The Role of Interpersonal Style in Relational Regulation

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Relational Regulation Theory (RRT) and Interpersonal Theory describe mechanisms linking social interactions to affect and perceptions of others. RRT describes ordinary, everyday social interactions involving interesting conversation or shared enjoyable activities as integral to affect regulation. Affect regulation elicits feelings of being supported by the interaction partner (i.e., perceived social support) with, with resulting downstream mental health benefits in both everyday life and when under stress. Interpersonal Theory describes social interactions as exchanges of warm (or cold) and dominant (or submissive) behaviors (i.e., interpersonal styles), with favorable affect elicited by interaction partners that engage in behaviors that fulfill interpersonal needs in each other. One elaboration of Interpersonal Theory hypothesizes that when under stress, interpersonal style will augment the effects of receiving support on the perceived supportiveness of the provider. I explored the extent to which interpersonal style incremented the prediction of contemporaneous affect and perceived social support engagement by enjoyed conversation and shared activities. Across three studies ($n = 396$; $n = 288$; $n = 206$), in vivo, in situ reported perception of an interaction partner as warm was linked to better affect and feeling supported. Perceived warmth also predicted better affect and being supported in times of stress; receiving social support was associated with contemporaneous negative affect but greater perceived support. Enjoyment of conversation and shared activity and warmth both predicted better affect and feelings of being supported independently; there were no interaction effects. Yet, the proportion of variance explained increased dramatically when both predictors were entered together, supporting the integration of RRT with Interpersonal Theory.

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1.0 Introduction

Relational Regulation Theory (RRT; Lakey & Orehek, 2011) and Interpersonal Theory (Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957; Tracey, 1994) are both theories of social behavior that describe mechanisms linking social interaction to affect. RRT sees ordinary, everyday social interaction as a means by which individuals regulate their affect (Lakey & Orehek, 2011). Thus, for RRT, ordinary, everyday social interactions serve a specific human need by providing opportunities for individuals to help regulate themselves. In contrast, Interpersonal Theory does not view everyday social interactions as fulfilling a specific need per se but conceptualizes them rather as a stage that individuals use to work towards fulfilling interpersonal goals (Shechtman & Horowitz, 2006). That is, the ability of social interaction to elicit positive affect is contingent on the willingness and ability of interaction partners to engage in social behaviors tailored to each other's moment-to-moment goals. Despite describing distinct mechanisms, empirical work derived from RRT (e.g., Lakey & Tanner, 2013; Neely et al., 2006; Woods, Lakey, & Sain, 2016; Veenstra et al., 2011) and Interpersonal Theory (e.g., Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Loke & Sadler, 2007; Tenney, Turkheimer, & Oltmanns, 2009; Tracey, 2004) have both demonstrated replicable associations between social interaction and affect. Therefore, integrating the two perspectives could provide incremental value to the study of social behavior and its psychological benefits. RRT posits that the ability of everyday social interaction to regulate affect is to some extent contingent on an interpersonal behavioral match between interaction partners; Interpersonal Theory's hypothesis regarding the link between social interactions and affect specifically implicates interpersonal style, or how one is behaving. Conversely, insofar as Interpersonal Theory does not elaborate the function of ordinary, everyday social interactions, RRT provides a specific mechanism that augments Interpersonal Theory's existing framework by proposing an additional affect-related

process.

Both theories also seek to explain the social processes that help regulate affect in times of stress—with particular emphasis on the role of interpersonal style. Thus, it is possible that situations that involve addressing a stressor may be particularly fruitful for joining these two theories of affect and interpersonal behavior. Further, integrating these perspectives may help develop more effective social interventions for stress management. The current series of studies test hypotheses derived from each theory to integrate these two approaches and to further understand the relationship between social interaction and affect in social situations generally and situations involving a stressor specifically.

1.1 The Relational Regulation of Affect

All individuals have an affective set point; a combination of affective arousal and valence that they are motivated to maintain (Hoeksema et al., 2007; Kuppens, Oravecz, & Tuelinckx, 2010). The further an individual's state affect is from set point, the greater the motivation to return to the set point (Kuppens et al., 2010). Humans are inherently social and consequently we might expect that social behaviors would be among the most common affective regulation strategies. RRT hypothesizes that people use ordinary, everyday social interaction to regulate their affect (Lakey & Orehek, 2011)—that is, ordinary conversation and shared activities. Ordinary conversation involves discussion of enjoyed topics such as sports, celebrities, family members, or TV shows. Shared activities include any possible enjoyed pursuit, such as going to restaurants, watching movies, and playing games. Social interactions that promote engagement with topics or activities that individuals inherently enjoy will be more successful in regulating affect than other forms of interactions. The association between ordinary conversation, shared activity, and affect regulation has been supported in studies linking better conversation quality with strangers and

close others (Lakey, Vander Molden, Fles, & Andrews, 2016; Woods et al, 2016), more time spent in enjoyed activity (Woods et al., 2016), and more time in "substantive" talk (as opposed to small talk) to better affect (Mehl, Vazire, Holleran, & Clark, 2010).

According to RRT, interaction partners who successfully regulate affect do so by facilitating ordinary conversation and shared activity (Lakey & Orehek, 2011). In addition, it is RRT hypothesizes the extent to which two individuals match in interpersonal style will determine how successful they are in regulating each other. For example, an individual who prefers calm, rational discussions of Neoplatonic philosophy will be better regulated by someone who shares this style than by someone who prefers exuberant, affectively charged approach to the same topic. However, there has never been a direct test of the importance of interpersonal style in affect regulation in the context of everyday social interactions as described by RRT.

An important aspect of the RRT model is the downstream effects of affect regulation on mental health. According to RRT, reliable, successful affect regulation promotes good mental health by eliciting feelings of being supported (i.e., perceived social support; Figure 1). The link between regulated affect and perceptions of being supported is well-established by RRT-inspired research (Lakey et al., 2014, 2016; Lakey & Tanner, 2013; Neely et al., 2006; Veenstra et al., 2011; Woods et al., 2016). Further, perceived social support is well-known outside of RRT research to be linked to good mental (Berrera, 1986; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Lakey & Cronin, 2008) and physical (Cohen, 2005; Reblin & Uchino, 2008; Uchino, 2009) health outcomes. The unique contribution of RRT is that the theory views perceived social support as a dynamic construct that ebbs and flows in response to the social environment, whereas typical social support research views the construct as a trait-like, static property of the person (Collins, Ford, & Feeney, 2011; Lakey, 2010). Because RRT is particularly interested in dynamic, social affect regulation, research

derived from the theory separates trait-like influences from dynamic, situational influences, such as social interaction partners. That is, RRT research quantitatively distinguishes between an individual's affective set point (i.e., their trait level of positive and negative affect) and the regulation of affect around the set point (i.e., socially influenced shifts in affect).

1.2 Interpersonal Complementarity and Affect

Whereas RRT highlights the content of ordinary, everyday social interactions as critical for affect regulation, Interpersonal Theory (Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957; Pincus & Ansell, 2013) views social interactions as occasions in which an individual's affect can be influenced positively or negatively rather than regulated per se. According to the theory, affective responses are a byproduct of the willingness and ability of interaction partners to engage in desired social behaviors within a social encounter. Social interactions in which interaction partners are able to meet the interpersonal needs or goals of each other evoke positive affect, whereas failure to meet those needs is met with anger, sadness, or frustration (i.e., negative affect; Dryer & Horowitz, 1997). Needs are met or frustrated, and affect consequently influenced, through complementarity.

Complementarity is a transactional process in which behaviors by one individual invite specific classes of responses from the interaction partner (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983; Tracey, 1994). These classes of social behaviors are blends of two orthogonal axes posited to organize interpersonal functioning: dominance (or agency) and warmth (or communion; Kiesler, 1996; Wiggins, 1979; Figure 2). These two axes are bi-polar dimensions reflecting dominance vs. submissiveness and warmth vs. coldness. Behaviors that are self-enhancing or individuating reflect agency, while those that are affiliative or aimed at building interpersonal connection reflect communion. The principle of complementarity posits that combinations of warmth and dominance by one party invite complementary responses by the interaction partner. Specifically, behaviors

of a particular warmth invite responses of a similar warmth (i.e., synchronicity), whereas dominant behaviors invite submissive responses, or dominant responses to submissive behaviors (i.e., reciprocity). Social interactions that are characterized by synchronicity in warmth and reciprocity in dominance elicit more favorable affect (Locke & Sadler, 2007; Markey, Funder, & Ozer, 2003; Sadler, Ethier, & Woody, 2011; Sadler & Woody, 2003; Tracey, 1994).

Interpersonal Theory posits several reasons for the strong link between affect and interpersonal complementarity. First, the reinforcement value of eliciting particular behaviors from interaction partners is thought to help shape and maintain normative interpersonal exchanges that have higher complementarity (Kiesler, 1983; Sadler, Either, & Woody, 2011; Tracey, 1994). Failure of a well-learned behavior pattern to elicit expected environmental consequences pulls for negative affect. Second, individuals engage in particular combinations of warmth and dominance to meet particular needs (Locke, 2015; Shechtman & Horowitz, 2006). For example, someone in need of financial assistance from a friend is likely to engage in warm, submissive behaviors (i.e., politely asking for help) which tend to elicit warm, dominant helping behaviors (i.e., caring provision of support). When an interaction partner fails to engage in complementary behaviors, the needs of their partner are not met, resulting in negative affect.

In this way, the combination of warmth and dominance displayed in an individual's social behavior is able to influence the affect of their interaction partner. Thus, while individuals may seek out interaction partners when they are experiencing distress, Interpersonal Theory is more broadly focused on the capacity of all social interactions to influence affect. To my knowledge, there has been little or no theoretical work on interpersonal goals and needs in the ordinary, everyday social interactions that are the focus of RRT. Indeed, given the ambition of Interpersonal Theory to describe the antecedents and processes of interpersonal behavior from individual

differences in personality traits to the momentary act-by-act exchange of complementarity (Tracey, 2004), it is likely that positing a universal goal for these types of interactions would be untenable theoretically. Consequently, RRT and Interpersonal Theory have theoretical value for each other: RRT provides Interpersonal Theory with a testable hypothesis regarding the interpersonal goals of ordinary, everyday social interaction; Interpersonal Theory offers RRT a framework for studying interpersonal style and its influence on affect regulation.

1.3 Stress and Affect Regulation

Affect regulation is particularly needed during or immediately following an acute stressor (Feeney, 2007). An elaboration of Interpersonal Theory summarized by Collins and colleagues (2011) and RRT describe disparate mechanisms by which individuals deal with stressful situations, yet both are specifically theories of affect regulation. One elaboration of Interpersonal Theory's model of affect regulation in response to stress (e.g., Colllins et al., 2011) aligns strongly with traditional Stress and Coping Social Support Theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Curtrona & Russell, 1990). The main tenant of this theory is that individuals seek out specific supportive actions from others to help them cope with a stressor. Supportive actions that are tailored to the stressor will be more effective in regulating the recipient's affect. Perceived social support is theorized by Stress and Coping Theory as well as its Interpersonal Theory elaboration to be derived from a retrospective analysis of availability and quality of previously received support. Thus, protection from the deleterious effects of stress on mental health are theorized to occur directly from the provision of support from others in social interactions (i.e., enacted social support), and indirectly through the belief in the future availability of support in hypothetical social interactions (i.e., perceived social support).

Researchers working under the umbrella of Interpersonal Theory have translated Stress and

Coping Theory's model into the two-dimensional social framework of Interpersonal Theory. In this elaboration of Interpersonal Theory, both stressors (O'Brien & Delongis, 1996) and supportive responses (Wiggins & Trobst, 1997) are divided into agentic and communal classes. In Horowtiz and colleagues' (2001) goal-matching hypothesis, the most effective supportive responses will be of the same class as the stressor. For example, a communal stressor such as the death of a loved one (loss of a social connection) will be better addressed by a communal support behavior (e.g., expressing sympathy and caring) than by an agentic support behavior (e.g., advice giving). Yet, even if the correct class of support behavior is emitted, its effect can be tempered by poor interpersonal style. Support that demeans or invalidates will be less helpful to the recipient than support behaviors that promote feelings of being cared for and understood (Collins, et al., 2011; Rini et al., 2006). In this way, interpersonal theorists have suggested that affect regulation under stress is best accomplished with a combination of support that is well-tailored to the stressor (c.f., Stress and Coping Theory) and appropriately matched (i.e., caring) interpersonal style.

In contrast to Interpersonal Theory, RRT predicts that individuals will rely on the ordinary social interaction affect regulation strategy to a greater extent when under stress (Lakey & Orehek, 2011). Further, as stated above, RRT predicts that perceived support is derived through affect regulation rather than through actually receiving support. This supposition is supported Lakey, Cooper, Cronin, and Whitaker's (2014) report that simply viewing others discuss preferred content through media (e.g., TV shows) was sufficient to restore experimentally manipulated affect and elicit feelings of being supported by the media figures. Consequently, for RRT, the protective benefits of perceived support against the deleterious effects of stress on health are primarily driven through engagement with preferred conversation. However, RRT acknowledges that individuals seek specific forms of support during stressful times. During the provision of support, RRT

suggests that interpersonal style may be of even greater importance than during conversations about preferred topics or engagement in shared activities. In this regard, both Interpersonal Theory and RRT agree that an interpersonal style tailored to the support recipient is important in times of stress.

