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MULTIFACETED SELF-VIEWS

A Thesis in

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by

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ABSTRACT

People's self-views within a domain are typically construed as unidimensional. To the extent that people perceive themselves in various ways across situations and with different audiences, however, their complete self-view within a given domain may actually be a multifaceted one. The current studies provide initial empirical confirmation for this within-person variation in self-view domains. Results from Study 1 indicate that, given the chance, most participants will use multiple points to describe their self-view in a domain. Self-descriptions were perceived as more accurate when multiple points were reported than when single points were reported. Results from Study 2 demonstrate that reactions to self-related feedback in the domain of physique are better predicted by the multifaceted perspective than by the single point perspective. More limited support for predictions was found in the domain of intelligence. Implications and applications of multifaceted self-views are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Typically, researchers of the self treat a person's self-view within a domain as a unidimensional construct. From this perspective, we might see ourselves as highly extraverted, extraverted, or not so extraverted, but not a little bit of each. The purpose of the current research is to extend this conceptualization of self-views. Within any given domain, people may see themselves multiple ways and have a self-view structure for that domain that incorporates these various self-perceptions. For example, with regard to the domain of extraversion, a woman may view herself as very extraverted when delivering a lecture, as only somewhat extraverted when among a group of acquaintances, and as just slightly extraverted when among a group of community members. Though her self-perceptions shift as she moves from one situation to the next, each experience should contribute to the overall image that she creates of her self in the domain of extraversion. To the extent that people experience different views of themselves in any given domain, the self-view that they possess for the domain should be a multifaceted one. Such within-person variation suggests that people may not think of themselves in one, unflinching way when considering their entire self-view in a domain; rather, they may view various positions in a domain as self-descriptive and include all of these positions in their complete self-view for the domain.

Conceptualizing self-views as a multifaceted construct diverges from the customary approach of perceiving self-views as a single point. As already noted, existing research on the self typically conceptualizes self-views as one point, a practice that overlooks the potential for people's self-views in a given domain to encompass a wide array of points. Take, for example, the self-view measures that researchers typically use. Although self-view measures vary from one another in a number of ways, the majority of such measures are similar in requiring

participants to express their self-view in a domain with a single point. These solitary points are assumed to fully represent the self-view in a given dimension. Thus, people who rate themselves as a six on a seven-point extraversion scale would be characterized as very extraverted, whereas people who rate themselves as a two on the same scale would be characterized as minimally extraverted. This rating procedure assumes similarity between any two people with the same single point rating, not accounting for the self-view variability a person may have in the domain. This hidden variability may contain important information about a person's overall self-concept. For example, a man who rates himself as a six on such a scale may always see himself as highly extraverted. Another man, however, may have rated himself as a six because he was only given the option of circling one point, even though his self-view for extraversion also includes a less extraverted component. In addition to an awareness of their complete self-view for extraversion, knowing this variation may provide insight into other self-related differences, such as self-esteem. Conceptualizing self-views as a singular construct, then, not only equates these two men on their self-view for extraversion but may also eclipse other individual differences. Importantly, the single point perspective may create a partial image of the self rather than completely revealing how people see themselves within a domain.

Evidence for this potentially incomplete view can be seen in participant responses to self-view measures. Although participants completing single point self-view measures typically comply with the request to choose one number, there are always a few who feel conflicted enough to bend the rules. Instead of indicating one number, they elect to write in multiple responses (e.g., 1-3; 5 and 6). Although this creates an issue for data entry and analyses, it also begs the question: if given the opportunity to use multiple points to describe themselves in a domain, would more participants choose to do so? If so, this indicates that people may, indeed,

characterize themselves as more than a single point within a domain, suggesting that assessment of these multiple points is critical for arriving at a complete picture of how people experience themselves. In fact, previous research in which participants were free to report self-descriptive ranges (Quinlivan, 2004; Quinlivan & Leary, 2001; Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990) indicates that participants will report multiple point self-descriptions when presented with the opportunity to do so. Participants' choice of multiple self-view points in these previous studies provides initial evidence that people can conceive of themselves in a multifaceted, rather than singular, manner.

Importantly, measuring self-views as a multifaceted construct provides information that single points do not. By considering all points that are self-descriptive for an individual, one can obtain a person's lowest self-evaluation, highest self-evaluation, and an average self-evaluation, in addition to an indication of self-view variability in the domain. Because the endpoints of a multifaceted self-view should indicate the extremes of a person's self-view within a domain – essentially representing the most negative and most positive ways people see themselves – these endpoints may be particularly informative about measures such as self-esteem. In fact, previous data using social comparison ranges showed that, in many domains, these endpoints were stronger predictors of self-esteem than was the single point rating (Quinlivan, 2004). Considering the average of participants' selected points within a domain provides an index that encompasses participants' experiences across all of their self-descriptive positions. Further, by knowing the total number of self-descriptive positions, we can arrive at a measure of how much variation people experience in their self-views within a domain. Because variability in self-views has been previously associated with general evaluations about the self (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Donahue, Robins, Roberts, & John, 1993), this method of evaluation may be significant in revealing relations between self-views and other self-related measures. In comparison to

evaluating a person's single point self-view rating, the indices derived through measuring multifaceted self-views may be more informative about people's overall self-concept. After all, in reporting multifaceted self-views, participants must consider their self-views across situations and audiences. Having to think through the various ways they see themselves in a domain may lead to more accurate self-descriptions, just as increasing self-awareness can increase accuracy of self-reports (Pryor, Gibbons, Wicklund, Fazio, & Hood, 1977). Presumably, then, measuring self-views as a multifaceted construct may provide greater insight into how people conceive of themselves in a domain than does obtaining a single point self-view.

Demonstrating that people conceive of their self-views within a domain as multifaceted rather than as a single point has important theoretical implications extending beyond these seemingly more methodological considerations. Whereas single point self-views are quite useful for many areas of research (e.g., measuring current states of mind, measuring an a typical view of the self), multifaceted self-views should impact areas of research in which accurately representing a person's entire self-view is critical. For example, research exploring self-view changes may be impacted by the multifaceted structure of self-views. Rather than interpreting any differences in a person's single point ratings across time as evidence that the self-view has changed, these differences might reflect the multiple self-descriptive positions a person has. Considering the multifaceted nature of people's self-views would reveal whether a self-view change had truly occurred or whether people were simply shifting among the self-view facets they already possessed. Multifaceted self-views may also have implications for research exploring people's reactions to self-relevant feedback. If a person rates her single point self-view for intelligence as moderate, yet subsequently evaluates a feedback rating of 'highly intelligent' as accurate, previous research would consider this evidence of self-enhancement. However,

assessing her multifaceted self-view for intelligence might have revealed that this woman's complete self-view also includes the description 'highly intelligent.' Knowing a person's complete self-view in a domain seems essential for predicting how people will perceive the feedback they are given. Though new methodology will be required to measure multifaceted self-views, conceptualizing self-views as a multifaceted structure goes beyond simply a change in methodology, having significant theoretical implications.

As the introduction to a novel perspective on self-view structure, the goal of this paper is to present theoretical background and empirical evidence supporting the claim that self-views within a domain are multifaceted. I will first outline theoretical support for the notion that people develop multifaceted, rather than single point self-views. Next, I will consider the purpose or functionality of having multifaceted self-views. Following this, I will describe the framework for conceptualizing multifaceted self-views. Further, I will distinguish multifaceted self-views from similar constructs in the self literature. Finally, I will present two studies conducted to test whether people have a preference for describing their self-views using multiple points rather than a single point and to show that this reflects more than just a response bias but, rather, a more accurate portrayal of how people experience themselves.

Developing Multifaceted Self-Views

Several lines of research are consistent with the proposal that people are likely to have multifaceted self-views within domains. Specifically, self-perception theory, social comparison theory, as well as research on the social construction of the self, all give us reason to believe that people may develop multifaceted self-views rather than singular ones.

Self-Perception Theory

According to self-perception theory (Bem, 1972), people come to know themselves through observing their behaviors. People's behaviors, manifested through an interaction between personality and situations (Fleeson, 2004; Mischel & Schoda, 1995), differ across situations and with different audiences (Fleeson, 2001; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997). If people do indeed come to know themselves through behavioral observations, then the various behaviors people exhibit across situations and audiences should elicit multifaceted, rather than single point, self-views.

Fleeson (2001) showed that people's self-reports of their behavior over the course of a week varied along the spectrum of traits such as extraversion or agreeableness. Although people varied in their behavioral ratings, however, a comparison between two weeks of ratings showed that people had both a central tendency and a stable distribution of behaviors. Just as behavioral responses have a stable distribution along the spectrum of a trait, self-views will likely also correspond to a stable set of points within a given dimension. For example, in rating how extraverted she is in general, a woman may consider situations in which she sees herself as highly extraverted and situations in which she sees herself as less extraverted. Knowledge of how her self-perceptions differ across situations should lead her to perceive herself as having multiple points on the extraversion continuum that she finds self-descriptive. The consequence of behavioral variability should thus be a multifaceted conceptualization of the self within a domain, rather than a singular one.

Social Comparison Theory

Social comparison processes may also contribute to multifaceted self-views. Festinger (1954) proposed that people have a drive to evaluate themselves and that comparisons with

others provide an important source of information for such evaluations. Comparisons are typically made with similar others, as this provides the most accurate source of information (Festinger, 1954). However, people also tend to compare themselves to various others (Wheeler & Miyake, 1992), which should lead to differing judgments about the self. Comparisons with a target who is slightly inferior may make people feel more positively about themselves; comparisons with a target who is superior could make people feel more negatively about themselves (e.g., Buunk, Van der Zee, & VanYperen, 2001; Buunk, Ybema, Gibbons, & Ipenburg, 2001). Moreover, social comparisons are not always personally chosen (Wood, 1989), increasing the chances of comparisons to non-similar others. If judgments about the self do, indeed, differ depending of the target used for comparison, and people experience comparisons with an array of others, then this suggests that people can develop multifaceted self-views via social comparison processes.

Social Construction of the Self

“Each to each a looking-glass reflects the other that doth pass.”

(Cooley, 1902)

Feedback from others may also contribute to multifaceted self-views, as different audiences provide various appraisals of an individual. Although one’s own perceptions are instrumental in defining one’s self-views, the perceptions of others are influential as well. Over a century ago, Cooley (1902) introduced the notion of the “looking glass self” – a metaphor to describe how the perceptions of others influence self-concept development. The looking glass self, as the name implies, describes the self-concept as being derived from the perspective of others – people see themselves through the eyes of others. The various audiences a person comes into contact with likely express different opinions of the individual. As James (1892) asserted:

“Properly speaking, a man has as many social selves as there are individuals who recognize him and carry an image of him in their mind” (p. 42). The implication of this statement is that people see themselves in a variety of ways, with different self-construals aroused by interactions with different people. If, as suggested by shared reality theory (Hardin & Higgins, 1996), self-views become objectively real to the extent that they are acknowledged by others, then the different ways that others view us within a domain should produce multifaceted self-views. Thus, the notion that people see themselves as others see them also suggests that people would have a multifaceted self-view within a particular domain rather than just a single point self-view.

Purpose of Multifaceted Self-Views

Whereas the previously discussed areas of research suggest *how* multifaceted self-views might develop, the following areas of research suggest *why* multifaceted self-views might develop. Drawing upon self-verification theory, self-determination theory, and research on impression management and roles, I describe some of the advantages that multifaceted self-views can provide in satisfying people’s needs and goals. Generally speaking, multifaceted self-views, in contrast to single self-views, should facilitate people’s ability to satisfy certain self needs (e.g., self-verification, positivity, and self-determination) and to achieve certain goals (e.g., authenticity and impression management, and success in multiple roles).

For example, people’s need to verify their self-views may be more easily fulfilled by having multifaceted self-views than by having single self-views. Self-verification theory states that people desire to know themselves and will seek information consistent with how they see themselves (Swann, 1997; Swann & Read, 1981). People with multifaceted self-views should have an easier time than people with single point self-views when it comes to satisfying the need for verification, as there is a greater likelihood that the feedback they receive will align with how

they see themselves. Because people typically receive a range of feedback about themselves derived from various behaviors and audiences, a single self-view may lead to more frequent conflicts between one's self-view and the feedback received. Multifaceted self-views, however, enable people to feel verified by a range of feedback from others. Having a multifaceted self-view will more often result in self-verifying feedback, as others' feedback is more likely to fall within a range of self-views than to be consistent with a single self-view.

Multifaceted self-views may also help people to maintain positive views of themselves, even as they maintain a sense of knowing themselves. Variation in self-view permits people to possess both positive and negative self-view components in a given domain. According to the self-enhancement perspective, people are motivated to maintain positive views of themselves (Hoyle, Kernis, Leary, & Baldwin, 1999), desiring and seeking out information that makes them feel good about themselves (Baumeister, 1995; Taylor & Brown, 1988). Multifaceted self-views allow the inclusion of positive self-view components, even when negative self-view components may also be part of one's self-view in a given domain. The various positions encompassed in one's multifaceted self-view may thus enable people both to have a sense of knowing themselves and to fulfill their desire to feel good about themselves.

Multifaceted self-views may also enable people to choose more freely a desired course of action. In addition to a desire to know themselves and to feel good about themselves, people have a desire to determine their own actions (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Autonomy, the feeling that one can choose to act in a personally desired way (Ryan & Deci, 2000), is beneficial to both well-being and personal growth. People who feel autonomous, who have active exchanges with their environment, are not likely to categorize themselves with a single point self-view in a given domain. Constraining one's self-view to a single point within a domain may thwart the pursuit of

autonomy and consequently be harmful for well-being and growth. Thus, having a multifaceted self-view should help to fulfill the psychological need for autonomy.

In addition to facilitating the fulfillment of self-needs, people with multifaceted self-views may have an easier time than those with single point self-views in meeting the goals of both authenticity and impression management. Authenticity, which is achieved when people behave consistently with their inner self, contributes to both psychological and physical well-being (Sheldon et al., 1997). However, attempts at impression management, i.e., controlling the impression one is making on others, can dictate that a person self-present in different ways to different audiences. These various self-presentation tactics may challenge one's desire to remain authentic. Attempts to manage one's impressions in different settings, and to also remain authentic to one's self, should be most possible when one has a multifaceted self-view.

Having multifaceted self-views should also enable people to fulfill multiple roles. Taking on different roles, especially contrasting roles such as teacher and student, necessitates viewing oneself in different ways (Roberts & Donahue, 1994; Sheldon et al., 1997). To be successful, a teacher must see herself as knowledgeable; a student must see herself as needing to learn new information. Although different situations and different audiences may make one position within the domain salient over another, the overall self-view can encompass a range of self-view components within the domain. Multifaceted self-views may thus provide the flexibility needed to be successful in multiple roles.

In sum, previous research and theorizing point to the development of multifaceted self-views as well as to the function that such self-views serve. Such theoretical support strengthens the argument for conceptualizing self-views in a domain as multifaceted rather than as singular.

The Structure of Multifaceted Self-Views

If people do, indeed, have multifaceted self-views, what structure do these self-views assume? This is an empirical question that the current research attempted to address. To study the structure of self-views, a technique was borrowed from previous research in which people provided latitudes on self-related dimensions (Baumgardner, 1990; Eagly & Telaar, 1972; Rhodewalt & Agustsdottir, 1986; Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990). With a latitude approach, participants are typically asked to consider all points on a scale and to designate the range of these points that is self-descriptive. All positions encompassed by this range are included in a person's latitude. Although previously used to study self-evaluation (Rhodewalt & Agustsdottir, 1986), internalization of self-beliefs (Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990), and self-certainty (Baumgardner, 1990), the latitude method can be easily modified to study the structure of people's self-views. Considering the proposed view that people's self-views are not defined by one single point, a latitude framework may be particularly appropriate for studying the structure of multifaceted self-views.

