TRANSMISSION OF GOOD NEWS
AS AN IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT TACTIC

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ABSTRACT

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People are reluctant to transmit bad news, which is named as the MUM effect in the literature. One explanation of this effect suggests that people do not want to construct negative impressions by being associated with bad news. On the other hand, people are also willing to transmit good news which is largely ignored in the literature. In this study, transmission of good news is examined from an impression management perspective. It was suggested that people would be more likely to transmit good news and less likely to transmit bad news when they were dependent on the recipient of the news than when they were not. Four variables, likeability, perceived favor doing, expectations of gratitude and ulterior motives were hypothesized as potential mediators. Also, self – esteem, self – monitoring, Narcissism and Machiavellianism were assessed as personality variables.

University students (N = 306) participated in a scenario study, with the valence of the news (good / bad) and outcome dependence on the recipient (high / low) as independent variables. The main dependent variable was transmission likelihood of the news. Results showed that, high dependence participants were more likely to transmit good news than low dependence participants. In contrast, high dependence participants were less likely to transmit bad news than low dependence participants. Moreover, likeability was found to be a partial mediator of the relationship. Participants tend to think that they would be perceived as more likeable if they transmit good news and

thus they were more likely to communicate the good news. From the personality variables only Machiavellianism had a significant effect. High Machs were more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition than did low Machs. The results of the study were discussed in the relevant literature.

Keywords: MUM effect, bad news, good news, impression management, self – presentation, ingratiation

ÖZ

MÜJDELİ HABER AKTARIMININ
İZLENİM YÖNETİMİ TAKTİĞİ OLARAK İNCELENMESİ

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İnsanlar kötü haberleri iletmek istememektedirler ve literatürde bu olguya LAL etkisi adı verilmiştir. Bu etkinin sebeplerinden biri olarak, insanların kötü haberlerle kendilerini ilişkilendirmek ve karşı tarafta kötü izlenimler oluşturmak istememeleri gösterilmiştir. Fakat, insanların güzel (müjdeli) haberleri aktarma arzusu ise araştırmalarda çoğunlukla ihmal edilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, müjdeli haberlerin aktarımı, izlenim yönetimi perspektifinden ele alınmıştır. Katılımcıların alıcıya bağımlı olduğu durumda, bağımlı olmadıkları duruma göre, güzel haberleri daha fazla iletme eğilimi göstermeleri, kötü haberleri ise daha az iletme eğilimi göstermeleri beklenmiştir. Hoş gözükme beklentisi, iyilik yapmış olmak, minnettarlık beklentisi ve nihai amaç, olası ara değişkenler olarak öne sürülmüştür. Kişilik değişkenleri olarak, öz saygı, kendini ayarlama, Narsisizm ve Makyavellinizm ölçülmüştür.

Üniversite öğrencilerinin katıldığı senaryo çalışmasında, haberin valansı (iyi / kötü) ve haber alıcısına bağımlılık (yüksek / düşük) bağımsız değişkenler olarak kullanılmıştır. Bağımlı değişken olarak, haberi aktarma eğilimi kullanılmıştır. Yüksek bağımlı gruptaki denekler, düşük bağımlı gruptaki deneklere göre, güzel haberleri daha fazla aktarma eğilimi göstermiştir. Kötü haberleri ise, yüksek bağımlı gruptaki

denekler, düşük bağımlı gruptaki deneklere göre, daha az aktarma eğilimi göstermiştir. Hoş gözükme beklentisi belirgin ara değişken olarak bulunmuştur. Denekler güzel haberleri iletirlerse karşı tarafın kendilerini daha sevimli bulacağını düşünmüş ve bunun sonucu olarak haberleri iletmek istemişlerdir. Kişilik değişkenlerinden sadece makyavellinizm belirgin bir etki göstermiştir. Bu etki sadece yüksek bağımlı grupta gözlenmiştir.Yüksek makyavellinizm puanına sahip katılımcılar, düşük makyavelli-nizm puanına sahip katılımcılara oranla, güzel haberleri daha fazla iletme eğilimi göstermişlerdir. Sonuçlar ilgili literatür doğrultusunda tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: LAL etkisi, kötü haberler, güzel haberler, izlenim yönetimi, kendini ortaya koyma, kendini sevdirme

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

People have a general interest in how other people perceive and evaluate them. Generally, everyone wants to be evaluated positively rather than negatively, wants to be liked rather than disliked. People are aware that they are presenting information about themselves to others during every social interaction.

