" dimension involves unique content that pertains to the extent to which participants felt the situation was routine or easy to manage. These differences are not surprising given that the methodologies, contexts, samples and at times even premises, underlying these taxonomies vary.

One of the key differences across these taxonomies is the cultural setting within which each was developed. For the lexically derived taxonomies, an important related difference is the language in which the taxonomies were developed. Edwards and Templeton's (2005) and Parrigon et al.'s (2017) taxonomies are based on English adjectives using English-speaking U.S. participants, Yang et al.'s (2006) taxonomy is based in Chinese idioms,



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**Table 2**  
*Comparison of Key Taxonomies of (Relatively) Unrestricted Situations*

Study	Language	Country and samples	Situations sampled	Pool of items used	Way of deriving items	Dimensions found
Van Heck, 1989	Dutch	The Netherlands (no information is provided about the attributes or identity of the participants)	Classes of situations	248 nouns	Lexically derived nouns "that refer to situations that can be objectively (that is, with high consensus) perceived".	10 dimensions: Interpersonal, Conflict, Joint working and information exchange, Intimacy and interpersonal relations, Recreation, Traveling, Rituals, Sports, Excess, Serving, Trading
Edwards and Templeton, 2005	English	U.S. undergraduates	Self-reported situations from the former day	395 adjectives (Sample 1); 100 adjectives (Sample 2)	Lexically derived adjectives "that might characterize a situation, such that the words would fit in the sentence 'That situation was _____', or 'That was a _____ situation'."	4 dimensions: Positivity, Negativity, Productivity, Ease of negotiation
Yang et al., 2006	Chinese and English	Chinese students who were in the United States for their studies, and U.S. participants in online psychology experiments hosted at the University of Southern California	Situations derived from Chinese idioms	280 Chinese idioms (and their translation to English)	Chinese idioms that "described some aspects of naive understandings of psychological situations"	17 dimensions: Lack of vision, Deception, Morally or ethically challenged, Enduring humiliation, Failing, At a standstill, Being in danger, Being overwhelmed, Having conflicting interests with others, Being threatened, being compatible, Achieving one's goals, Victory over others, Achieving with ease, Making up for previous bad behavior, Having strong commitment, Having strong social bonds
Rauthmann et al., 2014	English, Spanish, German	University students from the United States, Spain, Austria and Germany, MTurk participants from the United States and India/Asia, and a "representative community sample of German participants"	Self-reported situations from the former day	89 items describing situations in which personality characteristics are likely to manifest	Adaptation of items from the California Adult Q-sort (CAQ) to describe contexts in which the CAQ items might be expected to emerge.	8 dimensions: Duty, Intellect, Adversity, Mating, positivity, Negativity, Deception, Sociality
Parrigon et al., 2017	English	Mechanical Turk workers	Self-reported situations from former day	851 adjectives	Lexically derived adjectives that "fit into either of the following sentences: 'That situation was _____', or 'That was a _____ situation,'" and that "represented a psychologically meaningful, evaluative dimension of situation perception".	8 dimensions: Complexity, Adversity, Positive Valence, Typicality, Importance, Humor, Negative Valence
The Situation Six (present studies)	Hebrew (main study) and English (validation studies)	Closely representative sample from Israel's largest online panel (main study) and U.S. MTurk workers (validation studies)	Self-reported situations from past two hours, at randomly determined time of day	382 adjectives	Lexically derived adjectives that can be used for characterizing situations, using the sentences: "That situation was _____" or "That was a _____ situation".	6 dimensions: Negativity, Positivity, Familiarity, Demandingness, Instability, Straightforwardness

and Van Heck's taxonomy is based on Dutch nouns. This raises questions about the cultural specificity of the various dimensions identified. In the realm of personality traits, the five-factor model of personality tends to replicate across languages and cultures (e.g., McCrae & Allik, 2002), which has been taken as evidence that the Big Five are a universal trait taxonomy. At the same time, the five-factor model does show cultural effects such that some of the Big Five traits replicate more consistently across cultures and languages than others and some additional trait dimensions show up in certain cultures or languages more distinctly than in others (Lee & Ashton, 2004). Yet it has taken numerous studies, in numerous languages and cultural settings, before the field of personality gained a relatively good understanding of those aspects of personality that are relatively universal and those that are more culture specific. Before such an understanding can be developed with respect to the dimensions of psychological situations, additional studies are required, especially studies examining new cultural contexts and languages. Of particular importance are studies focused on languages and cultures found outside of the United States and Europe, as the latter are by far the most heavily represented in the taxonomic literature on situations.

In addition to the cultural specificity of extant findings, there are also restrictions to the types of samples included in each of the taxonomic studies above. As can be seen in Table 2, most of the taxonomies are based on samples of university students and MTurk participants (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2006). Alongside the advantages of these samples, each potentially restricts the types of situations sampled. With respect to university students, the situations sampled likely overrepresent situations that are specific to students and underrepresent other types of situations.

With respect to MTurk samples, research suggests that they tend to be younger, more educated, underemployed, more liberal, less religious, and disproportionately female relative to the general population (Harms & DeSimone, 2015; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Furthermore, many MTurk participants consider MTurk to be their primary source of income (Harms & DeSimone, 2015). Research also points to significant differences in the personalities of MTurk participants and those of other samples (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). In addition, a very small number of MTurk participants are responsible for a disproportionate amount of the findings obtained through MTurk studies. Therefore, although there are presumably about 100,000 active MTurk participants (as of 2015, see Harms & DeSimone, 2015), only a small subset of these are responsible for most of the output provided on MTurk, and there is substantial nonindependence of samples from different studies. Thus, although more diverse than those provided by student samples, situations sampled from MTurk participants are still restricted in their range, relative to those that would be sampled from more representative samples. This is not to say that other types of restrictions will not apply to any subset of the population sampled. Our point is merely that despite the significant advances made in our understanding of the psychological situation in recent years, additional studies are required in new contexts with different types of samples. Even the similarities found across taxonomies can only be proposed tentatively given the small number of studies that have been designed to capture the basic dimensions of situations at large. To gain a better understanding of psychological situations in general, and about those aspects of the psychological

situation that are universal and those that are culture-specific, in particular, additional research of psychological situations, that are not domain-specific (e.g., social situations, work situations), is required in additional cultural settings with additional types of samples.

## The Current Studies

As we have reviewed above, there are only a few studies that taxonomized psychological situation characteristics. The relative paucity of (lexical) taxonomic studies of situation characteristics, and the relatively restricted range of samples and cultures with which these studies have been conducted, calls for additional efforts at establishing and honing the structure of situation characteristics (Rauthmann & Sherman, 2018). In response to such calls, in the present research we derive a taxonomy of situation characteristics based on the Hebrew lexicon. Hebrew is a Semitic language not often used in lexical studies (for an exception in the personality realm, see Almagor et al., 1995), and never examined in work on situation taxonomies. Study 1 is an emic Hebrew lexical study in which we sampled a closely representative sample of Hebrew-speaking Israelis and their descriptions of daily situations, almost in real-time (rather than recalled), to derive a taxonomy of situation characteristics. We then tentatively test the resulting dimensional structure obtained in Study 1 with a subset of adjectives translated into English in three smaller, nonrepresentative samples of U.S. participants (Studies 2–4). We use this imposed etic approach to gauge the level of generalizability of our findings. Moreover, we also examine the nomological network of the extracted factors. In Study 1, the factors are linked with Big Five traits, in Study 2 with emotions experienced in situ, and in Studies 3 and 4 with perceptions of the CAPTION and DIAMONDS situation characteristics, respectively. The data of the four studies are available at <http://osf.io/4cv6b/>.

Although we did not a priori expect any particular number of dimensions or any specific dimension, we tentatively expected at least some overlap among the dimensions we find and those uncovered thus far (see Table 2). Thus, this study could corroborate and extend findings beyond the English and German languages.

## Study 1: Emic Lexical Study in Hebrew

### Method

This study, titled "Situation Characteristics," received approval from the Hebrew University's research ethics committee.

**Culling the Hebrew lexicon for situation-relevant adjectives.** Similar to most lexical studies of personality (e.g., Caprara & Perugini, 1994; Goldberg & Saucier, 1996), and given our interest in situation characteristics, our focus was on composing a comprehensive list of Hebrew adjectives that could be used for describing situations. Our starting point for deriving a list of situational descriptors was the MILA lexicon of Hebrew words (Itai & Wintner, 2008), founded by the Israel Ministry for Science and Technology, designed to create an infrastructure for the analysis and processing of Modern Hebrew. The lexicon contains more than 28,000 core words and more than 800,000 conjugations. It is regularly extended to provide a comprehensive coverage of Mod-

ern Hebrew (as opposed to biblical Hebrew), including slang and other colloquial expressions.

We first culled from the lexicon all 3,683 adjectives. These were then given to six graduate students who were asked to serve as judges and rate the degree to which each of the adjectives could be used for describing situations. To do so, judges were asked to test each of the adjectives using the following sentence: “This situation is very \_\_\_\_\_.” They were asked to provide a rating of “0” if they were unfamiliar with the word, if its meaning was ambiguous and unintelligible, or if the word could not be meaningfully used for describing situations. Judges were asked to provide a rating of “1” if they had doubts about the degree to which the word could be used for describing situations; and a rating of “2” if they found the word to be appropriate for describing situations. This procedure was intended to be as inclusive as possible and closely follows procedures used in other lexical studies of situation attributes, such as in Edwards and Templeton’s (2005) study. They too asked participants to collect words from the dictionary that “conceivably might be used to describe the attributes of a situation. They were told to focus on adjectives that might characterize a situation, such that the words would fit in the sentence “That situation was \_\_\_\_\_” or “That was a \_\_\_\_\_ situation.”

To determine interrater reliability, we calculated the average-measures ICC (see Hallgren, 2012 for a useful overview of this index), which was .88, indicating excellent interrater reliability (Cicchetti, 1994). Of the 3,683 adjectives rated, the judges had complete agreement that 1,580 of them were entirely inappropriate for describing situations (i.e., they were assigned a rating of “0”). Examples of such adjectives are *wooly*, *centripetal*, and *monkey-like*. The list of the remaining 2,103 adjectives still included a large number of words with overall poor suitability ratings.<sup>2</sup> To reach a more meaningful and manageable list of adjectives, we applied Angleitner et al.’s (1990) criterion of having a word rated as suitable by the majority of judges (at least 4 of the 6 judges, in our case). This yielded a final list of 382 adjectives (see Appendix A). Theoretically, asking participants to select adjectives that “could be used for describing situations” may yield situation descriptors that are not *psychological*, but pertain to the physical aspects of the situation. In practice, however, of the final list of 382 adjectives, there were only two adjectives—*rainy* and *summer-like*—that stood out as representing physical, rather than psychological attributes of the situation, both of which still include psychological meanings in Hebrew. A few other adjectives had both objective and clear psychological meanings, such as *dark*, *gloomy*, and *smelly* (this latter adjective has strong psychological meanings in Hebrew as reflecting a nasty situation). Moreover, most of these adjectives were also included in other lexical studies in which the request to judges was more explicitly to select characteristics of psychological situations (e.g., Parrigon et al., 2017).

The number of adjectives on our final list (382) is smaller than that of previous lexical studies in English (e.g., Edwards & Templeton, 2005, in which 395 adjectives were used from an initially derived set of 1,039 adjectives, and Parrigon et al., 2017, in which 1,113 adjectives were derived) and in Chinese (Yang et al., 2006, in which 928 idioms were identified, although only 280 of them were ultimately used). This is consistent, however, with the fact that the number of words in Hebrew is significantly smaller than the number of words in English and Chinese. Whereas the Hebrew dictionary includes approximately 45,000 basic en-

tries, with an additional 30,000–35,000 secondary entries (yielding an estimate of 75,000–80,000 words; Academy of the Hebrew Language, 2010). English includes approximately 171,000 words in current use and an additional 47,000 obsolete words, yielding a total of approximately 218,000 words (<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/explore/how-many-words-are-there-in-the-english-language/>). The Chinese vocabulary is even larger, with an estimate of 370,000 words in modern Chinese (Da Cidian, 1993). The ratio of words used to the number of words in the language is thus even larger in the present study than that in other lexical studies of psychological situations.

