SELF-PRESENTATION AS A FUNCTION OF CLOSENESS AND

PERCEIVED PARTNER CHARACTERISTICS

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A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctorate of Philosophy

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By

Camilla Stine Øverup

May, 2015

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AND PERCEIVED PARTNER CHARACTERISTICS

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ABSTRACT

In everyday interactions, people engage in identity negotiations with the goal of establishing a mutually agreed upon identity for each interactant. Self-presentation is the mode by which people engage in these negotiations. Identity negotiations occur in response to the perception that there is a mismatch between the interaction partner's perceptions and the self's desired identity; yet, no research has examined what may influence such evaluations by the self. Additionally, previous research has found relationship factors to be of importance in predicting self-presentation. In the current set of studies, I examined closeness, and perceptions of positive and negative partner characteristics as predictors of self-presentation (Study 1) and of satisfaction with the interaction and the relationship (Study 2). Results indicated that closeness is a strong predictor of self-presentation, as are perceptions of positive and negative characteristics. These variables, however, interact to predict self-presentation, such that when more self-presentation was reported the fewer positive or negative characteristics they perceived in interaction partners with whom they felt close. Such perceptions of positive and negative characteristics were also associated with satisfaction with the interaction and with the relationship; self-presentation was, however, not a unique predictor of the satisfaction variables. These findings suggest that increased self-presentation may occur in response to both positive and negative situational factors, and that self-presentation may not lead directly to negative interpersonal outcomes, but may do so because of other factors in the situation.

Keywords: Self-presentation, interpersonal relationships, closeness, perceptions of positive and negative partner characteristic

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My heart is filled with gratitude and I feel so lucky to have all of these people in my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

I. TABLES

II. FIGURES

DEDICATION

To Jacob Aycock,

My biggest support, love, and partner in crime

I could not have done this without you

You and me versus the world

To Kirsten and Curt Øverup,

For always listening, for always encouraging

None of this would have been possible without you

Self-presentation as a function of closeness and perceived partner characteristics

"We may practically say that he has as many social selves as there are distinct groups of persons about whose opinion he cares. He generally shows a different side of himself to each of these different groups. Many a youth who is demure enough before his parents and teachers, swears and swaggers like a pirate among his "tough" young friends. We do not show ourselves to our children as to our club companions, to our customers as to the laborers we employ, to our own masters and employers as to our intimate friends."

<div align="right">William James, 1890, p. 294</div>

William James recognized long before there was an established psychological study of the self that every man or woman possesses several selves. According to James, the nature of these selves varies as a function of the context, but more importantly, as a function of the interaction partner. In interacting with others, people generally have preconceived notions of who they are, who the other person thinks they are, how they want the other person to see them and what the goal for the interaction is.

In everyday life, people's outcomes are greatly affected by the impressions they make on others; being viewed positively leads to different outcomes (e.g., social inclusion, material goods and opportunities) than does being viewed negatively. Thus, people engage in self-presentations with the goal of negotiating and establishing an identity with the interaction partner. When such negotiations are successful, they lead to benefits either for the self or for both partners involved in the interaction, including social inclusion, increased intimacy and feeling understood. Such negotiations occur in response to internal processes, which are

built on a person's self-concept, but also in response to perceptions of the interaction partner's dispositions and behaviors (e.g., Leary, 1993; Swann, 2005).

Perceptions of the interaction partner's behaviors may act as a gauge of the success of a person's self-presentation (in terms of being viewed as one wishes to be seen) and the success of the relationship (e.g., Leary, 2004). If, for instance, the interaction partner behaves in a negative way (e.g., is dominant, critical), the actor may feel misunderstood. Such feelings may signal to the actor that there may be a mismatch between the interaction partner's perceptions of them and their desired image; alternatively, such perceptions of the interaction partner's disposition and behavior may also signal that the relationship isn't faring well. In such cases, self-presentation may be used as a remedial tool for improving those conditions (e.g., Leary, 2004; Øverup, Brunson, & Acitelli, 2014). On the other hand, if the interaction partner behaves in a positive way (e.g., is attentive, supportive), a person may perceive that there is less of a mismatch between the interaction partner's perceptions and the desired image, or that the relationship is good and no remedial behaviors are needed. The current set of studies aims to examine differences in self-presentation as a function of relationship quality (as measured by closeness); additionally, it seeks to examine the influence of perceptions of the interaction partner's characteristics on a person's self-presentation.

Identity Negotiation: An Interpersonal Process

Broadly speaking, identity negotiation is a dynamic and bi-directional process through which actor and partner establish mutual conceptualizations and agreements about the identity of the actor (Swann, 2005). These negotiations of the actor's identity are not one-sided, or uni-directional; the behavior of the actor alone does not lead the partner to perceive

2

the actor in a certain way, but the partner's expectations and preconceptions when entering the situation also help shape the partner's view of the actor (Swann, 1987, 2000; 2012). For instance, if a partner expects the actor to be hostile, the actor will, in fact, grow hostile and aggressive towards the partner (Snyder & Swann, 1978a, 1978b; Swann & Snyder 1980).

At the same time, actors want to be seen as they see themselves (initially examined by Lecky, 1945, as well as Carson, 1969, Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder, 1961 and Secord and Backman, 1965), leading to an extensive line of research on self-verification (Swann, 1983, 1985). This desire to be seen as one sees oneself appears to influence how we process self-relevant information; for instance, we tend to give more credence to information confirming our self-conceptions rather than disconfirming them (e.g., Snyder & Swann, 1978b; see Swann, 1987, 2012, for more detail). Such self-conceptions may include personal self-views (Swann, Pelham, & Krull, 1989), collective self-views (Chen, Chen, & Shaw, 2004; Chen, Shaw, & Jeung, 2006) and group identities (e.g., Gomez, Seyle, Huici, & Swann, 2007, as cited in Swann & Bosson, 2008; Lemay & Ashmore, 2004).

In everyday life, confirmation of our self-conceptions is often received without much attention or awareness of it. This is partly because we have created "opportunity structures" that enable fast and easy confirmation; that is, we structure our environment and our interactions with people such that verification is more easily obtained (Swann, 1983, 1987, 2000, 2012). Opportunity structures are created in a number of ways. First, we display cues and signs that inform people around us about who we are. This may be done through our appearances (e.g., our clothing, body art, body modifications through plastic surgery) or it can be done through display of material possessions (Swann, 1983, 1987). For instance, imagine a woman carrying a large Louis Vuitton purse, shiny jewelry, with tan skin and

designer clothes; it is reasonable to assume that this woman considers herself fashion forward, and wants people to see that she is wealthy and sexually attractive. Then imagine another woman carrying a big reusable shopping net, overflowing with fruits and vegetables, in her sneakers and exercise clothes; upon seeing this woman, it would be reasonable to assume that she cares about the environment, and is focused on physical health and well-being, and less on fashion. For both women, what they wear and carry as their possessions inform the rest of the world about characteristics that they consider part of themselves. Aside from our appearances, we may also signal our self-conceptions to others through the construction of our most immediate environment; we decorate and organize our homes and offices in ways that show others aspects of ourselves that we find important (Gosling, Ko, Mannarelli, & Morris, 2002; Sadalla, Vershure, & Burroughs, 1987). In short, we present an image of who we think we are, and thus, how we want to be seen by others.

Second, we may be selective with whom we interact or affiliate. We tend to prefer interaction partners to see us in ways that are congruent with our own self-views (e.g., Backman & Secord, 1962; Broxton, 1963; Swann, 2005; Swann & Pelham, 2002; Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992). In a number of studies, Swann and Pelham (1987, as cited in Swann, 1987; Swann, & Pelham (2002)) found that people prefer friends and romantic partners who see them as they see themselves; individuals with positive self-views desired interactions partners that shared those positive self-views, whereas those with negative self-views preferred interaction partners that shared their negative views of them (see also meta-analysis by Chang-Schneider & Swann, 2007, as cited in Swann & Bosson, 2008, and a meta-analysis by Kwang & Swann, 2010). Such relationships are also characterized by greater commitment and satisfaction; in fact, relationships in which partners do not see eye to

eye on their identities are more likely to end (Burke & Stets, 1999; Chang-Schneider & Swann, 2007, as cited in Swann & Bosson, 2008; De La Ronde, & Swann, 1998; Katz, Beach, & Anderson, 1996; Ritts & Stein, 1995; Schafer, Wickrama, & Keith, 1996; Swann, De La Ronde, & Hixon, 1994; Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Angulo, 2007). Swann (1983) also argues that selectively affiliating oneself with others that possess some desired attribute may also lead to self-verification, as others tend to make inferences about another person based on the company that one keeps (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980). Thus, 'basking in the reflected glory' of others around us may lead to others' perceiving us in the same way. Some studies have found that people who associate themselves with very competent or attractive individuals are also seen as competent and attractive (Sigall & Landy, 1973).

Although verification of our self-conceptions, or desired images, occurs somewhat easily in our everyday life, at times, it comes less automatic. That is, we sometimes perceive that our interaction partner does not share our self-conceptions, either as an individual or as part of the dyadic association we share with the interaction partner. In such situations, we may be more motivated to engage in self-presentation to shape and change our interaction partner's view of us. However, neither the literature on self-verification nor the literature on identity negotiation specify how we go about evaluating that there is a mismatch between our own and our interaction partner's views.

One potential way to assess congruence between our own and interaction partner's views may be through the perceptions of the interaction partner's behaviors and characteristics. That is, perceiving that the interaction partner is supportive and attentive, we may be more likely to feel that there is an implicit mutual understanding of each other and thus, we feel known by our interaction partner. Conversely, perceiving that the interaction

partner is judgmental, dominant and controlling may lead us to feel misunderstood and inferior, translating to the perception that there is a mismatch between our own and the interaction partner's perceptions of us and the nature of our relationship. In sum, identity negotiation is a fundamentally interpersonal process. In identity negotiations, two individuals, with different personalities and with different expectations for the interaction and of the interaction partner communicate to come to a mutual understanding of who they each are and what they can each expect of each other in the future.

The Michelangelo Phenomenon and Identity Negotiations

Another informative line of studies concerns that relating to the Michelangelo phenomenon (Drigotas, Rusbult, Wieselquist & Whitton, 1999). Similarly to research on behavioral confirmation and identity negotiation, research on the Michelangelo phenomenon suggests that partners are important in helping shape (or carving out) the self of the actor, specifically the ideal self. Indeed, as discussed above, partners provide behavioral and perceptual confirmation of individuals' self-concept; the Michelangelo phenomenon suggests that this occurs for both actual and ideal selves (Rusbult, Finkel, & Kumashiro, 2009). Thus, self-presentation may occur in response to efforts by the partner to help carve out and shape our self-concepts. Perceiving negative characteristics in the interaction partner may serve as an indicator that the partner does not agree with the actor's strivings toward becoming their ideal self, disaffirming the actor's pursuits of the ideal self. Conversely, perceiving positive characteristics and supportive behaviors in the interaction partner may lead to increased efforts to become the desired self, or may provide verification that the self is a desired self (Rusbult, et al., 2009).

Sociometer Theory and Self-Presentation

The above arguments are also consistent with sociometer theory (Leary, 2004; Øverup, et al., 2014). As such, sociometer theory specifies that self-presentation occurs in response to the affective evaluation that others may not value one's relationship with them and that the relationships is doing poorly. Self-presentation thus works as a relationship maintenance tool, by which one attempts to remedy the interaction partner's perceptions such that one gains favor with them and one's relational value is increased in their eyes. Thus, engaging in self-presentation may lead to an improved relationship with the interaction partner, as such behaviors are used to increase intimacy in the relationship.

Traditionally, sociometer theory has posited self-esteem to work as the affective gauge for evaluations of one's relational value and relationship welfare. Such affective evaluations may occur in response to perceptions of others behavior towards oneself. Perceiving the interaction partner's behavior toward us to be positive, we are likely to make positive evaluations of the relationship welfare, whereas perceiving negative behaviors from the interaction partner is likely to trigger the affective evaluation that the interaction partner does not value us as interaction partners and the relationship is not a good one.

General Conceptualization of Self-presentation: The Why and How

Self-presentation refers to behaviors we engage in with the intent of manipulating how others perceive us (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Arkin, 1981). The concept belongs under the larger umbrella of impression management, which refers to the management of others' impression of a whole host of objects, including events (e.g., a task such as a comprehensive paper, a conference, a behavior), groups (e.g., a sports team, a professional club), specific other people (e.g., friends, parents, bosses; also known as beneficial impression management;

e.g., Schlenker & Britt, 1999), and ideas and values (e.g., religious vs. atheist, prochoice vs. prolife), whereas self-presentation concerns specifically the impression management of the self (Schlenker, 1980, 2003).

One can present the self in numerous ways. One may use verbal behaviors and non-verbal behaviors, with the verbal behaviors studied most commonly. However, one may also use the clothes that one wears, the things one owns, or the food that one eats to self-present (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). For instance, girls and boys alike may dye their hair black, put it into spikes and wear primarily dark clothes, to appear tough and solemn (such trends may be punk or 'emo'). Similarly, emphasizing healthy eating behaviors, eating mostly fruits, vegetables and other fat and calorie light foods may convey to others that you are a 'health-nut', valuing healthy living. In sum, self-presentation is carried out in a multitude of ways. And lastly, even the emotions we display may be used to self-present; Clark and colleagues have shown that anger is generally used to appear dominant and intimidating, happiness is one way of ingratiating ourselves with others (i.e., get others to like us) and sadness is partly used as a supplication technique (i.e., to appear needy and helpless; Clark, Pataki & Carver, 1986).

Self-presentational behavior is aimed at relaying information to others present in the interaction and is employed to create an image of the self, and of the interaction (Arkin, 1981; Baumeister, 1982). The particular image depends on the interaction partner and the goals for the interaction (Weary & Arkin, 1981). Early self-presentation scholars have proposed that self-presentational behavior has 6 main purposes related specifically to the self: 1) to create an internal sense of identity, 2) as an external presentation of who we are, 3) as a way to self-verify our identity, 4) for self-affirmation, 5) for self-assessment, and 6) for self-

enhancement in the eyes of others (e.g., Baumeister, 1995). Other scholars have proposed

that the specific goals of our self-presentational efforts vary depending on the social context

we are in, and may be more socially oriented. For example, some of the most predominant

goals for self-presentational behaviors may be to influence others' behaviors and thoughts

such that they are congruent with the wishes of the self, to gain social approval, to avoid

disapproval, or to manipulate others' perceptions of his or her own opinions (Arkin, 1981).