1.4 The Current Studies

Existing evidence supports RRT's hypothesis that humans can regulate their affect through ordinary conversation and shared activities and that individuals generate perceptions of being supported in conjunction with their regulated affect (e.g., Woods et al., 2016). In addition, empirical tests of Interpersonal Theory have demonstrated that social interactions elicit better affect to the extent that they satisfy the particular interpersonal warmth and dominance strivings of interaction partners (e.g., Horowitz et al., 2001). What has not been tested is the additional proposal that these two theoretical mechanisms are co-occurring, distinguishable processes that increment each other. Therefore, the current series of three studies offers a preliminary test of the notion from RRT that interpersonal style is important in affect regulation alongside engagement in ordinary conversation and shared activity.

First, all three studies will provide an operationalization of interpersonal style for RRT based upon the empirically established framework of warmth, dominance, and interpersonal complementarity from Interpersonal Theory. Specifically, this involved an examination of the associations between interpersonal style as operationalized from Interpersonal Theory and the important RRT outcomes of affect and perceived social support. In line with RRT, I hypothesized that warmth and complementarity in particular would be associated with better affect and more feelings of being supported. I had no theoretical justification to make a hypothesis regarding dominance, and consequently did not offer one.

Second, I fully integrated interpersonal style into the RRT model in Study 3. RRT hypothesizes that interpersonal style plays a role in regulating affect and generating feelings of being supported alongside engagement in everyday, ordinary social interaction. In line with this hypothesis, I predicted that both interpersonal style (specifically, warmth and complementarity) and preferred conversation and shared activity would be associated with better affect and feelings of being supported. These models included interaction terms to test the contrary hypothesis that interpersonal style and everyday, ordinary social interaction are simply different expressions of the same mechanism. RRT hypothesizes that interpersonal style should be distinct from preferred conversation and shared activity, however, and consequently I further predicted that including both main effects in the model would increment the prediction of affect and perceived support.

Finally, both theories have distinct yet overlapping predictions regarding stress regulation. The stress reduction elaboration of Interpersonal Theory predicts that interpersonal style and receiving social support will be important in the reduction of stress. RRT predicts that individuals will still rely on the same ordinary, everyday social interaction but that interpersonal style may be particularly important in times of stress. Therefore, both theories overlap in the emphasis on interpersonal style while still proposing distinct primary stress reduction mechanisms. Studies 2 and 3 test the model hypothesized by the stress reduction elaboration of Interpersonal Theory. In these studies, the supportive actions received, the interpersonal style of the support giver, and the interaction of these two predictors, were all hypothesized to be linked with better affect. Enacted support, in line with the theory, was predicted to be associated with more feelings of being supported. Study 3 tested the RRT model of stress reduction using a model with preference for conversation and activity content, interpersonal style, and their interaction regressed onto affect and feelings of being supported. Following the theory, I hypothesized that all three predictors

would show significant associations, although for interpersonal style I specifically predicted that warmth and complementarity would be linked with better affect and feeling supported. Once again, I had no hypothesis for dominance.

1.5 General Methodological Considerations

Each of the following three studies uses multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM). MSEM incorporates the abilities of multi-level models to handle nested data structures into the framework of standard SEM, which can accommodate multivariate models with multiple simultaneous predictors and outcomes (Wright, Dunkley, Zuroff, & Moskowitz, 2019). MSEM decomposes observed variables into stable, between-person influences (e.g., the tendency for one person to experience more or less negative affect than another) and dynamic, within-person effects (e.g., the extent to which a particular social interaction elicited less negative affect than is typically experienced by that individual; Figure 3) and then estimates effects on each level simultaneously. All analyses in the current paper were completed in MPlus version 8.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) using Bayesian estimation with uninformed priors. Standardized estimates are reported with 95% credibility intervals.

Although the current paper tests a relatively large number of models, each follows the same basic logic. I describe the basic model structure here and detail any deviations from the basic analytic plan in subsequent sections when appropriate. Figure 4 illustrates the simplest model, in which one predictor (perceptions of the other's warmth) is used to predict affect and perceptions of being supported. All of the models in the current paper share the same outcomes and paths between predictors and outcomes; only the predictors vary. Models with more than one predictor included correlations among all the predictors. The model depicted in Figure 4 has the following regression paths: P1) The direct effect of other's warmth on positive affect; P2) The direct effect

of other's warmth on negative affect; P3) The direct effect of other's warmth on perceived support; P4) The direct effect of positive affect on perceived support; P5) The direct effect of negative affect on perceived support; P6) The indirect effect of other's warmth on perceived support through positive affect (P1*P4); and P7) The indirect effect of other's warmth on perceived support through negative affect (P2*P5). In this model, the parameters from paths 1-3 reflect standard regression paths in which warmth predicts contemporaneous affect and perceived support. Parameters 4-5 are similarly straightforward.

The indirect effects (Parameters 6-7) reflect the proportion of the effect of warmth on perceived support accounted for by positive affect and negative affect, respectively. When there is more than one predictor (e.g., Figure 6), the indirect paths become shared indirect paths. The first half of the indirect path, from the predictor to affect, is unique, but the second half, from affect to perceived support, is shared with each of the other predictors. For example, in Figure 8, warmth, enacted support, and their interaction each have a unique path to positive affect. However, for their indirect paths to perceived support, they share the direct path between positive affect and perceived support. I include the indirect effects of the predictors on perceived support through affect because affect regulation helps elicit feelings of being supported in the RRT model.

The focus of both RRT and Interpersonal Theory relevant here is on within-person effects and therefore I tested models and reported results are limited to the within-person level; the between-person portion of the models is estimated as a saturated correlation matrix and therefore has no bearing on the model fit or evaluation.

For all studies, complementarity was calculated in line with the Euclidean distance method recommended by Woods and Wright (2019). The Euclidean distance between self and other Cartesian coordinates of interpersonal behavior (with dominance of other reverse coded)

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represents the difference between perfect complementarity (i.e., overlap in self and other coordinates) and the reported values. Thus, distance is multiplied by -1 to calculate a complementarity score in which higher values represent better interpersonal complementarity.

Finally, it is important to note that, because of study design, I was unable to test the RRT model of affect regulation per se. Measurement of affect regulation requires several measurements to measure change over time. The study design used in all three studies asks about affect *during* participants' social interactions. Affect regulation testing would require estimates of participant affect before and after the social interactions that were measured. Therefore, I am not specifically testing the affect regulation piece of the theory, but rather contemporaneous associations between ordinary, everyday social interaction, interpersonal style, and affect.

2.0 Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 is to link social interaction-level affect and perceived social support, two of the core constructs in the RRT model, with the two interpersonal dimensions of warmth and dominance (specifically, perceptions of the interaction partner's behavior), as well as complementarity from Interpersonal Theory. I hypothesized that, within an interaction, viewing the other's behavior as warm would be linked to better affect and feelings of being supported because of the premise from RRT that affect regulation and perceptions of being supported are highly overlapping (Figure 1). Because perceptions of the other's dominance have less obvious importance with regard to ordinary, everyday social interaction, analyses investigating a potential link between perceptions of dominance with affect and feelings of being supported are exploratory. It is possible that complementarity may be more informative for predicting affect and perceived support than simple ratings of the interaction partner's warmth or dominance. Given the strong body of evidence of situational level influences of complementarity on affect (e.g., Locke & Sadler, 2007; Markey, Funder, & Ozer, 2003; Sadler & Woody, 2003), I expected interactions with better complementarity to elicit better affect and greater feelings of being supported.

2.1 Method

2.1.1 Participants. Study 1 includes previously collected ecological momentary assessment data from a sample of undergraduate students (n = 396). The sole requirements for participation were that the participants be at least 18 years old and have a smartphone running an iOS or Android operating system. Participants were about half female (56.3%) and mostly White (80.3%; Asian = 12.1%; Black = 6.6%; American Indian/Alaskan Native = 0.3%). Three participants did not report their race. The mean age at of the sample was 18.74 (SD = 1.35).

2.1.2 Procedure. First, participants came to a single, in-person session, gave consent to

participate, received instructions on participation, and downloaded the MetricWire smartphone application on which the study surveys were hosted. Next, participants completed an eight-day ambulatory assessment protocol where they were randomly prompted to complete a brief survey six times per day, allowing for up to 48 responses. Random prompts were spaced at least 1.5 hours apart. Surveys were available following the prompt for 20 minutes, after which they could no longer be completed. At each prompting, participants were asked to complete a brief survey regarding their most recent social interaction. If participants indicated they did not have a social interaction since the last prompt, they were asked to respond to a separate set of items as a part of the larger study. On average participants completed 22.14 (SD = 14.16) surveys.

2.1.3 Measures. Affect was measured using a 10-item version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) balanced with 5 items each to measure positive ("Content; Excited; Happy; Proud; Relaxed") and negative affect ("Angry; Ashamed; Hostile; Nervous; Sad"). Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they experienced each of the items during their most recent social interaction, using a slide bar ranging from 0-100.

Perceptions of being supported were measured using three items from the Social Provisions Scale (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). The items were selected to reflect the general categories of statements reflected in the full measure. Factor analyses I performed on two separate datasets demonstrated strong factor loadings from these items onto the single resulting factor. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement using a sliding bar ranging from 0-100. Item wording was altered slightly to reflect the context of the social interaction. The items read, "He/she respects my skills and abilities; I have a close relationship with him/her that provides me with a sense of emotional security and well-being; He/she is a

trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems."

Perceptions of interpersonal behavior were measured using four items. Participants were asked to indicate the warmth and dominance of their interaction partner's behavior and their own behavior using a sliding scale ranging from -50 to 50. The pole labels for the dominance items were "Accommodating/Submissive/Timid" (-50) and "Assertive/Dominant/Controlling" (50). The poles for warmth items were "Cold/Distant/Hostile" (-50) and "Warm/Friendly/Caring" (50).

2.2 Results and Discussion

2.2.1 Warmth (Model 1). First, I estimated a model in which perceptions of the other's interpersonal warmth were associated with positive affect, negative affect, and perceived support (Figure 5). When an individual reported experiencing their interaction partner as warm, they also tended to report better affect and greater feelings of being supported (Table 1). Further, the indirect path between warmth and perceived support through positive affect was significant, albeit modest, suggesting that some of the relationship between perceiving an interaction partner as simultaneously warm and supportive is accounted for by the conjunctive experience of positive affect. All of these findings are in line with the RRT model: the direct paths support the importance of interpersonal style in affect regulation and the indirect path from warmth to perceived support through positive affect suggests that affect regulation is implicated in perceptions of being supported. At a more basic level, the direct paths between favorable affect during the interaction and feeling supported are a direct match for the RRT model. The direct paths between warmth and affect support the model of affective elicitation hypothesized by Interpersonal Theory and replicate previous findings (e.g., Bluhm, Widiger, & Meile, 1990).

2.2.2 Dominance (Model 2). Second, I estimated a model in which perceptions of the other's interpersonal dominance is linked to affect and perceived support. In contrast with

interpersonal warmth, perceiving an interaction partner as dominant was associated with poorer affect overall (Table 2). Experiencing the other as dominant was not directly associated with viewing the other as supportive, although other dominance and perceived support were negatively associated through their associations with positive and negative affect. It is surprising that dominance was linked so clearly to unfavorable affect; under some circumstances Interpersonal Theory would predict that dominance by the other would be within the interpersonal needs of the interaction partner (Horowitz et al., 2001).

2.2.3 Warmth and Dominance (Model 3). Third, I estimated a model in which both interpersonal dimensions simultaneously predict affect and perceived support (Figure 6). This model uses perceptions of the other's warmth and dominance as predictors of positive affect, negative affect, and perceived support. Because warmth and dominance are hypothesized to be orthogonal (e.g., Kiesler, 1996; however, see Roche et al., 2013), the inclusion of both interpersonal dimensions in a single model should not substantially alter the relationships found in the previous models. However, the two dimensions were significantly correlated with each other in this sample ($r = -.23$, $p < .001$), and consequently I included both separate and combined models.

When perceptions of warmth and dominance were entered together to predict affect and perceived support, warmth was associated with better affect and greater feelings of being supported, while dominance was associated only with greater negative affect (Table 3). The indirect association between experienced warmth and feeling supported through positive affect remained significant while the indirect path through negative affect became non-significant, and both indirect paths became non-significant for dominance. This shift in patterning of associations suggests that dominance and warmth may share overlapping variance, at least when interpersonal style ratings are aggregated to the level of the social interaction.