Individuals are also aware of the fact that, to some extent they can control the images they convey via various strategies. Since people have various objectives and goals that they seek to achieve in social interactions, these strategies play a critical role. Such an intriguing aspect of social interaction drew the interest of many sociologists and psychologists.

The processes by which individuals attempt to influence the impression that others form of them is known as impression management or self – presentation. It is defined as "behavior aimed at influencing the perceptions of others concerning one's self" (Goffman, 1959), or "any behavior by a person that has the purpose of controlling or manipulating attributions and impressions formed of that person by others" (Tedeschi 1981, p. 3), "the conscious or unconscious attempt to control images that are projected in real or imagined social interactions" (Schlenker, 1980, p. 6), and "those features of behavior affected by power augmentation motives designed to elicit or shape others' attributions of the actor's dispositions" (Jones & Pittman, 1982, p. 6).

In social psychology, there is a considerable amount of literature regarding impression management. Researchers have identified various forms of impression management tactics and have shown that self – presentational concerns motivate a broad range of behaviors (Leary, 1995).However, there is one line of research which seems to be associated with impression management but largely ignored by impression management researchers.

There is ample evidence suggesting that people are reluctant to transmit bad news to the persons it concerns. The term MUM effect is coined to define this tendency to keep mum about unpleasant messages (Rosen & Tesser, 1970). In their pioneering studies, Tesser and his colleagues proposed three different motivational determinants of the MUM effect; communicator's self – concern, communicator's concern for the recipient and communicator's concern with social norms. Regarding communicator's self concern, they argued that individuals do not want to become associated with bad news because they are afraid of being evaluated negatively (Tesser & Rosen, 1975). In other words, they suggested that, the MUM effect may be driven by self – presentational motives. However, there have been few studies which investigated this motive that might account for the MUM effect.

Moreover, as the name implies, the MUM effect is about the tendency to keep mum about bad news. However, it also has a counterpart; the willingness to transmit good news, which is almost completely ignored by researchers.

This study is designed to investigate the reluctance to transmit bad news and the willingness to transmit good news from an impression management perspective. Naive observations suggest that people use transmission of goods news as an impression management tactic. For instance, in Turkish, the word "müjde" is used for good news, and when one happens to transmit such positive news people tend to say "müjdemi isterim" as if asking for a favor in return. Thus, one may infer that people tend to think they are doing a favor for the target by transmitting good news, which implies that they may also use it strategically, since favor doing is a tactic of ingratiation (Jones, 1990).

On the other hand, these aspects of good news transmission may be specific to Turkish culture so, one should also consider the impact of culture. There may be cultural differences in strategic utilization of reluctance to transmit bad news and willingness to transmit good news. For instance, collectivist cultures are characterized by interdependent selves, that is; self in relation to others are more likely to guide behaviors and norms try to maintain interdependence among individuals. Individuals actively promote others' goals and expect the others to contribute reciprocally to one's own goals (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). So, in collectivist cultures good news

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transmission may be more prescribed by norms and it may be perceived as some kind of helping behavior so that people may expect something in return after communicating good news.

Apart from news transmission, there are also differences in self – enhancement and self – presentation behaviors between individualistic and collectivist cultures. To illustrate, modesty is a norm in East Asian cultures, individuals do not want to make explicit self – enhancing statements, and self – enhancement may be observed when implicit measures are used (Kobayashi & Greenwald, 2003). In addition, collectivist individuals may be engaging in indirect forms of self – enhancement rather than direct, explicit forms (Kobayashi & Brown, 2003). Thus, it can be suggested that good news transmission may be an effective way of self – presentation in collectivist cultures since it stands as a potential indirect impression management tactic.

Therefore, the main goal of this study is, to examine whether people tend to use transmission of good news as an impression management tactic to appear likable and also to provide empirical support for the fear of negative evaluation hypothesis for the reluctance to transmit bad news, in a non – individualistic culture.

CHAPTER 2

THE MUM EFFECT

Anecdotal evidence suggests that people generally avoid transmitting bad news the persons it concerns. People do not like giving others bad news, in some cases it becomes a real burden to do so and individuals prefer to keep mum about unpleasant messages. In a series of experiments Tesser and his colleagues examined this reluctance to transmit bad news which is named as the MUM effect (see Tesser & Rosen, 1975).