Leary and Kowalski (1990) proposed three major categories of goals to be obtained through

self-presentation, and for the most part, these three categories cover the goals discussed

above. The categories are 1) to gain social and material outcomes, 2) self-esteem

maintenance and 3) identity development. These three categories present a succinct way to

conceptualize the goals behind self-presentation by encompassing some of the previously

mentioned goals, and may lay the foundation for understanding the motivation to self-

present.

       Different conceptualizations of styles of self-presentation have also been proposed

(see Table 1). Arkin (1981) proposed two main styles, which he termed acquisitive and

protective self-presentation. According to Arkin (1981), acquisitive self-presentation is aimed

at garnering social approval, whether in the present moment or in "unknown future

circumstances" (p. 313). Protective self-presentation, conversely, is defined as behaviors

engaged in with the goal of avoiding social disapproval. A similar taxonomy was proposed

by Tedeschi and colleagues (Tedeschi & Lindskold, 1976; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985), who

termed the two styles assertive and defensive self-presentation. They defined assertive self-

presentation as behaviors aimed at developing and/or drawing attention to a particular

identity; whereas defensive self-presentation is used to defend an identity through the

removal of negative associations or to restore a positive identity (Tedeschi & Lindskold, 1976; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985). Thus some researchers have likened acquisitive and protective self-presentation to assertive and protective self-presentation respectively. (Lee, Quigley, Nesler, Corbett & Tedeschi, 1999; Schütz, 1998).

Several theorists have posited more types of self-presentation as well as numerous self-presentation tactics. However, further elaboration of these types and tactics would move the discussion away from the context of the current study. For purposes of the current project, a discussion of assertive and defensive self-presentation will suffice. For more information on the different styles and tactics, please also see Table 1, which delineates the various self-presentational styles, and Table 2, which presents an overview of various self-presentational tactics).

As a final note, it should be stated that a common misconception is that self-presentation is inherently deceptive; this is, for the most part, not the case. Most people believe that the image they present of themselves is accurate and truthful, given the situation and the interaction partner. That is, one's self-concept – and thus, one's presentations of who one is – may differ depending on the target person, the constraint of the situation, one's role in the situation, as well as momentary influences that make certain characteristics salient as opposed to others (Arkin, 1981; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker 2003). Furthermore, with the constructing of styles of self-presentation, many believe that a person engages in primarily one style or the other; that is, a person is for example either an 'ingratiator' or a 'self-handicapper'. Again, it is an incorrect assumption. In fact, in daily life, we are likely to engage in a variety of self-presentational behaviors, as dictated by the situation, the goal and the interaction partner (Jones & Pittman, 1982).

Table 1. *List and explanation of proposed self-presentational styles*

Tedeschi[1]	
Assertive	Behaviors aimed at developing and/or drawing attention to a particular identity.
Defensive	Behaviors used to defend an identity through the removal of negative associations or restore a positive identity.
Arkin[2]	
Acquisitive	Behaviors aimed at garnering social approval, whether in the present moment or in "unknown future circumstances".
Protective	Behaviors engaged in with the goal of avoiding social disapproval (rather than garnering social approval).
Schütz[3]	
Assertive	Behavior aimed at looking good by presenting a favorable image; accomplished through the use of non-aggressive behaviors that allow for the association of positive attributes to the self.
Offensive	Aggressive behaviors by which the actor seeks to look good by making others look bad.
Defensive	Active behaviors aimed at not look bad by avoiding negative associations or typifications.
Protective	Passive behaviors aimed at trying to not look bad by avoiding making negative impressions.

Note: [1]Tedeschi & Lindskold, 1976, Tedeschi & Norman, 1985; [2]Arkin, 1981; [3]Schütz ,1998.

Table 2. *List and explanation of self-presentational tactics*

	Behavior	Explanation
ψ β	Ingratiation	Actions performed to get others to like the actor.
ψ	Intimidation	Actions that have the intent to project an identity of the actor as someone who is powerful and dangerous.
ψ	Supplication	Actions aimed at projecting oneself as weak and to displays dependence.
ψ, β	Entitlement	Claims by an actor of responsibility and credit for positive achievements.
ψ, β	Enhancement	Actions aimed at persuading others that the outcomes of one's behavior are more positive than they might have originally believed to be.
ψ, β	Basking/identification	Actions aimed at associating oneself with another person or group who is perceived positively by others, or asserts the worth of a group to which one is positively linked.
ψ, η	Blasting	Behaviors intended to produce or communicate negative evaluations of another person or groups (e.g., derogation, criticism).
ψ β	Exemplification	Behaviors presenting the actor as morally worthy and as having integrity.
θ, σ	Excuses	Verbal statements denying responsibility for negative events.
θ, σ	Justification	Verbal statement aimed at providing overriding reasons for negative behavior as justified, but accepting responsibility for it.
θ	Disclaimers	Verbal expressions offering explanations before predicaments occur.
θ	Self-handicapping	Verbal statement or behaviors aimed at the production of an obstacle to success with the intention of preventing observers from making dispositional inferences about one's failure.
θ, σ	Apologies	Confessions of responsibility for any harm done to others or negative events and expressions of remorse and guilt.
β	Self-promotion	Actions and statements aimed at showing successful performances or claiming such performances in the past as means of conveying the impression of competency to observers.
β	Power display	Showing strength and power, but not by instilling fear (intimidation), but by reassuring observers of one's potential to create positive outcomes.
η	Determine topic of talk	Actions aimed at conveying an impression of being in charge; controlling the interaction and keeping at bay topics that do not allow for the creation of desired impressions.
μ	Avoiding public attention/ social interaction	Actions aimed at avoidance of attention to oneself, or interacting with others, so to avoid disapproval.
μ	Minimal self-disclosure	Communicating as little as possible about oneself, giving others little opportunity for criticizing.
σ	Denial	Verbal statement denying the occurrence of an event.
σ	Reframing	Actions aimed at admitting the occurrence of an event but arguing that it should not be viewed negatively.
σ	Dissociation	Actions aimed at accepting that a negative event has taken place, but affirming that one has not caused it.

Note. ψ = Assertive behaviors (Lee et al., 1999), θ = defensive behaviors (Lee et al., 1999), β = assertive (Schütz, 1998), η = offensive (Schütz, 1998), μ = protective (Schütz, 1998), σ = Defensive (Schütz, 1998). Some tactics are further differentiated in Schütz (1998), but overlap with each other or with a simpler description in Lee

Self-Presentation to Different Targets

Self-presentation is posited to occur in all relationships and across time. Schlenker (1984) proposed that identity negotiations (specifically, the identities we create for ourselves and for others) provide the basis for further development of a relationship, giving it both opportunities and constraints. Yet, most of the theorizing and research done within the field of self-presentation has focused on strangers as the target; only a few have considered other relationships (or relationship factors) that influence self-presentation (e.g., Leary, Allen, & Terry, 2011).

When self-presenting to strangers, individuals are more likely to self-enhance, when the information is available to others and identifiable (Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 1986), and when the claims about the self cannot be contradicted (Schlenker & Leary, 1982a). In other situations, individuals may apply other tactics of self-presentation to strangers, such as ingratiation (e.g. flattery, opinion conformity, doing favors, giving gifts) or supplication (e.g. emphasizing one's limitations, helplessness and dependence) as this may incur social benefits such as approval or help (Schlenker, & Leary, 1982a). In general, individuals self-present to strangers in ways they think will create the most favorable impression of themselves (Schlenker & Leary, 1982b), especially when they foresee future interactions with their audience (Danheiser & Graziano, 1982).

Self-presentation in established relationships appears to take on different forms than self-presentation to strangers. Tice, Butler, Muraven, and Stillwell (1995) examined self-presentation to stranger and friends and found that individuals tended to be more modest on questions about themselves when with a friend, than when with a stranger; even when both a stranger and a friend were present individuals were more likely to be modest. Tice and

colleagues (1995) hypothesize that this difference in self-presentational mode between the two target audiences stems from the fact that friends have more information about the individual. Thus, the self-presenter is modest in an attempt to not project an image of the self that the friend finds implausible. Otherwise, the individual might incur disapproval from their friend and, perhaps, lose their friendship. In short, we engage in different modes of self-presentation to friends and strangers, because a friend's liking is more important to us than making a good impression on a stranger, with whom future interactions are not certain (Tice, et al., 1995).

Findings by Leary and colleagues (1994) demonstrate similar processes. They found that individuals had lower motivations to engage in self-presentation with individuals with whom they were more familiar (defined as those with whom they reported interacting most frequently with during a 7-day daily diary study) as compared to individuals with whom they were less familiar. Additionally, the gender of the interaction partner mattered; when individuals interacted with a familiar person of the same sex, they expressed the least motivation to engage in self-presentation. Conversely, when interacting with someone of the opposite sex, motivation to self-present was always higher, regardless of how familiar they were with the interaction partner (Leary et al., 1994).

Dunn and colleagues (2007) examined differences in self-presentation to strangers versus romantic partners. In their study, analyses suggested that individuals tended to engage in more self-presentation to strangers than to romantic partners, and that such self-presentation carried with it increased positive well-being post-interaction. It should be noted that the study did not examine specific styles or tactics of self-presentation, but, instead, conceptualized self-presentation as the amount of effort put into making a good impression.

14

Thus, this may partly explain the mean difference in self-presentation between strangers and romantic partners; actors may not need to put forth as much effort when interacting with romantic partners. Furthermore, self-presentation to romantic partners may not be solely focused on making a good impression.

In a similar vein to the findings of Dunn and colleagues (2007), Gosnell, Britt and Mckibben (2009) found that both closeness and effort exerted to self-present positively predicted satisfaction with the interaction and with the relationship. Furthermore, closeness to the interaction partner and effort exerted to self-present interacted to predict satisfaction with the interaction and with the relationship. Specifically, when participants felt less close to the interaction partner and reported putting more effort into self-presenting, the more satisfied they were with the interaction and with the relationship. There were mixed findings with regards to the effect of effort at high levels of closeness; that is, when participants felt close to the interaction partner, the extent to which they exerted effort to self-present did not lead to differing levels of satisfaction with the interaction, but more effort was associated with less relationship satisfaction. It should be noted that the relationships examined varied, and included such relationships as parents, siblings, coworker/bosses, and significant others (see Gosnell, et al., 2009, for details); however, it did not directly compare effects for different relationships, but focused on closeness as the indicator of the relationship.

Results by Øverup and Neighbors (2014) revealed differences in self-presentation across a variety of relationships, but did not seem consistent with the above findings. Specifically, participants reported more assertive and defensive self-presentation romantic partners than to friend and to friends than to acquaintances[1] (for results that show more self-presentation to romantic partner as compared to friends, see also Øverup, et al., 2014, study

15

2). Furthermore, self-presentation in the different relationships varied by how close the actor felt to the target.

When self-presenting to a romantic partner with whom one felt less close, one engaged in most assertive and defensive self-presentation as compared to friends and acquaintances (Study 1), and more self-presentation to friends than to acquaintances (Study 2). With regards to higher levels of closeness, there were no differences between the three relationship types in Study 1, but Study 2 found that participants reported more self-presentation to romantic partners than to friends and acquaintances[2]. The finding that people report engaging in more self-presentation in closer relationships may reflect the fact that individuals may have more opportunities to interact and have a more complex image of who they are with those people. These results also suggest that although both the relationship type and closeness are important predictors or self-presentation, closeness may be the more important of the two.

The results also suggest that with those with whom we are close, we may enter a 'backstage' setting in which self-presentational concerns are less salient, and we thus engage in self-presentation less consciously (Leary & Allen, 2011; Leary, et al., 1994) – but engage in it nonetheless. This corresponds to Schlenker's (1984) argument that in long-term relationships, after interacting in many different contexts, people will have reached a point where the desired identity and the displayed identity have met, suggesting that lesser amounts of purposeful self-presentation may characterize successful and satisfying relationships as opposed to poorer relationships. However, for those with whom we are less close, the self-presentation may be used as a relationship maintenance tool (Baumeister, 1982; Schlenker, 2003), employed in the hopes of increased familiarity through the negotiation or display of an identity, which may lead to increased closeness.

Instead of conceptualizing self-presentation in terms of one self-presentational style or tactic, Leary and Allen (2011) propose that people have several presentational personas that are tailored towards the target of the self-presentational efforts. Rather than a specific style or tactic, a *self-presentational persona* is a profile of characteristics, or "desired impressions" that an individual wants to convey to the target (Leary & Allen, 2011). In their recent study, individuals rated lists of adjectives according to how they would like others (e.g., best friend, a coworker, someone they dislike) to see them. According to the results of their research, people tended to present rather similar impressions across all targets, but self-presented overall more consistently with their self-images with individuals with whom they were closest. Additionally, they also found that people tended to highlight certain characteristics of themselves to some and other characteristics to others. For example, they found that individuals tended to highlight some positive characteristics to their romantic partner, even to a greater extent than how they actually perceived themselves to be (Leary & Allen, 2011). Furthermore, they also found that the self-presentational persona that people created for close others were more versatile and multi-faceted than those created for non-close others.

Although the results of the Leary and Allen (2011) study seem somewhat contradictory to the results of the Tice and colleagues (1995) study, both studies support the idea that individuals engage in differential self-presentation depending on the target of their self-presentational efforts. Furthermore, as Leary and Allen (2011) argue, previous studies have examined only self-presentation along a single aspect (e.g., self-enhancement versus modesty; Tice et al., 1995), neglecting the complex, multifaceted, self-presentations that people construct in daily life; their study is the first to consider this complexity. These

findings also support the findings of Øverup and Neighbors (2014); people may engage in a broader variety of behaviors with individuals with whom they have more complex self-presentational persona.

Of note, the Leary & Allen (2011) study did not account for any aspects of the relationship or the interaction partner, and it is therefore unknown if the persona profiles in the Leary & Allen (2011) study varied as a function of these factors. Øverup and colleagues (Øverup & Neighbors, 2014; Øverup, et al., 2014) found that self-reported self-presentation indeed varies as a function of relationship factors. Specifically when feeling less close to someone important in one's life (e.g., romantic partner) or when perceiving that the relationship is faring less well (i.e., high in relationship-specific contingent self-esteem), people may engage in more self-presentation. One reason may be that people use self-presentation as a remedial tool to improve on the conditions of the relationship (e.g., increased closeness and the interaction partner's understanding of the self). Thus, it may also be that people's self-presentational personas are more variable when perceiving the relationship to be less than desired or when the interaction partner behaves negatively.