2.2.4 Complementarity (Model 4). Finally, I explored the extent to which higher or lower interpersonal complementarity in a social interaction are associated with affect and perceived support. It could be the case that main effects of warmth and dominance do not fully capture associations between interpersonal style with affect and perceived support well because simply knowing the other's interpersonal style is not sufficient to predict the affective reaction of the reporter. Instead, it might be that it is the match between self and other that has affective meaning. Indeed, this is the theoretical model underlying social interactions and affect in Interpersonal Theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983). To test this idea, I estimated a model in which interpersonal complementarity predicts positive affect, negative affect, and perceived social support. This model has the same structure and interpretation of model parameters as Models 1 and 2, albeit with interpersonal complementarity serving as the predictor variable.

When perceptions of self and other warmth and dominance were combined into a single complementarity score, better complementarity was associated with better affect, but not perceived support (Table 4). However, there was a small but significant indirect effect of complementarity on perceived support through positive affect. Positive and negative affect continued to show the associations with perceived support that would be expected by RRT.

In sum, the findings of Study 1 generally replicate findings from previous Interpersonal Theory research showing that even when ratings of social behavior are aggregated to the social interaction level, these ratings still retain significant associations with affect (e.g., Loke & Sadler, 2007; Markey, Funder, & Ozer, 2003). More importantly for the purposes of the current paper, they support the hypothesis from RRT that interpersonal style is implicated in affect regulation and play a part in the mechanism by which affect regulation elicits perceptions of being supported. This seems to be particularly true for perceptions of the other as warm.

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3.0 Study 2

Study 1 established an association between perceptions of the interaction partner's interpersonal style and the affect and perceived support elicited by social interaction. However, Study 1 was limited because it treated social interactions of all purposes as equivalent. RRT specifically predicts that interpersonal style of the interaction partner should be particularly important when an individual seeks out a social interaction specifically to address a stressor— either by talking about the stressor and how to cope with it, or to gain some other form of support. In addition, Interpersonal Theory similarly predicts an interaction between interpersonal style and the effectiveness of received social support, such that perception of the other's social behavior will be particularly important for regulating affect when an individual is under stress. The goal of Study 2, therefore, was to replicate the findings of Study 1, while differentiating social interactions that involved addressing a stressor from other forms of interaction. Finding an interaction effect between interpersonal style and stress-related situations would provide support for the assertion made by both theories that interpersonal style is especially important for stress-related interactions.

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Participants. Study 2 featured 288 undergraduate students recruited across two waves of data collection during the Spring semesters of 2017 and 2018. This sample was mostly male (60.8%) and White (70.8%). The mean age of participants was 19.22 years ($SD = 1.74$). Two participants did not provide any demographic information at baseline and are excluded from the prior calculations; two additional participants did not indicate a racial category.

3.1.2 Procedure. As a part of a larger study, participants in Study 2 were randomly assigned to receive random prompts to complete surveys about their most recent social interactions, or to complete an event contingent recording (ECR) protocol. For those in the former

condition (n = 138), the data collection procedures for this sample were identical to those of Study

1. Those in the ECR protocol (n = 148) were instructed to complete a survey each time they had

a social interaction. Subsequent analysis of these two conditions revealed no differences due to

response contingency group that would impact the present study (Himmelstein, Woods, & Wright,

in press). Participants in the random-prompt condition completed an average of 43.66 surveys (*SD*

= 12.41). Participants in the ECR completed an average of 28.59 assessments (*SD* = 12.67).

3.1.3 Measures. Measures for affect, perceived social support, and interpersonal

behaviors were identical to those used in Study 1.

Enacted social support was measured using two items developed for the study. The items

read: "During the interaction, we discussed other situations that caused me stress" and "During the

interaction, the other person helped me deal with a stressful situation by giving me something I

needed or doing me a favor." Participants rated their agreement with each statement using a sliding

bar ranging from 0-100, with the poles labeled "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree."

3.2 Results and Discussion

3.2.1 Replications (Models 1b-4b). Replications of the primary analyses from Study 1

are documented in the middle sections of Tables 1-4. The patterns of results across all of the

models were substantially similar to those found in the prior study. Although the paths with strong

associations replicated, such as the main effects of warmth, dominance, and complementarity on

affect (Models 1b-4b), some of the weaker effects, such as the indirect effect of dominance on

perceived support through negative affect (Model 2b) were not replicated.

3.2.2 Primary analyses (Models 5-7). The primary purpose of Study 2 was to test the

hypothesis derived from RRT and the Interpersonal Theory that affect and perceptions of being

supported should be influenced by the interpersonal style of the interaction partner beyond the

effect of receiving support of some kind (i.e., enacted social support). That is, interpersonal style should retain significant associations with affect and perceived support when controlling for enacted support. Figure 8 illustrates the model using warmth as the interpersonal style predictor.

The top portion of Table 5 replicates earlier findings: perceptions of the interaction partner as warm (Model 5) was associated with better affect and greater of being supported while dominance was associated with worse affect overall. Further, greater warmth was linked with more perceived support indirectly through the perceived support's association with positive affect. Complementarity was not directly associated with feelings of being supported but was associated with better affect (Model 7). Overall the similarly between these main effects and those reported earlier suggest that receipt of social support does not share overlapping variance with interpersonal style, as is confirmed in the subsequently discussed interaction effects section.

The middle section of Table 5 displays the effects of talking about stress and how to cope with it on affect or receiving some sort of instrumental support (i.e., enacted social support) and perceived social support when holding interpersonal style constant. Social interactions where individuals received social support of some kind tended to be associated with more negative affect but more feelings of being supported. This was true when examining models using warmth, dominance, and complementarity as the interpersonal predictor. Although receiving enacted support may regulate affect over the longer term, my contemporaneous measurement of receipt of support and affect likely explains these findings: individuals under stress and (i.e., experiencing negative affect) were directly eliciting support, hence the association. This pattern of findings supports Interpersonal Theory's model of perceived social support being derived through actually receiving support (e.g., Collins et al., 2011).

The bottom third of Table 5 reports the interaction of warmth, dominance, or

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complementarity with enacted social support. Overall there was only one, modest interaction effect across all three models. When individuals felt more warm towards their interaction partner while receiving more support, was associated with slightly less negative affect (Figure 9; Model 5). On the other hand, less warmth and greater reported support was associated with greater negative affect. This partially supports the hypothesis from RRT that interpersonal style will be important in situations in which individuals are under stress: warmth in the presence of supportive behaviors reduces negative affect.

Study 2 supports the shared hypothesis from RRT and Interpersonal Theory that interpersonal style is important when individuals seek out support from others. When ratings are aggregated to the level of the social interaction, my results suggest that these two processes are largely separate from each other.

4.0 Study 3

Studies 1 and 2 provided evidence for the assertion from RRT that affect regulation occurs during ordinary, everyday social interactions and that perceptions of being supported are derived to some extent as a response to the effectiveness of the interaction in regulating affect. Further, the first two studies supported the hypothesis from RRT that the interpersonal style of the interaction partner would influence affect regulation using the framework of Interpersonal Theory, while replicating previous work from Interpersonal Theory suggesting that interpersonal style influences affect (albeit through different theoretical processes). Study 2 also supported the assertion from both RRT and Interpersonal Theory that interpersonal style is important when an individual is seeking help to address a stressor. These two previous studies have strongly implicated perceptions of the other's interpersonal warmth as linked to favorable affect and perceptions of being supported, and complementarity to a lesser degree.

However, one key aspect of RRT that has not yet been addressed with these investigations is the role of conversation about preferred topics or shared engagement in a preferred activity. This is important because RRT specifically implicates conversation about topics of interest or engaging in enjoyed activities as the key drivers of affect regulation. In line with RRT and related empirical work (e.g., Woods et al., 2016), therefore, for the current study I hypothesized that conversation content and shared activity within a given social interaction will be associated with favorable affect and perceived support resulting from the interaction. This represents the complete test of the RRT model using in vivo, in situ data.

Beyond simply testing the RRT model, a further goal of Study 3 was to fully integrate interpersonal style constructs from Interpersonal Theory into the RRT model by examining the extent to which both interpersonal style and enjoyment of social interaction content are associated

with favorable affect and perceptions of being supported. Consistent with Interpersonal Theory and RRT, I expected that interpersonal style, specifically perceptions of the other's warmth, would be linked to affect and perceptions of being supported, even when controlling for preference for conversation and shared activity content. Also in line with RRT, I predicted that the interaction interpersonal warmth and content preference would be linked to affect and perceived support.

Finally, beyond testing the hypothesized normative mechanisms between social interaction and affect in RRT and Interpersonal Theory, I tested more specific hypotheses from the theories regarding situations in which individuals seek support from others. In Study 3, I attempted to replicate the associations between interpersonal style and enacted social support in contemporaneous affect and perceived social support found in Study 2. Further, I integrated preference for ordinary conversation topics and activities with interpersonal style and enacted support to test the hypothesis from RRT that both interpersonal style and engaging with preferred conversation topics and activities will be important in regulating affect when an individual is under stress. RRT explicitly predicts that it is these ordinary social interactions and related affect regulation, not enacted support, that elicits perceptions of being supported.

4.1 Method

4.1.1 Participants. This undergraduate sample ($n = 206$) was about half male (56.8%) and mostly White (69.76%; Asian = 21.5%; Black = 7.3%; Other = 1.5%). The mean age of the sample was 18.93 ($SD = 2.15$).

4.1.2 Procedure. The data collection procedures were identical to those used for the subsample analyzed in Study 1.

4.1.3 Measures. Measures for affect, perceived social support, and enacted social support were identical to those used in the previous studies.

For Study 3, I developed more items to measure interpersonal warmth and dominance. Instead of having a single dominance item with three labels at the poles (i.e., "Assertive/Dominant/Controlling") I deployed three items, one for each label. The poles of the items for dominance read "Dominant-Submissive; Controlling-Accommodating; Assertive-Timid." The poles of the items for warmth read "Warm-Cold; Friendly-Hostile; Caring-Distant." While this six-item strategy increased participant burden, it allowed for better reliability of the interpersonal style constructs.

Conversation content enjoyment was measured using three items derived from the Ordinary Conversation Scale (Lakey et al., 2016). The item wording was altered to reflect the context of the social interaction. Items reflect participant affect related to the content of the conversation rather than the interaction partner or interaction as a whole. Participants were instructed to "Respond to the following statements with regard to only what you talked about with the other person." Items were responded to on a -50 to 50 sliding bar scale, with the poles labeled "Strongly disagree" and "Strongly agree." The items, with altered wording, read: "He/she and I had interesting things to talk about; It was difficult to find something both he/she and I wanted to talk about; I found myself wanting to change the subject of the conversation."

Shared activity enjoyment was measured using two items derived from the Shared Activity Scale (Woods et al., 2016). As with the conversation measure, item wording was altered to reflect the context of the social interaction. Participants were instructed to respond to the statements thinking only about the activity they did with their interaction partner. These items featured the same scaling, response format, and anchors as the Ordinary Conversation Scale. Adapted items read: "We did something that I wanted to do; We had trouble finding something we both were interested in." Affect regulation through ordinary conversation content and shared activity are

hypothesized to operate as a single mechanism (Lakey & Orehek, 2011), and are highly correlated (Woods et al., 2016). Consequently, I combined the Ordinary Conversation and Shared Activity Scale items to estimate a single content preference factor.

4.2 Results and Discussion

    4.2.1 Replications. Nearly all of the patterns of effects found in Study 1 and 2 between the interpersonal style variables of other's warmth (Model 1c, Table 1; Model 3c, Table 3) and dominance (Model 2c, Table 2; Model 3c, Table 3) were replicated in Study 3. Model 4c, which examined the association between complementarity and affect differed from the previous two studies. Unlike the previous iterations, there were no significant direct or indirect links between complementarity and positive affect in Study 3. There was, however, a direct effect of negative affect on feeling less supported as in Study 1, but not Study 2.

    As in Study 2, interpersonal style, enacted social support, and their interaction were tested for associations with affect and perceived support (Table 6). As in Study 2, the general patterns of interpersonal style main effects were not impacted by including enacted social support or interaction effects in the model interaction effect. Further, the interaction effects were once again generally non-significant. However, across the three interpersonal style predictors (Models 5b-7b), the associations between enacted support, affect, and perceived support were not consistent with those found in the predecessor models in Study 2 (Models 5-7). However, the direct of effect of receiving enacted support being associated with greater negative affect was replicated across all six models (Models 5-7, Models 5b-7b), and the direct effect of receiving support on perceptions of being supported in five of the six models (Models 6-7, Models 5b-7b).

    4.2.2 The RRT Model (Model 8). Toward the primary aims of Study 3, I tested the full RRT model by estimating associations between preferences for conversation content and shared

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activity to affect and perceived support (Figure 10). This model featured preference for social interaction content as a predictor of negative affect, positive affect, and perceived support.

In line with predictions, when individuals reported better conversation quality and better shared activity enjoyment, they also reported better affect and more feelings of being supported (Table 7). In addition, the association between interaction content enjoyment and perceived support was explained in part by the association between positive affect and perceived social support. Consequently, this model provided evidence for the core model of RRT: engagement in social interactions featuring preferred conversation topics or share preferred activities, helps regulate affect and elicits feelings of being supported. Further, the direct paths from positive and negative affect to perceived support and the indirect path from interaction content enjoyment to perceived support through positive affect reinforce the RRT principle that perceived support is derived from affect regulation. However, it should be noted that support for the hypothesis of positive affect regulation impacting perceptions of being supported is much stronger than for the regulation of negative affect, which had a weak direct effect of on perceived support and no indirect effect from interaction content preference through negative affect.