The latitude framework was modified to allow for non-contiguous point selections. Because the multifaceted perspective is a novel approach for conceptualizing self-views, we can not know for sure how people's multifaceted self-views manifest themselves (i.e., whether they are contiguous). To allow for the possibility that multifaceted self-views are not a continuous structure, participants in the studies presented here were asked to mark each individual self-descriptive point on a scale rather than simply designating the endpoints of their range.

Distinguishing Multifaceted Self-Views from Previous Concepts

Would reporting a multifaceted self-view in a given domain simply mean that one is uncertain of oneself in that domain? Perhaps one does not have a clear image of where one falls

in a given domain, and so chooses several self-descriptive points, just to “cover one’s bases.”

Similarly, one might argue that multifaceted self-views are just an indicator of self-view consistency or stability. I argue, however, that the construct of multifaceted self-views differs in theoretically and empirically testable ways from self-consistency and related constructs.

Self-Consistency

Self-consistency refers to consistency between people’s self-views and their behaviors (Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990). Multifaceted self-views might thus be construed as people’s feelings of consistency within a domain. For example, someone who reports few self-descriptive positions might feel consistent (e.g., consistently behaves more extraverted), whereas someone who reports many self-descriptive positions might feel inconsistent (e.g., sometimes behaves very extraverted, sometimes behaves slightly extraverted). However, the opposite case may also be true: people with many self-descriptive positions may feel more consistent than people with few self-descriptive positions, because a greater array of behaviors would be consistent with the greater number of self-descriptive positions. In a relevant empirical test, Schlenker and Trudeau (1990) found that self-consistency ratings were not related to the width of participants’ latitudes. It follows that self-consistency should be unrelated to people’s multifaceted self-views in a given domain. This issue was empirically tested in Study 1 of the current research.

Self-Certainty

Self-certainty involves the extent to which people are certain that they do or do not possess a particular trait. Multifaceted self-views may be viewed as reflecting self-certainty: the more facets to one’s self-view, the lower one’s level of self-certainty within that domain. Indeed, Baumgardner (1990) made the assumption that a wide self-descriptive range indicated low self-certainty for a given trait. Being uncertain about one’s self-views, however, does not necessarily

translate into a greater number of self-descriptive positions within a domain. A person with few self-descriptive positions may also be uncertain about her self-view, perhaps having little feedback or behavioral evidence on which to base her self-view. Because multifaceted self-views do not take the certainty of self-descriptive positions into account, there should not be evidence of a relation between self-certainty and number of self-descriptive positions. The relation between self-certainty and how multifaceted one's self-view is was examined in Study 1 of this manuscript.

Self-Concept Clarity

Self-concept clarity refers to how well articulated (i.e., clear, confidently defined) people's self-views are (Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 1996). People with less articulate self-views take longer to decide if traits are self-descriptive, and also report less confidence for traits that describe them (Campbell, 1990). Multifaceted self-views may be seen as another way to measure self-concept clarity: the more multifaceted one's self-view, the less articulated is one's self-concept. However, people with numerous self-descriptive positions may take longer deciding if a trait is self-descriptive because they are being forced to categorize themselves – a view that does not fit with how they conceive of themselves. People with few self-descriptive positions may simply have fewer options to choose from, making it appear as if they are more confident about possessing a particular trait. Thus, I would not expect the number of self-descriptive positions people report to relate to their self-concept clarity. I examined this issue in the current research.

Self-View Stability

Self-view stability refers to the consistency with which people report their self-views across time. Measuring self-views across even short durations of time (e.g., 12 hours; Greenier et

al., 1999) typically reveals that participants' ratings differ from one occasion to the next, leading researchers to believe that self-views lack stability (e.g., Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993; Pelham, 1991). Multifaceted self-views could be construed as an index of these fluctuations, with people who have more unstable self-views reporting a large number of self-descriptive positions. I would argue, however, that multifaceted self-views are not indicative of self-view stability. A person whose multifaceted self-view contains two self-descriptive positions may alternate between these each time she reports a single point self-view, resulting in the perception that she has a highly unstable self-view. A person whose multifaceted self-view contains many more self-descriptive positions may show similar instability if he also fluctuates in the single point self-view he chooses to report. Accordingly, knowing a person's level of self-view stability does not inform us about the nature of that person's multifaceted self-view.

In sum, multifaceted self-views offer a perspective that appears to differ considerably from conceivably related self characteristics. As a novel approach, this expansive image of self-views should provide further contributions to our understanding the overall self-concept. To ensure that the multifaceted concept is indeed different from the potentially relevant constructs in the self literature, tests of discriminant validity were employed.

Overview of Studies

The current studies empirically examined the existence of multifaceted self-views. Although previous research and theorizing give us good reason to believe that people have multifaceted self-views, no one to my knowledge has construed the self in this way. In the first study presented here, participants' reactions to describing themselves using multiple versus single point ratings were considered. If people have multifaceted self-views, then participants should prefer using several points rather than just one point to describe their self-views.

Moreover, participants should regard their self-descriptions as more accurate when they describe themselves with several points than when they do so with just a single point. Study 1 also explored whether the notion of multifaceted self-views is distinct from related constructs. The second study presented here examined how multifaceted self-views can inform us about people's reactions to self-relevant feedback. As such, this second study was designed to provide further evidence for the multifaceted perspective of self-views and to underscore the utility of adopting a multifaceted perspective to study self-related topics.

STUDY 1

The primary objective of Study 1 was to provide evidence that people define themselves using multiple self-descriptive positions within domains. To this end, participants were asked to describe themselves using either single points or using multiple points. Of participants who were given the opportunity to report multiple points, some could chose to do so whereas other were required to do so, to rule out the explanation that people prefer reporting multiple points due simply to having freedom to respond in a manner that they choose (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996; Stotland & Blumenthal, 1964). Comparisons across conditions with regard to self-perceived accuracy, anxiety, autonomy, and reliability should support the claim that people's self-views are better represented when participants report multiple self-descriptive positions than when they report one single position. Participants should view multiple points as a more accurate representation of themselves than single points. Moreover, if participants prefer to describe themselves with multiple rather than singular positions, then they should feel better (e.g., report more positive affect and less negative affect, feel more autonomous) after providing multifaceted self-views than after providing single point self-ratings. Anxiety should also differ between conditions, because of the implications it has had in self-verification research (Pinel & Swann, 1998). Reporting multifaceted self-views, if they are more self-verifying, should lead to lower feelings of anxiety than should reporting single point self-views. Furthermore, multifaceted self-views should show consistency across two testing sessions, as they should reflect stable variation in people's self-views. In sum, people who describe themselves using multiple versus single points should: perceive their self-representations to be more accurate, report more positive affect and less negative affect, express greater feelings of autonomy, report less anxiety, and provide stable descriptions of their self-views.

As a second goal of Study 1, the multifaceted perspective was compared to three potentially similar constructs: self-certainty, self-consistency, and self-concept clarity. The relation between multifaceted self-views and each construct was examined, with the expectation that multifaceted self-views would not be significantly related to any of the extant constructs. The construct of multifaceted self-views was also expected to be distinguished from the previous constructs via its association with self-esteem. Whereas self-certainty, self-consistency, and self-concept clarity all relate positively to self-esteem, a curvilinear relation between multifaceted self-views and self-esteem was expected, such that people with a moderate number of self-descriptive positions have higher self-esteem than do people with a relatively limited or greater number of self-descriptive positions. Possessing a very limited number of self-descriptive positions could be harmful to self-esteem, as such invariance suggests that people are not actively interacting with the various situations and audiences they encounter. Having too many self-descriptive positions may also be related to low self-esteem, as these individuals are perhaps overly influenced by their surroundings. Therefore, a moderate number of self-descriptive positions should correspond to more positive self-esteem than should either a relatively large number or a relatively small number of self-descriptive positions in a given domain.

Finally, Study 1 explored the relation between location of multifaceted self-view positions and state and trait self-esteem. Because they represent the most negative and positive ways that participants see themselves, as well as the average of all selected positions, the location indices should significantly correlate with trait self-esteem. Importantly, these correlations should be as strong, if not stronger, than correlations between self-esteem and single point self-views. In contrast, state self-esteem scores may be related more strongly to single point self-views than to multifaceted self-views, as single points are expected to reflect participants'

current state of mind more so than are multifaceted self-view points. In addition, participants' multifaceted endpoints may provide additional details about how participants' self-views relate to their self-esteem. Previous research using social comparison ranges for self-view domains showed that participants' lowest points and highest points each contributed unique variance to self-esteem (Quinlivan, 2004). The same may be true for multifaceted self-view points. Such findings would help substantiate the view that multifaceted self-views are more informative about how people experience themselves than are single point self-views.

Method

Participants

Participants were 574 undergraduate students (270 females, 247 males, 57 gender not reported; 459 European Americans, 22 African Americans, 30 Asian Americans, 1 American Indian or Alaska Native, 1 Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and 61 race not reported) enrolled in psychology courses at Penn State University. Twenty-nine participants (5% of the original sample) did not follow directions or did not complete major portions of the questionnaire and were thus excluded, leaving 545 participants for data analyses. All participants received experimental participation credit for their involvement.

Procedure

After providing informed consent, participants completed a number of questionnaires. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three self-view conditions or to a baseline condition. Questionnaires in each condition, save the baseline condition, included self-view measures, measures of participants' perceived accuracy of their self-view ratings, and measures assessing constructs potentially related to multifaceted self-views. All questionnaires (including the baseline condition) included a measure of affect and of autonomy, and state and trait self-

esteem measures. Three-hundred and sixty-two participants (63% of the original sample) completed the self-view measures a second time, two weeks after the initial session. All participants were fully debriefed at the conclusion of their session.

Self-view conditions

Instructions preceding self-view ratings differed between conditions. In the *single point* condition, participants were instructed to choose one scale point to represent how they see themselves in each self-view domain presented. In the *forced multiple* condition, participants were instructed to choose two or more points from the scale to represent how they see themselves. In the *choice* condition, participants were instructed to choose any number of points to represent their self-view. Finally, a *baseline control* condition was included, in which participants were not asked to respond to self-view questions. Including this latter condition allowed consideration of how participants' responses to various dependent measures (e.g., affect, anxiety, self-esteem) shifted as a function of answering questions about their self-views.

Materials

Self-Views. Self-views were measured using 10-point Likert scales, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 9 (extremely). Participants provided self-reports on thirteen self-views: extraverted, emotionally expressive, conscientious, competitive, talkative, carefree, energetic, trusting, cautious, attractive, overweight, athletic, and creative. This selection encompassed a range of self-view domains, including personality traits, physical attributes, and interpersonal qualities. The selected domains are ones in which participants are likely to have established self-views and could therefore report easily.

Accuracy. Perceived accuracy of the reported self-views was obtained using two questions: "How well does this description reflect your view of yourself in this dimension?" and

“To what extent is this rating a complete description of how you see yourself in this domain?” Answers to these questions were reported on an 8-point Likert scale: 0 (not at all) to 7 (extremely). A composite score for accuracy was calculated, taking the mean response across self-views for both accuracy questions. Internal reliability ($\alpha = .92$) was acceptable.

Affect. The Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was used to assess participants' affect. The PANAS contains ten items for positive affect and ten for negative affect. Adequate internal consistency for both subscales (positive affect, $\alpha = .89$; negative affect, $\alpha = .85$) has been established. In addition to the 20 items from the PANAS, participants reported how anxious they felt, as anxiety was expected to be higher after reporting single points than after reporting multifaceted self-views.

Self-esteem. State self-esteem was measured using Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) State Self-Esteem Scale. The State Self-Esteem Scale consists of items intended to tap into three factors of state self-esteem: performance, social, and appearance. Internal consistency is good ($\alpha = .92$). Trait self-esteem was assessed with Tatarodi and Swann's (1995) Self-Liking and Competence Scale (SLC). The SLC conceptualizes self-esteem as two-dimensional, comprised of feelings of social worth and feelings of personal efficacy. Adequate internal consistency has been reported for both self-liking ($\alpha = .82$) and self-competence ($\alpha = .90$).

Autonomy. Autonomy was measured using the perceived choice subscale of the Self-Determination Scale (Sheldon & Deci, 1996; internal consistency $\alpha = .85$). The scale includes five items, with responses given on a 5-point bipolar scale, assessing the extent to which people feel a sense of choice with respect to their behavior. Participants' responses to the five items were averaged to obtain a composite score for autonomy ($\alpha = .83$). Items were reversed scored so that higher composite scores indicated greater perceived choice in behaviors.

Related constructs. Three constructs potentially related to the concept of multifaceted self-views were measured: self-consistency, self-certainty, and self-concept clarity. Self-consistency was measured for each self-view with one question, in a manner similar to that of Schlenker and Trudeau (1990). Participants were asked how often they behave in a manner consistent with the self-descriptive position(s) they reported. The one-item assessment used for self-certainty was also borrowed from previous research (Story, 2004). Participants were asked to rate how certain they were about their self-reported view within each domain. The mean rating across self-views for each of these questions was calculated to provide a composite score for self-consistency and for self-certainty. To measure self-concept clarity, which pertains to the self-concept in general rather than to specific domains, a 12-item scale developed by Campbell et al. (1996; internal consistency $\alpha = .82$) was used.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive data from the multifaceted conditions can inform us about how people conceptualize their self-views. Focusing on the choice condition in particular will reveal participants' preferences for expressing multiple point vs. single point self-views. Descriptive data from the multifaceted conditions should provide initial indications that self-views can assume a multifaceted structure.

Number of self-descriptive positions. The number of self-descriptive positions selected by participants in the choice condition reflects their tendency to see themselves in multifaceted ways within domains. For participants in the choice condition ($N=142$), the mean number of positions chosen was 1.83 ($SD = 1.06$) averaged across all self-views, with participants' own means ranging from 1.00 to 6.10. Table 1 provides descriptive data for the number of positions

chosen within each self-view. Within any particular domain, at least half of participants in this condition selected just one self-descriptive point ($M = 59\%$; range 53%-73%). This finding indicates that people do often conceptualize themselves with a single point within a domain. However, because the mean number of selected positions significantly exceeds 1.00, $t(141) = 9.37$, $p < .001$, and because anywhere from 27% to 47% of participants chose more than one self-descriptive point within any given domain, it also appears that, at times, multiple points may provide a better representation of people's self-views in a domain.

Table 1
Number of positions chosen for self-views in the choice condition

	Mean	SD	Number of positions chosen			
			1	2	3	4 or more
Extraverted	1.91	1.40	63%*	8%	15%	15%
Emotionally Expressive	1.82	1.25	58%	19%	14%	9%
Conscientious	1.69	1.01	61%	17%	16%	6%
Competitive	1.77	1.21	63%	11%	15%	11%
Talkative	2.04	1.62	58%	13%	13%	16%
Carefree	1.93	1.26	53%	20%	16%	11%
Cautious	1.99	1.47	55%	18%	13%	15%
Energetic	2.09	1.62	54%	15%	13%	17%
Trusting	1.96	1.59	53%	23%	12%	12%
Attractive	1.75	1.14	59%	20%	13%	9%
Athletic	1.64	0.96	60%	21%	13%	5%
Creative	1.83	1.12	56%	18%	16%	11%
Overweight	1.38	0.71	73%	18%	7%	2%

*Represents percentage of participants choosing the number of positions indicated by the column heading. Numbers are rounded to the nearest percentage point.