Perceptions of Interaction Partner Influencing Self-Presentation

In everyday life, we are constantly engaged in interactions with others; during these interactions, we take measure of how we are perceived by others, whether through direct perceptions or through meta-perceptions. Moreover, we engage in behaviors in response to these perceptions and meta-perceptions. Such interactions are often aimed at influencing our images, whether to be in line with our self -views (self-verification; Swann, 1983, 1987, 2000, 2012) or to match others expectations (behavioral or perceptual confirmation; e.g., Snyder & Stukas, 1999, 2007), such that we gain the interpersonal or material goods we

desire (e.g., Leary et al., 1994). In short, we negotiate our identity with others, and such negotiations may be carried out through self-presentational behaviors.

The majority of the previous research on identity negotiation has focused primarily on the intra-psychic factors that influence our responses to such situations (Swann, 1983, 1987, 2000, 2012), with little to none focusing on the dynamic between the two people in the interaction. Identity negotiations do not occur in a vacuum of the self purely, but rather, in response to perceptions of interaction partner's thoughts, preferences and behaviors. That is, identity negotiations are a fundamentally interpersonal process that involves the self, but also extend beyond the self to include the interaction partner.

Previous literature on self-presentation posits that the values and preferences of the interaction partner plays a role in determining a person's self-presentation. That is, we often try to evince values and qualities that we think the other person likes. For example, Leary & Miller (1986) found that people will appear physically weak or psychologically unstable if they perceive that appearing as such will lead to others responding in desired ways. Similarly, others have found that when people perceive that an interaction partner prefers them to appear incompetent, they will "play dumb" to gain their favor (Dean, Braito, Powers, & Britton, 1975; Gove, Hughes, & Geerken, 1980). Although the above research shows that self-presentations change in response to another person's preferences, no research has examined how perceptions of another person relates to one's self-presentation. That is, perceptions of negative or positive characteristics or behaviors in the interaction partner may sway a person's self-presentation in one direction or another.

Other research has examined, to some extent, the association between perceptions of partners and a person's subsequent behavior. For instance, perceived as well as actual

19

defensiveness on the part of the partner has been associated with poorer relationship functioning and conflict escalating behaviors (e.g., Carstensen, Gottman, & Levenson, 1995; Lannin, Bittner, & Lorenz, 2013). Also, attributing more criticism and rejection to one's partner's behavior was associated with being more verbally aggressive towards the partner (Schweinle, Ickes, & Bernstein, 2002). Such behaviors are also associated with decreased relationship satisfaction (e.g., Schweinle et al., 2002). Conversely, feeling that one's partner is responsive (i.e., is attentive) is associated with a greater willingness to self-disclose (Laurenceau, Feldman Barrett, & Pietromonaco, 1998), which is associated with increased satisfaction with the relationship (e.g., Logan & Cobb, 2013; Sprecher & Hendrick, 2004). Furthermore, perceptions of partner responsiveness and social support has also been associated with various health behaviors, such as increased dieting and exercise, and even cigarette smoking cessation (Derrick, Leonard, & Homish, 2013; Jackson, 2006). A more recent study found that perceiving one's interaction partner to be judgmental, defensive and argumentative was associated with greater levels of ambivalence over emotional expression (Brunson, Øverup, Porter & Lu, 2014). More specifically related to self-presentation, individuals primed with responsive partners were less defensive following failure and engaged in less self-handicapping (Caprariello, & Reis, 2011).

These findings give some support for the expectation that perceptions of the interaction partner's personality and behaviors may be associated with a person's self-presentation. Perceiving the interaction partner to be judgmental, dominant and controlling may lead an actor to feel misunderstood, and thus, indicate to the actor that there is a mismatch between the interaction partner's perceptions of the actor and the actor's desired image, or that the relationship may not be faring well and the actor is not valued by the

interaction partner. Perceiving that a relationship is faring poorly and that the interaction partner dislikes or disapproves of the self, an individual may engage in self-presentation in an attempt to remedy the relationship and enhance one's relational value in the eyes of the other person (Leary, 2004; Øverup, et al., 2014). Additionally, such negative behavior on the part of the interaction partner may also lead individuals to perceive that their interaction partner does not perceive them as they perceive themselves and thus, they may engage in self-presentation as a means of correcting the interaction partners' views to be in line with their self-views. Imagine for instance Tom, who is friends with Ken. When Ken is argumentative or dominant, Tom is unsure how to behave to best avoid conflict and maintain a positive relationship. At first, he may try to stand firm on his stance, so as to appear strong and equal with Ken (e.g., by engaging in enhancement or self-promotion). However, if Ken continues to argue or dominate, Tom may then try mitigate his initial stance by engaging in reframing or justifications. If such behaviors are still not successful in accomplishing the desired goals of feeling understood by Ken and feeling that the relationship with Ken is good, Tom may engage in yet another set of behaviors, such as ingratiation or supplication. Tom engages in a wide variety of self-presentational behaviors and displays many different side of his personas, in an attempt to remedy what is perceived to be a poor interaction or a poor relationship. Conversely, perceiving the partner to be supportive, responsive, and sympathetic may signal that there is a mutual understanding of who each person is and that the relationship is faring well and no remedial behaviors are needed.

Furthermore, it may be that the effects of perceptions of the interaction partner will differ as a function of how close the actor feels to the interaction partner. When interacting with someone close – someone, who is important – perceiving the interaction partner to

behave negatively may have stronger effects on self-presentation. When the actor feels close to the interaction partner, but perceives the partner's behavior to be negative, the actor may feel an increased sense of potential loss; that is, the actor has invested in the relationship, but the relationship is not faring well, and thus, the actor may engage in more self-presentation in order to remedy the relationship. Conversely, when if the actor feels close to the interaction partner and the partner evinces positive qualities, the actor likely feels safe and no remedial behaviors are needed.

Study 1

Study 1 sought to examine the effect of closeness and perceptions of interaction partners' characteristics on self-presentation. Participants reported on six different interaction partners; specifically, they reported on perceptions of characteristics of the interaction partners, how close they feel to them and the extent to which they tend to engage in self-presentation when interacting with them.

Study 1 Hypotheses

The meager literature on self-presentation across a variety of relationships has indirectly or directly focused on closeness as a predictor of self-presentation. Although Dunn and colleagues (2007) as well as Tice and colleagues (1995) and Gosnell and colleagues (2009) found that less self-presentation occurred in relationships that were closer, the methods used in these studies only examined a limited version of self-presentation. Conversely, Leary & Allen (2011) and Øverup (Øverup & Neighbors, 2013; Øverup, et al., 2014) found that participants engaged in more self-presentation to individuals with whom they were closer. For this reason, it seemed advisable to examine variability of self-presentational personas, in addition to self-presentational tactics. By assessing both, it is

22

possible to examine whether self-presentation personas functions similarly to self-presentational tactics.

Based on previous research, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H1. Self-presentation occurs as a function of closeness. That is,

    a)   People will have more variable personas when interacting with individuals to whom they are close compared with people to whom they are less close.

    b)   People will report engaging in more self-presentation tactics with people to whom they are close as compared with individuals to whom they are less close.

As perceptions of negative characteristics or behaviors on the part of the interaction partner may signal that the interaction partner has views that are discrepant from one's self-views, or that the relationship is not faring well, I expected that:

H2. When individuals perceive the interaction partner to be critical, quarrelsome, easily upset, careless and reserved, and controlling and dominant (negative characteristics), they will report a) more variable personas and b) engaging in more self-presentation.

Conversely, as perceptions of positive characteristics or behaviors in the interaction partner may signal congruence between self-views and the interaction partner's views on oneself, or that the relationship is a good one, I expected that:

H3. When individuals perceive the interaction partner to be enthusiastic, open to new experiences, sympathetic and warm, calm, humorous, tolerant and accepting and

understanding (positive characteristics), they will report a) less variable personas and b) engaging in less self-presentation.

Additionally, it may be that the effect of negative partner characteristics will vary as a function of closeness; perceiving negative characteristics and behaviors in the interaction partner may be perceived as more threatening (i.e., may signal interpersonal negative ramifications, like loss of relationship or loss of esteem) when one is very close to the interaction partner. For this reason, I expected that:

H4. Perceiving the interaction partner to be critical, quarrelsome, easily upset, careless and reserved, and controlling and dominant (negative characteristics) will interact with closeness to predict self-presentation, such that

a) Individuals will report more variable personas, when they are high in closeness but perceive the interaction partner to be high in the negative characteristics, and will report less variable personas, when high in closeness and perceive the interaction partner to be low in negative characteristics. There will be only a weak association between perceptions of negative characteristics and variability of personas, when closeness is low.

b) Individuals will report more self-presentational tactics, when they are high in closeness but perceive the interaction partner to be high in the negative characteristics, and will report less self-presentational tactics, when high in closeness and perceive the interaction partner to be low in negative characteristics. There will be only a weak association between perceptions

of negative characteristics and self-presentational tactics, when closeness is low.

Conversely, perceiving positive characteristics and behaviors in the interaction partner may lead one to feel more comfortable and safe (i.e., unlikely loss of esteem or affiliation) when interacting with someone with whom one feel close. Therefore, I expected that:

H5. Perceiving that the interaction partner is enthusiastic, open to new experiences, sympathetic and warm, calm, humorous, tolerant and accepting (positive characteristics) will interact with closeness to predict self-presentation, such that

a) Individuals will report less variable personas, when they are high in closeness and perceive the interaction partner to be high in the positive characteristics, and will report more variable personas, when high in closeness and perceive the interaction partner to be low in positive characteristics. There will be only a weak association between perceptions of positive characteristics and variability of personas, when closeness is low.

b) Individuals will report less self-presentational tactics, when they are high in closeness but perceive the interaction partner to be high in the positive characteristics, and will report more self-presentational tactics, when high in closeness and perceive the interaction partner to be low in positive characteristics. There will be only a weak association between perceptions of positive characteristics and self-presentational tactics, when closeness is low.

Participants

        Participants (N = 202) were recruited from among undergraduate students at a large metropolitan university in Texas. The study recruited from among the SONA participant pool, flyers were hung around campus, and research assistants went to class rooms to inform students of the research opportunity. The sample (163 women and 39 men) ranged from 18 to 47 years in age (M = 23.35, SD = 5.17). In order to be eligible, participants had to be in a current relationship of 3 months or more. Specifically, 6% reported being casually dating, 72% were in a serious relationship, 5% were engaged and 17% were married. The sample was ethnically diverse, with 34% Hispanic, 24% Caucasian, 22% Asian, 12% African-American, 3% Middle Eastern, and 5% reporting being multi-racial or 'other'. Students were given partial course credit for participation.

Procedure

        To sign up for the study, participants were able to click on a link in SONA (the University of Houston participant pool for the departments of Psychology, Educational Psychology, Human Development and Family Studies, and Health Education) to enter an online survey. Prior to commencing the online survey, they were asked to electronically agree to an informed consent form, which explained the procedures of the study and informed them that they could quit the study any time they should wish to do so. They were asked to select a person matching each of 6 different relationship types. They were then presented with a set of measures, which they completed for each person they selected. Following the completion of the measures, participants were thanked and received extra credit for their participation. For Study 1 protocol, please see Appendix A.

Materials

  Relationship Types. Participants were asked to select a person matching each of the following groups: 1) Romantic partner, 2) a parent, 3) a friend, 4) a classmate/coworker, 5) a casual acquaintance or stranger (e.g., "store clerk"), and 6) an authority figure; these individuals were also targets used by Leary & Allen, 2011. For each of these individuals, they entered the first name or a nickname of the person, along with other relationship specific questions (e.g., length of friendship/acquaintanceship, frequency of interaction). These partners were displayed in random order.

  Self-presentational Personas. Participants were asked to rate how they wish to be seen by each of the above individuals on each of the following traits: (a) friendly, warm; (b) competent, intelligent; (c) helpless, depends on others; (d) intimidating, threatening; (e) outgoing, sociable; (f) stable, unemotional; (g) dependable, conscientious; (h) honest, ethical; (i) dominant, forceful; (j) unique, different from most other people; (k) humorous, playful; (l) sexy, sensual; (m) kind, generous; (n) curious, open to new ideas; and (o) religious, spiritual. These 14 self-presentational dimensions were taken from Leary & Allen, 2011, who selected the traits based on a review of basic self-presentational dimensions that have been discussed in the literature (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Lee et al., 1999; Schlenker, 1980). These items were rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 9 (very much). A self-presentational persona variability score was created for each interaction partner by calculating the standard deviation of the above mentioned traits. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} = .733, \alpha_{parent} = .672, \alpha_{friend} = .741, \alpha_{classmate} = .776, \alpha_{stranger} = .810, \alpha_{authority\ figure} = .800$).

  Self-presentational behaviors. Participants were asked to complete a shortened version of the Self-presentation Tactics Scale (Lee, et al., 1999). The Self-Presentation

Tactics Scale 63 item scale examines the extent to which an individual engages in self-presentation. The original scale consists of two subscales, which measures assertive and defensive self-presentation; the two subscales can be further parsed into 12 self-presentational tactics (ingratiation, intimidation, supplication, entitlement, enhancement, blasting, exemplification, excuse, justification, disclaimer, self-handicapping, and apology). However, for the purposes of the current study, we focus solely on overall self-presentation, and not the two subscales. Additionally, this measure is constructed as a general measure of self-presentation across all interactions, however, for this study, we adapted it, such that participants were asked to think of a specific interaction partner when answering these questions. Additionally, the original items measuring self-handicapping were not worded to reflect the interpersonal nature of self-presentation; these items were also re-worded for the purpose of the current study. Statements were rated on a 9-point Likert scale (1 = very infrequently; 9 = very frequently).

Due to concerns about participant burden, confirmatory factor analyses were performed to reduce the number of items in the scale (n = 359 students from the University of Houston). Separate factor analyses were performed for each of the 12 self-presentational tactics with the aim of extracting the single best loading item from each subscale. This was done to preserve scale content, while reducing the item set to 12 items. Table 3 shows the items and their loading on each subscale. The reduced item set from the factor analysis yielded an acceptable alpha value (α = .85). An overall self-presentational tactics score was created for each interaction partner by averaging across the 12 items extracted from the CFA ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner}$ = .862, α_{parent} = .823, α_{friend} = .841, $\alpha_{classmate}$ = .852, $\alpha_{stranger}$ = .889, $\alpha_{authority\ figure}$ = .870).