In an initial experiment (Rosen & Tesser, 1970) to provide a test of the MUM effect, participants were requested to tell another person (a confederate) that he should call home concerning some good or bad news. Then participants were provided with several opportunities to convey the message. The results indicated that, in the good news condition participants were significantly more likely to express the valence of the news when compared to participants in bad news condition. In a follow up study, they found that the effect occurs when the recipient is the relevant target of bad news rather than a bystander, and the effect is characterized by reluctance to transmit bad news rather than willingness to transmit good news (Tesser, Rosen, & Conlee, 1972).

The MUM effect also seems to be persistent in various situations. It has been observed in various field settings and cultures (Tesser & Rosen, 1975, O'Neal, Levine & Frank, 1979), in organizational settings (Fulk & Mani, 1986, Lee, 1993), among close friends (Blumberg, 1972) and anonymous strangers (Rosen & Tesser, 1972), both within same sex and different sex participants (Tesser, Rosen, & Batchelor, 1972), regardless of recipient related factors such as emotionality or attractiveness (Rosen, Johnson, Johnson, & Tesser, 1973). Thus the empirical evidence suggests that the effect is pervasive through a wide range of conditions and have a high generality.

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In their review Tesser and Rosen (1975) suggested three different factors for the cause of the MUM effect; communicator's self – concern, communicator's concern with the recipient and communicator's concern with the norms.

For the first factor; communicator's self – concern, three different potential costs are suggested for the reluctance to transmit bad news. The first one is the guilt hypothesis. According to this idea, communicators of bad news may feel guilty because bad news constitutes an inequity of fate since the consequences of the news only affect the recipient. Indeed, participants in bad news condition felt guiltier than did participants in good news condition (Rosen et.al., 1973). To test this hypothesis, Tesser and Rosen (1972) manipulated similarity of fate (i.e. bad news also affected the transmitter) and found that in bad news condition dissimilar fate participants transmitted bad news significantly less often than do participants in similar fate – bad news condition or dissimilar fate – good news condition.

The second self – concern related hypothesis, which also forms the basis of this study, is the fear of negative evaluation hypothesis. Since people are motivated to form a positive image rather than a negative one and they desire to be liked rather than disliked by others, communicators may be reluctant to transmit bad news as they do not want to be associated with bad news which can result in negative evaluation of the transmitter. Although they provided some empirical evidence for the hypothesis they also raised some questions, suggesting that fear of negative evaluation may be constrained to specific conditions. They called for further work in this area.

The third kind of self – concern is the mood hypothesis. That is, an individual may not want to adapt a negative mood state, a state congruent with the message, which is likely to occur when transmitting bad news. Indeed, it was found that communicators assume a congruent mood with the message and participants in negative mood were more likely to transmit news than did participants in positive mood (Tesser, Rosen, & Warranch, 1973). It was suggested that not the actual shift in mood but the cost of assuming a negative mood per se affected transmission of news. Thus there was also some empirical evidence for the mood hypothesis.

For the second factor, the communicator's concern with the recipient,

Tesser and Rosen (1975) suggested two different hypotheses. The first one is the recipient's emotionality hypothesis and the second one is the recipient's desire to hear the news hypothesis. According to the first hypothesis, it was suggested that communicators would not want to put the recipient in a negative affective state. This idea was also supported by some empirical evidence (see Tesser & Rosen, 1975). It is important to note that they suggested that recipient's emotionality hypothesis may be a variant of fear of negative evaluation hypothesis, in other words, the impact of self – presentational concerns may be a possible explanation also for recipient's emotionality hypothesis. As they put it; "The communicator may realize that, the more the recipient responds emotionally to bad news, the greater the likelihood that he, the communicator, being associated with bad news, may become a classically conditioned noxious stimulus to the recipient" (Tesser & Rosen, 1975, p.220).

The second hypothesis for communicator's concern for the recipient suggests that the communicator's assumption concerning the recipient's desire to hear the news guides his behaviors. They tested the hypothesis in an experimental setting and found that the knowledge of recipient's desire to hear the news reduced the net MUM effect (Tesser & Rosen, 1975).