Indeed, the data indicate that 72% ($N = 102$) of participants in the choice condition chose multiple scale points for at least one self-view domain. The total number of domains in which these participants chose multiple points ranged from 1 to all 13 (see Figure 1), with a mean of 7.39, a median of 8.00, and a mode of 1.00. The remaining 28% ($N = 40$) of participants in the choice condition chose one self-descriptive point in all domains. Comparing these two subgroups, i.e., those who sometimes chose multiple self-descriptive points and those who always chose single points, throughout the inferential analyses will reveal implications of this between-subjects variability.

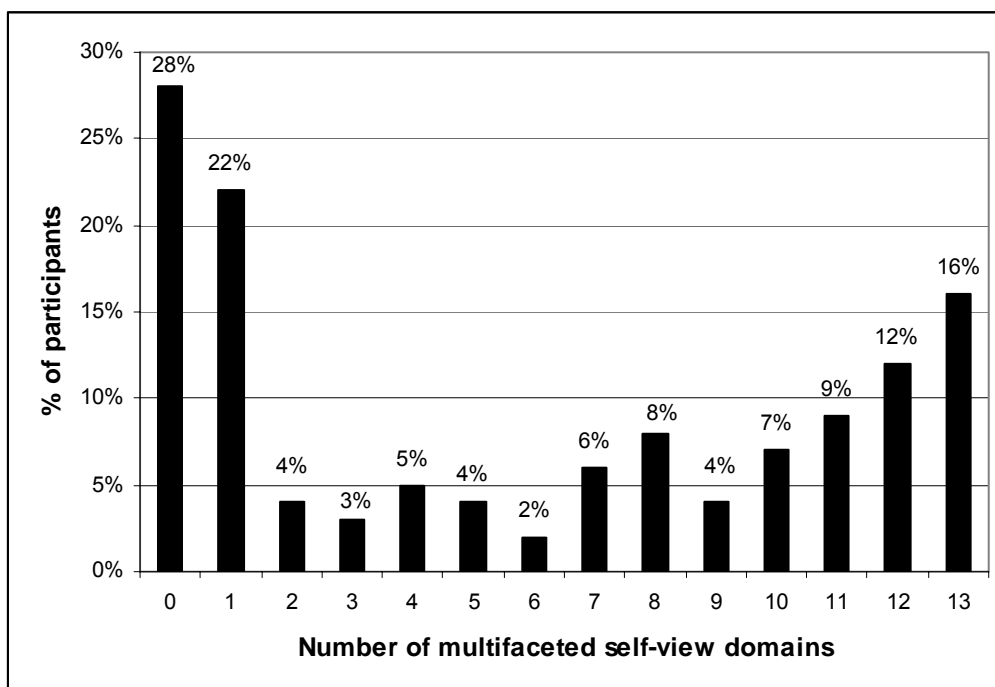


Figure 1. Of participants in the choice condition, the number of domains in which multiple points were selected.

Contiguity of selected points. When participants reported multiple self-descriptive points, these points may or not have been contiguous. To determine what structure multifaceted self-views assumed, contiguity was assessed in the multiple point self-descriptions of participants

from the choice and the forced multiple ($N = 132$) conditions. Within self-views, a mean of 69% of participants chose a contiguous selection of points. This ranged from 51% (extraverted) to 93% (overweight). Looking within participants, 44% always chose contiguous points and 71% chose contiguous points for at least half of their multifaceted self-views. Seven percent of participants never chose contiguous points for their multifaceted self-views. Although participants tended to choose a contiguous selection of points to represent their self-view, there were a number of non-contiguous point selections, including many participants who varied between choosing contiguous and non-contiguous points. Judging from these patterns, there can be no firm conclusion that multifaceted self-views assume a contiguous structure. Participants' multifaceted self-views, though tending toward contiguity, may or may not represent a continuous range of points.

The descriptive statistics from the choice condition provide initial evidence that people may describe themselves in a multifaceted manner within some self-view domains when given the opportunity to do so. Giving participants the choice to describe themselves with one point or multiple points allowed a look at participants' preferences for describing their self-views. Based on the descriptive statistics, there appears to be a tendency for individuals to report both single point and multiple point self-descriptions across their self-view domains. The occurrence of multiple point self-descriptions, while not uniform between or within participants, suggests that viewing self-views in a domain as potentially multifaceted may be important. Even if only 25% of one's sample in a feedback study has a multifaceted self-view on the dimension of interest, ignoring these participants' multiple self-descriptive points could impact one's results. For example, unexpected similarities might be seen between participants who are supposed to receive feedback more positive than their self-view and participants who are supposed to receive

feedback consistent with their self-view. Because of their multifaceted self-view, participants in the former condition could inadvertently receive feedback consistent with their self-view rather than receiving feedback more positive than their self-view, causing them to respond similarly to participants in the latter condition. Thus, finding that even a minority of participants have a multifaceted self-view within a domain has potentially important consequences.

Conducting inferential analyses to test differences between the self-view conditions (i.e., single point, choice, and forced multiple) on measures such as accuracy, affect, and autonomy, as well as exploring relations between multifaceted self-views and self-esteem measures, will further our understanding of the implications and validity of conceiving of self-views as a multifaceted construct.

Accuracy of Self-View Ratings

Perceived accuracy ratings were predicted to differ between the single ($N = 127$) and multifaceted (forced multiple and choice) self-view conditions, with participants in the multifaceted self-view conditions reporting higher perceived accuracy.

A one-way ANOVA showed a marginally significant condition effect for perceived accuracy ratings, $F(2, 392) = 2.46, p = .09, \eta^2 = .01, 1-\beta = .49$. Planned contrasts revealed that participants in the single point condition ($M = 6.04, SD = 0.79$) rated their self-descriptions to be less accurate than did participants in the forced multiple condition ($M = 6.23, SD = 0.72$), $t(392) = -2.06, p < .05$. Perceived accuracy in the single point condition did not differ from perceived accuracy in the choice condition ($M = 6.07, SD = 0.68$), $t(392) = -0.36, p > .05$.

Thus, the data indicate that the differential reporting of self-views affected perceived accuracy. When participants were required to select multiple points to describe themselves, they

found their reported self-views to be more accurate compared to participants who were not given the chance to report multiple points.

Although the forced and single point conditions differed, the choice and single point conditions did not. What could account for this pattern of results? One possibility is that demand characteristics influenced the accuracy ratings of participants' in the forced condition.

Specifically, these participants may have guessed that multiple point self-descriptions were expected to provide a more accurate representation of self-views and consequently increased their perceived accuracy ratings relative to participants in the other conditions.

It is also possible, however, that participants in the choice and single point conditions did not differ because at least half of participants in the choice condition (53%-73% across self-view domains) chose just one self-descriptive point within each domain. This pattern may have led to similarities in perceived accuracy between the two conditions. Indeed, when dividing the choice condition into those participants who chose multiple self-descriptive points in at least one domain (choice/multiple, $n = 95$) and those who never chose multiple self-descriptive points (choice/single, $n = 44$), an exploratory contrast¹ comparing the single and choice/single groups to the forced multiple and choice/multiple groups was significant, with higher means in the forced multiple ($M = 6.23$, $SD = 0.72$) and choice/multiple ($M = 6.11$, $SD = 0.68$) groups than in the single ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 0.79$) and choice/single groups ($M = 5.99$, $SD = 0.68$), $t(391) = 1.90$, $p < .01$. It thus seems possible that the similarity between the single condition and the choice condition stems from participants in the choice condition who only reported single point self-views. Importantly, not taking advantage of the opportunity to report multiple point self-

¹ For the five exploratory contrasts, the Bonferroni correction method was used to decrease the chances of making a Type I error; thus, for exploratory contrasts, alpha was set at .01.

descriptions seems to correspond with self-descriptions that feel less accurate to those providing them.

Affect and Self-View Ratings

Participants in the multifaceted self-view conditions were expected to report more positive affect, less negative affect, and less anxiety than were participants in the single point self-view condition. Furthermore, relative to baseline participants ($N = 144$), participants in the single point condition should show decreased positive affect and increased negative affect and anxiety as a consequence of reporting self-descriptions inconsistent with how they conceive of themselves. Participants reporting multifaceted self-views should not be similarly affected and should thus not differ from baseline ratings for positive affect, negative affect, or anxiety.

Using the original scoring method for the PANAS measure, a score for positive affect and a score for negative affect were calculated for each participant. Anxiety scores were taken from participants' single item rating for anxiety. An ANOVA was conducted for each of the dependent variables, with planned contrasts testing the hypothesized differences between conditions.

Positive affect. A marginally significant difference was found for positive affect ratings, $F(3, 538) = 2.27, p = .08, \eta^2 = .01, 1-\beta = .57$. Significant differences were not found, however, among the planned contrasts, $ps > .05$. That is, the multifaceted conditions (forced: $M = 2.67, SD = 0.87$; choice: $M = 2.90, SD = 0.89$) did not differ from the single point condition ($M = 2.89, SD = 0.82$), and the multifaceted and single conditions did not differ from baseline ratings ($M = 2.75, SD = 0.84$) as hypothesized. Exploratory analyses indicated that positive affect was lower in the forced multiple condition than in the choice condition ($p < .05$) and the single condition ($p < .05$). Forcing participants to report their self-views in an unfamiliar manner may have led to

lower feelings of positive affect than did reporting self-views in a familiar manner (single point condition) or in a non-forced manner (choice condition), as familiarity and choice can influence positive affect (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Winkielman & Cacioppo, 2001). Despite these differences, however, none of the self-view conditions were significantly different from baseline ratings, suggesting that reporting self-views as singular vs. multifaceted does not significantly impact positive affect.

Negative affect. A marginally significant difference was found for negative affect ratings, $F(3, 538) = 2.30, p = .08, \eta^2 = .01, 1-\beta = .58$. Planned contrasts revealed that participants in the baseline condition ($M = 1.44, SD = 0.55$) reported less negative affect than did participants in both the single condition ($M = 1.58, SD = 0.63$), $t(538) = -2.00, p < .05$, and the multifaceted conditions (choice: $M = 1.60, SD = 0.64$; forced multiple: $M = 1.59, SD = 0.59$), $t(538) = 2.51, p < .05$. This finding – that participants not providing self-views reported less negative affect than did those who provided self-views – may be due to the self-awareness elicited when reporting self-views. Increased self-awareness relates to depressed affect (e.g., Fejfar & Hoyle, 2000; Ingram & Smith, 1984; Smith & Greenberg, 1981) and may thus have influenced participants in the self-view conditions to experience more negative affect than baseline. Although self-view conditions differed from baseline, however, negative affect was similar among the three self-view conditions, suggesting that the differential reporting of self-views does not affect negative affect as predicted.

Anxiety. The omnibus test for group differences in anxiety did not reveal a significant difference, $F(3, 537) = 1.18, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01, 1-\beta = .32$. However, planned contrasts revealed that participants' reported anxiety in the single condition ($M = 2.52, SD = 1.21$) was significantly higher than anxiety in the baseline condition ($M = 2.26, SD = 1.36$), $t(537) = -1.68, p = .05$.

Participants reporting a single point self-view were expected to experience increased anxiety due to the restriction of describing themselves with one point. Anxiety reported in the multifaceted conditions did not differ from that reported in the baseline condition, $t(537) = 1.15, p > .05$. Anxiety ratings from participants in the single condition did not differ from those given by participants in the multifaceted conditions, (choice: $M = 2.47, SD = 1.27$); forced: $M = 2.35, SD = 1.20$), $t(537) = -0.81, p > .05$.

The explanation that anxiety scores in the single point condition were higher than baseline because of participants' inability to describe themselves in a self-verifying manner is consistent with previous findings that show an increase in participant anxiety after receiving information inconsistent with self-views (Pinel & Swann, 1998). That anxiety but not positive or negative affect was influenced by the extent to which self-descriptions were self-verifying is also consistent with the findings of Pinel and Swann, who found that self-verifying information influenced participants' reports of anxiety but not happiness. This previous work showed that participants may become anxious after receiving feedback inconsistent with their self-views; the current work suggests that participants may also show an increase in anxiety after *giving* feedback inconsistent with their self-views.

Finally, the choice condition was again divided into those who chose multiple points and those who did not, enabling a distinction between affect levels for participants who had the option to report multifaceted self-views and those who actually did so. Exploratory analyses with these two groups showed that they did not differ from each other on positive affect, negative affect, or anxiety, $p > .01$. For affect, then, having the option to report multifaceted self-views produces the same effects as actually doing so. The affective similarity between these two subgroups is perhaps not surprising, based on the interpretations above. Because both subgroups

reported self-views, their negative affect should be similarly affected. Positive affect should not be influenced by the differential reporting of self-views in these subgroups. Further, the anxiety levels of these subgroups should not differ from one another, as neither were required to report only single points.

Autonomy and Self-View Ratings

Relative to participants in the single point condition, participants in the multifaceted conditions should report greater feelings of autonomy. In comparison to baseline ratings, participants in the single point condition should show decreased scores for autonomy, whereas participants in the multifaceted conditions should not be affected. An ANOVA was conducted on autonomy scores, followed by planned contrasts to test the predicted differences between conditions.

A significant difference between conditions was not found for the omnibus test, $F(3, 540) = 1.21, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01, 1-\beta = .33$. However, planned contrasts revealed that participants in the single point condition ($M = 3.60, SD = 0.75$) reported less autonomy than did participants in the baseline condition ($M = 3.76, SD = 0.75$), $t(537) = -1.68, p < .05$. Furthermore, as predicted, the multifaceted conditions (choice: $M = 3.62, SD = 0.79$; forced multiple: $M = 3.69, SD = 0.76$) did not differ from baseline ratings, $t(537) = -1.29, p > .05$. Contrary to predictions, the single condition did not differ from the multifaceted conditions, $t(537) = 0.67, p > .05$.

Compared to baseline ratings, participants in the single point condition perceived themselves as having less choice in their behaviors, whereas participants in the multifaceted conditions – even those in the forced multiple condition – did not experience a decrease in perceived choice in behavior. Participants able to report multifaceted self-views did not face the same limited choices as did those in the single point condition. Although participants in the

forced multiple condition were instructed to report multiple points, this requirement was not as limiting as was being required to report a single point. The restriction placed on those in the single point condition likely led to the decrease in feelings of autonomy, as these participants were most confined in their choices and, as such, restricted from reporting any multifaceted self-views they had.

Additionally, when dividing the choice condition into its subgroups, autonomy was not different between those who selected multiple points and those who did not, $t(586) = -0.72, p > .01$. This suggests that it may not be the actual reporting of single points that decreases participants' autonomy, but the restriction of having to do so.

Reliability of Self-View Ratings

Multifaceted self-views are proposed to represent a more complete description of the self, whereas single points may be more representative of current situations or moods. Thus, reliability was expected to be higher for multifaceted self-views than for single point self-views. To explore differences in reliability, consistency across a two-week period was tested.