**Participants and procedure.** We collected data from a closely representative sample of Hebrew-speaking Israelis. We used Israel’s largest Internet survey institute (“iPanel”), whose panel includes more than 100,000 members (which is approximately 2.5% of Israel’s adult Hebrew-speaking population). Given the high penetration of Internet in Israel (more than 79% among the general population in 2016, and even higher today and among the Hebrew-speaking population; Mesch, 2016), the representativeness of online samples in Israel is largely comparable with other survey forms, more so than is the case for MTurk samples. The survey institute uses random stratified sampling to provide samples that are not entirely, but closely representative of the adult Hebrew-speaking population in Israel (Bodas, Siman-Tov, Peleg, & Solomon, 2015).

Data were collected in two stages. In Stage I, panel members were contacted and asked to answer questions about their sociodemographics, fill out a Hebrew version of Saucier’s (1994) Big Five mini markers, and provide their agreement to participate in the second stage of the study. They were told that the purpose of the study was to learn about how people perceive their daily life situations and that there will be a second stage to the study, following the current questionnaire and study description. They were told that in the second stage, which would take place 1–2 weeks following the current questionnaire, they would be sent a text message<sup>3</sup> at a random time of day, between 7 a.m. and 10 p.m., referring them to an online questionnaire that they were to complete within two hours of receiving the text message.

In the Stage II questionnaire, participants were first asked to briefly describe the situation they were in when the text message arrived. They were then given the 382 adjectives obtained through the lexicon culling process described above, and asked to rate the degree to which each of the adjectives described the situation they were in.

In Stage I,  $N_1 = 2,469$  participants filled out the questionnaire. Of these,  $N_2 = 1,163$  agreed to participate in Stage II. Of those agreeing to participate in Stage II, 533 provided full ratings of the situation they were in within two hours of receiving the text message and correctly responded the alertness-testing questions that were interspersed within the questionnaire (see details below). Participants were sampled from all of Israel’s districts. The distributions of sample demographics, at both stages, alongside with the

<sup>2</sup> The full list of 2,103 adjectives is available upon request.

<sup>3</sup> In Israel, cell phones are owned by more than 95% of the population (Rosenberg, 2014). Furthermore, Israel tops the world in smart phone ownership, with assessments of ownership ranging from 64 to 85% (Rosenberg, 2014).

distribution of these demographics in Israel are provided in Table 3. As can be seen in the table, the distributions of our sample at the two stages were very similar, with the exception of a slight increase in the percentage of male participants from 50 to 54 and the increase in the percentage of secular participants from 58 to 67.<sup>4</sup> In comparison with the Israeli population, our sample was closely representative with respect to age, gender, geographical region, and employment status. It somewhat deviated from the population in level of education and degree of religiosity, with our sample being more educated and less religious.

**Measures.** Situation characteristics were measured with the list of 382 adjectives (see Appendix A). Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which each of the adjectives accurately described the situation they were in when they received the text message. Response options ranged from 1 (*not at all characteristic of the situation*) to 5 (*very characteristic of the situation*).

The Big Five were measured with a Hebrew version of Saucier's (1994) Mini-Markers scale, which consists of 40 personality adjectives. Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which each of the adjectives accurately described them on a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all characteristic*) to 5 (*very characteristic*). Cronbach's alpha reliability scores for extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness were .76, .71, .78, .76, and .77, respectively.

## Results and Discussion

**Uncovering factors.** We applied several procedures for determining the number of dimensions in our data, using the Comprehensive Exploratory Factor Analysis (CEFA; Browne, Cudeck, Tateneni, & Mels, 2010) and R-Menu v2.0 (Basto & Pereira, 2012) program. Random eigenvalues for the CEFA were generated using code provided by Brian O'Connor.<sup>5</sup> The criteria and tests we reviewed were the Kaiser rule, the Acceleration Factor, the scree plot, Parallel Analysis, Optimal Coordinates, Velicer's Minimum Average Partial (MAP) test, and the Very Simple Structure (VSS) test. Other than the Kaiser rule, which suggested 69 factors, the number of factors recommended ranged from two (based on the Acceleration Factor) to 12 (based on Optimal Coordinates and Parallel Analysis). We then conducted a series of extractions and rotations, ranging from two to 12 factors, with various means of extraction (i.e., Principal Axis, Principal Component) and orthogonal and oblique rotations. Harris and Harris (1971) recommend retaining only those factors that remain consistent across extraction and rotational methods. This is consistent with our desire to maintain a sufficiently small number of, interpretable, factors. The largest number of factors that were consistently meaningful across extraction and rotation methods was six. Indeed, these six factors showed up across virtually all combinations of number of factors extracted, extraction method, and rotation method. A scree plot from a Principal Component extraction is presented in Figure 1. The six factors explained 46.6% of the variance. Additional factors beyond six resulted in increases of only one percent of explained variance or less, for each factor. Factor loadings for each of the highest loading eight adjectives on each of the six factors are provided in Table 4. We will henceforth refer to these dimensions as the *Situation Six*.

The first factor consisted of adjectives conveying a generalized negative evaluation of the situation (e.g., revolting, shameful,

terrifying, horrendous, despicable), which we labeled *Negativity*. The second factor is a generalized positivity factor (e.g., amazing, marvelous, wonderful, enchanting, great), which we labeled *Positivity*. These two valence-driven factors are found in virtually all taxonomies (Horstmann et al., 2018). The third factor, which we labeled *Familiarity*, concerns the extent to which the situation is familiar, common, or routine (e.g., conventional, frequent, ordinary, characteristic, common), consistent with the *Mundane* dimension that was identified in two of the extant lexical studies of situation characteristics. The fourth factor, which we labeled *Demandingness*, is similar to the *Stress* dimension (exhausting, binding, complicated, tedious, demanding) identified in some previous taxonomies. Of note, this factor contained adjectives pertaining to both emotional and physical states created by the situation (e.g., exhausting, frustrating) as well as the demandingness of the situation (e.g., binding, complicated, challenging, hard, urgent). These latter adjectives can be interpreted as indicating *why* the situation is causing a person to feel exhausted or overloaded. Note that this factor can be considered the negative pole of Edwards and Templeton's *ease of negotiation* factor, which indexed the extent to which people felt that a situation was simple, relaxing, or effortless.

The final two factors do not directly appear in previous taxonomies of situations and thus extend extant taxonomies. We labeled our fifth factor *Oddness*, with corresponding adjectives indicating that the situation is perceived as non-normative, countercultural, or overall out of the mainstream (e.g., provocative, crazy, silly, subversive, exotic, mystical). The final factor, which we labeled *Straightforwardness*, concerns the extent to which situations were perceived as straightforward or of low complexity (e.g., objective, presentable, to-the-point, focused, decent, concrete, elegant, economic). This interpretation is bolstered by examining written descriptions of the situations that were rated highly on this factor by participants, all of which are simple and concrete (e.g., "at home in the shower," "working in the shed, fixing a compressor," "on my way to work, alone, in my car," "on the internet, in my room, at home").

When extracting between seven and 12 factors, a seventh factor (e.g., surprising, humorous, improvised, entertaining, hilarious, funny) sometimes occurred that looked somewhat like the humor factor found in the CAPTION model. This factor, however, could not be reliably extracted across factor analytic techniques (in fact, it only emerged when using a Maximum Likelihood extraction with the Oblimin rotation), and when it appeared, some of the items loading highly on it were only indirectly related to humor (e.g., surprising, improvised, ironic).

**Descriptives.** Descriptive statistics and Situation Six factor intercorrelations obtained from the Promax rotation are provided in the top section of Table 5. In general, the six factors showed low to moderate intercorrelations ( $r_s = -.05$  to  $.52$ ). The correlations that were at a moderate-to-high level (i.e.,  $>.40$ ) were between Negativity and Demandingness, Negativity and Oddness, Positiv-

<sup>4</sup> We also compared the Big Five personality scores of the 533 in our final sample and the 1,936 participants who participated only in Stage 1. Only the scores for openness to experience were significantly different: the mean openness scores was 3.77 ( $SD = .60$ ) in our final sample and 3.68 ( $.58$ ) among those who did not continue onto Stage 2.

<sup>5</sup> Retrieved from <http://flash.lakeheadu.ca/~boconno2/nfactors.html>.



Table 3  
*Distribution of Demographic Variables in Israel's Population and the Sample in Study 1*

Variable	Population	Study 1 Stage 1 sample ( <i>N</i> = 2,469)	Study 1 final sample ( <i>N</i> = 533)
Gender, % male	49	50	54
Age, <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	44.65 (18.40)	40.66 (14.70)	41.32 (14.58)
Unemployment, %	4.5	6.3	6.8
Geographical region, %			
Jerusalem area	12.6	11.1	8.4
Tel Aviv region	29.1	32.3	32.1
Haifa and the North	27.8	25.6	27.8
South and "Shfela" region	25.2	22.2	20.8
"Sharon" region	5.4	8.8	10.9
Level of education, %			
Post-high school	48.1	59.6	56.8
High school + matriculation	19.9	22.2	25.7
No matriculation from high school	32.0	18.2	17.4
Religiosity			
Ultraorthodox	10	7	5
Religious	11	13	11
Traditional	35	21	17
Secular	44	58	67

*Note.* Data for the population characteristics were obtained from Israel's Central's Bureau of Statistics. Data on gender, age, and geographical region were obtained from the 2017 reports. Data on education, religiosity, and employment were available from the 2016 reports.

ity and Familiarity, and Positivity and Straightforwardness. The correlations between Positivity and Negativity were rather low in all analyses, consistent with extant situation taxonomies (e.g., Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Rauthmann et al., 2014). As discussed by Edwards and Templeton (2005), this most likely reflects the fact that situations can have multiple impacts on people that vary in valence, along with the fact that positive and negative evaluations are generated from different systems (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994).

**Robustness checks.** In lexical studies of personality traits, it is typical to ipsatize responses (that is, standardize responses within persons) before factor analysis. Factor analysis of ipsatized data is controversial among statisticians for a number of reasons. For instance, it can produce artificial bipolarities (negative covariances otherwise not found) and can partial out meaningful variance (Dunlap & Cornwell, 1994). However, the process is useful for helping to control for response biases that might influence the results of factor analysis (Rammstedt, Goldberg, & Borg, 2010). This is an especially important issue for studies comparing factor structures across groups that might exhibit different response bias tendencies, as is the case of cross-cultural studies (e.g., Tweed & DeLongis, 2006). Use of ipsatized data has helped clear up inconsistencies across participant samples in research on the Big Five (Rammstedt et al., 2010). Nevertheless, responses do not appear to have been ipsatized in the CAPTION studies (Parrigon et al., 2017) and were not in the Edwards and Templeton (2005) studies. To assess whether this procedure would impact our results, we ipsatized the data for the current sample and conducted Principal component analyses with several rotational approaches. Across analysis types and different numbers of factors extracted, the Negativity, Positivity, Familiarity, Oddness, and Demandingness factors were consistently found. When extracting six factors, the sixth factor centered around the notion of *Carefree* (e.g., helpful [negatively loading], funny, ironic, surprising, childish, efficient

[negatively loading]). When extracting seven or more factors, however, the Straightforwardness factor reliably reappeared. Taken together, this additional set of analyses provided further support for the robustness of the six-dimensional structure we described above.

Referring back to Table 2, we can identify both similarities and differences between the Situation Six and extant taxonomies. First and foremost, the emergence of the two valenced dimensions of Negativity and Positivity is consistent with these dimensions appearing in almost all previous taxonomies. The Familiarity dimension shows significant overlap with the Typicality dimension from Parrigon et al.'s CAPTION model, and the Demandingness dimension overlaps significantly with the CAPTION Adversity dimension and the DIAMONDS Negativity dimension, both of which have to do with the experience of situations as difficult and taxing. Relatively unique to the Situation Six are the Oddness and Straightforwardness dimensions. In the following studies we conduct further tests of the Situation Six the relationships between its dimensions and those of the CAPTION and DIAMONDS models. We will then discuss the generality and specificity of the six dimensions in the General Discussion.