For the final factor, Tesser and Rosen (1975) suggested that ambiguity of norms regarding transmission of bad news or feeling more obligated to transmit good news rather than bad news may also be a plausible explanation for the MUM effect. In fact, cultural norms play an important role in this explanation, and there may be some cultural differences in news transmission since norms may differ in different cultures.

Although the studies of Tesser and his colleagues laid a foundation and drew the mainlines for this topic, after their pioneering works there have been few studies which examined the MUM effect, in the social psychology literature. Studies which provided some evidence of self – presentational motives in reluctance to transmit bad news will be discussed briefly.

Manis, Cornell, and Moore (1974) examined transmission of attitude – relevant information to a pro or con audience. They found that communicators tend to censor the information if there is a discrepancy between the views of the recipient and the

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content of the message that they were assigned to transmit. Also, listeners evaluated the participants who transmitted challenging information more negatively. Moreover, the liking ratings of the audience for the communicator were not only affected by the communicator's own views but also by the views they are assigned to transmit. That is, the audience tended to dislike participants who communicated challenging information even when they knew that the participant was assigned to that condition. Finally, researchers proposed that transmitters may be aware of this association and they may attempt to ingratiate themselves by distorting messages. In their experiment, Manis et.al. tried to manipulate the recipient's apparent likeability to enhance the participants' motivation for a positive response and to make him engage in ingratiating tactics (i.e. distorting the message). However their manipulation was not successful and they failed to find a significant result.

In another laboratory study, the effects of giving positive and negative feedback to subordinates were examined (Fisher, 1979). In the experiment participants were assigned to the role of superior and a confederate played the role of a subordinate. Half of the participants were required to provide feedback to the subordinates whereas the other half were not. Subordinates were either high or low performers. Fisher (1979) found that, superiors in the no feedback condition thought their subordinates liked them equally regardless of the subordinate's level of performance. Nonetheless, superiors who gave feedback to their high performing subordinates thought that their subordinates liked them significantly more than did superiors who gave feedback to their low performing subordinates. This finding implies that people expect to be perceived as more likeable when they give positive feedback, that is; when they transmit good news.

Bond and Anderson (1987) pitted two hypothesis, fear of negative evaluation (self – presentational account) and the mood hypothesis (Tesser & Rosen, 1975) in an experimental study. In the experiment, participants gave nonverbal feedback (either positive or negative) to a confederate test taker on an allegedly IQ test. To motivate impression management they manipulated participant's visibility to the test taker. Half of the participants thought they were visible to the test taker while giving

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feedback, whereas the other half did not. Participants gave feedback to the test taker by turning on some lights after each question. The participants were videotaped, and the measured variables were latency to feedback and some other non – verbal behaviors (e.g. gaze aversion, self – manipulations). They found that participants delayed bad news transmission only when they were visible to the recipient supporting the fear of negative evaluation hypothesis. But participants in bad news condition also reported more discomfort, in congruence with the mood hypothesis. However, participants felt bad only when they were visible to recipient. Moreover, controlling feelings of discomfort did not eliminate the delays in transmission which suggested that feelings of discomfort (mood hypothesis) did not account for the MUM effect. In conclusion, the results of the study supported the idea that the reluctance to transmit bad news is a public display and may be driven by self – presentational concerns (i.e. fear of negative evaluation).

More recently, some researchers examined the effects of definitiveness of the news and the closeness of the recipient on bad news transmission (Weenig, Groenenboom, & Wilke, 2001). They suggested that indefinite news (events that may be altered) would be more likely to be transmitted than definite news (events that already happened). Their second hypothesis was; bad news would be more likely to be transmitted to friends than less acquainted recipients. In all three experiments their hypotheses were confirmed. Bad news with definite consequences was less likely to be transmitted, and participants were more likely to communicate bad news to friends rather than a superficial acquaintance. However, good news was assessed only in the final experiment and they found that, unlike bad news, neither the definitiveness of consequences nor the relationship between the communicator and the recipient affected the transmission likelihood of good news. There were also some supportive findings for self – presentational concerns. Participants anticipated more personal costs of transmission if the news was bad rather than good and more personal benefits if the news was good rather than bad. More importantly personal cost – benefit considerations significantly mediated the impact of news valence on news transmission.