Recall the multiple indices that one can extract from the measure of multifaceted self-views used in this research. Assessing multifaceted self-views gives us the location of participants' lowest, highest, and average (an average of all selected points) positions in the self-view, as well as indicating the number of positions participants consider self-descriptive. For participants in the forced multiple and choice conditions, correlations between Time 1 and Time 2 self-view ratings were calculated for these four multifaceted indices. For each of the four indices, correlations were calculated within each self-view domain and averaged across all 13 self-views (Table 2). For participants in the single point condition, correlations between Time 1

and Time 2 self-view ratings were calculated for each self-view domain and averaged across all 13 self-views to obtain one coefficient for the single point condition (Table 2).

Table 2
Correlation coefficients for Time 1 to Time 2 ratings

Single point	.694*
Highest point	.689*
Average point	.682*
Lowest point	.634*
Number of positions	.626*

* $p < .001$

Significant differences between self-esteem correlations for single points and multifaceted indices were determined by converting the correlations to z-scores, estimating the standard error between the correlations, and dividing the z-score difference by the standard error. Numbers higher than 1.96 indicate that correlations are significantly different from one another.

Calculations indicated that reliability of the multifaceted indices of average point, highest point, lowest point, and number of selected positions did not significantly differ from the single point reliability, $ps > .05$. Thus, single point self-views were no less reliable than were multifaceted self-views. This finding is in contrast to predictions and suggests that single point self-views can provide a relatively consistent view of the self within a domain. Similar reliability between the two self-view methods may indicate that participants have a consistent single point that best represents their self-view in a domain, in addition to potentially having multiple points that describe their self-view in a domain.

Multifaceted Self-Views and Related Constructs

Correlations between variability in multifaceted self-views (i.e., number of self-descriptive positions) and participants' scores from related measures (i.e., self-consistency, self-certainty, and self-clarity) were expected to provide evidence of discriminant validity. These correlations should be low, demonstrating that multifaceted self-views are distinct from the constructs of self-consistency, self-certainty, and self-concept clarity. Participants' mean number of self-descriptive positions ranged from 1.00 to 6.08, which should be an adequate range for revealing existing correlations.

Correlation coefficients between mean number of positions selected and each related measure were computed. Because the previous constructs relate to variability in self-views rather than the specific content of self-views, the location indices of participants' multifaceted self-views are not applicable for evaluating discriminant validity.

The number of self-descriptive positions reported by participants was not significantly related to self-certainty ($r = .05, p > .05$) or self-concept clarity ($r = -.08, p > .05$) and was only marginally significantly related to self-consistency ($r = .10, p = .09$). Although the latter correlation was marginally significant, all three of the previous constructs had much stronger correlations with one another, with all correlations between the extant measures having $ps < .01$ (self-certainty and self-consistency, $r = .81, p < .001$; self-certainty and self-concept clarity, $r = .17, p < .01$; self-consistency and self-concept clarity, $r = .17, p < .01$). Thus, for participants in the current sample, multifaceted self-views appear to be measuring a construct distinct from those previously explored.

Self-Esteem and Multifaceted Self-Views

The location and number of points selected by participants were expected to relate to self-esteem levels. Only participants from the choice condition were included in self-esteem analyses, because we can not assume that participants from the forced multiple condition would have voluntarily reported multiple points. Correlations between multifaceted indices and trait self-esteem were expected to be stronger than correlations between single points and trait self-esteem, whereas the opposite pattern was expected for state self-esteem. In addition, participants' lowest and highest positions should differentially contribute to self-esteem, providing additional information about the nature of participants' self-evaluations.

Trait self-esteem. Because previous research indicates an association between self-view variability and general evaluations of the self (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Donahue et al., 1993; Greenier et al., 1999), the number of self-descriptive positions participants chose should relate to trait self-esteem. Unlike the linear relations found with previous constructs, however, here a curvilinear relation was expected between number of positions and trait self-esteem, such that having a moderate number of self-descriptive positions should correspond to more positive self-esteem than should either a comparatively high or low number of self-descriptive positions in a given domain.

A regression analysis including a quadratic term was conducted to test the hypothesized curvilinear relation. Specifically, the squared number of positions (averaged across self-views) was added to the linear regression equation. To ensure that multifaceted self-views account for variance beyond that accounted for by self-consistency, self-certainty, and self-concept clarity, these extant constructs were partialled out in the first step². Participants' mean number of

² Consistent with previous research, trait self-esteem scores significantly correlated with measures of self-consistency ($r = .24, p < .05$), self-certainty ($r = .26, p < .05$), and self-concept clarity ($r = .67, p < .05$).

positions was added in the second step of the regression analysis, $\beta = .01$, $t(136) = 0.21$, $p > .05$. Finally, the squared number of positions was added in the third step, $\beta = .61$, $t(136) = 2.43$, $p < .05$. As predicted, self-esteem scores were higher when participants chose several self-descriptive positions than when their selected positions were more limited or greater in number. Having some flexibility in one's self-views was associated with higher self-esteem than was having a more limited or more varied view of the self within a domain. Furthermore, because the extant constructs were partialled out, this result provides additional evidence that multifaceted self-views differ from self-consistency, self-certainty, and self-concept clarity.

Table 3
Summary of regression analysis for trait self-esteem and number of positions selected

Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Self-consistency	0.02	0.10	0.02
Self-certainty	0.15	0.10	0.15
Self-concept clarity	0.57	0.06	0.64*
Step 2			
Number of positions chosen	0.01	0.04	0.01
Step 3			
Number of positions chosen squared	0.07	0.03	0.61*

Note. $R^2 = .47$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .02$ for Step 3

* $p < .05$.

The locations of participants' lowest, highest, and average self-view points were also expected to relate to trait self-esteem scores. How participants evaluate themselves in general should relate to where on the scale they place their self-descriptions. In examining correlations of the locations of participants' self-view points with trait self-esteem, trait self-esteem scores

significantly related to participants' lowest point ($r = .25, p < .01$), highest point ($r = .27, p < .01$), and average point ($r = .36, p < .01$). In contrast to predictions, correlations between trait self-esteem and multifaceted indices were not significantly different from correlations obtained using single point self-views (see Table 3).

A regression analysis indicated that participants' most positive self-view points, $t(270) = 5.52, \beta = .31, p < .01$, and participants' most negative self-view points, $t(270) = 5.09, \beta = .28, p < .01$, each accounted for unique variance. Knowing participants' self-view endpoints can thus allow a more detailed look into how self-view structure relates to self-esteem levels.

Table 4
Correlation coefficients for self-view ratings and self-esteem measures

	Single point	Average point	Highest point	Lowest point
Trait self-esteem	.233*	.232*	.210*	.212*
SSE: appearance	.232*	.293*	.175*	.243*
SSE: social	.216*	.259*	.283*	.122*
SSE: performance	.227*	.241*	.121*	.216*

* $p < .05$

State self-esteem. The location indices of multifaceted self-views should also significantly correlate with state self-esteem. Indeed, correlations between the lowest, highest, and average points were all significantly correlated with subscales of the state self-esteem scale. Social state self-esteem was significant correlated with participants' lowest ($r = .22, p < .001$), highest ($r = .12, p = .05$), and average ($r = .24, p < .001$) points. Performance state self-esteem was also significantly correlated with participants' lowest ($r = .12, p = .05$), highest ($r = .28, p < .001$), and average ($r = .26, p < .001$) points. Finally, appearance state self-esteem showed

similar significant correlations with participants' lowest ($r = .24, p < .001$), highest ($r = .18, p < .01$), and average ($r = .29, p < .001$) self-descriptive points.

Although significant, correlations between state self-esteem and multifaceted location indices may not be as strong as those between state self-esteem and single points. Single points may, in fact, provide a better representation of how participants evaluate themselves in the moment. To determine this, correlations between self-esteem and multifaceted self-view location points were compared to correlations between self-esteem and single point self-views (see Table 3 for correlations). No significant differences between state self-esteem correlations for single point self-views and location indices of multifaceted self-views were found, $ps > .05$, suggesting that single points are not more strongly associated with state self-esteem than are multifaceted location points. This similarity may be due to single points reflecting the point that best describes participants' self-view rather than reflecting how participants feel in the moment.

Additional analyses confirmed the prediction that multifaceted self-view endpoints provide additional information regarding the relation between state self-esteem and people's views of themselves. A regression analysis using participants' lowest point and highest point (averaged across self-views) as predictors revealed that participants' lowest point predicted appearance state self-esteem, $t(270) = 4.04, \beta = .24, p < .01$, as did participants highest point, $t(270) = 2.83, \beta = .17, p < .01$. Importantly, each of these points accounted for unique variance. This same pattern emerged for social state self-esteem, with participants' lowest point, $t(270) = 3.65, \beta = .22, p < .01$, and highest point, $t(270) = 1.59, \beta = .11, p = .06$, accounting for unique variance. For performance state self-esteem, participants' highest point, $t(270) = 4.86, \beta = .28, p < .01$, and lowest point, $t(270) = 1.89, \beta = .11, p = .06$, also accounted for unique variance. The self-view endpoints that participants report offer further details about how people evaluate

themselves in the moment, providing potentially important information about how self-views relate to self-esteem.

Regarding state self-esteem and self-view variability, participants' selected number of positions was not expected to relate to state self-esteem, as previous research indicates an association between self-view variability and general – not state – evaluations about the self (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Donahue et al., 1993; Greenier et al., 1999). Thus, the number of self-descriptive positions participants chose should not significantly correlate with state self-esteem scores. In fact, the number of self-descriptive positions selected did not correlate with social state self-esteem ($r = -.05, p > .05$), performance state self-esteem ($r = .08, p > .05$), or appearance state self-esteem ($r = -.05, p > .05$). As anticipated, variation in participants' self-views was not associated with a state measure of self-esteem.

Summary

Findings from Study 1 provide some evidence that researchers should allow for the possibility that self-views can assume a multifaceted structure. First, when given the opportunity to do so, a sizeable percentage (27% – 47%, depending on the domain) of participants chose multiple point self-descriptions within some of their domains. Second, participants who used multiple points to describe themselves (i.e., those in the forced multiple condition and those in the choice/multiple subgroup) found their self-descriptions to be a more accurate reflection of themselves than did participants who were required to or who chose to report single point self-views. Third, some evidence emerged to indicate that measures sensitive to people's multifaceted self-views exert an effect on, or are related to, measures of psychological import. The implications of these findings are expanded upon below.

When given the option to report single point self-views or multiple point self-views, the majority of participants (72%) in the choice condition reported multiple point self-views in at least one domain. Although variability occurred both between and within participants, the common tendency to report some multifaceted self-views indicates that people may have particular self-view domains in which they see themselves multiple ways. The majority's behavior in the choice condition provides initial evidence that construing self-views as multifaceted may be useful for capturing self-views in their entirety.

The remaining 28% of participants from the choice condition who did not report multifaceted self-views should not be ignored, however. Why might these participants have reported only single point self-descriptions within each domain? One reason is the limited number of domains that were presented. If people tend to have multifaceted self-views for some domains but not for others, then perhaps these participants reported unidimensional self-views because of the domains used. Had other domains been presented, they may have reported some multifaceted self-views. In other words, this group of participants may not have reported multifaceted self-views within domains because they do not perceive themselves as having multiple points that are self-descriptive. However, because perceived accuracy was similar between the single point condition and the choice/single subgroup, it is perhaps more likely that these participants either misread the instructions or reported all single points out of habit. That is, the single points reported by these participants may have resulted from inattentiveness rather than a singular view of the self within all domains. If all of these participants truly did have singular self-views within each of the domains presented, then we would expect the perceived accuracy of their ratings to be higher. Future research on this topic will want to examine these and other possibilities.

Participants' perceived accuracy ratings for their self-view reports are undoubtedly an important indicator of the validity of such reports. Presumably, participants describe their self-views as best they can using the measure provided. After all, participants are unlikely to provide a self-view description and then immediately report that their description was not accurate. Such dissonance may occur, however, if participants are describing themselves in a manner inconsistent with how they conceive of themselves. Such is the expectation when participants are required to report single point self-views. When limited to describing themselves with one point, participants may not view their reported self-view as highly accurate. Participants who describe their self-views with multiple points are permitted to express any and all of the ways that they view themselves in a given domain, an allowance that may contribute to their feelings of providing a more reflective and complete self-description. Because perceived accuracy ratings were higher for participants who reported multifaceted self-views than for participants who did not report multifaceted self-views in the current study, we might infer that, at least some of the time, multifaceted self-views can better represent how participants conceive of themselves within self-view domains than do single point self-views.

However, an alternative interpretation to this conclusion is that reporting multiple points encourages mindfulness. Participants in the forced multiple condition may have reported high levels of perceived accuracy due to an in-depth consideration of their self-view prior to providing their self-description. Having thought through their self-view carefully, participants providing multiple points might have consequently perceived their self-reports to better represent their self-view. Although in retrospect we can not be sure that mindfulness did not factor into participants' perceived accuracy scores, converging evidence (e.g., the large percentage of participants choosing multiple points for some self-descriptions, the relation between multifaceted self-views

and self-esteem) suggests that multifaceted self-views may be more than a consequence of allowing people to think carefully about themselves, instead allowing people to provide more representative descriptions of themselves.

In addition to affecting participants' perceived accuracy ratings, the differential reporting of self-views affected measures of anxiety and autonomy. Specifically, participants in the single point condition reported higher anxiety and lower autonomy relative to baseline ratings, whereas participants in the forced multiple and choice conditions did not differ from baseline. The increased anxiety for the single point condition was predicted to occur as a result of participants describing themselves in a manner inconsistent with how they see themselves. Also as predicted, feelings of autonomy in the single point condition were lower than baseline, perhaps because the restriction to report self-views as a single point prevented participants from reporting their complete self-view. Alternatively, this difference in autonomy could have occurred because of the limited behavioral choices in the single point condition. Rather than reflecting participants' inability to report how they truly see themselves, autonomy scores could have been influenced by the relative sense of restriction participants felt. Because participants in the forced multiple condition also had a restriction placed on them, however, the single point restriction is thought to be due to participants requirement to choose just one self-descriptive point. In sum, how participants were instructed to report self-views influenced feelings of anxiety and autonomy, with requirements to report single point self-views impacting participants negatively. That participants' anxiety and autonomy in the single point condition were more negatively impacted than were participants' anxiety and autonomy in the multifaceted conditions suggests that the former method for reporting self-views may conflict with participants' natural self-view structures.

With regard to self-esteem, results indicated that multifaceted self-views and single point self-views were similarly related to both trait and state measures of self-esteem. The locations of participants' selected points were significantly correlated with all self-esteem measures, with these correlations being similar to those obtained with single point self-views. Thus, one self-view assessment method does not have a better association with people's self-esteem levels than does the other. However, multifaceted self-view endpoints can provide additional details about the relation between self-views and self-esteem – details that one cannot have if one uses a single point approach to measuring self-views. Participants' endpoints each accounted for unique variance in self-esteem, indicating that the most positive and most negative ways that participants see themselves account for differences in self-esteem and add to the differences accounted for by single point ratings.