**Hierarchical organization.** One might ask whether the six factors show a hierarchical or a list-like organization. In a hierarchical structure, more abstract, superordinate levels will split into subtraits at more specific levels, whereas a more list-like organization entails a structure wherein factors persist as one analyzes for increasingly more factors, with new ones emerging at each level with some moderate links to more abstract levels (Loehlin & Goldberg, 2014). Goldberg's (2006) "bass-ackwards" approach allows for an assessment of such a hierarchical organization. The method requires extracting increasing numbers of components with Principal Component analysis and correlating the factor scores between immediately adjacent levels. For instance, one might perform PCAs specifying two, three, and four components,

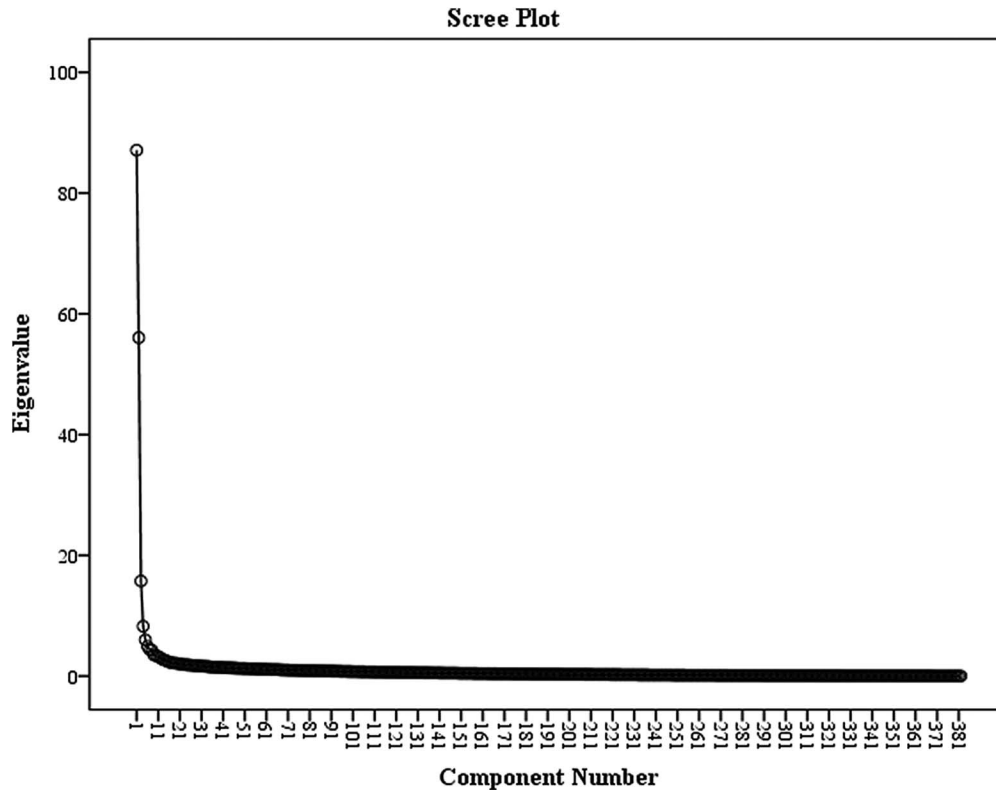


Figure 1. Scree plot of principal component analysis in Study 1. The total amount of variance explained by the six factors was 46.6%. Each additional factor yielded one percent or less. Note that the six factors extracted do not necessarily represent all of the characteristics that participants found meaningful for describing situations, and some important aspects of situations may be represented by a small number of individual adjectives.

and then correlate the factor scores between levels one and two, between levels two and three, and between levels three and four. This approach has been used to examine the hierarchical nature of constructs in a number of psychological domains (e.g., autism spectrum disorder (Kim et al., 2018); personality (Loehlin & Goldberg, 2014)).

We used a Principal Component analysis with a Promax rotation, to be consistent with our primary factor analyses above. Loehlin and Goldberg (2014) suggest that there is likely to be little difference in the results of the bass-ackwards analysis when using orthogonal versus obliquerot. Results of the analysis are portrayed in Figure 2. The interpretation of the rows in the Figure clearly indicates that with each iteration, Negativity, Positivity, Familiarity, Demandingness, Oddness, and Straightforwardness appear, in that order. Overall, the analysis suggests that the organization of the Situation Six better conforms to a list than to a hierarchy, in that after emerging, a given factor will remain substantially the same despite the extraction of increasing numbers of factors (see Loehlin & Goldberg, 2014). The pattern of correlations between levels, however, does suggest that the Situation Six can be divided into two valenced groups, with Demandingness and Oddness stemming from Negativity, and Familiarity and Straightforwardness stemming from Positivity.

**Nomological correlates: Big Five traits.** As another means of interpreting the six factors, we examined the correlations between participants' Big Five traits and the Situation Six dimen-

sions (top section of Table 6). It is likely that certain personality traits contribute to how people perceive situations (e.g., Rauthmann, 2012). For instance, given the attentional, interpretive, and memory biases associated with affective disorders (Weary & Edwards, 1994), depressive tendencies would likely be related to generally viewing situations as negative and containing more adversity. We created scores of participants' ratings of their situation on the Situation Six by calculating the unweighted average rating of the seven highest-loading adjectives for each factor from the factor analysis. We then correlated scores on the six dimensions with participants' Big Five scores.

A caveat to the interpretation of these correlations is that a relationship between a trait and a situation dimension could be a result of cognitive tendencies (i.e., attentional and interpretational tendencies), but could also result from people's self-selection into, or evocative or proactive creation of, situations with certain characteristics (e.g., Emmons & Diener, 1986; Rauthmann, Sherman, Nave, & Funder, 2015). Regardless, associations between the Big Five traits and situation perceptions on the Situation Six can be illuminating. We focus here on a few salient findings, with a particular focus on the interpretation of the Oddness and Straightforwardness dimensions. Oddness showed significant negative correlations with Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, perhaps suggesting that people who are disinclined to worry about pleasing others or about their responsibilities perceive their situations to be more outside of the social mainstream. Oddness was positively

Table 4  
Six-Factor Solution With Eight Highest-Loading Words and Factor Loadings in Study 1

Adjective	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Terrifying מחריד	<b>.85</b>	.02	-.03	.06	-.23	.01
Horrendous מזוויע	<b>.84</b>	.01	-.02	.02	-.19	-.01
Shameful מחפיר	<b>.84</b>	.02	-.02	-.09	.01	-.01
Pitiful עלוב	<b>.82</b>	-.13	.08	-.09	.05	-.02
Horrible זועתי	<b>.82</b>	-.02	-.06	-.03	-.16	.04
Revolting גועלי	<b>.81</b>	-.04	.00	-.11	.04	-.07
Shocking מזעזע	<b>.80</b>	.05	-.08	-.03	-.17	.02
Despicable נתעב	<b>.79</b>	.00	-.03	-.09	-.03	.00
Distorted מעוות	<b>.79</b>	.01	.01	.09	-.18	.04
Traumatic טראומתי	<b>.79</b>	.07	-.14	.03	-.19	.11
Amazing מדהים	.03	<b>.89</b>	-.09	.02	-.12	-.20
Wonderful נפלא	-.01	<b>.89</b>	-.05	-.06	-.10	-.22
Great נהדר	-.04	<b>.88</b>	.02	-.02	-.09	-.25
Gladdening משמח	-.07	<b>.86</b>	.00	.05	-.06	-.19
Awesome אדיר	-.01	<b>.86</b>	-.14	.05	.06	-.17
Marvelous מופלא	-.02	<b>.85</b>	-.05	-.06	.10	-.14
Rousing מלהיב	-.09	<b>.85</b>	-.21	.14	.03	-.03
Enchanting מקסים	.01	<b>.84</b>	.02	-.09	-.11	-.03
Fantastic פנטסטי	.00	<b>.83</b>	-.03	-.07	-.02	-.18
Magical קסום	.01	<b>.80</b>	.00	-.06	.14	-.15
Expected צפוי	.17	-.10	<b>.70</b>	-.09	.03	-.06
Constant קבוע	.11	-.07	<b>.69</b>	.05	.04	-.09
Characteristic טיפוסי	.03	-.09	<b>.68</b>	.00	.22	-.19
Common נפוץ	.09	-.03	<b>.64</b>	.03	.17	-.25
Typical אופייני	.00	-.05	<b>.64</b>	-.05	-.09	-.09
Frequent שכח	.00	-.05	<b>.64</b>	.08	.13	-.35
Routine שיגרת	.08	-.14	<b>.63</b>	-.13	-.09	-.15
Frequent <sup>2</sup> תדיר	-.13	-.02	<b>.62</b>	.14	.27	-.14
Regular רגיל	.05	-.11	<b>.61</b>	-.18	-.08	-.11
Ordinary נהוג	-.05	.08	<b>.61</b>	.14	.20	-.17
Exhausting מתיש	.32	-.09	.12	<b>.59</b>	-.07	-.17
Complicated מסובך	.39	.00	.00	<b>.58</b>	-.07	-.12
Binding מחייב	.02	.13	.20	<b>.58</b>	-.21	.08
Tedious מייגע	.31	-.11	.17	<b>.56</b>	-.09	-.06
Challenging מאתגר	-.06	.40	-.06	<b>.54</b>	-.02	.15
Hard קשה	.43	.00	-.04	<b>.53</b>	-.14	.02
Demanding תובעני	.18	-.03	.19	<b>.50</b>	.18	-.04
Tight לחוץ	.33	.01	-.03	<b>.47</b>	-.01	.10
Eroding שוחק	.19	-.19	.29	<b>.45</b>	.25	-.13
Overloaded עמוס	.21	-.01	.15	<b>.44</b>	-.01	.16
Provocative פרובוקטיבי	.28	.20	-.08	-.13	<b>.51</b>	.00
Fleeting חולף	.04	.05	.25	.09	<b>.50</b>	-.14
Silly <sup>2</sup> שטותי	.23	.22	.02	-.08	<b>.49</b>	-.15
CrazyLike <sup>2b</sup> שיגעוני	.19	.37	-.05	.02	<b>.47</b>	-.14
Superficial <sup>2</sup> שטחי	.26	-.19	.41	-.07	<b>.46</b>	-.15
Occasional מזדמן	.00	.19	.17	.04	<b>.44</b>	-.02
Subversive מחתרתי	.35	.12	-.04	-.14	<b>.43</b>	.11
Biased מוטה	.41	.04	.13	-.05	<b>.42</b>	-.03
Contagious מדבק	.10	.36	.04	-.01	<b>.41</b>	-.07
Psychedelic פסיכדלי	.38	.08	-.10	-.12	<b>.41</b>	.05
Presentable ייצוגי	.01	.24	.06	.04	-.01	<b>.56</b>
Focused ממוקד	-.08	.11	.21	.09	-.10	<b>.54</b>
Objective אובייקטיבי	.10	.13	.28	-.11	-.12	<b>.54</b>
To-The-Point ענייני	-.02	.01	.33	.12	-.12	<b>.51</b>
Decent הגון	-.06	.18	.31	-.05	-.10	<b>.48</b>
Concrete קונקרטי	.06	-.04	.38	.12	-.08	<b>.48</b>
Economic כלכלי	-.02	.17	.15	.13	.04	<b>.46</b>
Elegant אלגנטי	-.04	.35	.07	-.10	.13	<b>.46</b>
Fair דוגן	-.06	.23	.30	.02	-.06	<b>.44</b>
Discrete דיסקרטי	.22	.17	.13	-.10	.04	<b>.42</b>

Note.  $N = 533$  Standardized factor loadings of adjective items on respective factors are presented. Highest primary loadings appear bold-faced. Adjectives are presented in Hebrew (on the right) and their translation to English is on the left. Factor 1 = Negativity, Factor 2 = Positivity, Factor 3 = Familiarity, Factor 4 = Demandingness, Factor 5 = Oddness, Factor 6 = Straightforwardness.

<sup>a</sup> In some cases, different words in Hebrew are available for describing a single word in English. Adjectives followed by the number "2" represent a second Hebrew word for describing the adjective preceding the "2". <sup>b</sup> For some Hebrew adjectives, a combination of English words better conveyed the word's meaning than a single word.