Table 3. *Reduced item set for the self-presentational tactics scale.*

Subscale	Item #	Item wording	Factor loading
Assertive			
Supplication	14	I lead my partner/friend to believe that I cannot do something in order to get help.	.78
Enhancement	29	When talking to my partner/friend I exaggerate the value of my accomplishments.	.67
Entitlement	45	When working on a project with my partner/friend I make my contribution seem greater than it is.	.78
Blasting	55	When talking to my partner/friend I make negative statements about people belonging to rival groups.	.83
Exemplification	23	I try to set an example for my partner/friend to follow.	.83
Ingratiation	62	I compliment my partner/friend to get him/her on my side.	.75
Intimidation	50	I intimidate my partner/friend.	.67
Defensive			
Apology	17	I try to make up for any harm I have done to my partner/friend.	.77
Excuse	38	With my partner/friend, when I am blamed for something, I make excuses	.85
Disclaimer	24	I justify beforehand actions my partner/friend may not like.	.74
Justification	44	When my partner/friend views my behavior as negative, I offer explanations so that he/she will understand that my behavior was justified.	.79
Self-handicapping	56	I put obstacles in the way of my own relationship with my partner/friend.	.76

Note. Items will be reworded such that the name of the person will appear instead of partner/friend. Item # refers to the item number if the original version of the scale.

Partner Characteristics. Participants were asked to rate each of the target individuals on a series of characteristics. Specifically, they rated each individuals on the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003). The scale contains two items to measure each of the 5 domains (extraversion, openness to new experiences, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness); within each domain, one item is worded to measure the high end of the spectrum (e.g., high extraversion is measured by the item "extraverted, enthusiastic) and one item is worded to measure the low end of the spectrum (e.g., low extraversion is measures by the item "reserved, quiet"). Items are rated on a 7-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strong agree).

Additionally, to augment the TIPI, participants responded to selected items from the Interpersonal Qualities Scale (IQS; Murray, Holmes & Griffin, 1996; Murray & Holmes, 1997). This 21 item scale was developed based on the interpersonal circumplex (Leary, 1957; Wiggins, 1979), which measures personality along the dimensions of warmth-hostility and dominance-submissiveness. Selected items were: Open and disclosing, kind and affectionate, tolerant and accepting, and controlling and dominant. The IQS also contained items that represent a number of characteristics often considered in the social exchange process (e.g., Rubin, 1973). These items include witty and humorous, understanding and responsive. These items were rated along the same scale as the TIPI.

These characteristics were divided into positive and negative characteristics. The positive characteristics from the TIPI were extraverted/enthusiastic, open to new experiences, sympathetic/warm, calm/emotionally stable, and the positive characteristics from the IQS were open and disclosing, witty and humorous, kinds and affectionate, and tolerant and accepting. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} = .764$, $\alpha_{parent} = .822$, $\alpha_{friend} = .784$, $\alpha_{classmate} =$

$.899, \alpha_{stranger} = .909, \alpha_{authority\ figure} = .879$). The negative characteristics from the TIPI were critical/quarrelsome, anxious/easily upset, reserved/quiet, and disorganized/careless, and the negative characteristics from the IQS were controlling and dominant. An average score was created for each interaction partner, for positive and negative characteristics separately. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} = .584$, $\alpha_{parent} = .458$, $\alpha_{friend} = .490$, $\alpha_{classmate} = .523$, $\alpha_{stranger} = .601$, $\alpha_{authority\ figure} = .638$)

Closeness. Closeness was measured in two ways. First, participants were asked to complete the Inclusion of Other in Self scale (IOS; Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992). This single item pictorial scale, which measures felt closeness, consisted of 7 Venn diagrams, with varying degrees of overlap.

Secondly, participants were asked to complete the Unidimentional Relationship Closeness Scale (URCS; Dibble, Levine & Park, 2011). This measure consisted of 12 items, which asked participants to reflect on how close they feel to a target person. Example items included "My _____ and I disclose important personal things to each other" and "My relationship with my _____ is important in my life." The scale was established to function consistently across a variety of relationships (friends, romantic partners, parents) and to discriminate between relationships (friends and strangers). Items are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). These two measures were combined to create an overall closeness measure; this approach has been found to be valid (Dibble et al., 2011). ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} = .959$, $\alpha_{parent} = .949$, $\alpha_{friend} = .941$, $\alpha_{classmate} = .944$, $\alpha_{stranger} = .936$, $\alpha_{authority\ figure} = .935$).

Results

    Plan of analysis. For all analyses, the outcomes of interest were the variability of the self-presentational personas and the average self-presentational tactics score. For the self-presentational personas, the standard deviation of the persona ratings was calculated for each interaction partner (within-person) (see Table 4 for example of data structure); the mean of the self-presentational tactics was calculated for each interaction partner. Additionally, a mean score of the negative partner characteristics and a mean score of the positive partner characteristics was calculated. As the data set was multi- level, with level 1 being the responses for each of the interaction partners and level 2 being the participant, all hypotheses were examined using multi-level modeling.

    Hypothesis 1 posited that self-presentation varies as a function of closeness, while hypothesis 2 posited that perceiving negative characteristics in the interaction partner is associated with more variable personas and with more self-presentation and Hypothesis 3 stated that perceiving positive characteristics in the interaction partner is associated with less variable personas and less self-presentation. To examine these hypotheses, two sets of multi-level models were constructed, one with the standard deviation of the self-presentational persona as the outcome and one with the mean of the self-presentational tactics as the outcome. In these analyses, the independent variables were self-reported perceived closeness, a mean score of the positive characteristics and a mean score of the negative characteristics. As hypothesis 1-3 posits main effects only, these main effects were examined in the same analysis; it was done to provide a more robust estimate of the effects, as estimates would then reflect unique contributions of each variable to the model (similar to Type 3 sums of square in traditional fixed regression).

Table 4. *Example of data structure (Study 1).*

Person ID	Partner ID	Trait 1	Trait 2	Trait 3	Trait 4	...	Trait K	Variability of characteristics
1	1	2	2	4	5	...	6	3.2
1	2	5	5	5	7	...	8	2
1	3	3	6	6	1	...	9	9.5
1	4	6	7	9	2	...	7	6.7
1	5	8	1	8	3	...	5	9.5
1	6	9	2	2	6	...	1	11.5
2	1	2	3	1	4	...	2	1.3
2	2	2	6	3	5	...	3	2.7
2	3	6	8	6	9	...	3	5.3
2	4	9	5	7	8	...	2	7.7
2	5	8	2	5	2	...	5	6.3
2	6	7	9	2	2	...	6	9.7
3	1	2	8	6	3	...	7	6.7
3	2	6	5	5	1	...	8	6.5
3	3	4	2	2	5	...	4	1.8
3	4	3	6	1	6	...	9	9.5
3	5	1	9	3	2	...	6	10.7
3	6	6	8	9	5	...	5	3.3

Note. Variability of characteristics is estimated for the sample using the following formula:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(x-\bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

To examine hypothesis 4 and 5, that closeness and perceptions of the partner's characteristics interact to predict self-presentation, two sets of multilevel models were constructed -- one with the self-presentational persona-variance as the outcome and one with the mean of the self-presentational behavior as the outcome. All main effects were entered, as well as the interaction term between closeness and positive partner characteristics, and the interaction term between closeness and negative partner characteristics. Thus, both interactions were estimated simultaneously. Interactions were plotted and simple slopes were calculated by estimating the predicted values at 1 SD above and below the mean (Aiken &

West, 1991); this approach has previously been used in used in multi-level modeling analyses (e.g., Gosnell et al., 2009).

Level-1 predictors were group-centered (that is, centered by person), such that between-person differences are removed and estimates purely reflected the change in the outcome as a function of the change in the predictors within-person. A person-grand-mean was calculated for all level-1 predictors by averaging across targets but within person; these person-grand-means (which become level-2 predictors) were grand-mean centered and entered into the model as covariates. Estimates associated with these person-grand-means reflect between-person variability in the outcome; these predictors are, however, not of interest in the current set of analyses. Additionally, a variable for interaction partner was also entered as a covariate (this variable was also entered in to a class statement to denote its nominal format).

Analyses were performed using SAS PROC MIXED. A random intercept was specified with an unstructured covariance matrix, and a repeated statement was specified for the interaction partner, also with an unstructured covariance matrix. Denominator degrees of freedom were estimated using the Kenward-Rogers method.

Descriptive statistics. Each relationship specified for the stranger and authority target was evaluated for fit to the category. Twenty seven relationships were flagged for the stranger category; the majority of the relationships specified reflected relationships that were covered by other categories (i.e., class mate, coworker, friend). For the authority figure category, six relationships were flagged for fitting other categories; examples of the relationships flagged included friend, coworker, and significant other. These target individuals were excluded from all subsequent analyses.

34

With regard to the parent relationship, one hundred and fifty one participants reported on their mother, forty two reported on their father, two individuals reported on their step-mother and seven persons reported on some other family relationships, such as aunt and grandmother. For friend relationships, fourteen participants reported on someone with whom they were 'just friends', fifty eight individuals reported on a good friend and one hundred and thirty individuals reported on their best friend. And finally, with regard to class mate or coworker relationship, ninety three participants reported on a classmate, and one hundred and eight individuals reported on a co-worker. For the casual acquaintance and the stranger, a variety of relationships were specified.

Table 5 displays inter-correlations as well as means and standard deviations for all (level-1) variables of interest; Table 6 depicts the mean for variability of self-presentational personas, self-presentational tactics and closeness by interaction partner. All variables were significantly associated. Variability of self-presentational personas was negatively associated with the self-presentational tactics and with negative partner characteristics, but positively associated with closeness and positive partner characteristics. Self-presentational tactics were positively associated with closeness, as well as both the positive and negative partner characteristics. Closeness was positively associated with both positive and negative partner characteristics; the positive partner characteristics were negatively associated with the negative partner characteristics.

Table 5. *Study 1: Inter-correlations among study variables, with means and standard deviations.*

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Persona	*0.53*				
2	Self-presentation	-0.12***	*0.42*			
3	Closeness	0.11***	0.39***	--		
4	Positive characteristics	0.39***	0.11***	0.42***	--	
5	Negative characteristics	-0.25***	0.39***	0.13***	-0.21***	--
	Mean	2.72	2.77	3.82	5.17	3.09
	Standard Deviation	0.76	1.23	2.18	1.20	1.16

Note. *** $p < .001$. Italicized values on the diagonal represents ICCs (variance that is due to between-person differences).

Table 6. *Study 1: Means and standard deviations on measures of self-presentation and closeness for each of six types of interaction partner*

Interaction partner	Self-presentational persona		Self-presentational tactics		Closeness	
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
Romantic partner	2.754	0.651	3.493	1.250	6.306	0.973
Parent	2.833	0.638	3.202	1.154	5.436	1.342
Friend	2.704	0.745	2.866	1.113	5.048	1.274
Classmate/co-worker	2.710	0.717	2.519	1.115	2.273	1.118
Stranger	2.472	0.951	2.032	1.029	1.451	0.754
Authority figure	2.827	0.790	2.371	1.124	2.105	1.113

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3: Main effects of closeness, positive and negative characteristics of interaction partner.

Self-presentational personas as outcome. Table 7, top, displays the results of the main effects of closeness, positive partner characteristics and negative partner characteristics. Analyses revealed a significant and positive association between closeness and variability of self-presentational personas, such that as individuals reported feeling closer to the target person, the more variable their self-presentational persona with the target person was. There was also a significant and positive main effect of perceptions of positive partner traits, such that individuals reported more variability in their self-presentational personas when they perceived positive characteristics in the interaction partner. The main effect for negative partner characteristics was not significant, indicating that there was no association between variability of self-presentational persona and perceptions of negative characteristics in the interaction partner.

Self-presentational tactics as outcome. Table 8, top, displays the results of the main effects of closeness, positive partner characteristics and negative partner characteristics. Similarly to the self-presentational personas, there was a significant and positive association between closeness and self-presentational tactics, such that as individuals reported feeling closer to the target person, they also reported engaging in more self-presentational behaviors. Unlike the self-presentational persona analyses, however, there was no significant main effect of positive characteristics, but instead a significant positive main effect of negative characteristics. People reported engaging in more self-presentational behaviors with individuals in whom they perceived negative characteristics.

37

Table 7. *Study 1: Main effects and interaction effects of closeness, positive and negative partner characteristics, with self-presentational personas as outcome.*

Effect	Estimate	St. Error	*t*-value	*p*
Main effect model				
Intercept	2.10	0.31	6.85	<0.001
Closeness	0.04	0.01	2.65	0.008
Positive characteristics	0.14	0.02	8.18	<0.001
Negative characteristics	-0.02	0.02	-1.33	0.184
Closeness (between)	-0.16	0.06	-2.63	0.009
Positive characteristics (between)	0.40	0.05	7.32	<0.001
Negative characteristics (between)	-0.22	0.04	-5.03	<0.001
Interaction effect model				
Intercept	2.90	0.05	53.39	<0.001
Closeness	0.04	0.01	2.85	0.005
Positive characteristics	0.14	0.02	7.87	<0.001
Closeness X Positive characteristics	-0.00	0.01	-0.49	0.627
Negative characteristics	-0.02	0.02	-1.15	0.249
Closeness X Negative characteristics	-0.01	0.01	-1.75	0.081
Closeness (between)	-0.17	0.06	-2.71	0.007
Positive characteristics (between)	0.40	0.06	7.20	<0.001
Negative characteristics (between)	-0.22	0.04	-5.04	<0.001

Note. (between) refers to the person-grand-mean covariates. Estimates for interaction partner has been removed for easy of reading.

Table 8. *Study 1: Main effects and interaction effects of closeness, positive and negative*

partner characteristics, with self-presentational tactics as outcome.

Effect	Estimate	St. Error	*t*-value	*p*
Main effect model				
Intercept	2.61	0.08	32.12	<0.001
Closeness	0.11	0.02	4.89	<0.001
Positive characteristics	-0.01	0.03	-0.36	0.719
Negative characteristics	0.19	0.03	6.99	<0.001
Closeness (between)	0.22	0.11	2.07	0.040
Positive characteristics (between)	0.08	0.09	0.81	0.419
Negative characteristics (between)	0.54	0.07	7.18	<0.001
Interaction effect model				
Intercept	2.64	0.08	32.28	<0.001
Closeness	0.13	0.02	5.35	<0.001
Positive characteristics	-0.04	0.03	-1.38	0.168
Closeness X Positive characteristics	-0.04	0.01	-3.43	<0.001
Negative characteristics	0.18	0.03	6.64	<0.001
Closeness X Negative characteristics	-0.01	0.01	-0.71	0.481
Closeness (between)	0.24	0.10	2.29	0.023
Positive characteristics (between)	0.04	0.09	0.45	0.653
Negative characteristics (between)	0.51	0.07	6.97	<0.001

Note. (between) refers to the person-grand-mean covariates. Estimates for interaction

partner has been removed for easy of reading.

Hypothesis 4 and 5: Interactions between closeness and perceived partner characteristics.