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In conclusion, there is some supportive evidence for self – presentational causes of the MUM effect. However, apart from the initial studies on the subject (Rosen & Tesser, 1972, Johnson, Conlee, & Tesser, 1974) only in one study (Bond & Andersen, 1987) fear of negative evaluation hypothesis was examined as the main focus of the study. Moreover, the main factor examined in all of these studies was the reluctance to transmit bad news. Although the reluctance to transmit bad news and the willingness to transmit good news are like both sides of a coin, the relevant literature almost completely neglected the latter. In some studies, researchers even did not include a good news condition. But it may well be that the reluctance to transmit bad news and the willingness to transmit good news are different phenomena and underlying psychological factors may differ.

CHAPTER 3

IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

In this chapter impression management literature is reviewed. The review is more focused on the aspects of impression management those are relevant to the present study. Mainly, ingratiation, impression motivation, and personality factors associated with impression management are discussed. Although some researchers make a distinction with impression management and self – presentation, in this article they are used interchangeably.

3.1 A Historical Overview of Impression Management

The roots of impression management go back to as early as symbolic interactionism. In the beginning of the 20th century, a sociologist, Charles H. Cooley (1902) suggested that people's feelings toward themselves are socially determined. He used the term looking – glass self to describe the phenomena that people imagine how they appear in the eyes of another person which results in feeling good or bad depending on this perspective taking process. Mead (1934) extended Cooley's ideas and argued that this perspective – taking ability, the capacity to imagine how one-self appears in the eyes of others, forms the basis for development of self. Symbolic interactionism theory puts great emphasis on the ability to imagine how people appear in the eyes of others, in other words, on their impressions.

Later on, Erving Goffman, a sociologist used symbolic interaction approach to examine social interactions (Goffman, 1959). In his study, he analyzed the strategies people use to convey their desired images to others and while doing so, he made use of theatre as a model, as an analogy of everyday life, which is known as dramaturgical approach. According to Goffman, self – presentation was a critical factor for a smooth interaction. It facilitates the interaction by providing others some information about the actor (i.e. the image the actor conveys) and   thus the others act accordingly. However,

Goffman was a sociologist and he was more interested in social factors rather than intrapersonal and interpersonal motivations that promote self – presentation.

Self – presentation was introduced to psychology literature by Jones (1964), four decades ago, in his attempt to present a theory of strategies for being liked. As a social psychologist, he was interested in social interaction and interpersonal perception. In his early work on Ingratiation (1964), which sparked an interest in self – presentation, he used some ideas of Heider (1958) and Goffman (1959) on social interaction, but his methodological approach was different from both of them. He adopted an experimental approach, testing his hypothesis in laboratory experiments which provided empirical evidence on the topic (Oleson & Arkin, 1994). His studies on impression management played a key role in recognition of the importance of the subject by psychologists.

Today, self – presentation has become a widely studied topic. Self – presentational perspective is applied to many phenomena such as; helping behavior, conformity, aggression, non – verbal behaviors, attitude change, self – handicapping, leadership, eating behavior, driving behavior and various other behaviors (see Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). Impression management studies have also entertained a wide number of field studies, especially in organizational settings (see Higgins, Judge & Ferris, 2003).

3.2 Self – Presentation Tactics

Researchers have identified various impression management tactics and there have been different conceptualizations of them. But the taxonomy of Jones and Pittman (1982) provides a more comprehensive framework and also enjoyed more empirical support (Bolino & Turnley, 2002), thus their classification of impression management tactics will be discussed briefly.

Jones and Pittman (1982) identified 5 different impression management tactics, namely; self – promotion, intimidation, exemplification, supplication, and ingratiation. Basically these strategies differ by the interaction goal and attributions sought by the self – presenter;

- *Self – promotion* refers to; individual's attempt to appear competent by enhancing one's self in face of others to gain respect. An example is, a worker behaving in ways that implies he is working diligently or mentioning about his achievements to his superiors.

- *Intimidation* refers to; individual's attempt to appear dangerous by threatening and bullying to invoke feelings of fear and to induce compliance in target. Intimidators generally have greater power over the target. A common example is threatening others.

- *Exemplification* refers to; individual's attempt to appear as dedicated or devoted and morally virtuous. A common example is helping behaviors or self – sacrifices for a cause.