Table 5  
Means and Standard Deviations of the Situation Six Dimensions and Intercorrelations Among Them in Studies 1–4

Factor/Dimension <sup>a</sup>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
Study 1 (closely representative sample of Israelis; <i>N</i> = 533)							
1. Negativity	1.32	.55					
2. Positivity	2.72	1.01	.08				
3. Familiarity	3.19	.85	-.05	.41			
4. Demandingness	2.10	.82	.40	-.08	-.05		
5. Oddness	1.64	.62	.52	.20	.09	.34	
6. Straightforwardness	2.64	.96	.26	.46	.31	.26	.40
Study 2 (U.S. undergraduates; <i>N</i> = 104)							
1. Negativity	1.81	1.11	(.95) <sup>b</sup>				
2. Positivity	2.87	1.42	-.02	(.98)			
3. Familiarity	5.54	1.14	-.13	-.34***	(.95)		
4. Demandingness	3.11	1.54	.41***	-.25*	-.02	(.95)	
5. Oddness	2.19	1.00	.55***	.26**	-.22*	.23*	(.89)
6. Straightforwardness	3.95	1.30	-.09	-.04	.17	.33**	.03
Study 3 (U.S. MTurk workers; <i>N</i> = 253)							
1. Negativity	1.47	.86	(.95)				
2. Positivity	2.96	1.71	.05	(.98)			
3. Familiarity	5.58	1.26	-.39***	-.33***	(.96)		
4. Demandingness	2.36	1.29	.57***	-.01	-.30***	(.93)	
5. Oddness	1.82	.91	.58***	.36***	-.19***	.44***	(.90)
6. Straightforwardness	4.25	1.24	-.16*	.22**	.36***	-.03	.09
Study 4 (U.S. MTurk workers; <i>N</i> = 156)							
1. Negativity	1.43	.85	(.91)				
2. Positivity	2.64	1.70	-.11	(.97)			
3. Familiarity	5.24	1.29	-.38***	-.09	(.91)		
4. Demandingness	2.86	1.35	.47***	.07	-.26**	(.81)	
5. Oddness	1.78	.92	.61***	.22**	-.23**	.32***	(.84)
6. Straightforwardness	4.73	1.45	-.28***	.26**	.40***	.00	-.04

<sup>a</sup> The intercorrelations among Situation Six dimensions in Study 1 were derived through the factor analysis and Promax rotation. To provide dimension means and standard deviations for this study, we calculated the unweighted average rating of the seven highest-loading adjectives for each factor. <sup>b</sup> Values in the diagonal (in parentheses) are scale Cronbach's alpha scores.

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

correlated with Neuroticism, suggesting that people inclined toward negative affect may also perceive their situations as being outside of the social mainstream. Straightforwardness showed only a small but significant negative correlation with Conscientiousness, indicating that people self-describing as reliable, organized and industrious tended to view their situations as more convoluted. Other noteworthy relationships include that Neuroticism showed with perceptions of Negativity, Demandingness, and Oddness, and the negative correlations it showed with Positivity. Openness to Experience and Familiarity were also positively correlated. Overall, however, none of these trait–situation perceptions correlations were very high (i.e., all  $r$ s were less than .26). This indicates that although individual differences at the broad-band level are related to how people perceive situations, they do not entirely determine people's appraisal of situations.

### Study 2: Imposed Etic Replication I

Following the identification of our emic Situation Six in Study 1, we now turn to test this factor structure with a subset of our adjective pool, using English adjectives and U.S. participants. This imposed etic approach will provide a preliminary test of the generalizability of the Situation Six dimensions. Specifically, we

attempted in this study to replicate the six-factor structure obtained in Study 1 with a sample of U.S. undergraduates to provide cross-sample (Harris & Harris, 1971) and cross-language replications. To expand the nomological network of the Situation Six, we also examined relationships with the emotions individuals reported experiencing during the reported situation. We expected the Positivity and Negativity dimensions to be associated with experiencing positive and negative emotions, respectively. Further more, we expected Demandingness to be associated with negative emotions, especially activated ones. Familiarity should be related to less activated emotions given that familiar and routine situations should be seen as relatively mundane. The predicted pattern for Oddness is less clear, but we deemed it likely that odd situations would be associated with emotions of higher activation because people may be more sensitive to the reward structure of such nonnormative situations and more alert in their presence.

### Method

This study, titled "Situation Perceptions and Affective Responses" (protocol ID# 1701006867) was deemed exempt from IRB review by Cornell University's IRB committee.



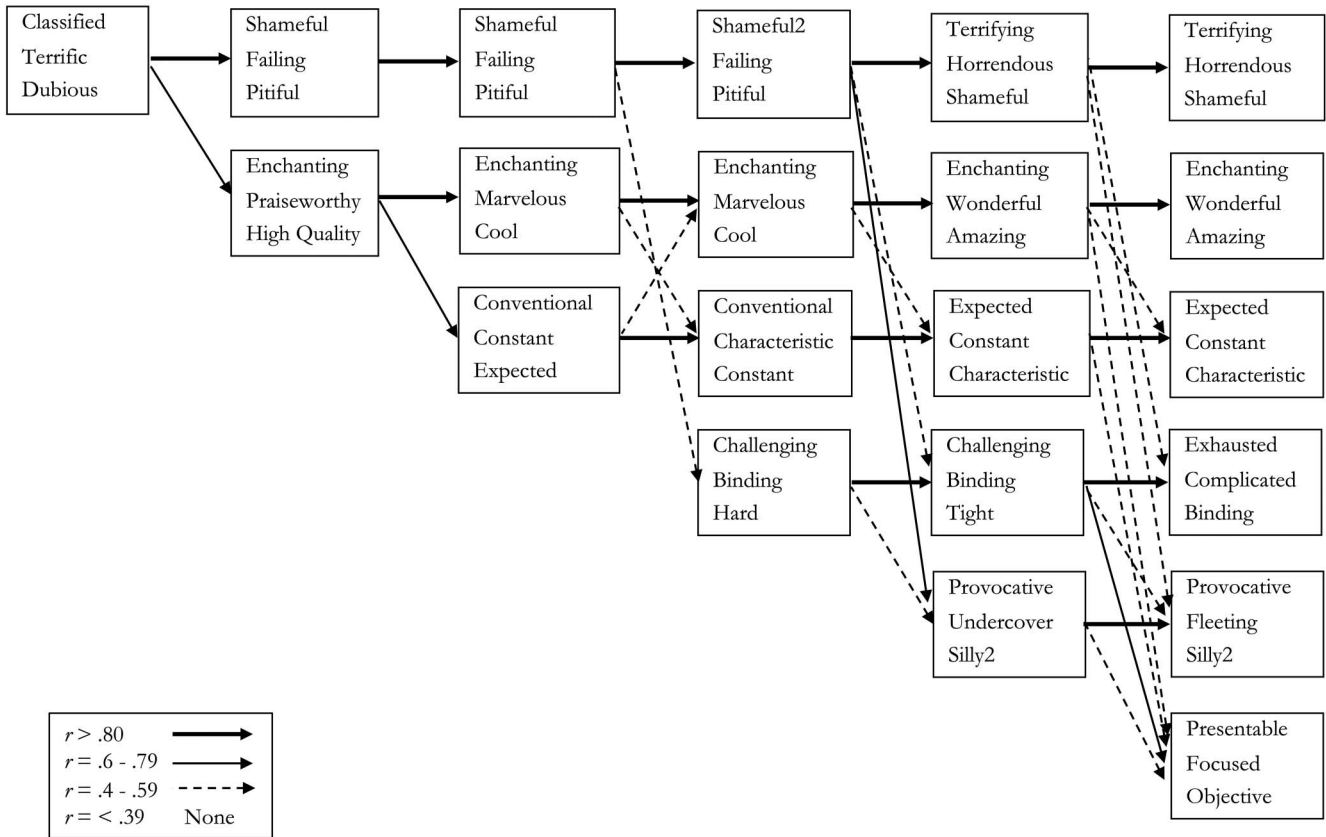


Figure 2. "Bass-ackwards" analysis using principal component analysis with Promax rotation for extractions ranging from one to six factors. The top three loading words for each factor are shown.

**Participants and procedure.** Study 2 was conducted at a U.S. university using  $N = 104$  English-speaking college students, who obtained course credit for their participation. Participants were asked to describe in a sentence the situation they were in the previous day, at a time of day determined at random through the online questionnaire administered. They were told that in the case that they were asleep during the time selected, they should describe the situation they were in 10 hr following that time. The average age of the participants was 19.11 years (range: 18 to 22;  $SD = 1.06$ ), and 43.3% were male. In terms of participants' ethnic/racial breakdown, 46.2% self-identified as White, 31.7% as Asian, 11.5% as Hispanic, 4.8% as Black, 1.9% as Native American, and 3.8% did not report their race. As in Study 1, after being asked to describe the situation they were in, participants were asked to rate the situation using the Situation Six adjectives. In addition, we asked participants to report the emotions they were experiencing in the situation described, using an emotion circumplex scale.

**Measures.** To measure Situation Six perceptions, we used a subset of the adjectives from Study 1, comprising 60 items (10 per dimension). We selected the items with the highest loading on their factor, with a few exceptions in which the English translation of another word with a slightly lower loading had a more straightforward meaning. We then conducted a translation and back-translation procedure (for a review of recommended procedures

see Schaffer & Riordan, 2003) to translate the items into English. The adjectives selected are listed in Appendix B. Response options ranged from 1 (*entirely uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*entirely characteristic*).

To measure the emotions that participants experienced during the situation, we used Kring, Barrett, and Gard's (2003) emotion circumplex scale. The scale consists of 20 emotions, each of which is characterized by its valence (positive vs. negative) and level of activation (activated vs. deactivated). These comprise four quadrants. From each quadrant, we selected the three items that are centrally positioned within the quadrant (as opposed to bordering the neighboring quadrant). The items we used and descriptive statistics of scales formed are listed in Appendix C. Participants were asked to rate the degree to which each of the emotion items described the emotions experienced during the situation chosen. Response options ranged from 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*).

## Results and Discussion

**Factor structure replication.** To test the factor structure of the English adjectives in this study, we conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Items constituted manifest variables and were set to load on only one of the latent Situation Six dimensions, which

Table 6  
*Intercorrelations Between the Situation Six and Other Constructs in Studies 1–4*

Study	Situation Six dimensions					
	Negativity	Positivity	Familiarity	Demandingness	Oddness	Straightforwardness
<b>Big-Five (Study 1; N = 533)</b>						
Extraversion	-.08	.18***	.01	-.07	-.08	.08
Agreeableness	-.15***	.17***	-.03	-.09*	-.17***	.08
Conscientiousness	-.18***	.19***	.04	-.16***	-.21***	-.14**
Neuroticism	.25***	-.12**	-.03	.21***	.18***	-.08
Openness	-.03	.04	.09*	.04	-.05	.06
<b>Emotions (Study 2; N = 104)</b>						
Positive-Activated	-.11	.68***	-.30**	-.25*	.27**	.00
Positive-Deactivated	-.40***	.45***	.05	-.47***	-.01	.08
Negative-Deactivated	.25*	-.61***	.32**	.41***	.02	.15
Negative-Activated	.62***	-.20*	-.14	.55***	.36***	.08
<b>CAPTION (Study 3; N = 253)</b>						
Complexity	.25***	.26***	-.01	.39***	.40***	.41***
Adversity	.51***	-.17**	-.23***	<b>.85***</b>	.30***	-.07
Positive valence	.07	<b>.79***</b>	-.23***	-.08	.35***	.18**
Typicality	-.30***	-.31***	<b>.88***</b>	-.27***	-.15*	.43***
Importance	-.16**	.31***	.31***	-.01	.03	<b>.69***</b>
HumOr	.46***	.42***	-.23***	.29***	<b>.70***</b>	.04
Negative valence	<b>.78***</b>	.14*	-.23***	.49***	.66***	-.04
<b>DIAMONDS (Study 4; N = 156)</b>						
Duty	.07	.01	.08	.41***	.00	<b>.38***</b>
Intellect	.03	.28***	.00	.32***	.14	.23**
Adversity	.57***	.12	-.31***	.29***	<b>.62***</b>	-.19*
Mating	.09	.37***	-.14	.08	.44***	-.04
Positivity	-.28***	<b>.59***</b>	.19*	-.20*	.11	.29***
Negativity	<b>.62***</b>	-.05	<b>-.36***</b>	<b>.59***</b>	.45***	-.21**
Deception	.46***	.05	-.06	.37***	.46***	-.05
Sociality	.00	.28***	.07	.10	.23**	.20*

Note. The highest (absolute) convergent correlations with the CAPTION and DIAMONDS dimensions are indicated in bold.  
 \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

could freely covary with each other.<sup>6</sup> All of the items loaded significantly on their designated latent factors and all but one exceeded .40 (range: .44 to .98, all  $ps < .001$ ; see Table 1 in the online supplemental materials). The item *Discrete* presented a somewhat weaker loading (.32), although it too significantly loaded on its designated factor (Straightforwardness). Model fit,  $\chi^2(1682) = 3350.64$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .78, TLI = .76, RMSEA = .098,<sup>7</sup> was relatively poor compared with accepted standards (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). This may have to do with the relatively large number of items on each factor, which can often yield lower fit indexes (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). A solution for such cases is the parceling of items (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). We therefore collapsed the 10 items for each factor into three parcels (one parcel of four items and two parcels with three parcels each). All parcels loaded significantly ( $p < .01$ ) on their corresponding factor (see Table 2 in the online supplemental materials). The fit of the revised model improved substantially and was now acceptable,  $\chi^2(113) = 190.75$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .95, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .082. These findings thus demonstrate that the six-factor structure can also be obtained with adjectives in English, among U.S. participants.