Further, the hypothesized curvilinear relation between trait self-esteem and number of self-descriptive positions was present in the data. When participants have some flexibility in their self-views, their trait self-esteem is higher than when their flexibility is more limited or more varied. This is consistent with self-determination theory, which asserts that actively interacting with one's environment contributes to greater well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Participants who have multifaceted self-views, to the extent that they are not overly influenced by their environment, evaluate themselves positively. An openness to seeing oneself differently across situations and audiences thus appears consistent with positive evaluations of the self. Theoretically, this implies that it is not just the positive or negative nature of self-views that relates to self-esteem, but also the variability of self-views. When evaluating self-esteem levels, people's self-view flexibility might be considered in addition to how positive or negative people are within a domain. The variability index for multifaceted self-views thus provides additional

information relevant to participants' evaluations of themselves, distinguishing it from previous constructs, as well as illustrating another advantage of assessing multifaceted self-views rather than single point self-views.

Reliability was similar between multifaceted self-views and single point self-views. Because of this similarity, as well as similar associations between each self-view perspective and state self-esteem scores, it appears that both single point and multifaceted points represent a more enduring view of the self and thus can not be distinguished with respect to this issue. The similarity in reliability suggests that the single point self-view reported by participants reflects the point that best describes them, allowing the single point to remain fairly consistent over a short time. Contrary to predictions then, single point self-views do not reflect people's states more so than do multiple point self-views.

Finally, the calculated effect sizes from the current analyses force consideration of the practical significance of the results. For the effect size index used, .01 is considered small, .059 is moderate, and .138 is large (Cohen, 1973). Although statistical significance was often observed in the presented analyses, given the small effect sizes throughout Study 1, the practical significance of the findings could be disputed. The index used for effect size in the current study represents accounted for variance, and is theoretically similar to the R^2 statistic derived from regression analyses. Thus, measuring self-views as singular vs. multifaceted accounted for only 1% of the variance in the dependent variables assessed here. Such an effect size calls into question the importance of measuring self-views as multifaceted. Is this difference in variance accounted for a practically significant effect? Although labeled as small, I would argue that the effects found in the present study are meaningful. Having even a small effect size means that the accounted for variance was larger in one group than another. An assessment method that

explains more variance, even if only by one percentage point, moves us one step closer to determining how best to conceptualize self-views. Because achieving the most accurate conceptualization of people's self-views is critical to researchers of the self, even this small difference in variance can be interpreted as being practically significant.

STUDY 2

In Study 2, further evidence for the multifaceted perspective was sought by assessing participants' responses to feedback that was consistent or inconsistent with their reported multifaceted self-view. Perceived accuracy for such feedback can provide additional confirmation that people possess multifaceted self-views. If multifaceted self-views are an accurate representation of how people see themselves, then feedback corresponding to any point consistent with one's multifaceted self-view should be perceived as high in accuracy, and feedback that is inconsistent with one's multifaceted self-view should result in low perceived accuracy. Furthermore, people should feel less anxious after receiving feedback that is consistent with their self-views than after receiving feedback that challenges their self-views (Pinel & Swann, 1998). In short, if people's self-views are, indeed, conceptualized as a multifaceted structure, then measuring multifaceted self-views should allow us to make reliable predictions about how people will respond to feedback about the self.

Single points may not allow for highly reliable predictions about self-related feedback, because they overlook possible variation in people's self-views. Quinlivan and Leary's unexpected (2005) findings prove consistent with this line of reasoning. These researchers provided participants with feedback regarding their physical appearance. Feedback was based on participants' single point self-ratings, and intended to be thinner than, heavier than, or consistent with participants' self-view. In assessing participants' perceptions of feedback accuracy, Quinlivan and Leary found that accuracy ratings from participants receiving feedback thinner than they had described themselves were not significantly different from accuracy ratings from participants receiving feedback consistent with their self-evaluations. Because internalization of self-perceptions is more likely for positive than for negative self-views, people are often more

likely to see themselves positively than negatively (Leary, 1996). Thus, feedback thinner than participants' self-ratings may have been more likely to be consistent with participants' multifaceted self-view than heavier feedback would have been. Consistent with this, participants given feedback heavier than their self-ratings rated this feedback as significantly less accurate than did those given thinner or consistent feedback (Quinlivan & Leary, 2005). Thus, using only single point self-ratings may create an incomplete picture of the self and result in giving feedback that does not serve its intended purpose. Feedback designed to be more positive than one's self-view, for example, might actually be consistent with one's self-view. This could explain the inconsistent findings in the literature regarding people's reactions to positive feedback (Pinel & Swann, 1998; Swann, Griffin, Predmore, & Gaines, 1987).

More specifically, measuring self-views from a multifaceted perspective may help to explain inconsistencies in self-verification and self-enhancement research. Researchers have long debated whether individuals seek self-verification or self-enhancement from others (e.g., Katz, Arias, & Beach, 2000; Morling & Epstein, 1997; Sedikides, 1993; Seta, Donaldson, & Seta, 1999; Swann, 1997; Swann et al., 1987), and studies have resulted in inconsistencies regarding people's preference between the two motives. Whereas some researchers maintain that people desire confirmation of their self-views, even negative ones (e.g., Swann, 1997; Swann & Read, 1981), others maintain that people desire information that makes them feel good about themselves (e.g., Sedikides, 1993; Taylor & Brown, 1988). This inconsistency may be explained by whether the feedback given to participants is consistent with their multifaceted self-view. Providing participants with feedback that is more positive than their single point evaluations could result in feedback that is still consistent with some participants' multifaceted self-views. If so, participants ought to rate the feedback as quite accurate, providing support for self-

enhancement predictions. However, as intended, the enhancing feedback could be more positive than they currently see themselves. In this case, participants would rate the feedback as not being accurate, supporting self-verification predictions. Using a multifaceted method for assessing self-views would ensure that the feedback researchers provide participants is indeed either more positive than participants see themselves or in line with how participants see themselves, ensuring that the intended processes can be addressed.

Thus, not only does the current study provide a critical test of whether multifaceted self-views are an accurate representation of how people see themselves, but, if results confirm predictions, there will be implications for future research. The current study employed methodology similar to that used in previous single point feedback studies, with the crucial exception of including multifaceted self-view assessments.

The study took place in two sessions. In the first session, participants reported their self-views, including both single point and multifaceted self-view points. In the second session, under the guise of a study on first impressions, participants were given feedback based on their reported self-views, with some participants receiving feedback consistent with their single point self-view and others receiving feedback discrepant from their single point. Specifically, in these discrepant conditions, participants received feedback more negative or more positive than their single point, with this negative feedback being either consistent with or just outside of their multifaceted endpoints. Thus, five feedback conditions (single point, negative consistent, negative inconsistent, positive consistent, and positive inconsistent) were studied. Perceived accuracy of the feedback, as well as affect, anxiety, and observer ratings in response to the feedback were measured.

In data analysis, interpretations from both the single point perspective and from the multifaceted perspective were considered. From the multifaceted perspective, reactions to feedback were expected to be similar across the single point and self-consistent conditions, with these three conditions differing from reactions to self-inconsistent feedback. From the single point perspective, reactions in the single point consistent condition should differ from all other conditions.

The current study focused on two self-views: physical appearance and intelligence. These self-views were chosen for a number of reasons. First, both self-views are generally considered important to people's self-concept (Harter, 1986). Therefore, most participants care about the feedback they receive – a goal that is sometimes difficult to achieve in experimental settings. Second, one end of the spectrum is typically preferred over the other. That is, being thin or intelligent is typically preferable to being heavy or unintelligent. Third, few people rate themselves at the extremes when reporting their self-view for physique or intelligence (Quinlivan, 2004). This ensured that participants could be randomly assigned to receive feedback that deviated from their self-view in either a positive or a negative direction. Finally, using physical appearance, I have successfully employed a similar methodology in previous studies (Quinlivan & Gasper, 2003; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005). Similar to previous studies using this methodology, the current study will include only female participants. Previous research has not found gender differences in how people respond to self-relevant feedback (e.g., Swann et al., 1987; Swann & Predmore, 1985). Consequently, researchers looking at responses to self-related feedback often use just one gender (e.g., Hixon & Swann, 1993; Pinel & Swann, 1998; Swann, Hixon, Stein-Seroussi, & Gilbert, 1990).

Investigating two self-views will allow speculation about the generalizability of results. Similar patterns may emerge for physical appearance and intelligence, demonstrating that multifaceted self-views have standard application across self-view domains. In this case, responses to intelligence feedback and physique feedback will be identical. Alternatively, different patterns between the two self-views may appear. Although common in the manners described above, the two self-views chosen for study also differ. For instance, whereas people are apt to see themselves as above average in the domain of intelligence (Alicke, Klotz, Breitenbecher, Yurak, & Vrendenburg, 1995), people are less apt to demonstrate a positivity bias in self-evaluations for body image (Quinlivan, 2004). This difference could lead to differences in how participants respond to intelligence vs. physique feedback, influencing, for example, the perceived accuracy of such feedback. A positivity bias may lead participants in the intelligence condition to respond differently from participants in the physique condition. Despite potential differences between self-view domains, however, the current methodology provides an important test for the value of construing self-views as multifaceted constructs.

Method

Participants

One-hundred and forty-seven undergraduate women (120 European American, 9 African American, 8 Asian American, 4 Multiracial, and 2 no race reported) enrolled in introductory psychology courses at Penn State University participated in this study in exchange for required experimental credit. During debriefing, four participants expressed suspicion about the feedback they received and were thus excluded from analyses, leaving 72 participants in the intelligent self-view condition and 71 participants in the physique self-view condition.

Procedure

Participants participated in two sessions. During the first session, participants' completed a number of questionnaires. The first questionnaire assessed participants' multifaceted self-views, including self-view assessments of physique and intelligence. The physique self-view was assessed using a revised version of the Figure Rating Scale (Appendix; Quinlivan & Gasper, 2003; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005; Quinlivan & Leary, 2001; Stunkard, Sorenson, & Schulsinger, 1980). Intelligence self-views were measured on a 10-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 9 (extremely). A second questionnaire measured single point self-views, also including the self-views of physique and intelligence. Administration of the multifaceted and single point questionnaires was counterbalanced. Participants' self-esteem was assessed using the SLC (Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). To fit with the cover story, several self-view dimensions other than physique and intelligence were included in the self-view questionnaires. Similar to methodology from previous studies (Quinlivan & Gasper, 2003; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005), participants were told that the study concerned first impressions. At the end of the first session, in which they simply filled out questionnaires, participants were told that the researchers were interested in examining whether first impressions are more accurate when people observe others or when they are given a written description of others. They were told that the second session would involve observing or reading about another participant and providing a first impression, and that the questionnaires they filled out in the first session would allow the researchers to judge the accuracy of the first impressions. This cover story has led to minimal suspicion in previous studies (Quinlivan & Gasper, 2003; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005).

In participants' second session, held one week after their first, participants were brought into the lab and tested individually. Participants were led to believe that another participant was

present for the study and was seated in an adjoining room. After providing informed consent, participants completed the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) to assess their positive affect prior to receiving feedback, as well as several filler questionnaires. After completing the questionnaires, participants were told that one participant would be the observer and one would be the reader. They were asked to determine their role by choosing between two slips of paper. This task was simply to reduce suspicion; both slips said reader, placing all participants in a condition to be observed. Participants were told that the ostensible other participant would observe them through a one-way mirror in the room and provide a first impression of them. Participants were asked to read a short passage during the observation, to help the other participant form an impression of them.

Following a short observational period, participants were told that, in the interest of time, each pair of participants was randomly assigned to receive just one type of feedback. They were told that the other participant pulled a slip of paper to determine the feedback type for their session. (In reality, participants were randomly assigned to receive either physique or intelligence feedback prior to their arrival at the experiment session.) Participants were told that the other participant either drew the slip for physical appearance or for intelligence. Subsequently, they received feedback from the ostensible observer.

Based on the self-view ratings provided during the first session, the feedback a participant received in the second session was either: 1) consistent with a participant's single point self-view; 2) consistent with the highest point within her multifaceted self-view (positive consistent); 3) consistent with the lowest point within her multifaceted self-view (negative consistent); 4) a point higher than the highest point within her multifaceted self-view (positive inconsistent); 5) or a point lower than the lowest point within her multifaceted self-view

(negative inconsistent). Reliability findings from Study 1 indicated that multifaceted self-view endpoints are equivalent in reliability to single point self-ratings. Although reliability for both single point and multifaceted self-ratings is not exceptionally high, the current methodology (i.e., basing feedback on self-ratings given in a prior testing session) has nonetheless been common practice in feedback studies (e.g., Eisenstadt & Leippe, 1994; Pinel & Swann, 1998; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005; Swann, Pelham & Krull, 1989). Furthermore, the mean difference between participants' scores from Time 1 to Time 2 in Study 1, averaged across all of their self-view domains, was less than one point (single point, $M = -0.01$, $SD = 0.67$; average point, $M = -0.04$, $SD = 0.59$; highest point, $M = 0.20$, $SD = 0.59$; lowest point, $M = -0.28$, $SD = 0.95$). Consequently, the feedback manipulation procedure for the current study should have effectively determined the intended feedback (i.e., consistent or inconsistent) for the majority of participants. Thus, using the five feedback conditions, some participants in Study 2 received feedback consistent with their self-view and others received feedback inconsistent with their self-view.

After receiving the feedback, participants filled out several more questionnaires, assessing the perceived accuracy of the feedback, their positive affect, and anxiety. Perceived accuracy was measured using several adjectives (Quinlivan & Leary, 2005): accurate, valid, misleading, true, and wrong. Each adjective was rated on a 9-point scale, ranging from not at all to extremely. Internal reliability for the composite of the five adjectives was good ($\alpha = .91$). The PANAS was used to measure participants' positive affect, as positive affect may be impacted by receiving relatively positive vs. negative feedback about the self (Quinlivan & Leary, 2005; Swann et al., 1987). Anxiety was also considered, because anxiety levels may differ between people who receive self-verifying feedback and people who receive feedback that

challenges their self-views (Pinel & Swann, 1998). Keeping in line with the cover story, participants were given a written description of the observer and asked to provide their rating of the observer using the revised Figure Rating Scale in the physical appearance condition and the Likert scale in the intelligence condition. Participants were fully debriefed before leaving the session.

Results and Discussion

Data from physique and intelligence conditions were analyzed separately, both in an effort to determine whether similar patterns occurred between the two self-views and due to differences in their assessment methods. Intelligence was rated on a 10-point scale, whereas physique was rated on a 27-point scale. Additionally, physique was assessed using images, whereas intelligence was assessed with text. Patterns of means across the two self-views were expected to indicate that self-views within domains can be construed as multifaceted structures.

Descriptive Statistics

The mean number of positions selected for multifaceted self-views in the intelligence self-view condition was 2.37 ($SD = 0.89$), ranging from two to five positions. For participants in the physique self-view condition, the mean number of positions selected for physique multifaceted self-views was 2.62 ($SD = 1.01$), ranging from two to seven. Number of selected positions did not differ between the two self-view conditions.

Due to different scale dimensions, location indices of multifaceted self-views can not be compared across the two domains. Knowing the means of these indices, however, provides an overview of how participants' from this sample evaluated themselves. For participants in the intelligence self-view condition, the single point mean for intelligence was 6.64 ($SD = 1.09$; range = 3.00 – 9.00). The mean of their most negative point for intelligence was 5.53 ($SD = 1.55$;

range = 1.00 – 8.00) and the mean of their most positive point was 7.10 ($SD = 1.26$; range = 3.00 – 9.00). For participants in the physique self-view condition, the physique single point mean was 12.97 ($SD = 3.57$; range = 1.00 – 21.00). The mean of their most negative point was 13.87 ($SD = 3.33$; range = 3.00 – 22.00), with a mean most positive point of 12.14 ($SD = 3.42$; range = 2.00 – 21.00).