4.2.3 Integrating RRT and Interpersonal Theory (Models 9-11). In the next set of analyses, the interpersonal constructs of warmth (Model 9), dominance (Model 10), and complementarity (Model 11) from Interpersonal Theory, were integrated with social interaction content preference from RRT to examine the extent to which the mechanisms described by RRT and Interpersonal Theory increment each other, or, alternatively, represent overlapping processes. Figure 11 uses Model 9 as an exemplar with perception of the other's warmth as the interpersonal style variable.

When interaction content preference was modeled alongside warmth and dominance,

higher enjoyment of social interaction content was associated with better affect and greater feelings of being supported (Table 8). Interaction content preference and warmth and dominance tended to retain the same pattern of associations with affect and perceived support in Models 9 and 10 as they did when modeled alone (Models 8, 1c, and 2c, respectively). Further, there were no significant interaction effects for the warmth and dominance models, suggesting that other's warmth and dominance share little overlapping variance with interaction content preferences in affect regulation and perceived support. Importantly, the proportion of variance explained in affect and perceived support was strongly boosted by the inclusion of both interpersonal style and interaction content enjoyment in the model above each predictor alone, suggesting that measuring these two processes together increment each other (Table 9).

When warmth and dominance for self and other were combined into a complementarity score, there was a significant interaction of complementarity and interaction content preference on affect and perceived support, such that better complementarity and preference for content augmented each other and were associated with more positive affect when complementarity is low and preference for interaction content is high (Figure 12). In addition, there was also a significant interaction in the association with perceived support such that, at low levels of complementarity, individuals tended to report feeling less supported when there was greater interest in interaction content (Figure 13). Of note, the main effect of interaction content preference on perceived support reduced to non-significance in Model 11, yet the standardized association of the interaction effect with perceived support approximates the strength of the main effect of found in Models 9 and 10. This suggests that when looking at only the perceptions of the other's interpersonal style, interaction content preference and interpersonal style appear to be separate processes of affect regulation, but may be interrelated when the rater's interpersonal style is included in the model.

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This is a preliminary finding, however, and in need of further study. As with warmth and dominance, including both interpersonal style and interaction content enjoyment strongly increased the proportion of variance explained in affect and perceived support, supporting the hypothesis that these are separate processes that increment each other when measured together (Table 9).

4.2.4 Ordinary Social Interaction and Enacted Social Support (Model 12). Having found empirical support for RRT's model of affect regulation in Models 8-11, I tested the further hypothesis that perceived social support is generated through this affect regulation process rather than inferred from social support that has actually been received, as stated by Stress and Coping Social Support Theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Curtrona & Russell, 1990). This model featured reported preference for the conversation and activity from RRT, enacted support received, and their interaction. This model has the same structure and parameters of interest as Models 5-7 (Figure 8), with preference for social interaction content from RRT replacing the interpersonal style constructs from Interpersonal Theory.

As detailed in Table 10, when the effects of enacted social support were held constant, preference for ordinary conversation topics and shared activity were associated with more favorable affect and greater feelings of being supported. Preference for the content of the social interaction was further linked to perceived support through perceived support's association with positive affect. These findings are in line with the hypothesis from RRT that individuals use ordinary, everyday conversation and activity to regulate their affect, and derive perceptions of being supported from this regulation. Further, while enacted support was associated with greater perceptions of being supported, it was once again associated with greater negative affect. There were no interaction effects, suggesting talking everyday enjoyed topics about or enjoying shared

activities is a separate mechanism for eliciting perceived support from actually receiving support.

4.2.5 The RRT Model, Interpersonal Style, and Enacted Support (Models 13-15).
Finally, I tested the hypothesis that both the affect regulation process described by RRT and interpersonal style from Interpersonal Theory are both distinct from enacted social support. Both RRT and Interpersonal Theory predict that interpersonal style should also be instrumental in regulating affect in times of stress. However, the two theories differ in that Collin's et al's (2010) interpretation of Interpersonal Theory and stress regulation includes an important role of receiving social support in eliciting perceived support, whereas RRT does not. Figure 14 provides an illustration of the model structure shared by Models 13-15 with warmth as the exemplar predictor. I did not include interaction terms because interactions with receiving enacted support in previous models were non-significant in the majority of cases; thus, parsimony was preferred to inconsistent interaction effects.

Models 13-15 generally show a pattern of replicating prior models where interpersonal style and interaction content preference were modeled with enacted support separately (Table 11). Recall that in those models, the patterns of associations of the predictors with affect and perceived support were unchanged when enacted support was added into the model. Thus, it appears that even in situations when individuals are receiving support, interpersonal style and ordinary, everyday conversations appear to be separate mechanisms for affect regulation and generating perceptions of being supported. As in prior models, interpersonal warmth is a much stronger predictor of better affect and feeling supported than dominance and complementarity.

5.0 General Discussion

RRT (Lakey & Orehek, 2011) and Interpersonal Theory (Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957; Pincus & Ansell, 2013) both seek to describe the relationship between social interaction and affect. RRT views ordinary, everyday social interaction as a tool for affect regulation and thereby confers downstream mental health benefits, whereas Interpersonal Theory describes all social interactions as potentially impactful on (but less intentionally linked to) affect through the willingness and ability of interaction partners to take up interpersonal styles that satisfy each other's interpersonal needs. While the overall intention and proposed mechanisms relating social interactions to affect generally differ between the theories, the two do share common elements that make their integration potentially fruitful for further understanding the importance of social interaction in affect regulation and mental health. These two similarities are 1) shared interest in the relationship between interpersonal style and affect and 2) implication of interpersonal style as particularly important when individuals are seeking support provision from others. The current paper is the first attempt to systematically study interpersonal style within the RRT framework by incorporating Interpersonal Theory's long-established conceptualization of the construct. It is also the first work I am aware of that compares the affect regulation method proposed by RRT with the influence of interpersonal style on affect from Interpersonal Theory. Finally, the current paper is the first I am aware of that comprehensively tests the affect regulation-when-under-stress hypotheses from both Interpersonal Theory and RRT.

5.1 Integration of Interpersonal Style

One of the primary aims of the current paper was to integrate a mode of measuring interpersonal style into RRT research because of the theory's hypothesis regarding the importance of style in affect regulation via everyday social interaction, particularly during times of stress. In

choosing interpersonal style as operationalized by Interpersonal Theory, I adopted a well-studied framework for understanding how perceptions of the other's behavior, as well as the interchange between self and other, influence affect. The current paper replicated previous findings and expanded upon our current understanding of the relationship between interpersonal style and affect. First, perceptions of other's warmth were particularly strong and consistent in its ties to favorable affect, even when controlling for dominance. Second, dominance was consistently linked to worse affect; this pattern extended to models where other's warmth was held constant. In line with prior work, better interpersonal complementarity was associated with better affect (e.g., Sadler & Woody, 2003). Although there is not a clear and present theoretical explanation for why other's warmth is much more strongly tied to affect than other's dominance, it is possible that warmth as a fundamentally communal and associative construct is more typically a part of individuals' interpersonal needs, and thus the amount of warmth the other is willing to provide is more critical than the amount of dominance in the average situation.

Both RRT and Interpersonal Theory shared the hypothesis that the interpersonal style of a support provider would be important in the effectiveness of that support in regulating affect. This hypothesis was supported to some extent in that the main effects of interpersonal style, particularly for warmth, were significant, even when holding constant the effects of the support received by interaction partners. However, there were inconsistent and weak interaction effects, suggesting that interpersonal style does not augment the effects of the support received, contrary to both theories. The same pattern held for the interaction content preference construct from RRT, further suggesting that the RRT hypothesis regarding the greater importance of interpersonal style when an individual is under stress may not be correct.

5.2 Interpersonal Theory and Stress Regulation

What is clear across Studies 2 and 3 is that actually receiving support, either through talking about stress and how to cope with it or instrumental support of some kind, is not associated with better affect in the moment. This could be because the ratings of affect and receiving support were contemporaneous, and consequently individuals would not have sought support unless they were simultaneously experiencing distress. Stress and Coping Social Support Theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Curtrona & Russell, 1990) and its Interpersonal Theory adaptation (e.g., Collins et al., 2011) do not make explicit predictions about the time course of affect regulation; however, the current paper's findings argue against immediate relief of stress. Yet, it could be the case that affect regulation effects could be detected within a few minutes of the social interaction ending. Future studies should use micro-burst survey techniques to study the trajectory of the hypothesized affect regulation effects of received social support.

5.3 Implications for Relational Regulation Theory

The results of Study 3 broadly support the model of affect regulation hypothesized by RRT. I found that participation in conversation about preferred topics or in enjoyed activities directly predicted favorable affect and feelings of being supported. Further, there were consistent significant indirect associations through enjoyment of interaction content and perceived support through positive affect along with direct associations between social interactions that elicited positive affect and feeling supported. These findings support the contention that individuals derive their perceptions of being supported through affect regulation, and that affect regulation occurs through ordinary, everyday social interaction. At the same time, this was true for positive affect, but not negative affect. At this time RRT does not distinguish between positive in negative affect when discussing affect regulation; however, to the extent that social engagement through

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conversation or activity reflects a process similar to behavioral activation, it is conceptually fitting that primary benefit would be derived through positive affect (Lewinsohn, 1974).

The findings across all three studies, particularly Study 3, clearly support the integration of the conceptual framework of interpersonal style from Interpersonal Theory into RRT. Across all three studies, perceptions of the other's warmth were particularly strongly tied to favorable affect and feeling supported. Further, warmth mirrored the hypothesized indirect pathway from ordinary social interaction through positive affect regulation to feelings of being supported. Interestingly, interpersonal complementarity was the only operationalization of interpersonal style that showed any interaction effects with interaction content enjoyment. The interaction could be a result of complementarity being the only operationalization of interpersonal style in which ratings of self-warmth and dominance were both provided. This explanation would imply that at least a portion of the warmth and dominance emitted by the self is related to engagement in the kind of pleasant ordinary, everyday social interaction that RRT hypothesizes is responsible for affect regulation. Future studies should build upon the foundation of the current paper and explore differences in how self- and other-interpersonal style are similarly or differentially related to processes hypothesized by RRT.

In addition, it is important to note that Study 3 makes two important methodological contributions to the empirical literature testing RRT. Although previous studies have identified strong within-person associations between conversation content (Lakey et al., 2016) and shared activities (Woods et al., 2016) with favorable affect and perceived social support, these studies have primarily used in-lab questionnaires. This is the first study I am aware of that relied on in vivo, in situ data to test core components of RRT. This improves both on the ecologically validity of RRT research and also allows for a more comprehensive examination of individuals' ordinary,

everyday social interactions. Second, all previous studies have relied on analytic techniques associated with either the Social Relations Model (Kenny, 1994; Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) or Generalizability Theory (Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda, & Rajaratnam, 1972). The current study's use of MSEM improves upon these methods by allowing for the simultaneous estimation of within- and between-person effects, rather than their complete, incommensurate separation. Although I did not examine between-person influences or cross-level effects, this may be useful in future studies of stable interpersonal style traits that influence different portions of the RRT model. In addition, MSEM allows all within-person regression paths to be treated as random effects, meaning an estimation is made for each participant. The reported values are average of these individualized estimates, weighted for the number of observations each participant contributed to the overall estimation. In contrast, the previously used methods weight all participants' data equally when generating estimates.

5.4 Implications for Interpersonal Theory

The current paper also has a number of implications for Interpersonal Theory. First, the literature includes little discussion of the quotidian social interactions that RRT is focused on explaining. Further, within the framework of interpersonal goals that includes inputs from the momentary (e.g., present needs) to the macro (e.g., attachment styles), it may be difficult to explain the universality and ubiquity of these interactions. RRT offers a simple yet empirically supported answer: humans use these interactions for affect regulation. Within the framework of interpersonal needs, it could be the case that individuals may vary in the extent to which affect regulation as defined by RRT is a communal or agentic need. Indeed, it could well be the case that whether affect regulation is an agentic or communal need varies within persons, as is theorized to be the case for acute stressors (Horowitz et al., 2001). Nonetheless, the current studies offer preliminary

evidence that the content of ordinary everyday social interactions plays a role in the affect elicited by the interaction alongside the core concepts of the interpersonal dimensions and complementarity from Interpersonal Theory. Future work into ordinary, everyday interactions from the framework of Interpersonal Theory with the added process of affect regulation described by RRT appears to be warranted.

Another important set of findings for future Interpersonal Theory research is the lack of evidence supporting the hypothesized augmentation of interpersonal style's effect on affect when individuals are receiving support (e.g., Collins et al., 2011). Results demonstrated consistent support for warm and complementary interpersonal styles as important sources of affect regulation, but no interaction effects with received social support. This supports the secondary stress regulation mechanism proposed by Interpersonal Theory that interpersonal style is important when an individual is seeking support.