Self-presentational personas as outcome. The main effects analyses were followed up by analyses which included the interactions between closeness and positive partner characteristics, and closeness and negative partner characteristics. Table 7, bottom, presents the results of these analyses. The interaction between closeness and positive characteristics was not significant, indicating that the association between the variability of individuals' self-presentational personas and closeness did not vary as a function of positive perceptions of the partner. There was however a marginally significant interaction between closeness and perceptions of negative partner characteristics[3]. Although the interaction was not significant, a plot was produced to probe the direction of the interaction (see Figure 1). Analysis of simple slopes indicated that for those who felt less close to the interaction partner, there was not an association between perceptions of negative characteristics in the partner and variability of their self-presentational persona. For those who felt closer to the interaction partner, there was a significant negative association between perceptions of negative characteristics in the partner and variability of the self-presentational persona, such that the more negative characteristics they perceived the less variable their self-presentational persona was.

Self-presentational tactics as outcome. Bottom of Table 8 displays the results of the interaction analyses, which were conducted as a follow-up to the main effects analyses. There was a significant interaction between closeness and perceived positive characteristics in predicting self-presentational tactics. Figure 2 depicts the plot of the interaction. Analysis of simple slopes revealed that for those lower in closeness, there was no significant association

40

between closeness and perceptions of positive characteristics in predicting self-presentation. However, for those who felt closer to the target person, there was a negative association, such that the more positive characteristics they perceived in the interaction partner, the fewer self-presentational behaviors they engaged in. The interaction between closeness and perceived negative characteristics was not significant, indicating that the association between self-presentational behaviors and closeness did not vary as a function of negative perceptions of the partner.

Figure 1. Study 1: Perceptions of negative characteristics in interaction partner as a moderator of closeness in predicting self-presentational personas (Hypothesis 4)

41
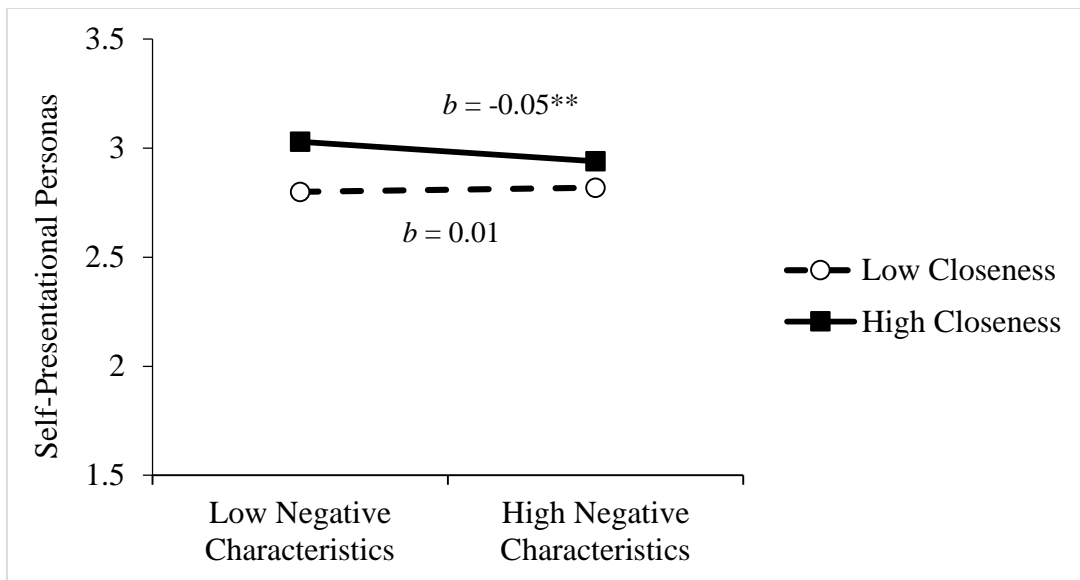
Figure 2. Study 1: Perceptions of positive characteristics in interaction partner as a moderator of closeness in predicting self-presentational tactics (Hypothesis 5)
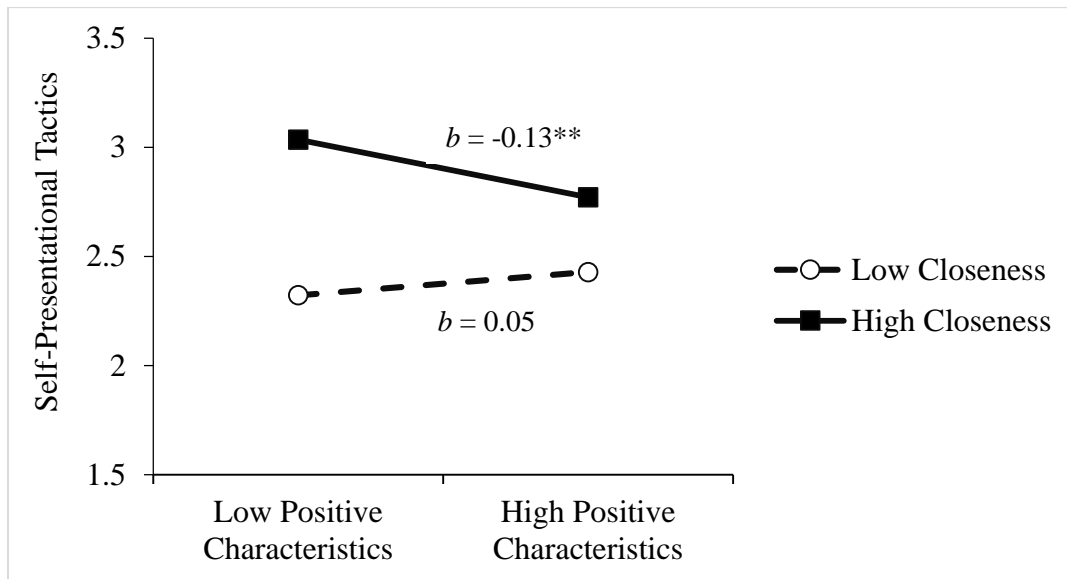
Ancillary Analyses. It is possible that the somewhat divergent findings for the variability of self-presentational personas and self-presentational tactics measures were due to the two different measures used. Therefore, ancillary analyses were performed to examine whether the results for the variability of self-presentational personas would replicate when examining variability of self-presentational tactics. Specifically, a variability score for the self-presentational tactics was created by calculating the standard deviation of the self-presentational tactics item for each interaction partner. Analyses were performed as described above.

Results revealed that similar to the analyses with variability of self-presentational as outcome, there was a significant main effect for closeness ($b = 0.0832$, $p < 0.001$), such that as individuals reported feeling closer to the interaction partner, their use of self-presentational tactics was more variable. There was also a significant main effect of positive characteristics

($b = 0.076$, $p < 0.001$) and a significant main effect for negative partner characteristics ($b = 0.064$, $p = 0.001$), suggesting that in response to perceptions of both positive and negative partner characteristics, individuals reported using a greater variety of self-presentational tactics.

Contrary to the findings for the persona measure, there was a marginally significant interaction between closeness and positive partner characteristics ($b = -0.017$, $p = 0.052$). Analyses of simple slopes indicated that for those higher in closeness, there was no significant association between closeness and perceptions of positive characteristics in predicting variability of self-presentational tactics ($b = 0.033$, $p = 0.259$). However, for those who felt less close to the interaction partner, there was a positive association ($b = 0.105$, $p = < 0.001$), such that the more positive characteristics individuals perceived in the interaction partner, the more variability there was in their self-presentational tactics. There was also a marginally significant interaction between closeness and negative partner characteristics ($b = -0.017$, $p = 0.075$)[4]. Again, there was not a significant association between closeness and perceptions of negative characteristics in predicting variability of self-presentational tactics for those at higher levels of closeness ($b = 0.033$, $p = 0.188$), whereas there was a significant association for those lower in closeness ($b = 0.102$, $p < 0.001$), such that as individuals reported perceiving more negative characteristics in the interaction partner, the more variability there was in their self-presentational tactics.

Study 1 Summary

There was mixed support for the hypotheses. In support of H1a and H1b, perceptions of closeness were positively associated with both variability of self-presentational personas and level of self-presentation. That is, people reported engaging in more self-presentation,

and that their self-presentational personas were more variable, with individuals with whom they were closer. There was partial support for H2, such that participant reported engaging in more self-presentation as a function of perceiving negative characteristics in the interaction partner (H2b), but their self-presentational personas were not more variable (H2a). However, the ancillary analyses did find that the more negative characteristics individuals perceived in the interaction partner, the more variable their use of self-presentational tactics was. There was only partial support for H3; specifically, there was no support for hypothesis 3a as results were in the opposite direction from expected. There was support, however, for H3b. Results revealed that participants reported more variable (as opposed to less variable) self-presentational personas as a function of perceiving positive characteristics in the interaction partner (H3a), but did not report engaging in more self-presentation (H3b). Similarly, as indicated by the ancillary analyses, participants reported using a greater variety of self-presentational tactics in response to perceptions of positive characteristics in the interaction partner, as well. Of note, it is curious that with regards to mean-level of self-presentational tactics, only negative characteristics was a predictor and with regards to variability of self-presentational personas, only positive characteristics served as a predictor. This may indicate that they represent slightly different constructs; that is, a person may engage in a lot of self-presentation tactics, but that the image (persona) presented may not be very variable. Conversely, a person may not report engaging in many self-presentation tactics, but the image presented may be more varied.

The findings were also mixed with regards to H4 and H5. In support of H4a, there was a marginal interaction between closeness and perceptions of negative characteristics in predicting variability of self-presentational personas. The pattern of effect was partially

consistent with expectations; specifically, the association between perceptions of negative

characteristics in the interaction partner and variability of self-presentational personas was

not significant for low closeness. However, contrary to expectations, participants reported

more variable self-presentational personas when they felt closer to the interaction partner and

perceived fewer negative characteristics, and less self-presentation when they perceived more

negative characteristics. Given the non-significant nature of the interaction, as well as the

fact that it was partially opposite to expectation, caution must be used when interpreting the

meaning of this interaction. However, it appears that perhaps when individuals perceive

fewer negative characteristics in their interaction partner, they are freer to be a variety of

selves. That is, individuals may feel more comfortable to reveal many aspects of their

identity, rather than use self-presentation as a remedial tool to improve understanding of the

self and the welfare of the relationship. Conversely, less self-presentation is used (i.e.,

personas are less variable) when perceiving more negative characteristics in the interaction

partner. Perceiving more negative characteristics in the other may indicate threat to the self,

in that such negative characteristics may signal disapproval from the other (e.g.,

critical/quarrelsome, and controlling and dominant) or that the other is not doing so well

(e.g., anxious/easily upset, reserved/quiet, and disorganized/careless). Regardless, the self is

put in a precarious situation, in which it may feel the need to protect itself from further harm

(e.g., criticism from the other, or the feelings associated with interacting with someone whom

of whom one does not feel sure). Thus, perceiving negative characteristics in the other may

lead to less variable self-presentational personas, as the person may attempt to reveal less

about the self in order to protect the self.

In support of H5b, there was a significant interaction between closeness and perceptions of positive characteristics in the interaction partner in predicting self-presentational tactics. As expected, the association between perceptions of positive characteristics in the interaction partner and the use of self-presentational tactics was not significant for low closeness. The association for high closeness was also as expected, such that individuals reported more self-presentation when they felt more closeness but perceived fewer positive characteristics in the interaction partner, and less self-presentation when they perceived more positive characteristics. This interaction may indicate that indeed, when perceiving fewer positive characteristics in the interaction partner, individuals use self-presentation as a remedial tool for improving interpersonal understanding and maintaining a good relationship. Conversely, when perceiving more positive characteristics in the interaction partner, individuals engage in less self-presentation because they feel more comfortable and safe, (i.e., it is less likely that the interaction will lead to a loss of esteem or affiliation).

The results of the ancillary analyses were somewhat inconsistent with the findings for the self-presentational personas. Contrary to the results for self-presentational personas, individuals reported more variable self-presentational tactics with individual's with whom they felt less close. Furthermore, the more negative *and* the more positive characteristics they perceived in the interaction partner, the more variable their self-presentational tactics were. It may be that individuals use a greater variety of self-presentational tactics in response to perceptions of positive and negative characteristics for different reasons. When perceiving positive characteristics, individuals may perceive that the interaction partner is inviting and accepting; they may perceive that there is a chance to improve the relationship and attain

46

greater closeness with the interaction partner. However, when perceiving negative characteristics in the interaction partner, individuals may use a greater variety of self-presentational tactics to assuage the interaction partner; in that case, individual may use self-presentation as a remedial tool, aimed at portraying a more unified persona, but perceiving the need to use many different behaviors to do so (e.g., a person may wish to appear humble and likeable, and may use a variety of behaviors to do so, such as ingratiation, supplication, excuse, justification, disclaimer, self-handicapping, and apology). Again, the ulterior motive may be to gain the favor of the other person and to build a more positive and a closer relationship. It should be noted that the overall estimated mean level of variability of self-presentational tactics was higher for higher levels of closeness than for lower levels of closeness; that is, individuals reported more variable use of self-presentational tactics with individuals with whom they felt close, regardless of the extent to which they perceived positive or negative characteristics in the interaction partner.

Thus, it appears that variability of self-presentational tactics also functions differently, or presents a different construct, than variability of self-presentational personas. As inherent in the measures, the self-presentational tactics measure concerns behaviors, as enacted when interacting with various others. Self-presentational personas instead concerns how individuals want to appear when interacting with others. As indicated by the findings, these two do not correspond to each other; that is, a persona may be more variable, but a person may use fewer self-presentational tactics to convey that persona (i.e., less variability in tactics), or vice versa.

<center>**Study 2**</center>

Similarly to Study 1, Study 2 sought to examine the effect of perceptions of partner characteristics on self-presentation; furthermore, it sought to examine the effect of self-presentation on satisfaction with the relationship and with the interaction. Unlike Study 1, the focus of Study 2 was on daily interactions; thus, Study 2 used a daily diary procedure, in which participants reported on interactions with a maximum of six individuals each day. Specifically, they reported on perceptions of the interaction partner during the interaction, the extent to which they engaged in self-presentation and their subsequent satisfaction with the interaction. Furthermore, Study 2 only assessed self-presentational behaviors; personas were not assessed at the daily level.

Study 2 Hypotheses

Similarly to Hypothesis 2 and 3 in Study 1, I expected that:

> H1. On days, when the partner is perceived to be critical, quarrelsome, easily upset, careless and reserved, and controlling and dominant (negative characteristics), the participant will report engaging in more self-presentation.

> H2. On days, when the partner is perceived to be enthusiastic, open to new experiences, sympathetic and warm, calm, humorous, tolerant and accepting and understanding (positive characteristics), the participant will report engaging in less self-presentation.