- *Supplication* refers to; individual's attempt to appear as needy and helpless by publicly displaying weaknesses to invoke feelings of nurturance in targets. A common example is begging.

- *Ingratiation* refers to; individual's attempt to appear likable and to be liked. A common example is flattering others.

Although, five different self – presentation tactics were identified, ingratiation have elicited more attraction from the researchers, probably because of its pervasiveness in social interactions. In the next section ingratiation is discussed in more detail.

3.2.1 Ingratiation

Jones (1964) defined ingratiation as "a class of strategic behaviors illicitly designed to influence a particular other person concerning the attractiveness of one's personal qualities"(p.11). He suggests that power maintenance and power augmentation is a basic interaction goal. The word "power" is a way of speaking about the distribution of potential outcomes of an interaction and it is similar to dependence. One has power over the other to the extend that one's actions can punish or reward the other. In interactions individuals try to maintain or augment their power over the other (Jones, 1990).

Ingratiation is probably the most common form of impression management, since the goal of this impression management tactic is a pervasive human

desire which is to be liked by others. Ingratiator tries to appear likable with the ultimate goal of power augmentation. He attempts to achieve his ulterior motives via appearing likable and if he succeeds, he gets more than he has paid for. Thus, ingratiation is defined as illicit because it exploits social exchange (Jones, 1990).

Jones (1964) mentioned about three independent motivational and cognitive determinants of ingratiation. The first one is the incentive value which refers to the perceived importance of the benefit that ingratiator will achieve by getting the target to like him. In other words, as ingratiator gets more dependent on the target for a desired outcome he will be more likely to ingratiate. The second one is the subjective probability of success which stands for the ingratiator's perception of the probability that a strategic behavior will be successful. (i.e. will result in likable attribution). The third one is the perceived legitimacy which refers to individual differences in ingratiators' perceptions on the candor of their strategic behavior. In different contexts, different people would vary in their placed values on the authenticity of the behavior and if a behavior is perceived as illegitimate it will inhibit ingratiation motivation.

Jones' approach to impression management is defined as restrictive approach .It focuses on power augmentation, implying that ingratiators have ulterior motives and that the behavior is illicit or deceitful (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). On the other hand, some other researchers (Schlenker 1980, Schlenker & Weigold, 1992) adopted a more expansivist approach which is more similar to Goffman's (1959) original conceptualization of self – presentation. According to this approach, self – presentation is not something artificial, on the contrary it is a fundamental aspect of social interaction. Self – presentation facilitates smooth interaction and it is a more automatic reaction to social cues rather than a type of behavior that occurs under specific conditions. As Schlenker & Weigold (1992) put it

> … Just as a textbook writer must edit information to present it in a readable, concise fashion, so must people edit information about themselves in everyday life to provide the best descriptions possible…The process is always going on, but its character may change depending on the actor's goals and the circumstances (p.137).

On the other hand, although Jones suggested that ingratiation is illicit and strategic he also stated that ingratiator's behavior does not typically involve conscious awareness or deliberate planning (Jones, 1990). For example, Jones and Pittman (1982) concluded that, social cues which imply dependency may automatically result in ingratiating behaviors that remain cognitively inaccessible. Furthermore this helps preventing dissonance arousal for the ingratiator which is likely to occur due to inconsistency.

Finally, ingratiation tactics are also classified in itself since there are various ways of appearing likable. Four different classes of ingratiation tactics in the original conceptualization are; other enhancement, opinion conformity, rendering favors and self – promotion (Jones & Wortman, 1973). Although, initially self - promotion is conceptualized as an ingratiation tactic, later on it was found that the goal of self – promotion is to appear competent rather than likable (Godfrey, Jones & Lord, 1986). The definitions of the remaining three classes are as follows,

- *Other enhancement* involves communication of directly enhancing, positive statements. The ingratiator expresses a high positive evaluation of the other, emphasizes the target's strengths and virtues. In its everyday usage it is flattery.

- *Opinion conformity* is a tactic in which the ingratiator expresses opinions that agree with the target. It ranges from simple agreement with expressed opinions to the more complex forms of behavior imitation and identification (Jones, 1964).

- *Favor doing* is another ingratiation tactic because people usually react in a positive manner when someone does something nice for them. This behavior is based on reciprocity norm and involves offering or actually doing a favor for the target (Jones & Wortman, 1973).