5.5 Limitations

The current paper had a number of limitations. First, all of the included samples featured predominantly White undergraduates. It is possible that any of the dynamic processes I reported in the current paper are unique to this population. More diverse samples are needed prior to generalizing these findings. Second, although I was testing a theory about affect regulation, I did not test affect regulation per se. This would necessitate having ratings of affect prior to interactions occurring. Despite this, my use of MSEM approximates an operationalization of affect regulation, because the within-person level effects I report represent deviations away from individuals' person-specific averages (i.e., between-person individual differences). Thus, although I did not, strictly speaking, measure affect regulation, my models did reflect shifts in affect around the set point. Future investigations with thinner time slices could use analytic techniques such as dynamic

structural equation modeling to more formally test the affect regulation piece of RRT. Third, RRT hypothesizes that perceived support is derived to some extent by affect regulation, which is a causal hypothesis. The data reported on in the current paper were not granular enough to make causal claims; each report by a participant reflected contemporaneous ratings of interpersonal style, affect, and perceived support. Future studies may wish to rely on different methods that can get closer to the moment-by-moment data collection needed to test this hypothesis from RRT.

5.6 Conclusion

RRT and Interpersonal Theory both seek to describe the relationship between social interactions and affect by way of distinct mechanisms. Affect and affect regulation play an important role in mental health (e.g., Trull et al., 2008), and social interactions are a ubiquitous part of the human experience. Therefore, it is important that these as-of-yet disparate bodies of work be combined to provide a more comprehensive picture of how social behavior can impact downstream mental health. The current paper was the first to comprehensively test the affect regulation mechanism proposed by RRT alongside the affect shifting mechanism proposed by Interpersonal Theory in both everyday social interactions and interactions involving coping with a stressor. Results suggest that both ordinary, everyday social interactions promoted by RRT and interpersonal style, particularly warmth of the interaction partner, are important in maintaining favorable affect and perceptions of being supported. Further, these processes strongly increment the prediction of momentary affect when modeled together. Although future work will be needed to determine the magnitude of these processes on maintaining good mental health, the current paper suggests that the positive effects of talking about or enjoying a shared activity should be studied alongside the interpersonal style of interaction partners.

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7.0 Appendix A: Tables & Figures

Table 1. Associations between perceptions of other's warmth with affect and perceptions of being supported

Study 1 (Model 1)	B	95% C.I.	β
Warmth			
→ PA	.49***	(-.10 – .53)	**.46**
→ NA	-.33***	(-.37 – -.30)	**-.41**
→ PSS	.30***	(.25 – .35)	**.26**
→ PA → PSS	.13***	(.11 – .16)	**.17**
→ NA → PSS	.02	(.00 – .04)	.03
PA → PSS	.25***	(.20 – .29)	**.23**
NA → PSS	-.06	(-.10 – .00)	-.03
Study 2 (Model 1b)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Warmth			
→ PA	.49***	(.45 – .51)	**.46**
→ NA	-.24***	(-.28 – -.22)	**-.31**
→ PSS	.43***	(.39 – .48)	**.35**
→ PA → PSS	.16***	(.13 – .19)	**.10**
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.02 – .01)	-.01
PA → PSS	.32***	(.28 – .36)	**.27**
NA → PSS	.03	(-.01 – .07)	.03
Study 3 (Model 1c)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Warmth			
→ PA	.53***	(.47 – .58)	**.45**
→ NA	-.31***	(-.35 – -.25)	**-.33**
→ PSS	.49***	(-.35 – .25)	**.36**
→ PA → PSS	.10***	(.07 – .13)	**.11**
→ NA → PSS	.03	(-.00 – .05)	.02
PA → PSS	.21***	(.15 – .26)	**.18**
NA → PSS	-.07*	(-.14 – -.01)	-.05

Note: PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 2. Associations between perceptions of other's dominance with affect and perceptions of being supported

Study 1 (Model 2)	B	95% C.I.	β
Dominance			
→ PA	-.14***	(-.19 – -.11)	**-.13**
→ NA	.17***	(.13 – .20)	**.21**
→ PSS	-.02	(-.07 – .02)	-.02
→ PA → PSS	-.05***	(-.07 – -.03)	**-.05**
→ NA → PSS	-.04***	(-.06 – -.02)	**-.02**
PA → PSS	.34***	(.31 – .38)	**.32**
NA → PSS	-.14***	(-.20 – -.08)	**-.09**
Study 2 (Model 2b)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Dominance			
→ PA	-.10***	(-.13 – -.06)	**-.09**
→ NA	.14***	(.11 – .17)	**.17**
→ PSS	-.01	(-.04 – .02)	-.01
→ PA → PSS	-.06***	(-.08 – -.04)	**-.05**
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.03 – .00)	-.01
PA → PSS	.48***	(.44 – .53)	**.40**
NA → PSS	-.05***	(-.11 – -.01)	**-.03**
Study 3 (Model 2c)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Dominance			
→ PA	-.19***	(-.26 – -.13)	**-.14**
→ NA	.22***	(.16 – .28)	**.21**
→ PSS	-.06	(-.13 – .01)	-.04
→ PA → PSS	-.07**	(-.10 – -.03)	**-.04**
→ NA → PSS	-.03*	(-.07 – -.01)	-.03
PA → PSS	.36***	(.31 – .42)	**.32**
NA → PSS	-.16***	(-.23 – -.09)	**-.10**

Note: PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 3. Associations between perceptions of other warmth and dominance with affect and perceptions of being supported

Study 1 (Model 3)	Warmth			Dominance		
Predictor	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.48***	(.44 – .52)	**.44**	-.02	(-.06 – .01)	-.02
→ NA	-.30***	(-.33 – -.26)	**-.35**	.08***	(.05 – .11)	**.10**
→ PSS	.30***	(.25 – .35)	**.25**	.01	(-.04 – .06)	.01
→ PA → PSS	.14***	(.11 – .17)	**.13**	-.01	(-.03 – .01)	-.01
→ NA → PSS	.01	(-.01 – .04)	.01	-.02	(-.04 – -.00)	-.01

	B	95% C.I.	β
PA → PSS	.27***	(.22 – .31)	**.24**
NA → PSS	-.04	(-.11 – .03)	-.03

Study 2 (Model 3b)	Warmth			Dominance		
Predictor	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.47***	(.44 – .50)	**.45**	-.03*	(-.06 – -.01)	.03
→ NA	-.23***	(-.26 – -.20)	**-.29**	.09***	(.06 – .11)	**.11**
→ PSS	.43***	(.39 – .47)	**.35**	.03	(-.00 – .07)	.03
→ PA → PSS	.15***	(.12 – .18)	**.11**	-.03***	(-.04 – -.01)	**-.02**
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.03 – .01)	-.01	.00	(-.01 – .02)	.00

	B	95% C.I.	β
PA → PSS	.32***	(.28 – .36)	**.27**
NA → PSS	.05	(-.01 – .10)	.03

Study 3 (Model 3c)	Warmth			Dominance		
Predictor	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.51***	(.45 – .57)	**.44**	-.07*	(-.13 – -.01)	-.04
→ NA	-.29***	(-.34 – -.25)	**-.31**	.14***	(.09 – .19)	**.13**
→ PSS	.49***	(.41 – .57)	**.36**	-.01	(-.07 – .06)	-.01
→ PA → PSS	.10***	(.06 – .13)	**.14**	-.02	(-.04 – .01)	-.02
→ NA → PSS	.02	(-.01 – .03)	.01	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.00

	B	95% C.I.	β
PA → PSS	.20***	(.15 – .25)	**.18**
NA → PSS	-.06	(-.13 – -.00)	-.05

Note: Values reflect Bayesian estimates. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 4. Associations between interpersonal complementarity with affect and perceptions of being supported

Study 1 (Model 4)	B	95% C.I.	β
Complementarity			
→ PA	.10***	(.05 – .13)	**.09**
→ NA	-.11***	(-.14 – -.07)	**-.14**
→ PSS	.02	(-.02 – .05)	.02
→ PA → PSS	.04***	(.02 – .06)	**.04**
→ NA → PSS	.02	(.00 – .03)	.01
PA → PSS	.35***	(.31 – .40)	**.32**
NA → PSS	-.14***	(-.20 – .07)	**-.09**
Study 2 (Model 4b)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Complementarity			
→ PA	.16***	(.12 – .20)	**.15**
→ NA	-.10***	(-.13 – -.07)	**-.13**
→ PSS	.02	(.00 – .05)	.02
→ PA → PSS	.07***	(.05 – .10)	**.07**
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.02 – .00)	-.01
PA → PSS	.49***	(.44 – .54)	**.40**
NA → PSS	-.04	(-.10 – -.00)	-.03
Study 3 (Model 4c)	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
Complementarity			
→ PA	.08	(.00 – .15)	.06
→ NA	-.11***	(-.17 – -.04)	**-.10**
→ PSS	.06	(.00 – .12)	.04
→ PA → PSS	.02	(-.02 – .06)	.03
→ NA → PSS	-.02	(-.05 – .02)	-.01
PA → PSS	.38***	(.32 – .44)	**.33**
NA → PSS	-.16***	(-.24 – -.09)	**-.11**

Note: *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 5. Moderations of the associations between interpersonal warmth, dominance, and complementarity with affect and perceptions of being supported by enacted social support in Study 2

	Warmth (Model 5)			Dominance (Model 6)			Complementarity (Model 7)		
Interpersonal Predictor	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**	**B**	**95% C.I.**	**β**
→ PA	.48***	(.43 – .53)	**.46**	-.08**	(-.15 – -.02)	**-.07**	.22***	(.15 – .29)	**.20**
→ NA	-.20***	(-.24 – -.16)	**-.26**	.09***	(.04 – .13)	**.11**	-.12***	(-.17 – -.07)	**-.15**
→ PSS	.39***	(.32 – .46)	**.31**	.06	(-.02 – .13)	.04	.05	(-.02 – .11)	.03
→ PA → PSS	.14***	(.11 – .17)	**.16**	-.04*	(-.08 – -.01)	**-.06**	.12***	(.08 – .16)	**.17**
→ NA → PSS	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.00	-.01	(-.03 – .01)	-.01	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.01
Enacted Social Support									
→ PA	-.03	(-.07 – .02)	-.03	-.02	(-.06 – .02)	-.02	-.02	(-.07 – .03)	-.02
→ NA	.25***	(.20 – .29)	**.38**	.20***	(.17 – .23)	**.26**	.18***	(.14 – .23)	**.26**
→ PSS	.06	(-.00 – .12)	.05	.12***	(.08 – .15)	**.11**	.11***	(.06 – .15)	**.11**
→ PA → PSS	-.01	(-.03 – .02)	-.01	.00	(-.02 – .03)	.00	-.00	(-.03 – .02)	-.00
→ NA → PSS	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.01	-.02	(-.04 – .00)	-.01	-.03***	(-.05 – -.02)	**-.02**
Interpersonal Predictor x ESS									
→ PA	-.00	(-.02 – .01)	-.02	-.00	(-.00 – .00)	-.03	-.01	(-.02 – .01)	-.02
→ NA	-.02**	(-.03 – -.01)	**-.13**	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.02	-.01	(-.02 – .01)	-.04
→ PSS	.00	(-.01 – .02)	.03	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.08	-.00	(-.02 – .01)	-.00
→ PA → PSS	.00	(-.00 – .01)	.00	-.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	-.00	(-.01 – .01)	-.00
→ NA → PSS	.00	(-.01 – .00)	.00	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00
PA → PSS	.32***	(.27 – .36)	**.26**	.46***	(.42 – .51)	**.39**	.47***	(.42 – .51)	**.39**
NA → PSS	.01	(-.06 – .07)	.01	-.08*	(-.15 – -.01)	-.05	-.10***	(-.17 – -.04)	**-.06**

Note: *p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support; ESS = Enacted social support.