**Descriptives.** Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the six factors found are presented in the second section of Table 5. As can be seen in this section, the intercorrelations among factors was very similar to those obtained in Study 1. As in Study

1, the strongest relationships were the positive correlations that Negativity presented with Oddness and Demandingness. Similar relationships across the two studies were also the positive, weak-moderate, relationships of Demandingness with Oddness and Straightforwardness. Alongside this overall similarity, there were also a few discrepancies across the sets of intercorrelations. First, whereas in Study 1, Straightforwardness yielded moderate positive correlations with both Positivity and Oddness, the relationships between these dimensions in Study 2 were practically zero. In addition, Whereas the relationship between Positivity and Familiarity was positive in Study 1, it was negative in Study 2. One explanation to these discrepancies may be the different cultural settings within which these data were collected. For example, familiar situations may be perceived as generally positive in Israel, but generally negative in the United States, which corresponds with the fact that Israel is much higher than the U.S. on cultural

<sup>6</sup> In 11 cases, exceptionally high modification indexes indicated that some pairs of adjacent items within the same factor covaried beyond their association with the same latent variable. This is not uncommon for adjacent items in a multicomponent instrument (Molina, Rodrigo, Losilla, & Vives, 2014; Raykov, 2001; Taylor, Burns, Rusby, & Foster, 2006). We therefore allowed these sets of errors to covary in our model.

<sup>7</sup> CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2001). Certainly, however, additional data are necessary for drawing more conclusive inferences. We revisit this point in the next study.

**Nomological correlates: Emotion states.** Correlations between the Situation Six and four emotion quadrants are presented in the second section of Table 6. As expected, Negativity was significantly and positively correlated with the two negative emotion categories and negatively correlated with the two positive emotion categories (although only the correlation with the positive-deactivated category was statistically significant). Correspondingly, Positivity had positive correlations with the two positive emotion categories and negative correlations with the two negative emotions. Familiarity was positively correlated with negative-deactivated emotions, which is consistent with the mundane nature of the situations described by the adjectives of this factor (e.g., regular, common, typical). Correspondingly, Familiarity was negatively correlated with positive-activated emotions. Also, as can be expected, Demandingness was negatively correlated with the positive emotions and positively correlated with the negative emotions. The strongest correlation among the positive ones was with the negative-activated category, and the strongest among the negative correlations was with the positive-deactivated emotions, indicating the general high activation of demanding situations. Oddness was positively correlated with the two activated emotions. This is consistent with the fact that unusual situations will tend to draw individuals' attention and increase alertness, but are not necessarily negative. Certainly, however, the nature of these data cannot determine the causal nature of the relationship between situation perceptions and the emotions reported. The correlations obtained may reflect a variety of causal effects, such as the impact that situations have on people's emotions, that individuals who tend to experience certain emotions may select situations with certain characteristics, or some combination of these. The relationships we obtained, however, are nevertheless useful for further interpreting the dimensions of the Situation Six.

### Study 3: Imposed Etic Replication II

In Study 2, we demonstrated that the six-factor structure obtained with Hebrew adjectives among Israeli participants could be reproduced with English adjectives among U.S. participants. Study 2, however, relied on undergraduate students, which restricted the situations sampled to those experienced by undergraduates. Thus, in the present study we recruited U.S. MTurk workers. We aimed to replicate our six-factor structure again and examine correlations between the Situation Six and the seven dimensions of the CAPTION model.

### Method

This study, titled "Situation Attributes," received approval from the Hebrew University's School of Business Administration's research ethics committee.

**Participants and procedure.** Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Other than the different recruitment method, the rest of the procedures were the same as those used in Study 2. Participants were asked to describe the situation they were in the previous day, at a randomly deter-

mined time, and in the case that they were asleep during the time selected, they should describe the situation they were in 10 hr following that time. We aimed for 250–300 participants, and ultimately obtained responses from  $N = 258$  participants. After removing participants who failed the attention-check items and those who completed the survey in less than three minutes, we remained with 156 usable responses. Of these, 51.8% were male and the remaining 48.2% were female. Participants' average age was 39.02 (range: 22 to 74;  $SD = 10.29$ ). The ethnic/racial breakdown included 79.1% who self-identified as White, 7.5% as Black, 6.3% as Asian, 5.5% as Hispanic, and the remaining 1.6% did not report their race. After being asked to describe the situation they were in at the designated time, they were asked to rate the situation, first using the Situation Six and then the CAPTION adjectives.

**Measures.** To measure the Situation Six, we used the same 60 items used in Study 2 (see Appendix B). As in Study 2, response options ranged from 1 (*entirely uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*entirely characteristic*). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the six subscales ranged from .88 (Straightforwardness) to .98 (Positivity).

To measure the CAPTION dimensions, we used the 70-item scale from Appendix C in Parrigon et al. (2017), which includes 10 items for each of the seven CAPTION dimensions. Response options ranged from 1 (*entirely uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*entirely characteristic*). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the seven subscales ranged from .90 (Typicality) to .93 (Positive Valence).

### Results and Discussion

As in Study 2, to retest the six-factor framework identified in Study 1 we conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Items constituted manifest variables and were set to load on only one of the latent Situation Six dimensions, which could freely covary with each other.<sup>8</sup> All the items loaded strongly and significantly (range: .40 to .97,  $ps < .001$ ; see Table 3 in the online supplemental materials) on their designated latent factors. Model fit was slightly lower than satisfactory,  $\chi^2(1687) = 4079.27, p < .001, CFI = .84, TLI = .83, RMSEA = .075$ . As a remedy, we again used parceling and collapsed the 10 items for each factor into three parcels (one parcel of four items and two parcels with three parcels each). The fit of the revised model improved substantially and was now good,  $\chi^2(113) = 206.161, p < .001, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .057$ , and all parcels loaded on their corresponding factor (see Table 4 in the online supplemental materials). These findings thus demonstrate that the six-factor structure can also be obtained with adjectives in English, among U.S. MTurk workers.

**Descriptives.** Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the six factors found are presented in the third section of Table 5. As can be seen in the table, the correlations largely replicate those obtained in Study 2 and many of those in Study 1. Here, too, the strongest correlations were for Negativity with Oddness and Demandingness. Also consistent with both Studies 1 and 2 were the positive relationships of Oddness with Positivity and Demandingness. The relationship between Straightforwardness and Positivity, which was relatively strong in Study 1 and practically zero in Study 2, was positive and rather moderate although significant and

<sup>8</sup> We allowed eight sets of error terms within the same factor to covary, given exceptionally high modification indexes.

thus somewhere in between the two former studies. Two of the moderate correlations, however, were unique to this study. Most pronounced was the negative correlation between Negativity and Familiarity. This correlation was almost zero in Study 1 and was a bit stronger but still not significant in Study 2. Similarly, the correlation between Familiarity and Demandingness was negative and significant in this study, but was practically zero in both former studies. It is unclear at this point to what these discrepancies should be attributed. We will be able to assess whether it has something to do with the use of MTurk participants in Study 4, in which we will also use MTurk participants.

**Nomological correlates: CAPTION situation characteristics.** Correlations between the Situation Six and the seven CAPTION dimensions are presented in the third section of Table 6. As can be seen in the table, all of the dimensions in each taxonomy had several significant correlations with dimensions in the other taxonomy. The strongest correlations were between the Negativity and Negative Valence dimensions,  $r = .78, p < .001$ , the Positivity and Positive Valence dimensions,  $r = .79, p < .001$ , the Familiarity and Typicality dimensions,  $r = .88, p < .001$ , and the Demandingness and Adversity dimensions,  $r = .85, p < .001$ . This suggests that these dimensions may represent the same conceptual content. Other strong correlations were between Oddness and humOr, Oddness and Negative Valence, Negativity and Adversity, and Straightforwardness and Importance. The two former relationships make intuitive sense given that both oddness and humor reflect content that is unexpected and often diverges from normative standards. The relationship between Negativity and Adversity is also not surprising and is consistent with the relationships between the CAPTION Negative Valence and the DIAMONDS Adversity dimensions and between the CAPTION Adversity and DIAMONDS Negativity dimensions (Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann & Sherman, 2018). The positive association between Straightforwardness and CAPTION's Importance dimension may have to do with the fact that both dimensions involve a degree of directness and concreteness. Importance is defined through "its direct functionality toward an individual's goals" (Parrigon et al., 2017, p. 566), which corresponds with the concreteness and focused nature of the Straightforwardness dimension.

Somewhat weaker, yet still significant, were the correlations between the CAPTION Complexity dimension and the Demandingness, Oddness, and Straightforwardness dimensions. Whereas the relationship between Complexity and the former two could be expected, given that complex situations are likely viewed as less ordinary and more demanding than situations that are not complex, the relationship between Complexity and Straightforwardness is somewhat counterintuitive. On the surface, the more complex a situation, the less, rather than more, straightforward it should be perceived to be. An examination of the adjectives that form these dimensions, however, suggests a possible explanation. *Straightforward* is the label for adjectives such as *presentable*, *focused*, and *objective*, which do not necessarily indicate low complexity. Complexity, of the CAPTION model is defined by adjectives such as *analytical*, *technical*, *intellectual*, *complex*, and *intricate*. Both sets of adjectives would be relevant to work- or task-focused situations, which may be what is driving the positive correlation. To test this, we would expect a positive correlation between

Straightforwardness and Intellect from the DIAMONDS framework (see Study 4).

HumOr was positively correlated with both the Situation Six Negativity and Positivity dimensions. This corresponds with similar relationships between humOr and the two CAPTION valence dimensions (Parrigon et al., 2017). Parrigon et al. explain this by suggesting that humor can be used both constructively and destructively.

Overall, these relationships demonstrate significant overlap among several of the dimensions from the two frameworks, alongside some unique aspects in both. With one exception, each of the CAPTION dimensions have a particularly strong ( $r > .65$ ) correlation with one of the Situation Six dimensions. Most prominently linked are these four pairs of dimensions: Negativity–Negative Valence, Positivity–Positive Valence, Familiarity–Typicality, and Demandingness–Adversity. The two members of each pair appear to capture very similar content across the two languages and cultural settings. Although there is correspondence between Oddness and humOr as well as between Straightforwardness and Importance, each of these dimensions appears to also involve some unique content. CAPTION's Complexity dimension seems to be least represented in the Situation Six. The pattern of correlations is such that Complexity has low to moderate relationships with all of the Situation Six dimensions except Familiarity. It appears that in Hebrew, words suggesting complexity do not adhere to a single dimension but are spread out in five of the Situation Six dimensions.

#### Study 4: Imposed Etic Replication III

In this study, we aim to replicate yet again the six-factor structure of the Situation Six with English adjectives among U.S. participants. In addition, after comparing the Situation Six with the CAPTION framework, we now compare it with the eight DIAMONDS dimensions (Rauthmann et al., 2014). Moreover, to better capture specific situations that are fresher in participants' memories, we asked participants in this study to recall a situation that is more recent than the ones we asked about in Studies 2 and 3, which were remembered from a day earlier.

#### Method

This study, titled "Situation Characteristics 2," received approval from the Hebrew University's School of Business Administration's research ethics committee.