For the inferential analyses that follow, omnibus tests were first conducted to assess the overall effect of feedback condition on each dependent variable. Omnibus tests were followed by planned contrasts, designed to test the predicted pattern of means. A priori predictions are outlined prior to presenting results for each contrast.

Perceived Accuracy

An ANOVA was conducted on perceived accuracy ratings, assessing differences as a function of feedback condition. The omnibus test in the physique self-view condition was marginally significant, $F(4, 66) = 2.06, p = .09$. In the intelligence self-view condition, the omnibus test was significant, $F(4, 67) = 22.42, p < .001$. Perceived accuracy ratings are presented in Table 4. Planned contrasts were conducted to test predicted differences among feedback conditions.

CONTRAST 1: Consistent self-views vs. Inconsistent self-views. If the multifaceted perspective is accurate, then participants should rate any feedback consistent with their multifaceted self-view as more accurate than feedback inconsistent with their multifaceted self-view. Accordingly, the three conditions in which participants received self-view consistent feedback (i.e., single point, positive consistent, negative consistent) were expected to produce higher perceived accuracy ratings than were the two conditions in which participants received feedback inconsistent with their self-view (i.e., positive inconsistent, negative inconsistent).

For participants in the physique self-view condition, the planned contrast was significant, $t(66) = -1.86, p < .05$. As expected, participants in the consistent conditions perceived their feedback to be more accurate than did participants in the inconsistent conditions.

In the intelligence self-view condition, the contrast was significant, $t(67) = -2.54, p < .05$, with participants in the consistent conditions perceiving their feedback to be more accurate compared to participants in the inconsistent conditions.

Thus, results for both self-view conditions were consistent with the prediction that the single, positive consistent, and negative consistent feedback points would be seen as more accurate than would the positive inconsistent and negative inconsistent points. Feedback points consistent with participants' multifaceted self-views were perceived as higher in accuracy than were points outside of participants' multifaceted self-views.

Table 5
Perceived accuracy ratings* by self-view condition

	Intelligence		Physique	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Single point consistent	6.80	1.52	7.47	1.46
Positive consistent	6.33	1.68	7.07	1.44
Negative consistent	3.93	1.73	7.71	0.99
Positive inconsistent	6.88	1.15	7.29	1.81
Negative inconsistent	2.67	1.23	6.15	1.82

* Response scale = 1 (not at all) to 9 (extremely)

CONTRAST 2: Single point self-view vs. Positive consistent and negative consistent self-view points. To further test the pattern of means, a second planned contrast compared perceived accuracy from the single point feedback condition to perceived accuracy from the other two

consistent feedback conditions. Although the single point feedback represents the point that participants feel best represents their physique, the perceived accuracy in this feedback condition should not differ from the perceived accuracy in the other two consistent feedback conditions. To be in agreement with the multifaceted perspective, this contrast should not be significant.

The planned contrast was not significant in the physique self-view condition, $t(66) = -0.16, p > .05$. As predicted, the positive and negative consistent conditions showed accuracy ratings similar to those in the single point condition.

For participants in the intelligence self-view condition, the difference between the single and consistent conditions was significant, $t(67) = -3.54, p < .05$. Means indicate that accuracy for the single point self-view was higher than that for the positive and negative consistent conditions. This difference is contrary to predictions.

CONTRAST 3: Positive consistent self-view vs. Negative consistent self-view. To ensure that the positive consistent condition did not drive the predicted similarity in the previous contrast, a pairwise comparison was conducted for the positive consistent and negative consistent conditions.

In the physique self-view condition, a significant difference was not found when comparing the positive consistent condition to the negative consistent condition, $t(66) = 1.14, p > .05$. Thus, participants who received physique feedback reported similar accuracy ratings for any feedback falling within their multifaceted self-view.

For participants in the intelligence self-view condition, the contrast comparing the positive consistent to the negative consistent condition was significant, $t(67) = -4.37, p < .001$. Perceived accuracy was lower in the negative consistent condition than in the positive consistent condition. This lower perceived accuracy in the negative consistent condition contributed to the

significant difference found in the previous contrast, where the positive and negative consistent conditions differed from the single point condition. For intelligence feedback, participants view feedback that is more negative than their single point to be less accurate, even when such feedback falls within their reported multifaceted self-view for the domain.

CONTRAST 4: Positive inconsistent self-view vs. Negative inconsistent self-view. Finally, perceived accuracy in the two inconsistent feedback conditions was compared. Both the multifaceted perspective and the single point perspective would expect accuracy ratings for these two feedback conditions to be similar. That is, the positivity of the inconsistent positive feedback should not increase perceived accuracy. A significant difference in this comparison would suggest that positivity strivings may outweigh the desire for verification.

A significant difference between the positive inconsistent feedback condition and the negative inconsistent feedback condition occurred for participants in the physique self-view condition, $t(66) = -1.92, p < .05$, with the positive condition perceiving their feedback to be more accurate. Thus, when feedback is outside of one's multifaceted self-view for physique, a bias for perceiving enhanced feedback to be more accurate than negative feedback occurs.

A significant difference was observed between the positive and negative inconsistent feedback conditions for participants in the intelligence self-view condition, $t(67) = -7.438, p < .001$, with higher perceived accuracy in the positive inconsistent feedback condition. Thus, for feedback outside their multifaceted endpoints, participants appear to have a positivity bias when receiving feedback about their intelligence.

Summary for accuracy ratings. In sum, perceived accuracy ratings for intelligence were less likely to follow predictions than were accuracy ratings for physique. Accuracy ratings in the physique self-view condition provide stronger support for the multifaceted perspective.

Perceived accuracy in the single point, positive consistent, and negative consistent feedback conditions did not differ from one another. Comparison of the positive inconsistent with the negative inconsistent condition was significantly different, with participants preferring more positive feedback when feedback fell outside the confines of their multifaceted self-view. Thus, feedback falling within one's multifaceted self-view is perceived to be more accurate than is feedback outside of one's multifaceted self-view, with a positivity bias occurring only when feedback falls outside the range of one's multifaceted self-view. Therefore, the findings for the physique self-view condition closely mirrored predictions from the multifaceted perspective.

In responding to intelligence feedback, participants' demonstrated a positivity bias. Positive consistent feedback, as well as the single point rating, were rated as more accurate than was negative consistent feedback. These findings are consistent with the notion that people are more likely to believe and embrace positive rather than negative views about themselves (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Leary, 1996). However, this positivity bias was not consistent across all comparisons. Participants given positive consistent feedback did not report higher perceived accuracy compared to participants given single point feedback, a finding consistent with the multifaceted perspective. Although the similarity between the single and positive consistent feedback conditions is consistent with the multifaceted perspective, that perceived accuracy in the negative consistent feedback condition was different is not. Thus, responses to feedback about intelligence provide limited support for the multifaceted perspective.

Positive Affect

A pre-feedback to post-feedback change score was calculated for positive affect. A between-subjects ANOVA was expected to indicate an effect of feedback on participants' positive affect ratings, with decreased positive affect after receiving relatively negative feedback

about the self (e.g., Quinlivan & Leary, 2005; Swann et al., 1987). No differences in positive affect were expected when participants received consistent or relatively positive feedback (Pinel & Swann, 1998). Thus, planned contrasts were designed to focus on differences between the negative and consistent feedback conditions. For participants who received physique feedback, the omnibus test for positive affect was significant, $F(4, 66) = 2.79, p < .05$, indicating that significant differences in positive affect change occurred between feedback conditions. In the intelligence self-view condition, the omnibus test also revealed a significant difference between feedback conditions for positive affect change, $F(4, 67) = 2.58, p < .05$. Means for positive affect change can be seen in Table 5. Planned contrasts tested the expected patterns of means.

Table 6
Means for positive affect change

	Intelligence		Physique	
	M	SD	M	SD
Single point	-0.03*	0.16	-0.23	0.47
Positive consistent	-0.03	0.39	-0.10	0.33
Negative consistent	-0.32	0.47	-0.15	0.41
Positive inconsistent	0.11	0.40	-0.02	0.29
Negative inconsistent	-0.23	0.41	-0.52	0.59

*Positive affect before receiving feedback was subtracted from positive affect after receiving feedback; thus, negative numbers represent a decrease in positive affect.

CONTRAST 1: Single point self-view vs. Negative consistent self-view. A planned contrast comparing means between the negative consistent feedback condition and the single point consistent feedback condition was conducted. Affect change in the negative consistent condition should not differ from the single point consistent condition, as both are perceived as

self-view consistent. If consistent with the single point perspective, however, the negative consistent feedback should be perceived as more negative than one's self-view and consequently decrease positive affect.

Consistent with the multifaceted perspective, there was not a significant difference in affect change between the single point and negative consistent conditions in the physique self-view condition, $t(66) = 0.56, p > .05$. The positive affect of participants who received either single point or negative consistent feedback was similarly affected.

Inconsistent with predictions, positive affect change for participants in the intelligence self-view condition did significantly differ between the single point and negative consistent feedback conditions, $t(67) = -1.73, p < .05$. Contrary to predictions from the multifaceted perspective, negative consistent feedback decreased positive affect more so than did feedback consistent with one's single point self-view rating.

CONTRAST 2: Negative consistent self-view vs. Negative inconsistent self-view. A second planned contrast compared the negative consistent and negative inconsistent feedback conditions. The multifaceted perspective would suggest that these two conditions differ, with a greater decrease in positive affect in the inconsistent condition. The single point perspective would expect similarity between the conditions, as both types of feedback are interpreted as negative deviations from participants' self-view.

For participants in the physique self-view condition, the predicted difference between the negative consistent and negative inconsistent feedback conditions emerged, $t(66) = -2.23, p < .05$, with a greater decrease in positive affect occurring for participants in the negative inconsistent condition than for participants in the negative consistent condition.

For participants in the intelligence self-view condition, there was not a significant difference between the negative consistent and negative inconsistent feedback conditions, $t(67) = 0.52, p > .05$. This finding is consistent with predictions from the single point perspective, which assumes that feedback in both conditions would be perceived as relatively negative and should thus similarly reduce positive affect.

CONTRAST 3: Positive consistent self-view vs. Negative consistent self-view. A third planned contrast tested the difference between the positive consistent and negative consistent feedback conditions. From the multifaceted perspective, affect change in these two conditions should not differ, as both represent self-view consistent feedback. From the single point perspective, affect change should differ, because the positive consistent condition received feedback more positive than the self-view, whereas the negative consistent condition received feedback more negative than the self-view.

Consistent with the multifaceted perspective, a difference in affect change was not observed for participants in the physique condition, $t(66) = -0.34, p > .05$. Thus, for physique, positive consistent and negative consistent feedback elicited similar changes in affect.

In contrast to the multifaceted perspective, a difference was observed for participants in the intelligence condition, $t(67) = -1.84, p < .05$. Participants receiving negative consistent feedback reported a greater decrease in positive affect than did participants receiving positive consistent feedback.

Summary for positive affect. In the physique condition, feedback consistent with one's multifaceted self-view influenced positive affect similarly. That is, no differences were found when comparing the negative consistent, single point, and positive consistent feedback conditions. Particularly important for the multifaceted perspective is that positive affect change

in the negative consistent condition was not different from positive affect change in the positive consistent condition. Also consistent with the multifaceted perspective, participants reported a greater decrease in positive affect after receiving negative inconsistent feedback than after receiving negative consistent feedback.

For participants in the intelligence condition, results did not support multifaceted perspective predictions. Participants in the negative consistent condition reported a greater decrease in positive affect than did participants in the single point condition. Also, a significant difference did not occur between the negative consistent and negative inconsistent conditions and a significant difference did occur between the negative consistent and positive consistent conditions. Thus, for participants in the intelligence condition, feedback more negative than participants' single point rating led to decreases in positive affect, regardless of whether the negative feedback was part of one's multifaceted self-view.

Anxiety

A pre-feedback to post-feedback change score was calculated for anxiety. Anxiety was expected to be higher after participants received inconsistent feedback than after they received consistent feedback, as shown in previous research (Pinel & Swann, 1998). Using multifaceted self-views, ratings for anxiety should differ between participants who received feedback consistent with a point in their self-view and participants who received feedback inconsistent with points in their self-view. From the single point perspective, participants who received single point consistent feedback should feel less anxious than should participants in the other feedback conditions. Planned contrasts tested differences between the consistent and inconsistent feedback conditions.

Analyses, however, did not reveal differences in anxiety between feedback conditions. For physique, significant differences did not occur at either the omnibus level, $F(4,66) = 0.95$, $p > .05$, nor within the planned contrasts, $ps > .05$. Thus, in contrast with predictions, the nature of the feedback participants received about their physique did not influence their feelings of anxiety.

For participants receiving intelligence feedback, the omnibus test revealed no significant differences between feedback conditions for reported anxiety, $F(4, 67) = 0.89$, $p > .05$. Within the planned contrasts, significant differences did not occur between feedback conditions as predicted, $ps > .05$.

Table 7
Means for change in anxiety*

	Intelligence		Physique	
	M	SD	M	SD
Single point	0.33	1.18	-0.20	0.77
Positive consistent	-0.33	0.72	0.00	0.76
Negative consistent	-0.29	0.73	-0.14	0.66
Positive inconsistent	-0.25	0.68	-0.57	1.02
Negative inconsistent	-0.25	0.75	-0.15	0.80

*Anxiety reported before receiving feedback was subtracted from anxiety after receiving feedback; higher numbers indicate a greater increase in anxiety.

Contrary to predictions, then, anxiety was not affected by whether participants' feedback was consistent or inconsistent with their multifaceted self-view. In fact, exploratory analyses indicated that changes in anxiety were similar between all feedback conditions in both the physique and intelligence self-view conditions, $ps > .05$. Thus, the feedback administered did not differentially affect participants' anxiety levels in any condition.

Observer Ratings

Observer ratings were expected to be influenced by the nature of the feedback received. That is, consistent with previous research (Beauregard & Dunning, 1998; Quinlivan & Leary, 2005) participants should derogate the observer more to the extent that their feedback is perceived as negative. Between-subjects ANOVAs were performed for observer ratings. The omnibus test was marginally significant for participants in the physique self-view condition, $F(4, 66) = 2.41, p = .06$. In the intelligence self-view condition, the omnibus test was significant, $F(4, 67) = 8.57, p < .001$, indicating that significant differences in observer ratings occurred between feedback conditions. Planned contrasts were conducted to test the predicted pattern of means. Means for observer ratings are presented in Table 6.

Table 8
Means for observer ratings

	Intelligence		Physique	
	M	SD	M	SD
Single point	6.80*	0.79	11.15**	2.67
Positive consistent	6.77	0.60	11.00	2.67
Negative consistent	5.27	1.19	11.92	2.02
Positive inconsistent	7.19	1.52	11.71	2.61
Negative inconsistent	5.00	1.33	13.54	1.66

*based on a 9-point scale: 1 (not at all intelligent) to 9 (extremely intelligent)

**based on a 27-point pictorial scale: 1 (extremely thin figure) to 27 (extremely overweight figure)

CONTRAST 1: Negative consistent self-view vs. Negative inconsistent self-view.

Participants receiving inconsistent, negative feedback should derogate the observer more so than participants who receive accurate or enhanced feedback. From the single point perspective,

participants in the two conditions receiving feedback more negative than their single point should have provided similar observer ratings. From the multifaceted perspective, however, these two conditions should differ in observer ratings, as one is self-view consistent feedback and the other is inconsistent.