Table 6. Moderations of the associations between interpersonal warmth, dominance, and complementarity with affect and perceptions of being supported by enacted social support in Study 3

Interpersonal Predictor	Warmth (Model 5b)			Dominance (Model 6b)			Complementarity (Model 7b)		
	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.54***	(.46 – .61)	**.42**	-.27***	(-.36 – -.18)	**-.18**	.10	(-.01 – .19)	.06
→ NA	-.36***	(-.43 – .30)	**-.35**	.29***	(.21 – .35)	**.23**	-.10*	(-.19 – -.02)	-.08
→ PSS	.47***	(.38 – .57)	**.32**	-.05	(-.13 – .04)	-.03	.03	(-.06 – .12)	.02
→ PA → PSS	.11***	(.07 – .15)	**.14**	-.11***	(-.16 – -.06))	**-.16**	.03	(-.04 – .14)	.05
→ NA → PSS	.03	(-.02 – .08)	.02	-.05*	(-.09 – .00)	-.05	-.02	(-.07 – .03)	-.02
Enacted Social Support									
→ PA	-.03	(-.10 – .06)	-.03	-.07**	(-.13 – -.02)	**-.08**	-.00	(-.07 – .06)	-.00
→ NA	.20***	(.14 – .26)	**.28**	.15***	(-.12 – -.02)	**.20**	.10***	(.05 – .15)	**.13**
→ PSS	.13**	(.04 – .22)	**.13**	.09**	(.04 – .13)	**.08**	.10**	(.04 – .17)	**.09**
→ PA → PSS	-.01	(-.04 – .02)	-.01	-.01	(-.03 – .02)	-.01	.00	(-.04 – .04)	.00
→ NA → PSS	-.02	(-.05 – .01)	-.02	-.02	(-.05 – .00)	-.01	-.02	(-.03 – .01)	-.01
Interpersonal Predictor x ESS									
→ PA	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.05	.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.02	.00	(-.00 – .01)	.08
→ NA	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.15	.00	(.00 – .01)	.07	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.06
→ PSS	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.09	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.00	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.04
→ PA → PSS	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(.00 – .00)	.00
→ NA → PSS	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(.00 – .00)	.00
PA → PSS	.19***	(.14 – .25)	**.17**	.37***	(.31 – .44)	**.33**	.37***	(.31 – .43)	**.32**
NA → PSS	-.09*	(-.16 – -.01)	-.07	-.18***	(-.27 – -.10)	**-.13**	-.20***	(-.27 – .11)	**-.14**

Note: *p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support; ESS = Enacted social support.

Table 7. Associations of interaction content preference with affect and perceptions of being supported (Model 8)

Interaction content preference	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.48***	(.40 – .53)	**.40**
→ NA	-.37***	(-.42 – -.32)	**-.37**
→ PSS	.41***	(.34 – .47)	**.31**
→ PA → PSS	.13***	(.09 – .17)	**.15**
→ NA → PSS	.01	(-.01 – .04)	.01
PA → PSS	.25***	(.20 – .31)	**.22**
NA → PSS	-.08*	(-.14 – -.01)	**-.05**

Note: *p < .05; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 8. Integration of interaction content preference from Relational Regulation Theory and the interpersonal style constructs from Interpersonal Theory in the prediction of affect and perceived social support

Interaction Content Preference	Warmth (Model 9)			Dominance (Model 10)			Complementarity (Model 11)		
	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.24***	(.15 – .33)	**.20**	.42***	(.35 – .49)	**.34**	.15***	(.05 – .24)	**.12**
→ NA	-.25***	(-.34 – -.18)	**-.24**	-.32***	(-.38 – -.27)	**-.31**	-.23***	(-.31 – -.15)	**-.21**
→ PSS	.25***	(.12 – .38)	**.18**	.41***	(.33 – .48)	**.29**	.11	(-.01 – .22)	.08
→ PA → PSS	.03	(-.01 – .07)	.05	.10***	(.07 – .16)	**.12**	.03	(-.01 – .07)	.05
→ NA → PSS	.01	(-.03 – .04)	.01	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.01	.02	(-.02 – .06)	.02
Interpersonal Constructs									
→ PA	.37***	(.31 – .44)	**.31**	-.13**	(-.21 – -.04)	**-.10**	.01	(-.05 – .07)	.00
→ NA	-.24***	(-.31 – -.16)	**-.23**	.18***	(.09 – .27)	**.15**	-.09**	(-.15 – -.04)	**-.08**
→ PSS	.39***	(.29 – .49)	**.28**	-.08	(-.21 – .03)	-.04	-.00	(-.07 – .06)	-.00
→ PA → PSS	.06***	(.02 – .09)	**.06**	-.02	(-.08 – .04)	-.02	-.01	(-.04 – .02)	-.01
→ NA → PSS	.03	(-.00 – .06)	.03	.01	(-.03 – .08)	.02	.00	(-.03 – .02)	.00
RRT x Interpersonal Constructs									
→ PA	.00	(-.00 – .01)	.01	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.02	.01***	(.01 – .01)	**.29**
→ NA	.00	(-.01 – .00)	.04	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.03	-.01	(-.01 – -.00)	-.13
→ PSS	.00	(-.01 – .01)	.01	.00	(-.01 – .00)	.00	.01***	(.01 – .01)	**.25**
→ PA → PSS	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	-.00	(.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(.00 – .00)	.00
→ NA → PSS	-.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00	-.00	(.00 – .00)	.00	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00
PA → PSS	.15***	(.09 – .20)	**.12**	.25***	(.18 – .31)	**.21**	.19***	(.14 – .26)	**.17**
NA → PSS	-.03	(-.09 – .04)	-.03	-.06	(-.13 – .01)	-.04	-.07*	(-.14 – -.01)	-.06

Note: *p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support; RRT = interaction content preference.

Table 9. Proportion of variance explained in affect and perceived social support by interpersonal style and interaction content preference alone versus simultaneous prediction

Predictor	R^2 of outcome by predictor alone (Models 1c, 2c, 4c, 8)			R^2 of outcome by RRT + Interpersonal Style (Models 9-11)		
	Positive affect	Negative affect	Perceived social support	Positive affect	Negative affect	Perceived social support
Warmth	.25	.18	.36	.42	.39	.52
Dominance	.09	.11	.28	.38	.38	.47
Complementarity	.08	.10	.26	.39	.36	.48
Interaction content preference	.23	.22	.32	–	–	–

Note: R^2 values reflect only within-person level of outcome variables

Table 10. Associations of interaction content preference and enacted social support with affect and perceptions of being supported

Interaction Content Preference	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.47***	(.39 – .55)	**.36**
→ NA	-.41***	(-.48 – -.35)	**-.37**
→ PSS	.38***	(.29 – .47)	**.26**
→ PA → PSS	.13***	(.09 – .18)	**.18**
→ NA → PSS	.03	(-.01 – .07)	.03
Enacted Social Support			
→ PA	.03	(-.04 – .10)	.03
→ NA	.17***	(.12 – .22)	**.22**
→ PSS	.17***	(.10 – .23)	**.16**
→ PA → PSS	.02	(-.01 – .06)	.02
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.04 – .02)	-.01
Interaction Content Preference x Enacted Social Support			
→ PA	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.11
→ NA	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.11
→ PSS	-.00	(-.01 – -.00)	-.11
→ PA → PSS	-.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00
→ NA → PSS	.00	(-.00 – .00)	.00
PA → PSS	.25***	(.19 – .31)	**.22**
NA → PSS	-.12***	(-.20 – -.04)	**-.08**

Note: *p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support.

Table 11. Incremental prediction of affect and perceptions of being supported when receiving enacted support by interpersonal warmth, dominance, and complementarity and ordinary conversation and shared activity enjoyment

Interpersonal Predictor	Warmth (Model 13)			Dominance (Model 14)			Complementarity (Model 15)		
	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β	B	95% C.I.	β
→ PA	.39***	(.34 – .45)	**.34**	-.07**	(-.12 – -.03)	**-.06**	-.00	(-.07 – .06)	-.01
→ NA	-.22***	(-.27 – -.17)	**-.24**	.13***	(.08 – .18)	**.12**	-.08**	(-.13 – -.03)	**-.07**
→ PSS	.39***	(.30 – .47)	**.29**	-.03	(-.10 – .03)	-.02	.03	(-.04 – .10)	.02
→ PA → PSS	.06***	(.03 – .09)	**.06**	-.02	(-.04 – .01)	-.01	-.00	(-.04 – .03)	-.00
→ NA → PSS	.03	(.00 – .05)	.02	-.00	(-.03 – .02)	-.00	-.00	(-.02 – .02)	-.00
Interaction Content Preference									
→ PA	.29***	(.23 – .36)	**.25**	.53***	(.47 – .60)	**.44**	.53***	(.47 – .60)	**.45**
→ NA	-.24***	(-.29 – -.19)	**-.24**	-.34***	(-.40 – -.29)	**-.34**	-.35***	(-.41 – -.29)	**-.35**
→ PSS	.29***	(.22 – .37)	**.23**	.46***	(.39 – .53)	**.34**	.46***	(.38 – .53)	**.34**
→ PA → PSS	.04**	(.01 – .07)	**.04**	.13****	(.10 – .20)	**.15**	.14***	(.09 – .19)	**.14**
→ NA → PSS	-.00	(-.03 – .02)	-.00	.01	(-.02 – .03)	.00	.01	(-.02 – .04)	.01
Enacted Social Support									
→ PA	-.04	(-.08 – .00)	-.04	-.03	(-.07 – .00)	-.04	-.03	(-.07 – .00)	-.04
→ NA	.12***	(.09 – .14)	**.18**	.12***	(.09 – .15)	**.17**	.11***	(.09 – .14)	**.17**
→ PSS	.08***	(.05 – .11)	**.12**	.09***	(.06 – .13)	**.10**	.10***	(.07 – .13)	**.11**
→ PA → PSS	.01	(-.01 – .02)	.00	.01	(-.01 – .02)	.00	.01	(-.01 – .02)	.00
→ NA → PSS	-.01	(-.02 – .01)	.00	-.00	(-.01 – .00)	-.00	-.01	(-.01 – .00)	-.00
PA → PSS	.14***	(.09 – .19)	**.12**	.22***	(.16 – .28)	**.19**	.21***	(.15 – .26)	**.18**
NA → PSS	-.07	(-.15 – .00)	-.05	-.08*	(-.15 – -.01)	-.05	-.11**	(-.18 – -.03)	**-.07**

Note: *p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support; ESS = Enacted social support.
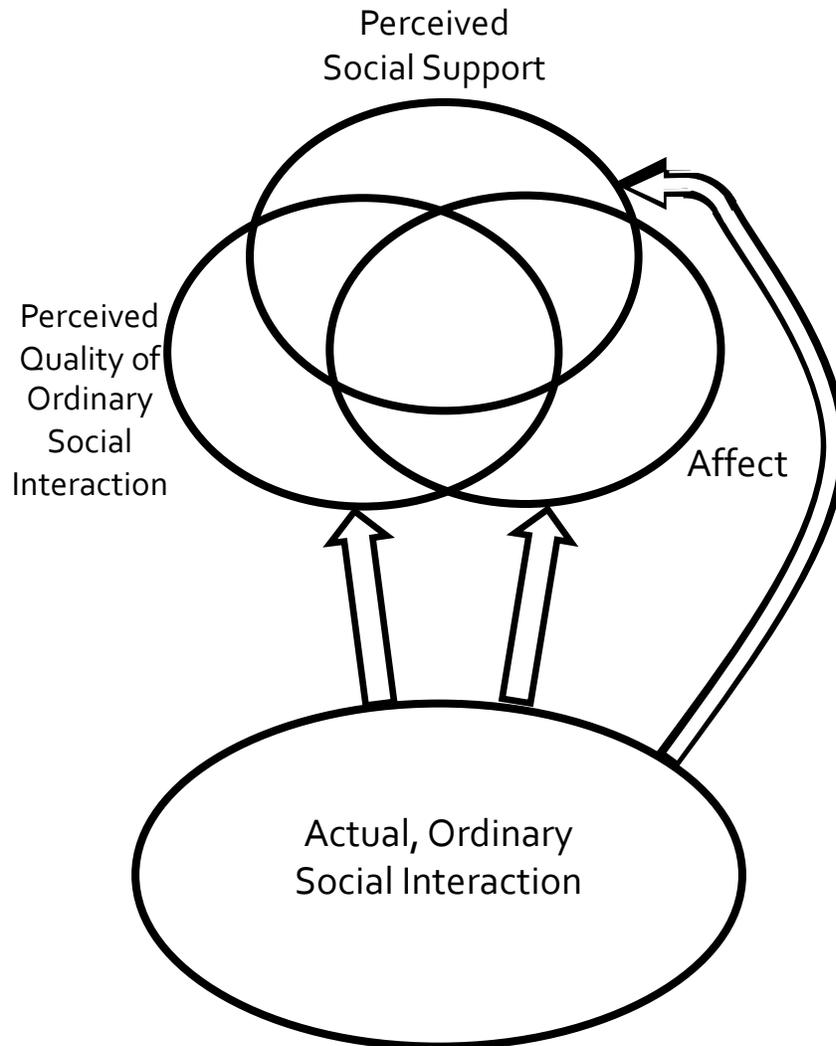
Figure 1. The Relational Regulation Theory model.

Adapted from "Ordinary Social Interaction and the Main Effect Between Perceived Support and

Affect," by B. Lakey, R. J. Vander Molden, and J. Andrews, 2016, Journal of Personality, 84, p.