**Participants and procedure.** As in Study 3, participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). They were asked to describe the situation they were in two hours prior to beginning the study's survey. Because we wanted to capture situations across a variety of times of the day and because MTurk participants tend to respond relatively promptly to invitations to participate in new studies, the invitation to participate in the study was sent out at several different times of day and was restricted to approximately 50 participants each time. Aiming for 150–200 participants, we obtained responses from 193 participants, of whom 37 reported being asleep two hours earlier. After removing these participants, 156 usable responses remained. The time of day at which participants filled out the survey ranged from 8:13 a.m. to 9:46 p.m. Forty-seven percent of the participants were male, 52%



were female, and the remaining 1% did not report their sex. Their average age was 37.73 (range: 19 to 70;  $SD = 11.60$ ). In terms of participants' ethnic/racial breakdown, 84.6% self-identified as White, 5.1% as Black, 4.5% as Asian, 3.8% as Hispanic, and the remaining 0.6% did not report their race. Participants' level of education ranged from no high school degree (0.6%) to a graduate degree (11.5%). Participants were asked to first describe in a sentence the situation they were in two hours prior to beginning the survey. They were then asked to rate the situation, first using the Situation Six and then the DIAMONDS characteristics.

**Measures.** To measure the Situation Six, we used six high-loading items for each of the six dimensions identified in Studies 1–3 (see Appendix D). Response options ranged from 1 (*entirely uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*entirely characteristic*).

To measure the eight DIAMONDS dimensions, we used Rauthmann et al.'s (2014) RSQ-8 scale, which includes four items for each of the eight dimensions. Response options ranged from 1 (*entirely uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*entirely characteristic*). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the eight subscales ranged from .72 (pOsitivity) to .92 (Negativity).

## Results and Discussion

**Factor structure replication.** As in Studies 2 and 3, to retest the six-factor framework identified in Study 1, we conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. As in the former two studies, items were set to load on only one of the latent Situation Six dimensions, which could freely covary with each other.<sup>9</sup> All of the items loaded significantly (range: .36 to .99,  $ps < .001$ ; see Table 5 in the online supplemental materials) on their designated latent factors. Model fit was acceptable,  $\chi^2(574) = 1061.65$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .90, TLI = .89, RMSEA = .074. Because there were fewer items loading on each factor, acceptable fit was attained without the need to parcel items. These findings thus provide further support for the replicability of the six-dimensional structure of the Situation Six in the United States.

**Descriptives.** Means, standard deviations, and correlations among the Situation Six dimensions are presented in the bottom section of Table 5. As can be seen in the table, the correlations generally replicated those obtained in the former three studies and corresponded particularly well with those of Study 3. This is not surprising given that the samples in these last two studies are most similar, both involving U.S. MTurk participants. As in all of the previous studies, here too the strongest correlations were for Negativity with Oddness and Demandingness. The weak-to-moderate positive correlations of Oddness with Positivity and Demandingness also corresponded with those obtained in the previous three studies. Other relationships that have by now been obtained in three studies are the positive correlations of Straightforwardness with Familiarity and Positivity and the negative correlation between Familiarity and Oddness. The negative correlation between Familiarity and Demandingness that was unique in Study 3 has now also been replicated in this study. We can tentatively suggest that this might have something to do with the specific experiences of MTurk participants. It appears that the aspects of life that they are most likely to encounter are perceived by them as relatively mundane. This may have to do with the fact that MTurk workers tend to be underemployed. This suggests that their occupation, a place where they would spend much of their time and which is

therefore familiar, may not be perceived as particularly challenging for them. The broad Israeli sample from Study 1 and the college student sample from Study 2 appear to be much more varied in whether individuals' primary life context is challenging, leading to the null correlation between Familiarity and Demandingness.

**Nomological correlates: DIAMONDS situation perceptions.** Correlations between the Situation Six and the DIAMONDS dimensions are presented in the bottom section of Table 6. In interpreting the correlations, it is important to note that DIAMONDS come from a different taxonomic approach than the Situation Six (for details, see Horstmann et al., 2018). The RSQ-8 DIAMONDS dimensions vary with regards to how closely they can be tied to adjectives. As can be seen in Table 6, all of the dimensions in each taxonomy had significant correlations with more than one of the dimensions in the other taxonomy. Among the most pronounced were the positive correlations between the two Negativity dimensions,  $r = .62$ ,  $p < .001$ , and the two Positivity dimensions,  $r = .59$ ,  $p < .001$ . This is not surprising given that they are conceptually the same dimension, but also because those two dimensions in DIAMONDS are the ones with items most closely related to adjectives. The Situation Six Demandingness and DIAMONDS Adversity dimensions were also correlated, but not as highly,  $r = .29$ ,  $p < .001$ , most likely reflecting the fact that the RSQ-8 items for that dimension are less directly tied to adjectives. Other high correlations were found between the DIAMONDS Adversity and Situation Six Negativity,  $r = .57$ ,  $p < .001$  and Oddness,  $r = .62$ ,  $p < .001$  as well as between DIAMONDS Negativity and Situation Six Demandingness,  $r = .59$ ,  $p < .001$ . Oddness was further significantly correlated with Adversity, Mating, Negativity, Deception, and, less strongly, with Sociality. This might be interpreted to mean that situations seen as unusual, exotic, or out of the mainstream tend to involve risk, sex, the potential for deception, and other people. Straightforwardness was positively correlated with Duty, Intellect, positivity, and Sociality, whereas it was negatively correlated with Adversity and Negativity.

## Tests of Measurement Invariance Across Israeli and U.S. Samples

To further test the degree of consistency versus context-specificity of our findings across the Israeli and U.S. samples we conducted tests of measurement invariance across the two sets of participants. We first pooled the data from the three studies of U.S. participants (i.e., Studies 2–4). Because tests of measurement invariance require that the same items be used across samples, our tests were restricted to a subset of the items used in Study 4, in which the number of items was the smallest (i.e., 36 items) among our studies. Moreover, when selecting items for Study 4, we inadvertently used three items that although had high loadings on their factors in Study 1, were not among the items we selected for Studies 2 and 3. Our tests of invariance were therefore conducted on the set of 33 items that overlapped across all of our studies (see Table 7).

<sup>9</sup> We allowed five sets of error terms within the same factor to covary, given exceptionally high modification indexes.

Table 7  
 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Loadings in Analyses of Israeli and Pooled U.S. Data

Factor	Adjective	Loadings*		Factor	Adjective	Loadings*	
		Israel	U.S.			Israel	U.S.
Negativity	Horrendous	.77	.86	Demandingness	Demanding	.68	.86
	Horrible	.76	.81		Challenging	.43	.86
	Terrifying	.74	.75		Exhausting	.67	.79
	Revolting	.79	.82		Complicated	.73	.66
	Pitiful	.79	.77		Tedious	.69	.66
Positivity	Shameful	.80	.75	Oddness	Binding	.41	.64
	Awesome	.78	.93		Crazy	.60	.77
	Marvelous	.71	.95		Silly	.65	.62
	Great	.77	.89		Subversive	.66	.79
	Wonderful	.79	.91		Psychedelic	.64	.76
Familiarity	Exciting	.63	.88	Straightforwardness	Provocative	.63	.73
	Amazing	.79	.89		Fleeting	.37	.39
	Common	.60	.96		Presentable	.67	.85
	Expected	.66	.78		Focused	.65	.70
	Ordinary	.65	.90		Decent	.69	.74
	Typical	.50	.95	Objective	.72	.59	
				Concrete	.67	.74	

\* All loadings significant at  $p < .001$ .

We first conducted a separate CFA for the Israeli sample and the pooled U.S. sample. In both samples, all of the items loaded significantly ( $p < .001$ ) on their designated factors with loadings above .40, except for the item *fleeting*, which had a loading of .37 ( $p < .001$ ) in both samples. The fit in both samples was just below acceptable (CFI = .86, TLI = .84, RMSEA = .068 in the Israeli sample; CFI = .90, TLI = .89, RMSEA = .075 in the U.S. sample). As in Study 4, allowing the error terms of five pairs of adjacent items (within the same factor) to covary yielded acceptable fit in both samples (CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .055 in the Israeli sample; CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .071). As in the previous analysis, all items loaded significantly ( $p < .001$ ) on their designated factor and item loadings were all above .40 with the same exception of a slightly lower (.39) loading of the item *fleeting* (see Table 7).

We next turned to test the measurement invariance of the model across the two samples. Testing measurement invariance involves a series of tests, incrementally adding constraints. The most basic test is of configural invariance, which involves a test of the designated factor structure across samples. The next step is a test of metric invariance in which item loadings are constrained to be the same across samples. Following metric invariance is a test of scalar invariance in which item intercepts are also constrained to be equal across samples. After testing the fit of the basic, configural model, each following test of measurement invariance involves testing the fit of the model with its preceding, less restrictive model. Metric invariance is thus indicated when the fit of the metric model is not meaningfully worse than that of the configural model, and scalar invariance is indicated if the fit of the scalar model is not meaningfully worse than that of the metric model. Specifically, Coovert and Craiger (2000) recommended comparing the CFIs and RMSEAs of the models being compared. For the  $\Delta$ CFI, an absolute value of .01 is used as evidence for measurement invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Oreg et al., 2008). We thus use this threshold for comparing both the CFIs and the

RMSEAs. In our comparisons of the Israeli and U.S. data, the configural model showed acceptable fit (CFI = .91, RMSEA = .063). Constraining item loadings to be the same across samples (i.e., metric invariance) did not meaningfully remove from the fit of the model ( $\Delta$ CFI = .005,  $\Delta$ RMSEA = .001), thus providing support for metric invariance. Next, constraining item intercepts to be the same across samples (i.e., scalar invariance), yielded non-negligible differences in CFIs ( $\Delta$ CFI = .030,  $\Delta$ RMSEA = .008), thus not supporting scalar invariance. We discuss the meaningfulness of these findings below.

## General Discussion

In the four studies described, we examined the structure of covariation among perceived situation characteristics using a lexical approach. Situation characteristics are encapsulated in the adjectives that people use to describe situations. Our studies join the few extant studies that have aimed to uncover basic dimensions of psychological situations (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017). Moreover, whereas previous taxonomic work on the attributes of situations at large (as opposed to situations within a given domain) using a lexical approach have used English words and U.S.-based English speaking MTurk participants or college students, our main study (Study 1) focused on the lexical structure of situation attributes found in Hebrew, using a closely representative sample of Hebrew-speaking Israelis. Combined with the experience-sampling methodology used in Study 1, this allowed us to capture a wide variety of rated situations. Like previous lexical studies of psychological situations, however, our main study is bound to a given language and a given cultural context. We elaborate on this issue and its implications below. Nevertheless, we used three follow-up, small-scale studies (Studies 2–4) to test whether the structure obtained among Israelis, in Hebrew, could be replicated among U.S. participants, in English. The meanings of the Situation Six dimensions obtained were further

determined by examining their nomological networks (with traits, emotions, and other situation perception dimensions).

### Summary of Findings

We identified dimensions, which together we term the *Situation Six*. The first two, Positivity and Negativity, are general valence factors connoting the extent to which a situation is seen as generally positive or negative, respectively. Such factors are commonly found in taxonomic studies of perceived situations. As has been the case in previous taxonomic studies of situations (e.g., Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014), these two factors were only weakly negatively correlated. The existence of distinct valence factors occurs in other settings as well (e.g., ratings of racial groups). Positive and negative evaluations have been said to stem from separable systems, leading to the possibility that people can see a target both positively and negatively (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1994). Furthermore, situations in which people experience negative emotions tend to predispose them to view the situation as negative, whereas the reverse is true for situations in which people experience positive emotions. Not surprisingly, people higher in trait neuroticism tend to view situations more negatively and less positively.

We labeled the third factor Familiarity. This factor tapped perceptions of the situation as familiar, common, and routine. We labeled the fourth factor Demandingness. It concerns the extent to which the situation is challenging, and was moderately correlated with Negativity. It was also positively associated with trait neuroticism. The fifth factor, Oddness, contains adjectives that characterize the situation as unusual or outlandish. This would include situations that are counter to the prevailing social norms (*subversive, provocative*) as well as those that are simply out of the realm of normal experience (*exotic, psychedelic, or mystical*). In Study 2, this dimension was negatively correlated with the Familiarity dimension and was positively associated with both positive and negative high-arousal emotions. As reflected in the relationships between Oddness and the Big Five, perceiving the situation as odd was also positively associated with the likelihood of experiencing mood swings (i.e., neuroticism) and negatively associated with the tendency to please others (i.e., agreeableness) or to fulfil responsibilities (i.e., conscientiousness). The final factor Straightforwardness focuses on the simplicity of the situation, with situations rated as highly straightforward characterized as focused, concrete, and elegant.