For participants in the physique self-view condition, observer ratings from the negative consistent feedback condition and from the negative inconsistent feedback condition were significantly different, $t(66) = 1.73, p = .05$, with means indicating that participants in the negative inconsistent condition rated the observer more negatively than did participants in the negative consistent condition. This finding is consistent with the multifaceted perspective.

For participants in the intelligence self-view condition, the difference between the negative consistent and negative inconsistent feedback conditions was not significant, $t(67) = -0.54, p > .05$. Participants in the intelligence self-view condition did not rate the observer differently between the two negative feedback conditions. This finding is consistent with the single point perspective, which suggests that the feedback received in these two feedback conditions is more negative than participants see themselves.

CONTRAST 2: Negative consistent self-view vs. Single point and positive consistent self-view. The multifaceted perspective suggests that observer ratings from the negative consistent feedback condition should not be significantly different from ratings given by the positive consistent and single point consistent feedback conditions. The single point perspective, however, would suggest that ratings in the negative consistent condition would be lower than would ratings from participants in the single point and positive consistent conditions. A planned contrast tested these contrasting positions.

The contrast was not significant for participants in the physique self-view condition, $t(66) = -1.06, p > .05$. Participants in the negative consistent condition did not give the observer more negative ratings than did participants in the positive consistent or single point conditions. This result is in line with predictions from the multifaceted perspective.

For the intelligence self-view condition, a significant difference was found, $t(67) = 3.53, p = .001$. Means indicated that participants in the negative consistent condition rated the observer more negatively than did participants in the positive consistent and single point conditions. This finding is not consistent with predictions from the multifaceted perspective.

CONTRAST 3: Positive consistent self-view vs. Single point self-view. The pairwise comparison between the positive consistent and single point consistent conditions was conducted to ensure neither condition was responsible for the similarity expected in the previous contrast.

The comparison of the single point and positive consistent conditions for participants in the physique self-view condition was not significant, $t(66) = -0.17, p > .05$, indicating that neither of these conditions was responsible for the similarity in the previous contrast.

In the intelligence self-view condition, the comparison between the single point and positive consistent conditions was also not significant, $t(67) = -0.06, p > .05$. Thus, the significance found in the previous contrast was likely due to observer ratings in both the single point and positive consistent conditions differing from the negative consistent condition's observer ratings.

Summary for observer ratings. As expected, observer ratings were more affected by negative feedback than by consistent or positive feedback. Within the intelligence self-view condition, participants who received feedback more negative than their single point self-view – including the negative consistent feedback – rated the observer more negatively than did

participants receiving feedback consistent with or more positive than their single point rating. Within the physique self-view condition, participants who received negative inconsistent feedback rated the observer more negatively than did participants in any other feedback condition. Thus, for observer ratings, results in the physique self-view condition follow multifaceted self-view predictions more closely, whereas results in the intelligence self-view condition more closely follow predictions from the single point perspective.

Summary

Study 2 further tested the validity of multifaceted self-views, exploring whether multifaceted self-views allow more accurate predictions regarding how people respond to self-related feedback. Participants' reactions to feedback about their intelligence or their physique were expected to support the notion that self-views are a multifaceted construct rather than a singular construct. Results provided mixed support for the multifaceted perspective.

Participants' responses to physique feedback, apart from anxiety effects, were reliably predicted by the multifaceted perspective. That is, participants in the physique self-view condition responded similarly to feedback that fell anywhere within their self-view. In contrast, participants' responses to intelligence feedback were often inconsistent with multifaceted predictions. Specifically, responses to negative consistent feedback often differed from responses to single point and positive consistent feedback, with these latter two feedback conditions eliciting similar responses from participants. The differences that emerged between the two self-view domains were not expected. Consequently, it is important to consider what differences between these two self-view domains might have influenced the disparate findings.

One key difference between intelligence and physique is visibility. There may be a greater likelihood to discount feedback about a self-view that is not visible to a first-time

observer. Participants can more easily discount an observer's feedback about their intelligence than they can about their physique. Physique is a highly visible self-view, making an observer's judgment more informed than judgments about a less visible self-view (i.e., intelligence). This difference in visibility may have contributed to the outcome of results, particularly because feedback that can not be dismissed easily has a greater effect on participants than does feedback that can be more easily dismissed (Pinel & Swann, 1998). Participants may have viewed the physique feedback as being somewhat more credible and consequently been affected by the nature of the feedback to a greater extent than were participants who received intelligence feedback. Participants in the physique self-view condition may also have responded more honestly to the perceived accuracy of the feedback than did participants in the intelligence self-view condition, knowing that the observer could easily evaluate their appearance. Thus, the difference in visibility between the two self-view conditions may have influenced the extent to which the feedback was taken as credible versus discounted.

Another possible explanation for the results is differences in feedback occurrence and feedback sources in the two domains. Feedback about physique is received often, through both subtle and direct social feedback (e.g., a glance traveling up and down a woman's body, an explicit comment directed towards one's appearance) and through social comparisons. Further, feedback about one's physique is primarily determined through subjective rather than objective measures. In contrast, self-views for intelligence may be based on less regular feedback, in addition to being developed through more objective sources. Much of the feedback for intelligence comes from objective sources such as exam scores, grades, and IQ. Importantly, receiving subjective feedback from an observer – as was the method in the study – is more in line with how physique feedback is typically received than with how feedback about intelligence is

typically received. This difference may have had implications for how participants reacted to feedback in the current study.

Further, the self-serving tendencies seen in the intelligence self-view condition may have arisen because evaluations of intelligence were more ambiguous than were evaluations of physique. Pictorial images ranging from thin to heavy allowed little ambiguity about how an observer determined physique feedback. Exactly how an observer determined ratings for intelligence, however, was not known. When traits are ambiguous, people tend to respond in a self-serving manner (Dunning, Meyerowitz, & Holzberg, 1989). Reactions in the intelligence condition may thus have conformed more to self-enhancement motives due to the ambiguity of the domain.

Because of the unambiguous manner in which physique feedback was determined, as well as the strong parallel to how physique feedback is typically received, the physique self-view condition may have provided a more accurate test of the multifaceted perspective than did the intelligence self-view condition. Put differently, methodological reasons may have contributed to results conforming to predictions more so in the physique condition than in the intelligence condition.

The methodological choice to use only female participants may also have influenced the discrepant results between self-view conditions. Women may be particularly likely to have a well-developed multifaceted self-view for physique. Women have frequent, perhaps daily, exposure to feedback about their appearance, coming from a variety of sources (e.g., media, peers, parents) and provoking both positive and negative self-view positions (e.g., upward vs. downward social comparisons). Receiving frequent, varied feedback in a domain should

contribute to multifaceted self-view development. Thus, physique may have closely followed multifaceted self-view predictions due to including only female participants.

However, alternative explanations, not based on methodological choices, may account for the condition differences. A positivity bias for intelligence but not for physique, for example, might have influenced results. When comparing themselves to others, people tend to see themselves more positively in the domain of intelligence than in the domain of physical appearance (Quinlivan, 2004). If people are likely to see themselves relatively positively on intelligence, then they may exhibit a positivity bias (i.e., they may believe positive feedback over negative feedback regardless of its consistency with their self-view) when responding to feedback about their intelligence. This is consistent with the finding that participants in the intelligence condition generally differed from multifaceted perspective predictions when it came to negative consistent feedback but not when it came to positive consistent feedback.

Specifically, participants in the intelligence feedback condition viewed positive consistent feedback as similar in accuracy to single point consistent feedback, but they viewed negative consistent feedback as less accurate than single point consistent feedback. With respect to affect, participants in the negative consistent condition reported a greater decrease in positive affect than did participants in the single point condition, whereas participants in the positive consistent condition did not differ from participants in the single point condition.

In contrast to participants who received intelligence feedback, participants who received physique feedback may have readily accepted any feedback that fell within their multifaceted self-view, even if negative, because people do not generally display a positivity bias for physique. Participants in the physique condition may not hold positive illusions (Taylor & Brown, 1988) about their physique, and consequently respond to feedback without a positivity

bias. Differences in the tendency to display a positivity bias may thus account for outcomes in the physique self-view condition being consistent with the multifaceted perspective whereas outcomes in the intelligence self-view condition were not. Because we can not tell from the current data how participants' perceived their physique or intelligence in comparison to others' physique or intelligence, we can not know for sure if a positivity bias influenced the disparate findings between self-view domains.

In sum, there are a number of reasons that could account for the differences seen between self-view domains. Although further research will need to be conducted to determine whether evidence for multifaceted self-views can be found across all domains, we see from the current data that findings from the physique self-view condition generally provided support for conceptualizing self-views as a multifaceted construct. Participants perceived feedback that fell within their multifaceted self-view to be more accurate than feedback outside of their multifaceted self-view. Notably, negative consistent feedback was perceived to be just as accurate as was single point or positive consistent feedback. Participants' positive affect was influenced similarly in all consistent feedback conditions; thus, negative consistent feedback did not decrease participants' positive affect as would be predicted from the single point perspective. Furthermore, negative inconsistent feedback led to a greater decline in positive affect than did negative consistent feedback – a finding predicted by the multifaceted perspective but not by the single point perspective. Lastly, observer ratings were consistent with predictions, with participants giving lower ratings to the observer only when negative inconsistent feedback was received.

Finally, because I have proposed that whether one adopts a multifaceted perspective or a single point perspective for self-views has implications for research on reactions to self-relevant

feedback, it behooves us to ask how the current findings would be interpreted from these two perspectives. Consider perceived accuracy of physique feedback, for example. Had one adopted a single point perspective, the two consistent feedback conditions would have been construed as inconsistent. For perceived accuracy of physique feedback, then, when researchers observed that participants in the negative consistent and positive consistent conditions responded similarly to participants in the single point condition, they might have concluded that participants expressed neither a preference for self-consistent feedback nor a preference for self-enhanced feedback. That is, the similarity of the negative consistent condition to the single point and positive consistent condition would suggest that participants did not perceive self-view consistent or relatively positive feedback about their physique as being any more accurate than relatively negative feedback about their physique. Such a finding may have been puzzling to researchers, as people do not often respond to relatively negative feedback about themselves in the same way that they respond to relatively positive feedback about themselves. Adopting the multifaceted perspective, we can see that we would arrive at a different conclusion. Researchers adopting this perspective would construe the two consistent feedback conditions as consistent with participants' self-views and only the two inconsistent conditions would be seen as inconsistent. This being the case, the similarity in perceived accuracy between single point, positive consistent, and negative consistent conditions would be expected. From the multifaceted perspective, we would conclude that multiple positions for physique can be considered consistent with one's self-view and participants will thus respond similarly to any feedback falling within their multifaceted self-view.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The current studies provided some preliminary empirical support for conceptualizing self-views within a domain as potentially multifaceted. Though research on the self generally assumes that self-views take the form of singular, categorical descriptions (e.g., fat vs. thin, introverted vs. extraverted, leader vs. follower, good vs. bad; see Costa & McCrae, 1992; Markus, 1977; Showers, 1992), extant research and theorizing also support the existence of within-person variability for self-views in a given domain. People can view themselves from various perspectives and may thus describe themselves in a number of ways – not just across self-view domains, but also within a given domain (e.g., Baumgardner, 1990; Donahue et al., 1993; Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990; Sheldon et al., 1997). The current studies provided some initial empirical confirmation for this potential within-person variation in self-view domains, conceptualized as multifaceted self-views.

Several findings from Study 1 supported the argument for at least acknowledging the potential for multifaceted self-views to exist. Importantly, when given the choice to report multiple point or single point self-descriptions, 27% - 47% of participants reported multiple point self-descriptions on any given domain. In addition, 72% of participants in the choice condition reported a multiple-point self-description for at least one domain. That the majority of participants chose multiple points to describe themselves in at least one of the presented self-view domains suggests that most people have a multifaceted self-view within at least some of their self-view domains. Moreover, self-descriptions were perceived as more accurate when participants were required to or chose to report multiple points than when participants were required to or chose to report only single points. Further, limiting participants to report only single point self-descriptions increased their anxiety and decreased their perception of behavioral

choices, relative to baseline. These same effects did not emerge for the multifaceted conditions; people in these conditions had anxiety and autonomy scores that fell in between those of people in the single point and baseline conditions. Thus, asking participants to provide single point ratings affected participants negatively in ways that were less evident when multiple self-descriptive points were allowed. Finally, self-esteem was associated with multifaceted self-view positions as predicted. That is, endorsing a moderate number of self-view positions corresponded to higher trait self-esteem than did having a relatively limited or large number of self-descriptive positions. Lowest, highest, and average multifaceted self-view positions were also significantly associated with both trait and state self-esteem. Moreover, participants' most positive and most negative positions each accounted for unique variance in self-esteem. The findings from Study 1 thus suggest that recognizing the potential for self-views to be multifaceted may create a better representation of people's self-views, as well as provide more insight into how self-view structures relate to self-esteem. In sum, findings from Study 1 suggest that allowing self-views within a domain to be expressed as multifaceted may be appropriate and theoretically meaningful.

Data from Study 2 support this claim by illustrating that reactions to self-related feedback in the domain of physique are better predicted by the multifaceted perspective than by the single point perspective. Predictions from the multifaceted perspective were generally accurate in the physique self-view condition, indicating that an awareness of participants' multifaceted self-views can allow more reliable predictions about how people will respond to feedback about their physique. Put differently, a researcher adopting a single point approach to analyzing the data from Study 2 would arrive at different conclusions than one adopting the multifaceted perspective. From the multifaceted perspective, the similarities between the single point

consistent, negative consistent, and positive consistent conditions provide evidence that people can see themselves multiple ways within a self-view domain. The similarities that occurred between these three groups were correctly predicted from the multifaceted perspective. From the single point perspective, where positive consistent points would be viewed as more positive than participants' self-view and negative consistent points more negative than participants' self-view, such similarities would be unexpected. After finding no differences between negative and positive feedback conditions, researchers taking the single point perspective might conclude that the feedback was not effectively administered or that participants are not differentially influenced by feedback more negative or positive than their self-view. However, having assessed participants' self-views from the multifaceted perspective shows that participants' may have multiple positions that are considered self-descriptive within a domain, leading participants to respond similarly to a number of feedback positions. This highlights the theoretical ramifications of regarding self-views as singular vs. multifaceted.

Because only limited support for the multifaceted perspective was found in the domain of intelligence, however, further exploration into the development and occurrence of multifaceted self-views is needed. From the multifaceted perspective, similarities were expected in responses to single point consistent, positive consistent, and negative consistent feedback about intelligence. Similarities were found between the single point and positive consistent feedback conditions, but these two conditions were not similar to responses in the negative consistent feedback condition. Thus, there was mixed support for the validity of a multifaceted structure in the intelligence domain. From the single point perspective, negative responses from the negative consistent condition would have been expected. The similarity between the single point and positive consistent condition might not have been expected, however, as one is perceived as self-

view consistent and the other more positive than the self-view. Researchers from the single point perspective may have concluded that this pattern was evidence of a positivity bias, with participants viewing feedback more positive than their self-view to be just as accurate as feedback consistent with their self-view. Because of findings in the physique self-view condition, however, this conclusion may not be accurate in general, but rather, only with regard to certain self-views. The structure of intelligence self-views needs further exploration to determine why the negative consistent condition was not similar to the single point and positive consistent conditions. Employing alternative methods, for example, would help to determine whether the current results for intelligence were influenced by methodological factors or whether multifaceted self-view development and its implications differ across domains. Results from the physique self-view condition of Study 2 do demonstrate that conceptualizing self-views as a multifaceted structure can apply and be useful in at least some domains.