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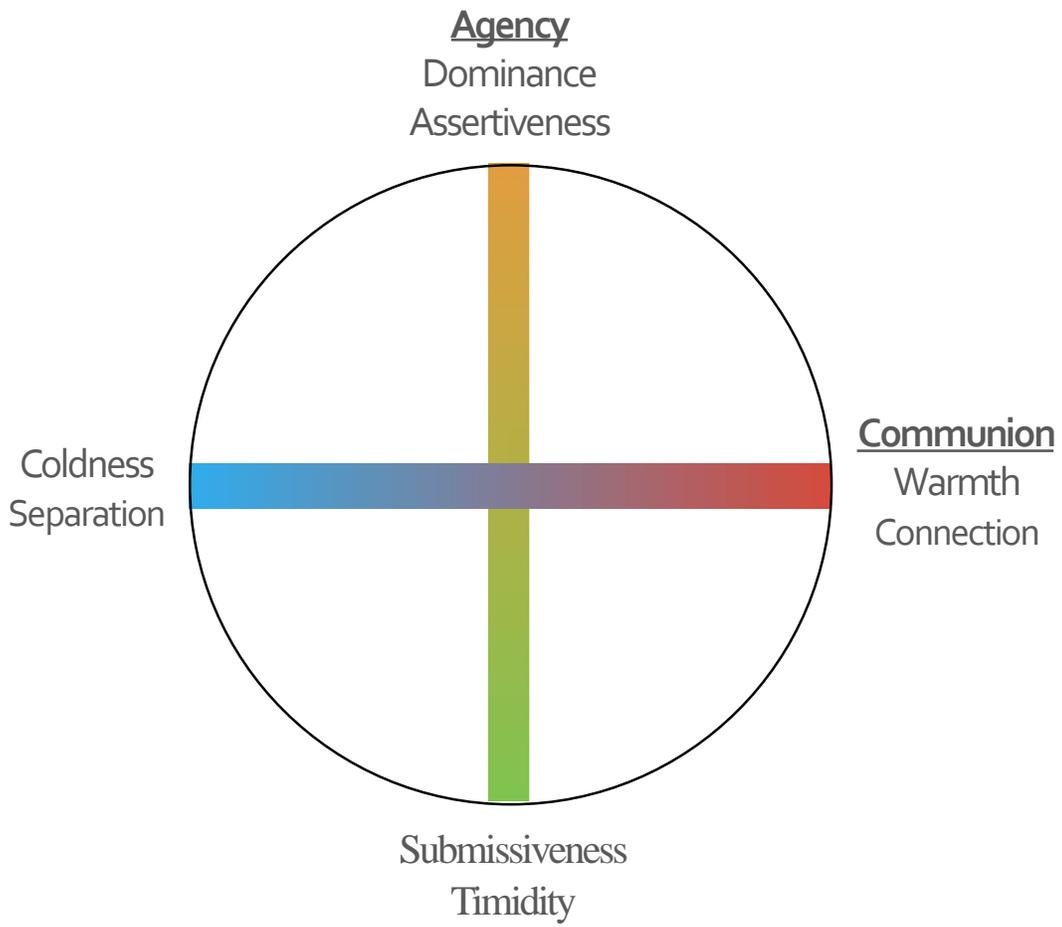
Figure 2. The Interpersonal Theory model.
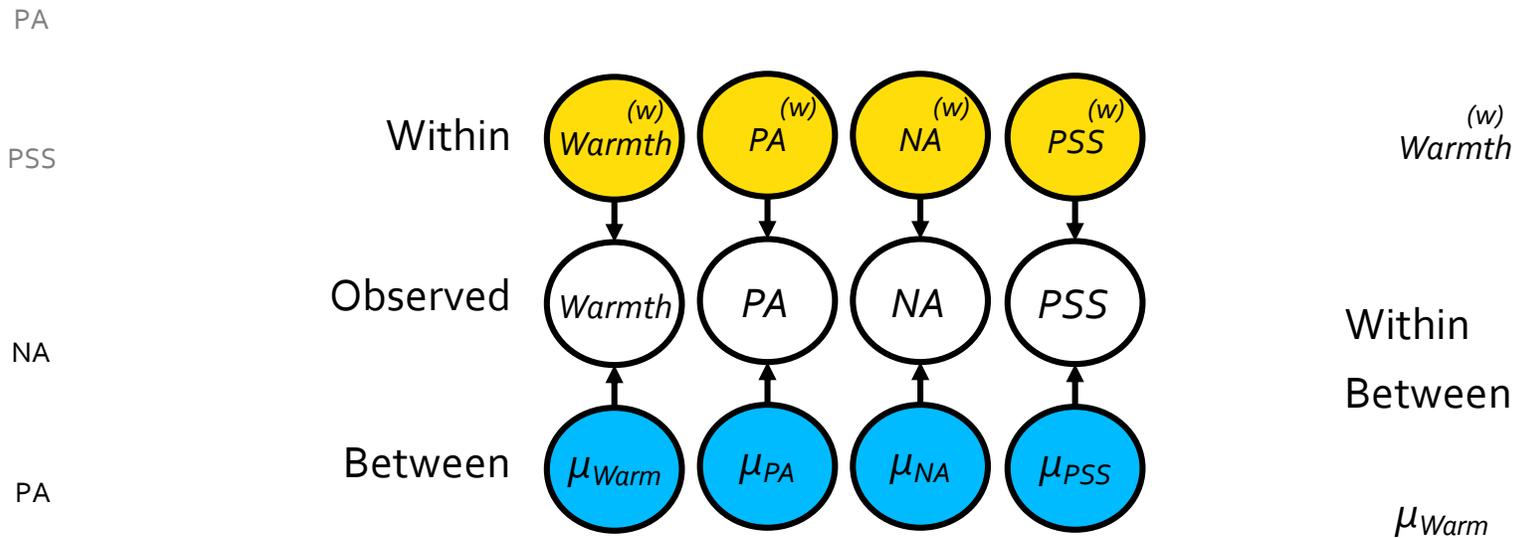
Figure 3. Representation of variable decomposition into within- and between-person components.
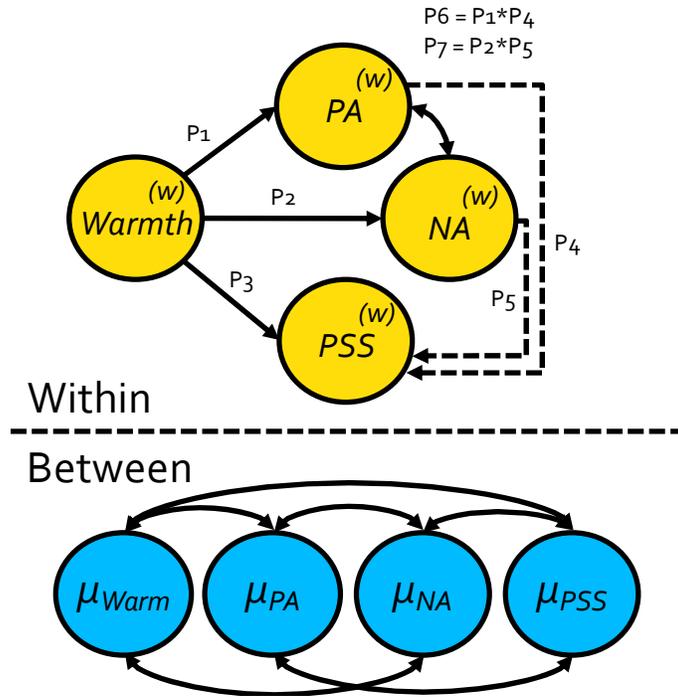
Figure 4. Exemplar multilevel structural equation model figure with path labels.

Note: PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single

headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines

denote shared indirect paths.
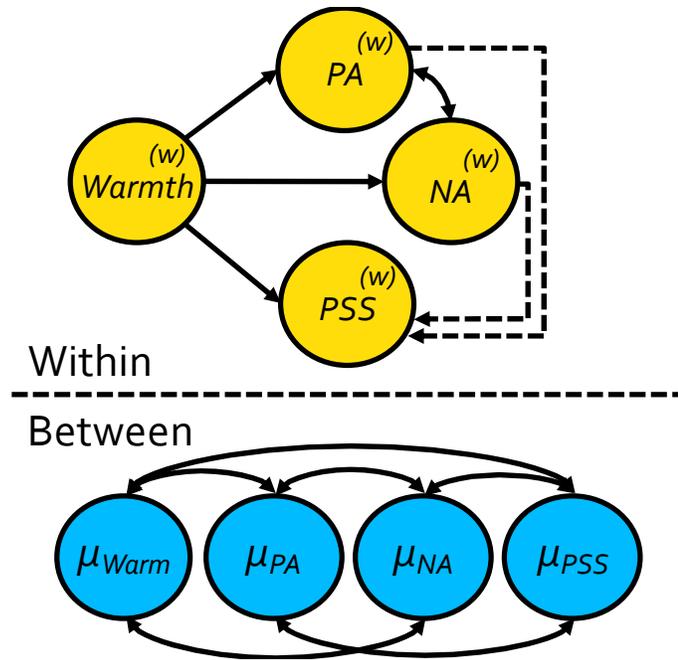
Figure 5. Perception of interpersonal warmth predicting affect and perceived support in Study 1.

Note: PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
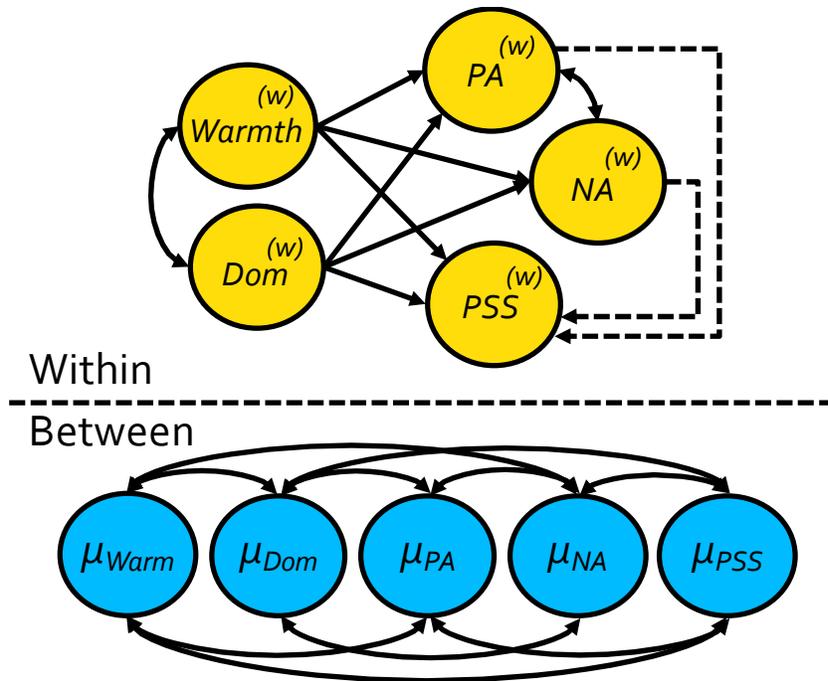
Figure 6. Interpersonal warmth and dominance predicting affect and perceived support in Study

1.

Note: Dom = Dominance; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social

support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations.

Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
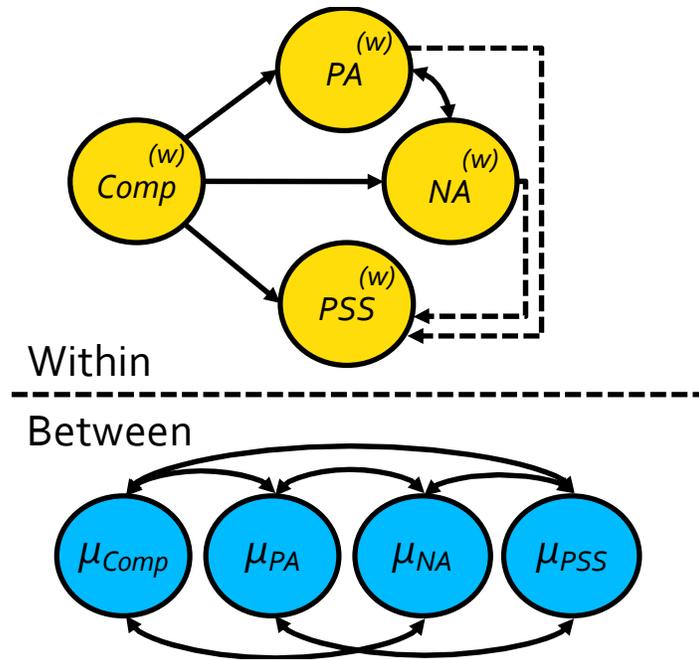
Figure 7. Perceptions of self and other's warmth and their interaction predicting affect and perceived support in Study 1.