We found significant overlap between most of the Situation Six dimensions and the dimensions from the DIAMONDS and CAPTION taxonomies. Four of the Situation Six dimensions—Negativity, Positivity, Familiarity, and Demandingness—are most clearly represented in the other taxonomies. The existence of the Negativity and Positivity factors is not surprising given the fundamental nature of evaluation in human judgments (e.g., Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1975). In addition to these, Familiarity is closely related to the CAPTION Typicality dimension and Demandingness was closely associated with the CAPTION Adversity dimension and to a significant degree also with the DIAMONDS Negativity dimension. The relationship between Oddness and dimensions from the other taxonomies was slightly less straightforward, with the strongest relationships being with the CAPTION humOr and Negative Valence dimensions and the DIAMONDS

Adversity dimension. Finally, Straightforwardness showed the least overlap with other dimensions, the strongest correlation being with the CAPTION Importance dimension. Overall, although both Oddness and Straightforwardness are correlated with dimensions from the other taxonomies, they nevertheless appear to be distinct from other dimensions, given that there is no single dimension with which they are highly correlated. Thus, these may represent valuable additions to the canon of situation characteristic domains, yet should be treated tentatively until further evidence from other samples, both within Israel and in other cultural contexts is obtained.

Finally, we found evidence for configural and metric, but not scalar invariance of the six-factor structure across our Israeli and U.S. samples. We discuss the meaningfulness of our findings next.

### Interpretation of Findings

A recent comparison of the CAPTION and DIAMONDS taxonomies (Rauthmann & Sherman, 2018) points to convergence with respect to five dimensions, as represented in the CAPTION dimensions of Negative Valence, Adversity, Positive Valence, Importance and Complexity. The Situation Six supports the replicability of the former three of these dimensions, as in the Situation Six dimensions of Negativity, Demandingness, and Positivity. The evidence for the replicability of Importance and Complexity in the Situation Six is not as strong, although it is clear that at least some of the content from Importance is captured in the Situation Six Straightforwardness dimension. Beyond these five dimensions, the Situation Six provide compelling evidence for the replicability of the CAPTION Typicality dimension, which did not emerge in the DIAMONDS taxonomy. This corresponds with the possibility of a sixth Mundane factor that Rauthmann and Sherman (2018) point to. Given the recent call for “replications and extensions of situation characteristic taxonomies using a far more diverse set of samples . . . and countries” (Rauthmann & Sherman, 2018, p. 487), these replications are particularly meaningful.

Also meaningful is the replicability of our findings across our Israeli and U.S. samples. The fact that the six-factor structure was replicated in the U.S. samples suggests that when provided with representative attributes from the Situation Six, U.S. participants' perceptions of situations are structured similar to those of our Israeli participants. The evidence for configural and metric invariance, along with the expected relationships between the Situation Six and external variables (i.e., emotions, CAPTION dimensions, and DIAMONDS dimensions) further demonstrate that the psychological meanings of the Situation Six are similar among the Israeli and U.S. participants in our samples.

Alongside these similarities, differences found across our samples and between the Situation Six and previous taxonomies are also meaningful. With respect to the comparisons of our Israeli and U.S. samples, the lack of evidence for scalar invariance suggests that Situation Six scores from Israelis and U.S. participants are not comparable. In other words, although both Israelis and U.S. participants can interpret situations through the six Situation Six dimensions, the magnitudes of the scores they assign each dimension are different and suggest that these dimensions may take on different meanings by participants from the two countries. Thus, for example, a Positivity rating of “3” assigned to a situation by a group of Israelis will not necessarily represent the same degree of positivity as that of a rating

of “3” assigned by a group of Americans. Direct comparisons of situation ratings by participants from different cultures (e.g., examining whether people from one culture see situations more positively than people from another) will therefore be difficult to make.

It is also worthy to understand the differences between the Situation Six and previously established taxonomies. Both Oddness and Straightforwardness are not represented in the other taxonomies as closely as the other four dimensions. The discrepancies could stem from a number of sources. First, the Situation Six were initially derived using an experience-sampling approach that is likely to have generated a broader range of rated situations than other taxonomic studies. It is possible that this is the reason that an Oddness dimension occurs in the Situation Six but not in other taxonomies—the broader representation of situations in our initial study made it more likely that odd situations would be available to rate. Moreover, we used in Study 1 a closely representative group of potential respondents, which is unusual for work in this area and could further extend the variety of situations sampled. This is because personality and other personal attributes likely contribute to both how people see situations and the sorts of situations they are likely to encounter.

Second, differences in the nature of the lexicon from which the words were drawn and the culture and society from which situations were sampled can also impact the final taxonomy obtained. The lexicons used in previous studies can all be seen as reasonably comprehensive, but there are differences in the way that the lexicons were assembled. How much of a difference this actually made in the taxonomies in question is debatable. It seems likely that the words loading highly in any of the adjective-based taxonomies would be present in all of the lexicons, or that such words would be chosen by the judges as useful for describing situations. The exception would be those words in Hebrew that do not have single direct English equivalents, such as the Hebrew word we translated as *crazy-like* or the fact that there are two flavors of *frequent* in Hebrew. There are similarly single adjectives in English that cannot be described with an equivalent single Hebrew adjective.

The fact that there are cultural/linguistic differences in the way the world is carved up linguistically is one reason why cross-cultural studies of the type performed here are so important. According to the lexical hypothesis, when a language contains words that are idiosyncratic vis-à-vis other languages, it suggests that speakers of that language are assigning importance to some aspect of the world that speakers of a different language are not. This in turn suggests that speakers of the language are *attending to* aspects of the world that speakers of a different language are not. They pay attention to and choose to communicate something that is overlooked or not deemed important enough to articulate in other languages.

Those aspects to which people pay attention and consider important may come to be manifested in the covariance patterns that emerge in people’s descriptions of situations through a number of processes. First, constructs of importance are more likely to be represented with a larger number of words than less important constructs, that capture the various nuances of the construct. Given that these words pertain to the same construct, there would be significant overlap in their meanings, which would result in high correlations between their degrees of relevance for describing a given situation. Another process through which the importance of a construct may become manifested in the covariation of word ratings has to do with how the various words are interpreted. Many words have multiple meanings, and the importance of a construct in a given society may influence the likelihood of using

a given meaning of a word. For example, let us imagine languages that include the words Grand, Great, Tremendous, Good, Wonderful, and Excellent, and that these words take on equivalent meanings in these languages. Extant evidence suggests that these words covary and together yield a Positivity factor. Yet one could imagine that in a society that assigns particularly high importance to the notion of size, for example, the size-related meanings of Grant, Great, and Tremendous would be more likely to surface, which would lead these words to covary with words such as Big, Large, and Sizable, thus forming a Largeness factor.

Yet another process that can explain differences in the covariance patterns that emerge across cultures involves differences in the situations that people from different cultures are likely to enter or encounter. Situations are different in the combination of characteristics that describe them. Accordingly, differences in the frequency of a situation will be linked with differences in the likelihood that a given set of characteristics will be used in tandem. The emergence of a factor in a lexical study within a given society may thus reflect the prominence of a given type of situation within that society.

Through such processes, constructs or situations that are considered important and meaningful in a given society may come to be reflected in the factors that emerge in lexical studies such as the ones discussed here. It is possible, for example, that the cultural perspective embedded in Hebrew places less of an emphasis on the humor (or importance or goal-achievement aspects) of situations than that which is embedded in U.S. English, and, conversely, that the U.S. context places less of an emphasis on the oddness of situations. Note that English speakers are fully capable of seeing situations through the lens of the Situation Six, including Oddness, as shown in Studies 2–4, and in our tests of measurement invariance, but it may be that Oddness and Straightforwardness are not what U.S. participants are most inclined to focus on. A consideration of those aspects of Israeli culture that are considered unique and characteristics provides at least tentative support for the relevance of the Straightforwardness dimension for describing Israelis’ experience of situations. A central feature of Israeli culture has to do with the very direct and straightforward form of communication that is typical to Israelis. Such communication is captured by terms such as *tachles* and *dugri*, both meaning “direct and to the point,” and “both [of which] shift to the concrete” (Morris-Reich, 2009, p. 45). Along the same lines, some have noted that “The Israeli culture, particularly the mode of interpersonal communication typical of it, appears to be more straightforward and direct than the American culture . . . *dugri* speech (loosely translated as straight talk) . . . is a central symbolic expression reflecting the *Sabra* (native-born Israeli) ethos of the new Israeli” (Shechtman & Kenny, 1994, pp. 452–453). Salient aspects of Israeli culture are thus consistent with the relevance of the Straightforwardness dimension in Israel and may explain why it emerged specifically in our Israeli study.

Beyond these suggestions, however, methodological factors could also have contributed to the divergence that exists across taxonomies. Specifically, one such factor could be the inconsistency in the indices used for determining the appropriate number of factors. All taxonomies relevant to situation characteristics were originally determined by exploratory factor analyses. Factor structure indices across studies ranged from three to 22 factors. Even the more quantitative, state-of-the-art indices, such as Parallel Analysis and Velicer’s MAP criterion, show substantial variability in these studies, generally indicating large numbers of factors. For instance, Rauthmann et al. (2014) reported parallel analysis results of 15 to 17 factors, we found 12, and Edwards



and Templeton (2005) reported six. Other indices are as equally varied. In all sets of studies, the researchers appropriately rely on replication across extraction and rotation methods to determine the final number of factors. However, idiosyncrasies in the words that load highly on the various factors can lead to different interpretations of the factors' meanings across factor analytic methods.

### Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although we demonstrate the replicability of the Situation Six among U.S. participants using English adjectives, this demonstration is limited given that we used for these replications only a subset of the original pool of adjectives that were used in Study 1. The inclusion of the full set of adjectives used in Study 1 could have yielded a different set of dimensions. Moreover, whereas our approach in Study 1 was exploratory, we used a confirmatory approach in Studies 2–4, which prevented us from discovering alternative structures that could have also fit our data. Although our confirmatory analyses provide support to the six-factor solution, it is still possible that had we included all of the adjectives used in Study 1, a different structure would have emerged when using exploratory factor analyses.

We also did not have a representative sample of U.S. participants in Studies 2 through 4. This is always the case in this literature, with the exception of our Study 1. The participant sample can influence factor structures in two ways. First, different people experience different situations, and the nature of the situations rated can potentially influence the obtained factor structure. Second, personality and other individual differences can potentially influence how people perceive the situations that they encounter. Although we obtained support for the six dimensions from different types of U.S. samples (i.e., students and MTurk participants), obtaining support from a representative sample of U.S. participants would better demonstrate the robustness of this dimensionality.

Overall, it is difficult to determine whether the differences between the Situation Six and previous taxonomies result from cultural and linguistic differences across studies, the number of adjectives used in the different studies, or differences in the nature of the samples used. An experience-sampling study, using English adjectives, with a representative sample of U.S. participants, would likely provide additional insights into the sources of differences across taxonomies. More generally, given that this is a first endeavor for developing a taxonomy of psychological situation attributes from the Hebrew language, we believe that the taxonomy should be treated tentatively, pending additional research. Overall, there is little research to support extant taxonomies of psychological situations, and our understanding of the dimensionality of psychological situation attributes should be considered tentative. Each of the taxonomies proposed thus far is based on a relatively small number of studies and the different conceptual and methodological approaches used in each, along with the different participants sampled, make it difficult to disentangle the various possible sources of discrepancies across findings. Collective efforts by the research community in this field, involving both emic and etic approaches, would be necessary before we can gain a more robust understanding of the nature and dimensionality of situation perceptions.

But beyond a better understanding of what may constitute the basic dimensions of psychological situations, new research is required for uncovering the causal processes that underlie these dimensions. As discussed above, the research through which extant taxonomies have

been developed, including the research presented here, cannot determine whether the dimensions presented reflect characteristics of objective situations, the processes that underlie people's perceptions, or the joint effect of individual differences in people's selection of situations and perceptions of them. Although we can assume that each of these possibilities has a role in determining the dimensionality of psychological situations, future research could directly tackle such assumptions by experimentally isolating the various possibilities.