Should a multifaceted structure be possible for any self-view domain? Despite discrepant findings between the intelligence and physique conditions in the feedback study presented here, previous research from which the multifaceted perspective was derived does not suggest that multifaceted self-views develop within certain domains and not others. A multifaceted self-view should be possible within any self-view domain. Indeed, in Study 1, all self-view domains saw at least some participants from the choice condition reporting a multifaceted self-view, suggesting that multifaceted self-views can develop in most domains. However, this is not to say that all people possess multifaceted self-views in all domains. At the individual level, participants will likely vary across domains, possessing both single and multifaceted self-views. Data from Study 1, for example, indicated that when participants took advantage of the choice to report multifaceted self-views, they reported multifaceted self-views in an average of just over half of

the domains presented. Thus, discordant findings in Study 2 likely occurred for reasons other than the premise that intelligence does not assume a multifaceted structure. Different methodologies will need to be considered to further understand the intelligence domain. For instance, participants could interact with their partner prior to receiving feedback, or participants could complete an intelligence-related test (e.g., brain teasers) and believe that their partner uses test to determine their feedback. Based on theoretical grounds and empirical evidence from Study 1, the potential for a multifaceted self-view to develop should be present in any self-view domain.

Despite finding some evidence consistent with multifaceted self-views, however, evidence to the contrary was also found. That is, some of the current results can be interpreted as evidence in favor of a singular view of the self within domains. Findings in the intelligence self-view condition of Study 2, for example, can be interpreted as supporting the single point perspective. The fact that negative consistent feedback was more similar to negative inconsistent feedback than to single point consistent feedback indicates that participants did not view negative consistent feedback as part of their self-view. Similarities that occurred between the single point and multifaceted self-view conditions in Study 1 can also be interpreted as favoring the single point perspective. Specifically, positive and negative affect were expected to differ between self-view conditions, with participants reporting less positive affect and more negative affect in the single point condition than in the multifaceted conditions. This prediction was not supported. Additionally, although the single point condition differed from baseline ratings for autonomy and anxiety, the single point condition did not differ from the multifaceted conditions on these dependent measures. Thus, in addition to finding evidence consistent with multifaceted self-views, evidence favoring a singular view of the self was also present in the current studies.

Why might both perspectives have garnered support? One possibility is that people have both a single point that best defines them within a domain, while also finding multiple points to be self-descriptive in the domain. Such an interpretation implies that both the single point and the multifaceted perspective are valid conceptualizations of the self. Similar reliability and self-esteem findings between self-view conditions in Study 1 corroborate the claim that people may be able to describe themselves using a singular or multifaceted structure. Put differently, participants may be able to designate one point as being the best representation of their self-view in a domain, while still having multiple points that they would consider self-descriptive. If this is the case, then researchers will need to determine which perspective is appropriate for their research question. I offer some examples in what follows.

When a line of research requires knowing a person's complete self-view within a domain, multifaceted self-views may be important to consider. For example, existing multifaceted self-views could have important implications for social comparison processes. Comparison with a given standard results in two processes (Mussweiler, 2003; Mussweiler & Strack, 2000). Under some conditions, the accessibility of self-knowledge will increase, and people will use this activated self-knowledge for subsequent judgments. This will lead to an assimilation effect (i.e., a judgment of how one is similar to the comparison target). Under other conditions, the given standard will provide a reference point against which implications of the self-knowledge can be evaluated. This will lead to a contrast effect (i.e., how one differs or is unique from the comparison target). Thus, assimilation and contrast effects can depend on where the evaluation has been anchored. If multiple positions are considered personally applicable in a given domain, which of these positions will be used for social comparison? Likely, it will be the point that has been made salient by the target of comparison. If the comparison target makes a self-view

inconsistent position salient, then a contrast effect may occur, as the individual sees herself as different from the comparison target. If the comparison makes salient a self-view consistent point, then assimilation may occur, as the self-view consistent point elicits self-knowledge consistent with the comparison target. Social comparison researchers may be wise to assess multifaceted self-views within their domain of interest, as knowing all self-descriptive positions could be critical in predicting whether a social comparison target will elicit assimilation or contrast effects.

Multifaceted self-views may also be important for research on self-verification and self-enhancement, particularly when social feedback is administered. As findings from the feedback study here indicate, points more positive or more negative than participants' single point rating can be consistent with a person's overall self-view in the domain. The high and low points that encompass a person's complete self-view are relevant to determining whether feedback is self-verifying (i.e., confirms one's own self-view) or self-enhancing (i.e., more positive than one's own self-view). Knowing participants' entire self-view for a domain would ensure that the intended process – self-verification or self-enhancement – was being tested. This is critical for the interpretation of the results and subsequent theorizing.

Though the importance of considering multifaceted self-views is warranted for some areas of research, it is important to note that the current research was not designed to, and indeed does not dispute, the utility of single point ratings. When researchers are concerned with one point on a scale that best corresponds to how a person sees himself or herself, then the single point rating is quite useful. Analyzing a single point can be informative for many lines of research, particularly research that requires general rather than focused analyses of self-

descriptions. For example, conceptualizing self-views as singular might be appropriate when a researcher is exploring cross-cultural differences in self-views.

If people can identify a single point that best describes them, then what advantages are gained by using a multifaceted perspective? In other words, why go to the trouble of using multiple points for self-view assessment? One important reason is that knowing a person's multifaceted self-view for a domain can provide us with information that single point self-views do not. For example, variation experienced in a self-view domain can be identified using multifaceted self-views. The curvilinear relation between such variation and trait self-esteem in Study 2 demonstrates one finding that could not have been attained using single self-view points. Importantly, this relation reveals that people's trait self-esteem is influenced not only by the positivity of their self-views but also by the multifaceted nature of their self-views.

Knowing participants' most positive and most negative self-descriptive positions is another advantage to having participants report multifaceted self-views. Having several indices from which to draw, researchers using multifaceted self-views can focus on the index most relevant to their area of study. Similar to Study 2 presented here, researchers administering self-related feedback may want to focus on the endpoints of a person's multifaceted self-view, ensuring that they provide feedback that challenges participants' self-views. Further, the finding that multifaceted self-view endpoints uniquely contribute to self-esteem could be important for therapists who are aiming to improve clients' self-esteem levels. In improving self-esteem, therapists may need to address the extremes of participants' self-views, as well as on the singular self-view. Importantly, then, multifaceted self-views provide potentially important indices and information that single points do not.

Another reason to use multifaceted self-views is to ensure that participants' complete self-view is considered. This may be particularly critical for studies that provide self-related feedback, interpret social comparisons, or assess self-view changes. For example, in feedback studies, if researchers want to guarantee that the feedback participants receive challenges participants' self-view, then it would behoove researchers to know all points a participant considers self-descriptive. Take results from the physique self-view condition in Study 2, for example. Participants responded similarly when feedback fell anywhere within their multifaceted self-view. If researchers only knew participants' single point self-view and wanted to provide participants with feedback more positive than they see their physique, they could inadvertently provide them with feedback encompassed by their multifaceted self-view. That is, instead of providing enhanced feedback, they might provide self-view consistent feedback. Then, when these researchers noted that participants reacted to this feedback in the same way that they did single point ratings, the researchers might conclude that participants were exhibiting a positivity bias, endorsing feedback that was more positive than they see themselves. Note, however, that had researchers adopted a multifaceted perspective, they would instead have concluded that participants have multiple points that are consistent with their self-view and are affected similarly when receiving any of these points. Which conclusion one arrives at clearly has important theoretical ramifications: whereas one suggests that participants are displaying a positivity bias, the other suggests that self-view consistent points affect participants similarly, even when such points differ in positivity.

Thus, assessing multifaceted self-views can ensure that all self-descriptive points are considered and that feedback serves its intended purpose, as well as provide additional information (i.e., endpoints, variability) about people's self-views. Consequently, although single

points are quite useful for many areas of research and are relatively easier to use in data analysis, there are areas of research that could potentially benefit from construing self-views in a domain as multifaceted.

Beyond having implications for research, multifaceted self-views may also have important clinical and practical implications. In the example given earlier, therapists attempting to improve clients' self-esteem levels may benefit from knowing their clients' most negative and most positive self-view positions. Because these endpoints uniquely contribute to self-esteem, recognizing the extremities of a person's self-view might help to direct therapy. For example, a client's lowest self-view points may be particularly negative even though the client's highest self-view points are fairly positive. Knowing this pattern could be helpful, as the therapist could focus on improving – or shifting – the negative positions rather than on increasing the positive positions of the client's self-views. Multifaceted self-views may also be useful for motivational purposes. Take the self-view of physique, for example. A woman attempting to lose weight may be inspired by perceiving herself more positively after an exercise session. Even when negative positions remain in her self-view, the incorporation of some more positive self-view positions may serve as motivation to keep up with the exercise regimen. In contrast to this potential benefit, multiple self-descriptive positions within the physique self-view may have the negative effect of hindering recovery for people suffering from eating disorders. Although therapists strive to create a healthy physique self-view in patients with eating disorders, the self-view that these patients had during the height of their disorder may be difficult to change. That is, the negative image that they held of themselves (i.e., perceiving themselves as overweight even when drastically underweight) may remain part of their self-view and thus interfere with complete recovery. Being aware of the multiple domain positions that can comprise an

individual's self-view may thus have a variety of implications, extending into clinical and practical applications.

Though the current studies provided some confirmation that self-views within a domain can be multifaceted, future research is certainly needed to further address the validity of conceptualizing self-views as multifaceted. Alternative methodologies should be employed toward this purpose. For example, rather than administering feedback based on the ostensible first impression of an observer, participants might interact with one another prior to receiving feedback or receive feedback from a close other. This should give more credence to the feedback participants are given, eliminating the possibility for participants to dismiss or discount feedback that does not appear credible. Having more explicit directions for participants who are reporting their self-views could also be useful, as people may not be familiar with reporting multiple points for their self-view. Additionally, a within-subjects design in which participants report both a single point (i.e., that point best representing their self-view) and any additional points that they consider self-descriptive on the same scale might provide further insight into multifaceted vs. singular views of the self. How multifaceted self-views relate to other measures of psychological import (i.e., the need to belong, self-monitoring) should also be explored in an effort to understand how individual differences contribute to the development of multifaceted self-views.

Importantly, the current studies indicate that conceptualizing self-views within a domain as potentially multifaceted may allow for a better representation of how people experience themselves. Because people are exposed to various audiences and circumstances, their self-perceptions likely vary as they move from one situation to the next (e.g., Fleeson, 2001; Jones & Gerard, 1967; Kernis et al., 1993; Markus & Kunda, 1986; Pelham, 1991). Experiencing various self-perceptions for a particular self-view domain may thus culminate in a multifaceted view of

the self for that domain. Although multifaceted self-view development within in a domain is not by any means inevitable, the possibility for its development appears to be present.

In conclusion, the goal of the current research was to provide evidence for a multifaceted structure of self-views within domains. Capturing how people see themselves is undoubtedly an important task for researchers of the self. Considering that this preliminary evidence substantiates the potential presence of within-person variability for self-views within a domain, that this perspective may provide a more accurate image of people's overall self-views, and that multifaceted self-views may have consequences for other areas of research, the current perspective seems an important one for continuing investigation.

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APPENDIX B

Human Subjects Approval Form

PENNSTATE



Vice President for Research
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(814) 865-1775
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Date: March 24, 2005
From: Jodi L. Mathieu, IRB Administrator
To: Erin Quinlivan
Subject: Results of Review of Proposal - Expedited (IRB #20438)
Approval Expiration Date: March 3, 2006
"Latitudes of Acceptance in Self-Perception"

The Social Science Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved your proposal for use of human participants in your research. By accepting this decision, you agree to obtain prior approval from the IRB for any changes to your study. Unanticipated participant events that are encountered during the conduct of this research must be reported in a timely fashion.

Enclosed is/are the dated, IRB-approved informed consent(s) to be used when recruiting participants for this research. Participants must receive a copy of the approved informed consent form to keep for their records.

If signed consent is obtained, the principal investigator is expected to maintain the original signed consent forms along with the IRB research records for this research at least three (3) years after termination of IRB approval. For projects that involve protected health information (PHI) and are regulated by HIPAA, records are to be maintained for six (6) years. The principal investigator must determine and adhere to additional requirements established by the FDA and any outside sponsors.

If this study will extend beyond the above noted approval expiration date, the principal investigator must submit a completed Continuing Progress Report to the Office for Research Protections (ORP) to request renewed approval for this research.

On behalf of the IRB and the University, thank you for your efforts to conduct your research in compliance with the federal regulations that have been established for the protection of human participants.

JLM/slk
Enclosure
cc: Elizabeth C. Pinel

Please Note: The ORP encourages you to subscribe to the ORP listserv for protocol and research-related information. Send a blank email to: L-ORP-Research-L-subscribe-request@lists.psu.edu

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EDUCATION

- Ph. D. Social Psychology, The Pennsylvania State University, Fall 2006
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- B. A. Psychology, with honors, summa cum laude, Muhlenberg College, 2000

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- Research Methods Instructor, The Pennsylvania State University, 2004
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- Research Assistant to Dr. Elizabeth Pinel, The Pennsylvania State University, 2004-2005
Research Consultant, Women's Health Center of Excellence, Wake Forest Baptist Medical Center, summer 2001
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PUBLICATIONS

- Quinlivan, E., & Leary, M. R. (2005). Women's perceptions of their bodies: Discrepancies between self-appraisals and reflected appraisals. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 24*, 1061-1085.
- Leary, M. R., Twenge, J. M., & Quinlivan, E. (2006). Interpersonal Rejection as a Determinant of Anger and Aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*, 111-132.

PRESENTATIONS

- Gervais, S. J., Quinlivan, E., & Swim, J. K. (2005, January). *"It's not what you say, it's how you say it": Self-presentational strategies for confronting prejudice*. Poster presented at the meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, New Orleans, LA.
- Quinlivan, E., & Gasper, K. (2004, May). *Women valuing appearance feedback from men: The role of relationship potential*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.
- Quinlivan, E. (2003, May). *Women's perceptions of their bodies: Discrepancies between self-appraisals and reflected appraisals*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.
- Quinlivan, E., & Leary, M. R. (2002, January). *Darkness and the desire for social acceptance*. Poster presented at the meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Savannah, GA.
- Quinlivan, E., & Richmond, K. (2000, April). *Students' expectations of balancing career and family*. Paper presented at the Undergraduate Conference in Women's Studies, Allentown, PA.
- Quinlivan, E. (2000, March). *Gender identity, feminist identification, and body image*. Paper presented at the Lehigh Valley Undergraduate Psychology Conference, Allentown, PA.

HONORS AND AWARDS

- Carolyn Wood Sherif Memorial Research Fund – Travel Award, The Pennsylvania State University, 2005
Research and Graduate Studies Office – Travel Award, The Pennsylvania State University, 2004 and 2005
Phi Beta Kappa National Honor Society
Psi Chi National Honor Society for Psychology
Omicron Delta Kappa National Honor Society for Leadership

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

- Society for Personality and Social Psychology
International Society for Self and Identity
Midwestern Psychological Association