Note: Comp = Complementarity; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
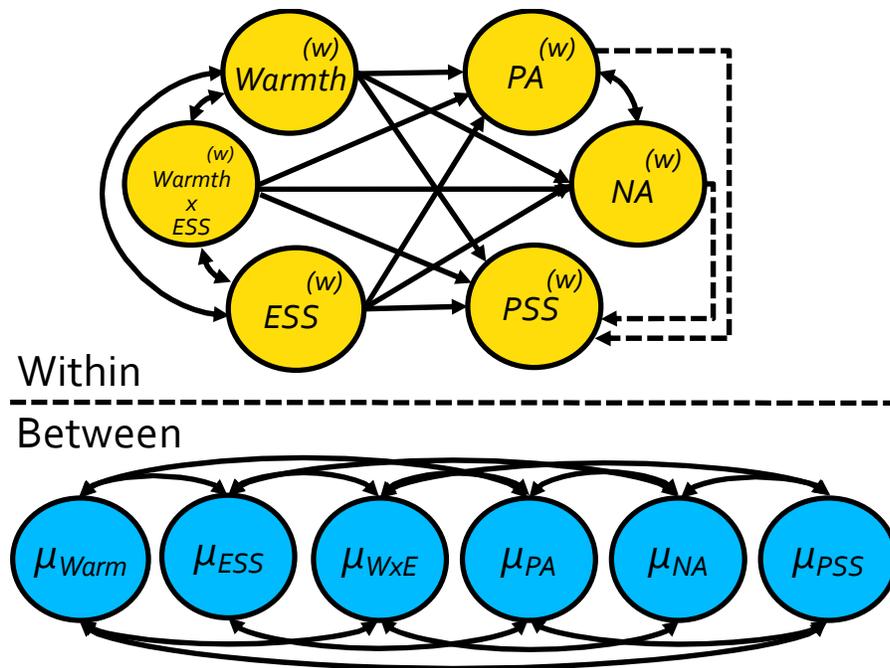
Figure 8. Interpersonal style and stress-related social interaction variable predicting affect and perceived support in Study 2.

Note: ESS = Enacted social support; WxE = Warmth **x** Enacted social support interaction; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
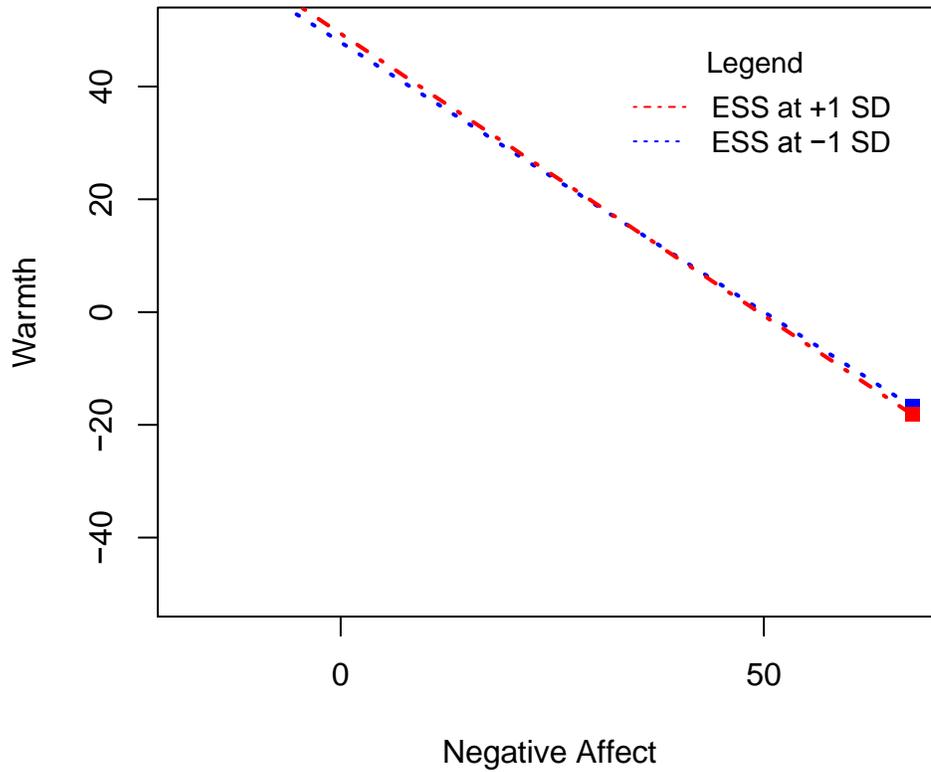
Figure 9. Simple slope of other's warmth and enacted social support's association with negative

affect.

Note: ESS = Enacted social support.
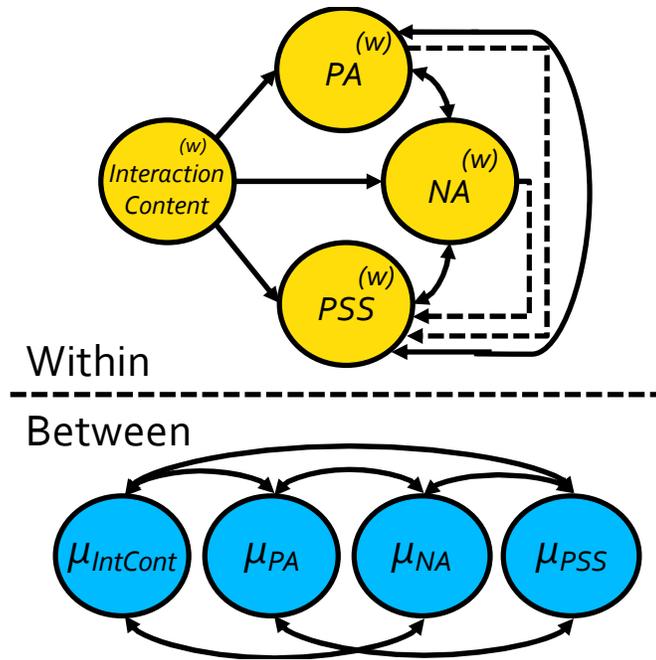
Figure 10. Interaction content preference predicting affect and perceived support in Study 3.

Note: IntCont = Interaction content; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
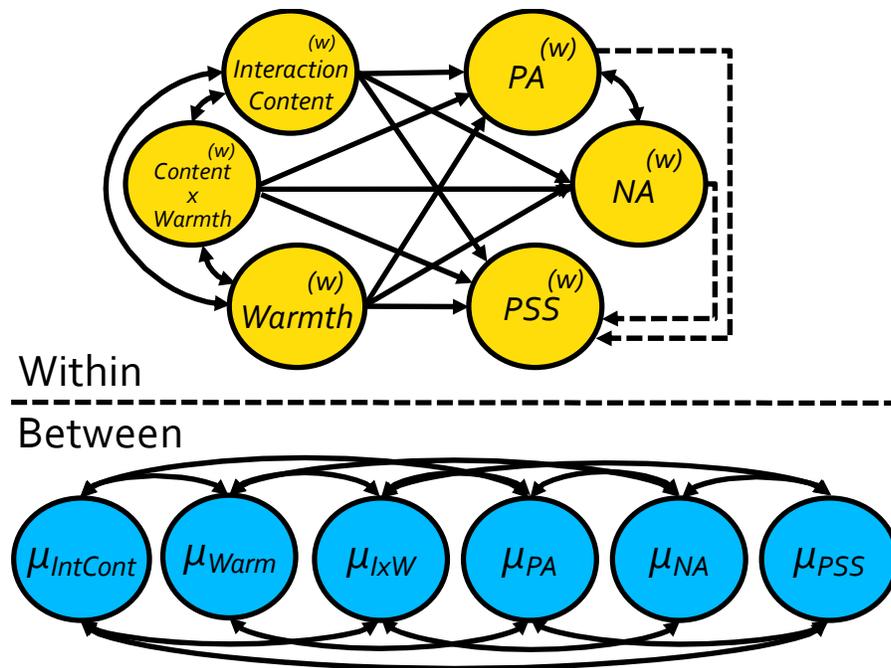
Figure 11. Interaction content preference, perception of interpersonal warmth, and their interaction predicting affect and perceived support in Study 3.

Note: IntCont = Interaction content; IxW = Interaction content x Warmth interaction; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.
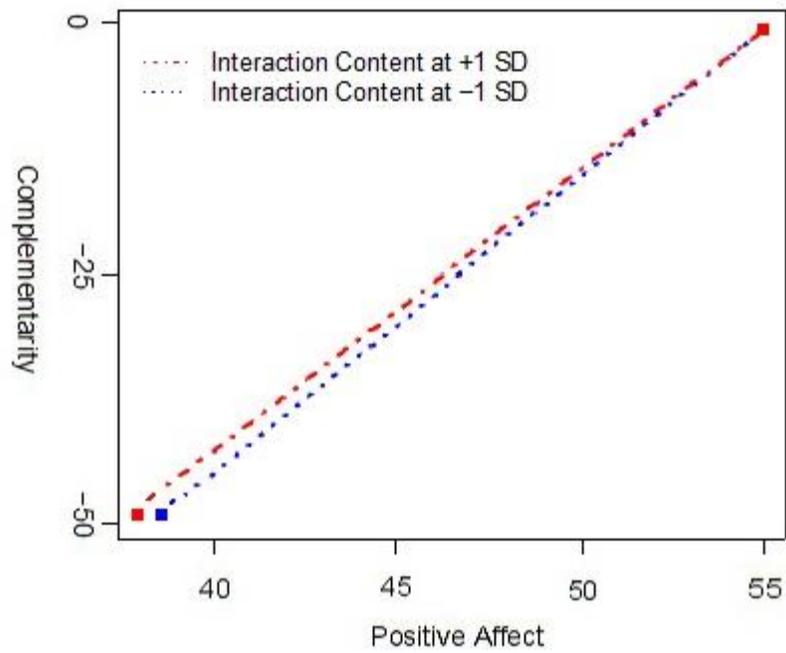
Figure 12. Simple slope of complementarity and preference for interaction content's association with positive affect.
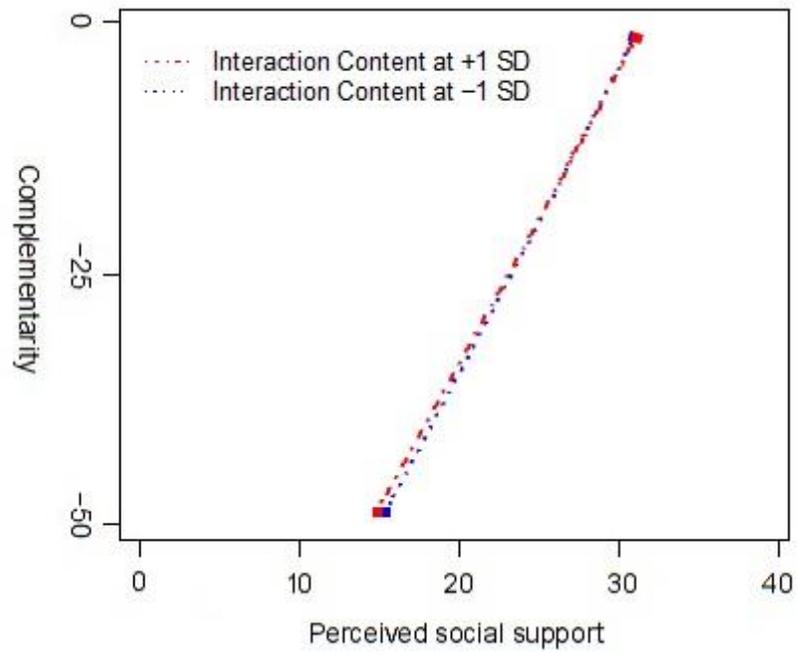
Figure 13. Simple slope of complementarity and preference for interaction content's association with perceived social support.
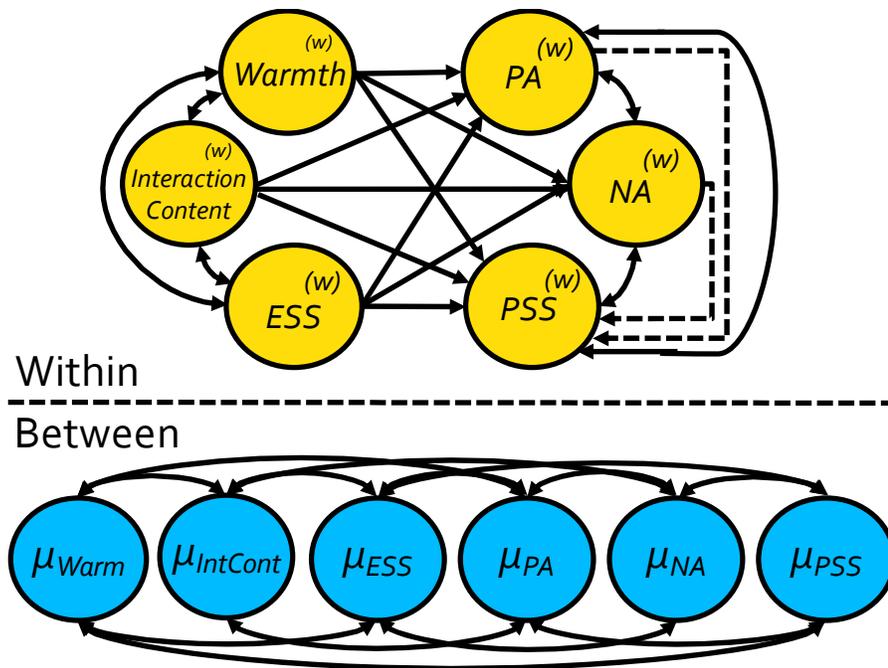
Figure 14. Interaction content preference, perception of interpersonal warmth, and enacted social support predicting affect and perceived support in Study 3.

Note: ESS = Enacted social support; IntCont = Interaction content; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative affect; PSS = Perceived social support. Single headed arrows denote regression paths. Double headed arrows reflect correlations. Dotted lines denote shared indirect paths.