As speculated above, people may engage in self-presentation when they feel misunderstood by the interaction partner. Such feelings of being misunderstood may carry with it feelings that the interaction did not go as desired; in short, the interaction was not good. Also, perceiving that they are misunderstood by the interaction partner, actors may infer that the

<center>48</center>

relationship is bad, assuming that in good relationships, partners always understand each other. Thus, I expected that:

> H3. On days, when engaging in more self-presentation, the participant will report
>
> > a) more dissatisfaction with the interaction and
> >
> > b) more dissatisfaction with the relationship.

Participants

A total of 132 participants were recruited from among undergraduate students at a large metropolitan university in Texas; the study recruited from among the SONA participant pool, flyers were hung around campus and research assistants went to classrooms to inform students of the research opportunity. Three participants did not provide any diary data and were therefore excluded. All subsequent analyses utilize the 129 participants which did provide some daily reports.

The sample (107 women and 22 men) ranged from 18 to 59 years in age ($M = 22.94$, $SD = 5.70$). In order to be eligible, participants had to be in a current relationship of 3 months or more. Specifically, 2% reported being casually dating, 80% were in a serious relationship, 3% were engaged and 15% were married. The sample was ethnically diverse, with 38% Hispanic/Latino, 21% Caucasian, 15.5% African-American/Black, 15% Asian/Pacific Islander, 5% Middle Eastern, 5.5 % reporting multi-racial or 'Other'. Students were given partial course credit for participation.

Procedure

Recruitment materials indicated that study consisted of multiple parts, including a baseline survey and a 14-day daily diary. In order to participate in the study, participants logged into SONA, where they could sign up for a 1-hour orientation session in which they

would complete the baseline measure. During the orientation session, they were instructed in the guidelines of the study and provided with a handout covering these guidelines. Specifically, they were instructed that they were to complete the daily diary before going to bed, and to report on same-day interactions (meaning, they should not complete a diary for the day before, and they should not complete the diary in the middle of the day). To facilitate this, e-mail reminders containing a link to the survey were sent each night to an e-mail addressed provided by the participant. They were instructed that they had to complete at least 12 days of the 14 daily diaries to qualify for the extra credit. They were also told that interactions reported should have lasted at least 5 minutes, should preferably be one-on-one, rather than as part of a larger group of people, and should either be face-to-face or through video-calling using Skype, Facetime or Google Hang-out (interactions should not occur through a phone call, online chats, text messaging, etc). To see Study 2 protocol, please see Appendix B for the baseline survey and Appendix C for the daily diary survey.

Baseline survey. Participants completed the baseline survey during the orientation session. The baseline survey asked them to choose 6 people matching the following categories: 1) Romantic partner, 2) a parent, 3) a friend, 4) classmate or co-worker, 5) a casual acquaintance or stranger (e.g., "store clerk"), and 6) an authority figure; these individuals mirrored those examined in Study 1. Participants were informed that they would be reporting on interactions with these people on a daily basis. Similarly to Study 1, upon providing basic information about the six people (such as length of relationship and frequency of interactions), participants then completed a set of measures for each person from the above list; these measures asked the participant to think about how they generally perceive the target person and how they generally behave towards the other. The measures

for the baseline were identical to those of Study 1, with the exception of the partner

characteristics, which only included the TIPI (Gosling, et al., 2003). See Appendix B.

Daily Diary. Each night before going to bed, participants reported on interactions, if

any, they had with the six people they had chosen during the baseline measure. For each

person the participants reported having interacted with on a given day, they completed the

self-presentational tactics scale and the TIPI. The self-presentational tactics scale was the 12-

item short version of the 63-item original scale created for Study 1. Participants responded to

each item using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly

agree. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} = .864, \alpha_{parent} = .868, \alpha_{friend} = .850, \alpha_{classmate} =$

$.848, \alpha_{stranger} = .869, \alpha_{authority\ figure} = .870$).

The 10-item TIPI (Gosling et al., 2003) was used to measure perceptions of positive

and negative characteristics in the interaction partner during the interaction. Participants

responded using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from (1) not at all characteristic to (7)

strongly characteristic. The positive trait items were extraverted/enthusiastic, open to now

experiences/complex, sympathetic/warm, and calm/emotionally stable. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} =$

$.766, \alpha_{parent} = .735, \alpha_{friend} = .720, \alpha_{classmate} = .690, \alpha_{stranger} =$

$.662, \alpha_{authority\ figure} = .799$). The negative trait items were critical/quarrelsome,

anxious/easily upset, reserved/quiet, and disorganized, careless. ($\alpha_{romantic\ partner} =$

$.606, \alpha_{parent} = .567, \alpha_{friend} = .490, \alpha_{classmate} = .580, \alpha_{stranger} =$

$.442, \alpha_{authority\ figure} = .557$).

Additionally, they answered questions regarding how satisfied they were with the

interaction and with the relationship on that given day. They were also asked a series of

questions concerning the types of impressions that they had sought to make, and the extent to

which they felt that they were successful at making said impression. These impressions were taken from Pittman and Jones's (1981) self-presentational taxonomy (see also Gosnell, et al., 2009). See Appendix C.

Results

Plan of Analysis. Hypothesis 1 and 2 stated that daily self-presentational behaviors varies as a function of positive and negative trait perceptions of the partner that same day. The outcome of interest was the mean level of self-presentation; a mean of the self-presentational tactics was be calculated for each interaction partner. The independent variables were the mean score for negative characteristics and the mean score for positive characteristics for each partner on a given day. Both main effects were examined simultaneously, so that the unique contributions of the predictors could be examined. Hypothesis 3 stated that satisfaction with the interaction and satisfaction with the relationship on a given day varies with the amount of self-presentation in that same day. For this hypothesis, satisfaction with the interaction and satisfaction with the relationship were the outcomes of interest; this was measured with a single item each, and the raw scores for each interaction partner was used as the outcomes. The mean of the self-presentational behaviors was the independent variable. The negative and positive interaction partner characteristics perceptions were included as covariates in testing hypothesis 3. Additionally, a variable for interaction partner was also entered as a covariate in testing all hypotheses (this variable was also entered in the class statement to denote its nominal format).

Multilevel modeling was employed to test the hypotheses. As in Study 1, level-1 predictors were person-mean centered; specifically, for each participant, the average score for each interaction partner on each day was centered about the grand-mean for all interaction

partners and days. Furthermore, the person-mean (or, person-grand-mean) for the diary days were included as a level-2 between-subjects covariate. Analyses were conducted in SAS PROC MIXED. As there are several layers to the nesting (day within interaction partner within participant), three statements were specified. Specifically, a random intercept was specified for each participant, with an unstructured covariance matrix. A nested random statement was specified for the interaction partner, also with an unstructured covariance matrix. And finally, a nested repeated statement was specified for the dairy day, with an autoregressive covariance matrix structure. Denominator degrees of freedom were estimated using the Kenward-Rogers method.

Descriptive statistics. As in Study 1, each relationship specified for the stranger and authority target was evaluated for fit to the category. Fourteen relationships were flagged for the stranger category; the majority of the relationships specified reflected relationships that were covered by other categories (i.e., class mate, coworker, family member). For the authority figure category, six relationships were flagged for fitting other categories, with the majority of the relationships specified being parental (e.g., father). These target individuals were excluded from all subsequent analyses.

With regard to the parent relationship, one hundred and three participants reported on their mother, twenty reported on their father, one individuals reported on their step-mother and five persons reported on some other family relationships, such as aunt and grandmother. For friend relationships, twelve participants reported on someone with whom they were 'just friends', forty six individuals reported on a good friend, and seventy one individuals reported on their best friend. And finally, with regard to class mate or coworker relationship, fifty nine

participants reported on a classmate, and seventy individuals reported on a co-worker. For the casual acquaintance and the stranger, a variety of relationships were specified.

Participants reported a total of 799 interactions with a romantic partner ($M = 6.50$, $SD = 3.46$, range 0-13), 488 interactions with a parent ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 3.22$, range 0-13), 285 interactions with a friend ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 2.20$, range 0-11), 287 interactions with a classmate/co-worker ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.63$, range 0-9), 162 interactions with a casual acquaintance/stranger ($M = 1.86$, $SD = 1.21$, range 0-7) and 245 interactions with an authority figure ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 1.60$, range 0-6). Overall, participants completed a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 15 diary days ($M = 11.84$, $SD = 2.61$). The average length of the interaction was 156.91 minutes ($SD = 196.86$ min, range 5 min. to 1800 min).

Table 9 displays the correlations among the study variables, as well as means and standard deviations, with Table 10 giving the marginal means and standard errors of self-presentation for each interaction partner. The upper diagonal contains within-person correlations among variables measured at the daily level, estimated using the multivariate random intercept method (Mehta & Neale, 2005); the lower diagonal contains ordinary Pearson correlations among person-level (level 2) covariate variables. At the person-level (level 2) self-presentation was positively and significantly associated with negative characteristics. At the daily level (level-1), self-presentation was positively associated with both positive and negative trait perceptions; perceptions of positive characteristics and perceptions of negative characteristics were positively associated, as was interaction satisfaction and relationship satisfaction.

Table 9. *Study 2: Correlations among variables of interest*

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Self-presentation	--	0.009	0.094***	0.094***	0.009
2	Positive characteristics	0.099	--	0.094***	0.001	0.000
3	Negative characteristics	0.516***	-0.029	--	0.009	0.001
4	Interaction satisfaction				--	0.094***
5	Relationship satisfaction					--
	Mean (SD) for level-1	2.134 (1.107)	4.835 (1.339)	2.374 (1.125)	5.802 (1.470)	6.045 (1.343)
	Mean (SD) for level-2	2.118 (0.902)	4.792 (0.784)	2.379 (0.693)		

Note. Correlations above the diagonal reflect level-1 correlations. Correlations below the diagonal reflect correlations among level-2 covariates.

Table 10. *Marginal means and standard errors of self-presentation for each interaction partner*

Interaction partner	Mean	St. Error
Romantic partner	2.324	0.083
Parent	2.100	0.087
Friend	2.070	0.090
Classmate/co-worker	1.987	0.090
Stranger	1.784	0.099
Authority figure	1.951	0.092

Note. Marginal means, and standard errors are presented, as results obtained a standard PROC MEANS procedure differ from the results above. The marginal means reflect population-estimates, and in estimating the marginal means, PROC MIXED accounts for the data structure.

Hypothesis 1 and 2: Daily perceptions of partner characteristics predicting daily self-presentational behaviors. Table 11 displays the results of the multilevel regression analysis, with Table 13 showing the associated variance components, as well as the ICC for the empty model. Analyses revealed a significant and positive main effect of perceptions of negative characteristics, suggesting that individuals tended to report higher levels of self-presentation with interaction partners on days in which they perceived more negative characteristics in the person. The main effect for perceptions of positive characteristics was non-significant, yet marginal, indicating a trend that on days when people perceived more positive characteristics in the interaction partner, they also reported more self-presentation.

Hypothesis 3: Daily self-presentation predicting satisfaction with interaction and relationship. Table 12 displays the results of each of the two multilevel regression analysis, one with interaction satisfaction as the outcome (top) and one with relationship satisfaction as the outcome (bottom). Table 13 shows the variance components associated with each model, as well as the ICC for the empty models.

Table 11. *Study 2: Results of Hypothesis 1 and 2, with daily self-presentation as the outcome*

Effect	Estimate	St. Error	t-value	p
Intercept	1.83	0.13	13.78	<0.001
Daily positive characteristics	0.05	0.03	1.74	0.082
Daily negative characteristics	0.16	0.03	4.51	<0.001
Positive characteristics (between)	0.13	0.14	0.90	0.374
Negative characteristics (between)	0.74	0.17	4.48	<0.001

Note. (between) refers to the person-grand-mean covariates. Estimates for interaction partner has been removed for easy of reading.

Table 12. *Study 2: Hypothesis 3 results, with interaction satisfaction at the top and relationship satisfaction at the bottom*

Effect	Estimate	St. Error	*t*-value	*p*
Outcome: Interaction satisfaction				
Intercept	3.60	0.20	18.29	<0.001
Daily self-presentation	-0.03	0.04	-0.95	0.340
Daily positive characteristics	0.52	0.03	20.49	<0.001
Daily negative characteristics	-0.27	0.03	-8.70	<0.001
Self-presentation (between)	-0.04	0.07	-0.51	0.609
Positive characteristics (between)	-0.03	0.08	-0.37	0.711
Negative characteristics (between)	-0.04	0.10	-0.41	0.679
Outcome: Relationship satisfaction				
Intercept	4.12	0.18	22.94	<0.001
Daily self-presentation	-0.02	0.03	-0.78	0.437
Daily positive characteristics	0.34	0.02	15.66	<0.001
Daily negative characteristics	-0.19	0.03	-7.32	<0.001
Self-presentation (between)	-0.04	0.08	-0.51	0.612
Positive characteristics (between)	0.09	0.08	1.12	0.264
Negative characteristics (between)	-0.10	0.10	-1.00	0.320

Note. (between) refers to the person-grand-mean covariates. Estimates for interaction partner has been removed for easy of reading.

Table 13. Variance components and between- person ICC for each outcome

Variance component	estimate	St. Error	z-value	p-value
Self-presentation as outcome				
ICC for empty model	0.296			
Random Intercept Var. for Participant	0.273	0.081	3.39	0.000
Random Intercept Var. for interaction partner	0.006	0.035	0.16	0.435
Var. for Autoregressive Diary Day	0.572	0.057	10.04	<0.001
Level-1 Residual Var.	0.413	0.043	9.55	<0.001
Interaction satisfaction as outcome				
ICC for empty model	0.175			
Random Intercept Var. for Participant	0.281	0.051	5.55	<0.001
Random Intercept Var. for interaction partner	0.143	0.033	4.32	<0.001
Var. for Autoregressive Diary Day	0.078	0.045	1.75	0.081
Level-1 Residual Var.	0.992	0.036	27.83	<0.001
Relationship satisfaction as outcome				
ICC for empty model	0.165			
Random Intercept Var. for Participant	0.272	0.053	5.16	<0.001
Random Intercept Var. for interaction partner	0.345	0.043	7.94	<0.001
Var. for Autoregressive Diary Day	0.252	0.045	5.55	<0.001
Level-1 Residual Var.	0.697	0.028	24.76	<0.001

Note. ICCs reflect variance components estimated from an empty model; the estimate reflects the amount of variance explained by the level-2 (participant) nesting.

With regard to interaction satisfaction as the outcome, analyses revealed a significant main effect of perceptions of positive characteristics, such that on days when people perceived more positive characteristics in their interaction partner, they reported being happier with the interaction. Conversely, there was also a significant main effect of perceptions of negative characteristics, suggesting that individuals tended to report less satisfaction with the interaction on days in which they perceived more negative characteristics in the interaction partner. The effect of self-presentation on interaction satisfaction was not significant. The results for relationship satisfaction were the same as those for interaction satisfaction.[5].