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## Appendix A

### Final List of 382 Adjectives Used for Study 1 and Their Translation to English

אבוד	Lost	אימתני	Intimidating
אביבי	Vernal	אינטראקטיבי	Interactive
אבל	Mourning	אירוני	Ironic
אבנורמלי	Abnormal	אלגנטי	Elegant
אבסולוטי	Absolute	אלוהי	Divine
אבסורדי	Absurd	אלים	Violent
אגדי	Legendary	אמוציונאלי	Emotional2
אדיר	Awesome	אמנותי	Artful
אהוב	Lovable	אסור	Forbidden
אהוד	Popular	אפוקליפטי	Apocalyptic
אובייקטיבי	Objective	אפור	Unclear
אולטימטיבי	Ultimate	אפל	Dark
אומלל	Miserable	אפלטוני	Platonic
אוניברסלי	Universal	אפרורי	Dull
אופטימלי	Optimal	אקזוטי	Exotic
אופייני	Typical	אקטיבי	Active
אופציונאלי	Optional	ארור	Damned
אורבאני	Urban	בהול	Urgent
אחיד	Uniform	בהיר	Bright
אחר	Other	בודד	Lonely
אטרקטיבי	Attractive	בטוח	Safe
אידיוטי	Idiotic	בטחוני	Security-related
איים	Terrible	בטיחותי	Safety-related
איכותי	Of high quality	בידורי	Entertaining

(Appendices continue)



## Appendix A (continued)

ברוטאלי	Brutal	ילדותי	Childish
ברור	Clear	יעיל	Efficient
גועלי	Revolting	יציב	Stable
גורלי	Crucial	כאוב	Painful
גלובלי	Global	כואב	Painful2
גלוי	Known2	כושל	Failed
גמיש	Flexible	כלכלי	Economic
גרועסקי	Grotesque	כללי	General
גרוע	Very bad	כפוי	Forced
גשום	Rainy	לאומי	National
דבילי	Idiotic	לגאלי	Legal
דוחה	Repulsive	לחוצן	Tight
דומה	Similar	לימודי	Instructional
דומם	Stationary	מאוזן	Balanced
דחוף	Urgent	מאולץ	Forced
דינמי	Dynamic	מאולתר	Improvised
דיסקרטי	Discrete	מאוס	Loathsome
דמיוני	Imaginary	מאורגן	Organized
דפוק	Messed up	מאיים	Threatening
הגון	Decent	מאכזב	Disappointing
הוגן	Fair	מאמלל	Makes miserable
הולם	Fitting	מאתגר	Challenging
הומה	Busy	מבדה	Amusing2
הומוריסטי	Humoristic	מבהיל	Alarming
הורס	Ruining	מברים	Staged
הזוי	Hallucinatory	מבהה	Humiliating2
הכרתי	Conscious	מבטיח	Promising
המוני	Vulgar	מבייש	Shameful
הפוך	Inverted	מביך	Embarrassing
הפיך	Reversible	מביש	Shameful2
הפכפך	Fickle	מבלבל	Confusing
הרוס	Ruined	מבעית	Horrifying2
הרמוני	Harmonic	מגביל	Limiting
ודאי	Definite	מגוון	Varied
וירטואלי	Virtual	מגוחך	Ridiculous
זועתי	Horrible	מגניב	Cool/(wonderful)
זר	Foreign	מגעיל	Disgusting
חביב	Nice2	מדאיג	Worrisome
חגיגי	Festive	מדבק	Contagious
חדש	New	מדהים	Amazing
חדשני	Innovative	מדומה	Imaginary
חוייתי	Experiential	מדכא	Depressing
חולני	Sick	מדליק	Terrific
חולף	Fleeting	מהנה	Enjoyable
חונק	Suffocating	מהפכני	Revolutionary
חוקי	Legal	מובהק	Clear2
חושני	Sensual	מובן	Understandable
חלומי	Dreamy	מוגבל	Limited
חריג	Anomalous	מוגדר	Defined
חשוב	Important	מוגזם	Exaggerated
חשוד	Suspicious	מודרני	Modern
חשוך	Dark2	מורר	Strange
טבעי	Natural	מוטה	Biased
טהור	Pure	מוטרף	Wild
טוב	Good	מוכר	Familiar
טיפוטי	Characteristic	מומלץ	Recommended
טעון	Loaded	מוסכם	Agreed-upon
טקטי	Ceremonial	מועדף	Preferable
טראומתי	Traumatic	מועיל	Beneficial
ידוע	Known	מופלא	Marvelous
יומיומי	Daily	מופרך	Baseless
יוזם	Initiated	מופרע	Disturbed
ייחודי	Unique	מוצלח	Successful
ייצוגי	Presentable	מושלם	Perfect

(Appendices continue)

## Appendix A (continued)

מותאם	Appropriate	מפוקפק	Dubious
מותנה	Conditional	מפוזר	Scary
מותר	Permissible	מפלה	Discriminating
מזדמן	Occasional	מפנק	Pampering
מזוויע	Horrendous	מפתה	Tempting
מזיק	Harmful	מפתיע	Surprising
מזעזע	Shocking	מצויין	Excellent2
מתזורי	Cyclical	מצוין	Excellent3
מחייב	Binding	מצחיק	Funny
מחליא	Sickening	מצמרר	Hair-raising
מחליש	Weakening	מצער	Saddening
מחפיר	Shameful	מקדם	Promoting
מהריר	Terrifying	מקובל	Acceptable
מחרף	Worsening	מקובע	Fixed
מחרתי	Subversive	מקומם	Outrageous
מטומטם	Stupid	מקסים	Enchanting
מטופש	Stupid	מקרי	Incidental
מטורף	Insane	מרגיז	Annoying
מטעה	Misleading	מרגיע	Calming
מטריר	Disturbing	מרגש	Exciting
מטרף	Amazing	מרדים	Soporific
מיוחד	Special	מרהיב	Spectacular
מיושן	Old-fashioned	מרכזי	Central
מיותר	Unnecessary	מרענן	Refreshing
מיטיב	Beneficent	מרשים	Impressive
מייאש	Causes despair	מרתיע	Detering
מיגע	Tedious	מרתק	Fascinating
מיצג	Representative	משגע	Wonderful2
מיסטי	Mystical	משובה	Remarkable
מכאיב	Painful3	משוגע	Crazy
מכביד	Onerous	משוחרר	Liberated
מכובד	Distinguished	משונה	Strange
מכריע	Decisive	משמח	Gladdening
מלהיב	Rousing	משמים	Boring
מלהמתי	Belligerent	משעמם	Boring
מלמד	Educational	משעשע	Amusing
ממוקד	Focused	משפיל	Humiliating
ממושך	Prolonged	משפיע	Influential
ממכר	Addictive	משתנה	Variable
מנחם	Comforting	מתאים	Suitable
מסובך	Complicated	מתוח	Tense
מסודר	Organized	מתוכנן	Planned
מסווג	Confidential	מתון	Moderate
מסויים	Particular	מתוקשר	Communicated
מסוכן	Dangerous	מתיש	Exhausting
מסורבל	Cumbersome	מתסיס	Provoking
מסעיר	Stirs up emotions	מתסכל	Frustrating
מספק	Satisfying	מתעתע	Deceiving
מסקרן	Intriguing	מתקדם	Advanced
מסריח	Smelly	נדוש	Banal
מסתורי	Mysterious	נדיר	Rare
מעודד	Encouraging	נהדר	Great
מעודן	Subtle	נהוג	Customary
מעוות	Distorted	נוח	Convenient
מעולה	Excellent	נורא	Horrible
מעורפל	Vague	נוראי	Horrible2
מעיק	Burdensome	נורמטיבי	Normative
מעליב	Insulting	נורמלי	Normal
מעניין	Interesting	נחות	Inferior
מעצים	Empowering	נחמד	Nice
מערער	Destabilizing	נכסף	Yearned for
מעשיר	Enriching	נמשך	Continuous
מפואר	Gorgeous	נסבל	Tolerable

(Appendices continue)

## Appendix A (continued)

נעים	Pleasant	קיצוני	Extreme
נפוץ	Common	קליל	Light
נפיץ	Volatile	קסום	Magnificent
נפלא	Wonderful	קריטי	Critical
נשלט	Controlled	קרימינלי	Criminal
נתון	Given	קריר	Cool
נתעב	Despicable	קשה	Hard
סבוך	Tangled	קשוח	Tough
סביל	Passive	רבגוני	Colorful
סביר	Reasonable	רגוע	Calm
סוהף	Delightful	רגיל	Regular
סוליד	Sound	רגיש	Sensitive
סוער	Stormy	רגעי	Momentary
ספונטני	Spontaneous	רגשי	Emotional
עגום	Bleak	רועש	Noisy
עדיף	Preferred	ריאליסטי	Realistic
עויץ	Hostile	רע	Bad
עלוב	Pitiful	רצוי	Desired
עליז	Gay (happy)	רשמי	Official
עמום	Ambiguous	שוחק	Eroding
עמוס	Overloaded	שונה	Different
ענייני	To-the-point	שטותי	Silly
עצוב	Sad	שטחי	Superficial
פוגע	Hurtful2	שיגעוני	Crazy-like
פלאי	Magical	שיגרתי	Routine
פנטסטי	Fantastic	שוויוני	Equal
פסול	Unacceptable	שיטחי	Superficial
פסטורלי	Pastoral	שיקומי	Rehabilitative
פסיכדלי	Psychedelic	שיתופי	Communal
פרובוקטיבי	Provocative	שכיח	Frequent
פשוט	Simple	שמח	Happy
פתאומי	Sudden	שנא	Hated
צפוי	Expected	שפוי	Sane
קבוע	Constant	שקט	Quiet
קדוש	Holy	תדיר	Frequent2
קודר	Gloomy	תובעני	Demanding
קונבנציונלי	Conventional	תוסס	Vibrant
קונפורמיסטי	Conformist	תכליתי	Purposeful
קונקרטי	Concrete	תלוש	Detached
קייצי	Summery	תקין	Proper

(Appendices continue)

## Appendix B

### Adjectives Used in Study 2

Dimension	Adjective	
Negativity	Terrifying	Revolting
	Horrendous	Shocking
	Horrible	Despicable
	Pitiful	Traumatic
	Shameful	Alarming
Positivity	Amazing	Wonderful
	Awesome	Fantastic
	Exciting	Excellent
	Marvelous	Spectacular
	Great	Exceptional
Familiarity	Ordinary	Frequent
	Common	Regular
	Typical	Familiar
	Expected	Conventional
	Routine	Known
Demandingness	Binding	Tedious
	Challenging	Hard
	Complicated	Tight
	Demanding	Eroding
	Exhausting	Overloaded
Oddness	Crazy	Fleeting
	Provocative	Superficial
	Psychedelic	Contagious
	Silly	Crazed
	Subversive	Mystical
Straightforwardness	Concrete	Objective
	Decent	Economic
	Focused	Fair
	Presentable	To-the-point <sup>a</sup>
	Practical	Discrete

<sup>a</sup> This word combination more closely maintained the meaning of the corresponding word in Hebrew than any single word in English.

## Appendix C

### Items Used for Assessing Emotions in Study 2

Quadrant	Emotion	Scale <i>M</i>	Scale <i>SD</i>	Cronbach's $\alpha$
Positive-Activated	Enthusiastic	.38	1.65	.95
	Excited			
	Lively			
Positive-Deactivated	Pleased	4.73	1.44	.79
	Calm			
	Relaxed			
Negative-Deactivated	Dulled	3.46	1.38	.83
	Bored			
	Unhappy			
Negative-Activated	Angry	2.56	1.43	.74
	Anxious			
	Nervous			

(Appendices continue)



**Appendix D**  
**Adjectives Used in Study 4**

Dimension	Adjective
Negativity	Terrifying Horrendous Horrible Pitiful Shameful Revolting
Positivity	Amazing Awesome Exciting Marvelous Great Wonderful
Familiarity	Characteristic Common Expected Ordinary Typical Constant
Demandingness	Binding Challenging Complicated Demanding Exhausting Tedious
Oddness	Crazy Provocative Psychedelic Silly Subversive
Straightforwardness	Fleeting Concrete Decent Focused Presentable Practical Objective

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