Study 2 Summary

As in Study 1, there was mixed support for the hypotheses in Study 2. In support of H1, individuals reported engaging in more self-presentation during interactions when they perceived more negative characteristics in the interaction partner. There was also some support for H2, in that the main effect of positive characteristics was marginal; this marginal effect was in the opposite direction as expected, however. There was no support for H3, when self-presentation was examined as a predictor of satisfaction in conjunction with perceptions of positive and negative characteristic in the interaction partner. Ancillary analyses did reveal significant main effects in the proposed direction when self-presentation was examined as the sole predictor; individuals reported being less satisfied with the interaction (H3a) and with the relationship (H3b), when they engaged in more self-presentation. These results support and extend the results found in Study 1, showing that perceptions of partner characteristics predict self-presentation during the interaction. Interestingly, only perceptions of negative characteristics in the interaction partner predicted increased self-presentation during the

interaction, suggesting that a driving force behind both self-presentation, as well as satisfaction with the interaction and the relationship, is the extent to which individuals perceive negative characteristics in the interaction partner. Individuals did not report engaging in more self-presentation during interactions where they perceived more positive characteristics in the interaction partner, but they did report being more satisfied with the interaction and with the relationship on such occasions.

General Discussion

The current set of studies reveals intriguing information about self-presentation across a variety of contexts. Study 1 used a cross-sectional design to examine whether, in general, closeness and perceptions of negative and positive characteristics of the interaction partner predicted self-presentation. Study 2 then utilized a 14-day daily diary design to investigate whether self-presentation during an interaction was a function of positive and negative interaction partner characteristics as well as whether self-presentation predicted satisfaction with the interaction and with the relationship.

The results yielded mixed support for Study 1 hypotheses. Specifically, Study 1 found that the closer individuals felt to the interaction partner, the more variable their self-presentational personas were and the more self-presentation they engaged in. These results run counter to much of the previous literature, which has found that individuals tend to engage in less self-presentation to individuals with whom they are more familiar with (Leary et al., 1994), friends with (Tice et al., 1995), or romantically involved with (Dunn et al., 2007). The results are however, in line with previous research by Øverup and colleagues (Øverup & Neighbors, 2014; Øverup et al., 2014), who found more self-presentation in more established and close relationships. One reason for these discrepant findings may be

60

differences in conceptualization and measurement of self-presentation. Tice and colleagues (1995) employed an observational design, in which she coded the positivity of responses to interview questions, Dunn and colleagues (2007) examined effort put forth to make a positive impression, and Leary and colleagues (1994) examined the motivation to self-present; Øverup and colleagues used a scale measure similar to the one used in the present set of studies. Thus, these measures all differ in the aspect of self-presentation examined.

Interestingly, in Study 1, positive characteristics only predicted variability of self-presentational personas and negative characteristics only predicted self-presentational behaviors. As speculated in the summary of Study 1, it may be that self-presentational personas and self-presentational tactics are slightly different constructs, or rather, that they may serve slightly different functions. That is, in response to negative characteristics, individuals may engage in more self-presentational behaviors, perhaps with the goal of correcting a potentially faulty impression on the part of the interaction partner, or in an attempt to smooth over what may be perceived to be a poor interaction. Their self-presentational personas may not be more variable, however, and individuals may instead seek to present a more unified (singular) persona; such personas may conceivably also be less interpersonally risky and less likely to face criticism. Conversely, in response to positive characteristics, individuals may not engage in many self-presentational behaviors, but may feel free to display many aspects of themselves, or, a more varied self-presentational persona. These findings were augmented by the ancillary analyses, which found that individuals report greater variability of self-presentational tactics in response to perceptions of both positive and negative characteristics.

These interesting main effects are further elucidated by interesting interaction effects. Only 1 out of 4 hypothesized interactions was significant, with another interaction marginally significant. Interestingly, these two interactions were those opposite of each other (closeness and negative characteristics predicting self-presentational personas, and closeness and positive characteristics predicting self-presentational tactics). That is, for self-presentational personas, there was a non-significant main effect of negative characteristics, as discussed above, which was qualified by a marginally significant interaction. Indeed, the shape of the interaction (as seen in Figure 1) provides some support for the above speculations. The interaction revealed that individuals tended to report less variable self-presentational personas, when they were closer to the interaction partner and perceived more negative characteristics. Thus, when the interaction partner is of importance to the self (greater closeness), individuals may become more cautious and project a more singular image in response to negative characteristics in the other, yet while engaging in more self-presentational tactics. Although these speculations must be received with caution, given the non-significant nature of the interaction, the results of the ancillary analyses provide some additional support. It was found that individuals reported using a greater variety of self-presentational tactics in response to perceptions of more negative characteristics in the interaction partner (although, at lower levels of closeness). Inconsistent with the results for the self-presentational personas, individuals also reported using a greater variety of self-presentational tactics in response to perceptions of more positive characteristics in the interaction partner. It may be that variability of self-presentational personas also functions differently than variability of self-presentational tactics; that is, individuals may use a greater

variety of self-presentational tactics to present both a more singular image as well as a more varied image.

For self-presentational tactics, there was a non-significant main effect of positive characteristics, which was qualified by a significant interaction. Again, the shape of the interaction supports the above speculations. When perceiving more positive characteristics in an interaction partner with whom one feels close, individuals do not report engaging in as many self-presentational tactics as when they perceive fewer positive characteristics. In short, when perceiving fewer positive characteristics in an individual of importance (greater closeness), individuals may engage in more self-presentation, perhaps in an attempt to maintain the liking of the other and the relationship with the person. Conversely, when perceiving more positive characteristics, such remedial behavior is not needed. Study 2 augmented Study 1 by examining self-presentation and perceptions of the interaction partner during daily interactions. Again, the results yielded mixed support for the hypotheses. Consistent with expectations, perceptions of negative characteristics in the interaction partner was associated with increased self-presentation, and contrary to expectations, perceptions of positive characteristics were also positively (though only marginally) associated with more self-presentation. These results suggest that self-presentation may not be inherently good or bad; that is, individuals may use self-presentation in response to both positive and negative events. Indeed, perceptions of the interaction partner's characteristics in the interaction were significant predictors of satisfaction with the interaction and the relationship following an interaction, whereas self-presentation was not. That is, self-presentation may not in itself lead to decreased satisfaction, but rather, it associated with satisfaction because of other factors in the situation, such as perceptions of the interaction partner. In a similar vein, Dunn and

colleagues (2007) found that self-presentation was associated with positive post-interaction effects partly because of the positive behaviors and emotions that people experience while self-presenting.

In sum, the results of both studies suggest that examining the situational factors associated with the use of self-presentation may add to the understanding of the causes and consequences of self-presentation. In some situations, self-presentation may occur in response to desires to look one's best self, whereas in other situations, self-presentation may come about in an attempt to protect the self from criticism, and in yet other situations, self-presentation may happen simply because people feel comfortable and happy with their interaction partner. Furthermore, these studies also highlight the importance of considering findings within the context of measurement. Specifically, variability self-presentational personas and self-presentational tactics present different, but related constructs, and as indicated in the current set of studies, assessing both reveals informative and complementary findings that helps to understand self-presentation, and identity negotiation, more broadly.

Limitation and Future Directions

Although these studies provide much insight into the precursors and consequences of self-presentation, there are a number of limitations that must be considered. First of all, both studies are correlational in nature; individuals self-report on their perceptions of their own self-presentation. Future research would benefit greatly from observing interactions and coding behaviors as they occur in vivo. Additionally, future research would benefit from gaining reports from other informants. Obtaining such reports may also allow for examinations of the successfulness of self-presentation. That is, obtaining both self-reports of intended self-presentation and executed self-presentation, as well as informant reports on

executed self-presentation, researchers would be able to assess whether individuals self-presented as they wished and whether they were successful in conveying the desired image.

Additionally, given the correlational nature of the studies, we cannot determine causality. Future research would benefit from experimental methods to examine antecedents of self-presentation. For example, vignette-style methods could be employed to manipulate perceptions of positive and negative characteristics in the interaction partner, subsequently assessing whether individuals engage in more or less self-presentation. Furthermore, future research would benefit from improved measurement of self-presentation. The scale used in the current manuscript was originally worded as a measure of self-presentation as it occurs generally; such wording, however, ignores the interpersonal nature of self-presentation. Thus, future research could construct measurements that allow for target-specific reports of self-presentation, as attempted in the current study.

Study 2 used an interval contingent design, rather than an event-contingent design. Thus, there is still some retrospective bias in the reports of the interactions; that is, individuals may have reported at night on interactions that they had during the morning. They may have forgotten some aspect of the conversation that they had with the interaction partner, or their memories may have become tainted by interactions and events they experienced later in the day. Future research would benefit from the use of event-contingent designs or designs that enable momentary ecological assessments. Such studies would allow for even greater precision of measurement of self-presentation, as well as more detailed memory of the behavior of the interaction partner during the interaction.

Across both studies, the reliability coefficients for the negative interaction partner characteristics were below the preferred nominal level. This indicates that these negative

characteristics are not cohesive as a single measure. The characteristics chosen may not represent the full gambit of key negative characteristics that can be perceived in an interaction, or they may represent different kinds of negative characteristics. As speculated in Study 1 Summary, some of the negative characteristics may signal disapproval from others (e.g., critical/quarrelsome, and controlling and dominant) and may be more interpersonal, whereas some of them may instead indicate that the other is not faring well (e.g., anxious/easily upset, reserved/quiet, and disorganized/careless) and may be perceived to be more intra-personal, and about the other person in the interaction. Thus, future research would benefit from additional measures, or refinement of existing measures, of the interaction partner's characteristics. Additionally, individuals may use other means, such as meta-perceptions, to determine whether there is a mismatch between the partner's perceptions of the self and one's self-perceptions. Thus, future research would benefit from assessing meta-perceptions, in addition to perceptions of the interaction partner.

Another interesting avenue for future research would be to examine the motivations behind self-presentation. As speculated above, individuals may engage in self-presentation for a variety of reasons; such motivations may lead to differential variability of self-presentation, or even the use of different self-presentational tactics. Furthermore, different motivations may be associated with particular interpersonal outcomes; for instance, self-presenting to correct another's faulty perceptions of oneself, such as showing that one is not as arrogant as others think, may be associated with a greater mutual understanding and an increased sense of closeness with the interaction partner, whereas self-presenting to look good may be associated with decreased interpersonal closeness, as others may perceive the

self-presenter to be cocky. This of course may vary with the type of interaction partner (e.g., romantic partner versus stranger/acquaintance).

The current study found that perceptions of negative characteristics were associated with more self-presentational tactics and less variability of self-presentational persona. It was speculated that when faced with negative interpersonal feedback (i.e., perceiving that the interaction partner evinces negative characteristics) individuals may present a more singular persona. Future research could seek to examine whether such singular personas are less authentic. It may be that individuals present a slightly inauthentic – perhaps exaggerated – self, one that is more in line with what is perceived to better match what is approved of, or desired, by the interaction partner.

Conclusion

The current set of studies are among the first to examine inter-personal, situational factors that might influence self-presentation. Across two studies, perceptions of positive and negative characteristics in the interaction partner predicted self-presentation; interestingly, both positive and negative characteristics were associated with increased self-presentation, indicating that self-presentation may occur in response to a variety of situational cues. Moreover, as found in Study 2, self-presentation was not directly related to the interaction and relationship satisfaction; this finding suggest that self-presentation also does not have inherently positive or negative consequences, and that any such associations may be due to other situational factors, such as in reaction to perceptions of the interaction partner. In sum, this project helps to demonstrate the importance of continuing to study the complex and varied nature of self-presentation.

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Footnotes

[1] When using robust test-statistics that account for differences in distributions across groups (Yuen's t-test, with 20% trimming), we also found a marginally significant difference between those self-presenting to romantic partner and those self-presenting to friends/acquaintances on assertive self-presentation.

[2] Analyses were also performed for trust, instead of closeness. The findings replicated with trust as the predictor, yet we report only on closeness here.

[3] When analyses were performed retaining interaction partners that were flagged and removed from the main analyses, the interaction between negative characteristics and closeness became significant, $b = -0.017, p = 0.036$.

[4] When analyses were performed retaining interaction partners that were flagged and removed from the main analyses, the interaction between closeness and perceptions of negative partner characteristics become non-significant, $b = -0.013, p = 0.154$.

[5] When self-presentation was examined in isolation (without positive and negative trait perceptions in the model), there was a significant and negative main effect ($b = -0.082, p = 0.018$) in predicting interaction satisfaction, and a significant and negative main effect ($b = -0.116, p = 0.007$) in predicting relationship satisfaction.

Survey questionnaire

Below you will see several types of relationships. For each of these types of relationships please think of someone.

1) Romantic partner   Name_____   Gender: M F

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

2) A parent (or someone who is like a parent to you)
Name_____   Gender: M F

Who is this person to you:

____ Mother   ____ Father
____Step-mother   ____ Step-father

____ Other (explain: _____)

How long have you known this person? (if you are reporting on a birth parent and you have known the person 'your whole life', please enter time since birth).
_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

3) A friend   Name_____   Gender: M F

What level of friendship do you have with this person:

Just friends   Good friends   Best friends

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

4) A classmate or coworker (this should be someone whom you are acquainted with, but do not consider a friend).

Name_____   Gender: M F

In what capacity do you know this person:

____ classmate

____ co-worker

____ other (explain: _____)

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

5) A casual acquaintance or a stranger (this could be someone you don't know, but that you see somewhat regularly, e.g., a store clerk at your local grocery store, shuttle bus driver, neighbor, hair dresser)

Name_____   Gender: M F

What is your relationship with this person, or how do you

know this person:

_____

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

6) An authority figure (examples include a professor, advisor, supervisor; it should not be a parent).

Name_____   Gender: M F

What is your relationship with this person, or how do you

know this person:

_____

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

To be completed for each target person:

Personas:

Please think about _____. Think about how you generally want _____ to perceive you to be. Please use the below scale to respond to each characteristic; please rate the statements as if you were describing yourself to _____.

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   Extremely

(a) friendly, warm

(b) competent, intelligent

(c) helpless, depends on others

(d) intimidating, threatening

(e) outgoing, sociable

(f) stable, unemotional

(g) dependable, conscientious

(h) honest, ethical

(i) dominant, forceful

(j) unique, different from most other people

(k) humorous, playful

(l) sexy, sensual

(m) kind, generous

(n) curious, open to new ideas

(o) religious, spiritual

****** For the above items: to be displayed prior to questionnaires about target persons

Please rate yourself on the following characteristics. Please be as honest as you can.

TIPI/partner characteristics:

We would like to understand your thoughts and feelings about your partner. Please indicate how characteristic you believe each attribute listed is of <u>XXX</u>. Respond using the following scale.

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly

Characteristic   characteristic

Items from the TIPI:

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic. (P)
2. Critical, quarrelsome. (N)
3. Dependable, self-disciplined.
4. Anxious, easily upset. (N)
5. Open to new experiences, complex. (P)
6. Reserved, quiet. (N)
7. Sympathetic, warm. (P)
8. Disorganized, careless. (N)
9. Calm, emotionally stable. (P)
10. Conventional, uncreative.

Items from the IQS:

11. Open and Disclosing (P)
12. Controlling and Dominant (N)
13. Witty and Humorous (P)
14. Kind and Affectionate (P)
15. Tolerant and Accepting (P)

* Note. (P) = positive trait; (N) = negative trait
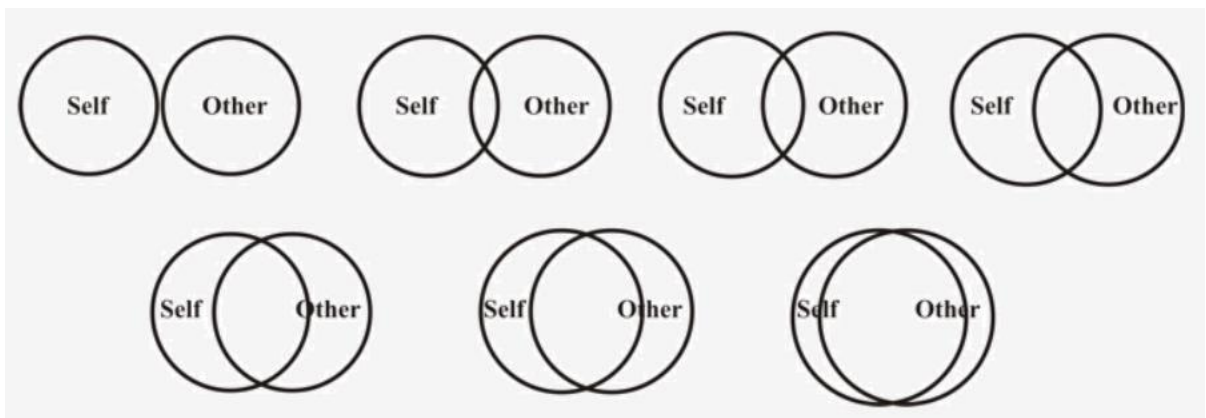
Self-presentational Tactics Scale:

For the following statements, please think of how you act when you are with _____. Please read the instructions carefully and try to respond to all the items as openly and honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. In responding to the items, please select the point on the scale which most closely represents your behavior.

Very infrequently   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very frequently

1. I lead my partner/friend to believe that I cannot do something in order to get help.
2. When talking to my partner/friend I exaggerate the value of my accomplishments.
3. When working on a project with my partner/friend I make my contribution seem greater than it is.
4. When talking to my partner/friend I make negative statements about people belonging to rival groups.
5. I try to set an example for my partner/friend to follow.
6. I compliment my partner/friend to get him/her on my side.
7. I intimidate my partner/friend.
8. I try to make up for any harm I have done to my partner/friend.
9. With my partner/friend, when I am blamed for something, I make excuses
10. I justify beforehand actions my partner/friend may not like.
11. When my partner/friend views my behavior as negative, I offer explanations so that he/she will understand that my behavior was justified.
12. I put obstacles in the way of my own relationship with my partner/friend.

IOS/closeness:

Below are 7 pictures that describe varying degrees of closeness. Please circle the picture that best describes your current relationship with XXXX.

URCS/closeness:

The following questions refer to your relationship with _____. Please think about your relationship with _____, when responding to the following questions. Please respond to the following questions using this scale:

    Strongly disagree 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly agree

1. My relationship with _____ is close.
2. When we are apart, I miss _____ a great deal.
3. _____ and I disclose important personal things to each other.
4. _____ and I have a strong connection.
5. _____ and I want to spend time with together.
6. I am sure of my relationship with _____.
7. _____ is a priority in my life.
8. _____ and I do a lot of things together.
9. When I have free time I choose to spend it alone with _____.
10. I think about _____ a lot.
11. My relationship with _____ is important in my life.
12. I consider _____ when making important decision.

Demographics

Please indicate your gender
      a) Male
      b) Female

Please indicate your age: _____

Which of the following terms best describes your ethnicity?
   a. African-American/Black
   b. Asian/Pacific Islander
   c. Hispanic/Latino
   d. Caucasian
   e. Native American
   f. Middle Eastern
   g. Multi-racial
   h. Other (please indicate) _____

What is your sexual orientation?
a. Heterosexual
b. Homosexual
c. Bisexual

Please indicate your current relationship status:
a. Single
b. Serious Relationship
c. Engaged
d. Married
e. Divorced
f. Widowed

How long have you been with your partner? (open-ended)
    Years: _____
    Months:_____

How many romantic relationship partners (including any current relationships) have you
    had? _____

Are you currently living with your romantic partner?
a)   Yes
b)   No

Right now, approximately how many close friends do you have? _____

Appendix B: Study 2 baseline survey protocol

Baseline Survey

Below you will see several types of relationships. For each of these types of relationships please think of someone.

1) Romantic partner　　Name_____　　　Gender: M F

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

2) A parent (or someone who is like a parent to you)
　　　　　　　　　　Name_____　　　Gender:　M　　F

Who is this person to you:

　　____ Mother　　　____ Father
　　____Step-mother　　____ Step-father

　　____ Other (explain: _____)

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

3) A friend　　　　　Name_____　　　Gender:　M　　F

What level of friendship do you have with this person:

Just friends　　　　　Good friends　　　　　Best friends

How long have you known this person:

　　　　_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

4) A classmate or coworker (this should be someone whom you are acquainted with, but do not consider a friend).

Name_____   Gender: M F

In what capacity do you know this person:

_____ classmate

_____ co-worker

_____ other (explain: _____)

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

5) A casual acquaintance or a stranger (this could be someone you don't know, but that you see somewhat regularly, e.g., a store clerk at your local grocery store, shuttle bus driver, neighbor)

Name_____   Gender: M F

What is your relationship with this person, or how do you

know this person:

_____

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

6) An authority figure (examples include a professor, advisor, supervisor; it should not be a parent).

Name_____   Gender: M F

What is your relationship with this person, or how do you

know this person:

_____

How long have you known this person:

_____ years _____months

How often do you interact with this person:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Less than once a month	Once a month	2-3 times a month	Once a week	2-3 times a week	Daily

To be completed for each target person:

TIPI:

We would like to understand your thoughts and feelings about your partner. Please indicate how characteristic you believe each attribute listed is of <u>XXX</u>. Respond using the following scale.

Strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly agree

XXX is...

a. Extraverted, enthusiastic.
b. Critical, quarrelsome.
c. Dependable, self-disciplined.
d. Anxious, easily upset.
e. Open to new experiences, complex.
f. Reserved, quiet.
g. Sympathetic, warm.
h. Disorganized, careless.
i. Calm, emotionally stable.
j. Conventional, uncreative.

Self-presentational Tactics Scale:

For the following statements, please think of how you act when you are with _____. Please read the instructions carefully and try to respond to all the items as openly and honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. In responding to the items, please select the point on the scale which most closely represents your behavior.
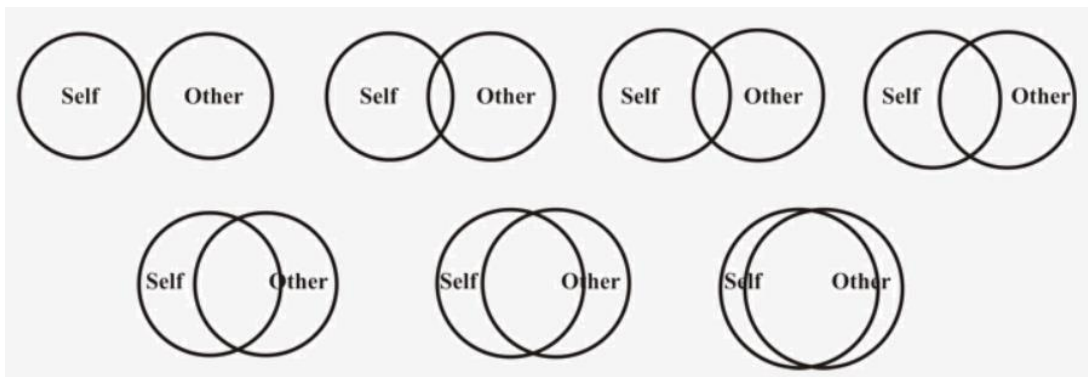
Very infrequently   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very frequently

1. I lead my partner/friend to believe that I cannot do something in order to get help.
2. When talking to my partner/friend I exaggerate the value of my accomplishments.

3. When working on a project with my partner/friend I make my contribution seem greater than it is.

4. When talking to my partner/friend I make negative statements about people belonging to rival groups.

5. I try to set an example for my partner/friend to follow.

6. I compliment my partner/friend to get him/her on my side.

7. I intimidate my partner/friend.

8. I try to make up for any harm I have done to my partner/friend.

9. With my partner/friend, when I am blamed for something, I make excuses

10. I justify beforehand actions my partner/friend may not like.

11. When my partner/friend views my behavior as negative, I offer explanations so that he/she will understand that my behavior was justified.

12. I put obstacles in the way of my own relationship with my partner/friend.

IOS/closeness:

Below are 7 pictures that describe varying degrees of closeness. Please circle the picture that best describes your current relationship with XXXX.

URCS/closeness:

The following questions refer to your relationship with _____. Please think about your relationship with _____, when responding to the following questions. Please respond to the following questions using this scale:

Strongly disagree 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly agree

1. My relationship with _____ is close.
2. When we are apart, I miss _____ a great deal.
3. _____ and I disclose important personal things to each other.
4. _____ and I have a strong connection.
5. _____ and I want to spend time with together.
6. I am sure of my relationship with _____.
7. _____ is a priority in my life.
8. _____ and I do a lot of things together.
9. When I have free time I choose to spend it alone with _____.
10. I think about _____ a lot.
11. My relationship with _____ is important in my life.
12. I consider _____ when making important decision.

Demographics

Please indicate your gender

    a) Male   b) Female

Please indicate your age: _____

Which of the following terms best describes your ethnicity?

    a. African-American/Black
    b. Asian/Pacific Islander
    c. Hispanic/Latino
    d. Caucasian
    e. Native American
    f. Middle Eastern
    g. Multi-racial
    h. Other (please indicate) _____

What is your sexual orientation?

        a. Heterosexual
        b. Homosexual
        c. Bisexual

Please indicate your current relationship status:

        a. Single
        b. Serious Relationship
        c. Engaged
        d. Married
        e. Divorced
        f. Widowed

How long have you been with your partner? (open-ended)

        Years: _____

        Months:_____

How many romantic relationship partners (including any current relationships) have you

had? _____

Are you currently living with your romantic partner?

        a)   Yes   b)   No

Right now, approximately how many close friends do you have? _____

Appendix C: Interaction Record

Daily Diary Measures

1. Did you interact with any of your 6 people today?   Yes   No

    If yes, who (click all that apply)?

        - Person 1
        - Person 2
        - Person 3
        - Person 4
        - Person 5
        - Person 6

For each person, please think of what you would consider to be the ***one most significant*** interaction you had today. This interaction must have lasted for a minimum of 5 minutes, been face-to-face and must not have occurred in a large group setting (that is, you must have primarily been one-on-one).

2. Approximate length of interaction   _____ hours _____ minutes

3. Approximately at what time during the day did the interaction take place:

                                              _____ hours _____ minutes

4. Please briefly describe the interaction; when was it and what did you do? What did you talk about?

5. Please rate how you perceived _____ on each of the following characteristics

    a. Tired   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Energetic

    b. Bad day   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Good day

    c. Bad mood 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Good mood

6. Please rate how you yourself felt on each of the following characteristics

    a. Tired   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Energetic

    b. Bad day   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Good day

    c. Bad mood 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Good mood

People often try to make impressions on other people, even if they are not fully aware of it. Please try to think about your interaction, and about whether you may have attempted to make an impression on _____.

7. During your interaction, how much you want to make an impression of any kind on the other person

    Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very much

8. Below are some types of impressions that most people try to make sometimes. Please rate the extent to which you sought to make each of these impressions:

    Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very much

    a. likeable/friendly
    b. powerful/intimidating
    c. competent/intelligent
    d. moral/ethical
    e. needy/helpless

9. How successful did you feel you were at making your impression (if you did not seek to make an impression, then please choose NA).

      Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very much

    a. likeable/friendly
    b. powerful/intimidating
    c. competent/intelligent
    d. moral/ethical
    e. needy/helpless

10. How satisfied were you with your interaction with _____?

Very Unhappy   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very Happy

11. How satisfied did you feel about your relationship with _____?

Very Unhappy   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very Happy

12. (TIPI): We would like to understand your thoughts and feelings about your partner during the interaction today. Please indicate how characteristic you feel each attribute listed was of <u>XXX during your interaction today</u>. Respond using the following scale.

Strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7 Strongly agree

    XXX is...

    1. Extraverted, enthusiastic.
    2. Critical, quarrelsome.
    3. Dependable, self-disciplined. (no other item)
    4. Anxious, easily upset.
    5. Open to new experiences, complex. (no other item)
    6. Reserved, quiet.
    7. Sympathetic, warm.
    8. Disorganized, careless.

9. Calm, emotionally stable.
10. Conventional, uncreative.

13. During the interaction, how did you behave towards your interaction partner?

Strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly agree

a. I lead my partner/friend to believe that I cannot do something in order to get help.

b. When talking to my partner/friend I exaggerate the value of my accomplishments.

c. When working on a project with my partner/friend I make my contribution seem greater than it is.

d. When talking to my partner/friend I make negative statements about people belonging to rival groups.

e. I try to set an example for my partner/friend to follow.

f. I compliment my partner/friend to get him/her on my side.

g. I intimidate my partner/friend.

h. I try to make up for any harm I have done to my partner/friend.

i. With my partner/friend, when I am blamed for something, I make excuses

j. I justify beforehand actions my partner/friend may not like.

k. When my partner/friend views my behavior as negative, I offer explanations so that he/she will understand that my behavior was justified.

l. I put obstacles in the way of my own relationship with my partner/friend.