The impression management strategies described up to this point involves directly manipulating information about self. However, there are also indirect forms of impression management, which are discussed in the next section.

3.2.2 Indirect Forms of Impression Management

Not all impression management tactics include manipulating information about self. In fact, such direct tactics can be   risky   because   when   they   become

transparent they are likely to backfire. As naive psychologists, people also utilize some indirect forms of impression management.

In such tactics individuals include third parties to manage impressions. One may manage impressions when the intended target is absent but in such a way that some other person passes the information to the intended target (Schlenker, 1980). Alternatively people can manage their associations with people or things to which they are connected.

Cialdini and Richardson (1980) have coined the term indirect self – presentation for such association tactics. In their early studies they mentioned about two forms of indirect self – presentation; basking and blasting. Later this strategy was expanded into four forms; boasting, burying, blaring, and blurring (Cialdini, 1989).

 - In *boasting*, individuals boast their association with favorable entities in observers' eyes. For instance one can mention about having the same birthday with a movie star or having attended to same college with a politician.

 - In *burying*, people try to disassociate themselves from unfavorable others. To illustrate, they bury their early connections with disreputable persons (e.g. criminals) by not mentioning their associations.

 - In *blaring*, people try to minimize publicly known associations with unfavorable others.

 - In *blurring*, people distort their actual weak associations with favorable others as if they are strongly connected with a favorable other.

In the literature, indirect impression management tactics were largely ignored. Although there have been some studies on the topic recently (e.g. Andrews & Kacmar, 2001) more research is needed. The current study may also be considered as an investigation of an impression management by association tactic, that is; whether people also try to associate themselves with events or news in addition to managing their connections with others.

In sum, there are various forms of self – presentation tactics, ingratiation being the most common and the most investigated one. On the other hand, there are also

indirect forms of impression management but the literature on this topic is newly growing.

However, researchers not only investigated the ways of impression management but also they proposed some explanations for the underlying motivational factors. The next section discusses these motivational determinants of impression management.

3.3 Impression Motivation

Impression motivation is examined in two sections. In the first part, different theoretical perspectives are briefly described. In the second part, the practical aspects of motivating self – presentation in experimental settings are discussed.

3.3.1 Theoretical Aspects

As stated before, Jones (1964) suggested three motivational factors for ingratiation motivation; incentive based determinants, subjective probability of success and perceived legitimacy. Although he proposed these factors as different and empirically separable from each other, subjective probability of success and perceived legitimacy drew little attention. The first factor, the incentive value which refers to the perceived importance of the benefit that ingratiator will achieve by getting the target to like him, stands as a key factor for impression motivation. Jones and Pittman (1982) stated that self – presentation reflects power augmentation motives. The more an individual gains power over the other the easier one can influence other's behavior. So that individuals try to achieve their ulterior motives by shaping other's attributions about them.

On the other hand, Schlenker (1980) adopted an expectancy-value approach to impression management. He suggested that self – presentations (self – identifications) should be believable (i.e. not contradicting with salient evidence) and also they should be beneficial, that is they should aid the actor in reaching his desired goals and values. Consequently, factors, that increase believability and the value of expected positive outcomes and that decrease the value of expected negative outcomes, increase the likelihood of a self – presentation (Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). Besides, according to their expansivist approach to self – presentation, self – presentation is a fundamental aspect of social interaction. So they suggested that motives relevant to self

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regulation; self – esteem maintenance, self – enhancement, self – verification and need for accuracy also motivate impression regulation (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992).

Another researcher, Baumeister (1982) made a distinction between constructive self – presentation and strategic self – presentation. Constructive self – presentation is defined as a way of testing whether a possible self can be integrated into a more stable identity. In that sense, it does not involve a strategic action to affect others' attributions. It is an attempt to incorporate a possible or an ideal self into public self. On the other hand, strategic self – presentation is similar to Jones point of view, it is mainly engaged to influence the behaviors of the audience. Thus he suggested that, apart from power motives, the discrepancy between ideal and actual selves may also motivate self – presentation.

Finally, Leary and Kowalski (1990) suggested that impression management involves two distinct processes; impression motivation and impression construction. Although previous conceptualizations did not ignore these aspects, they failed to make the distinction. According to the model of Leary and Kowalski (1990), impression motivation identifies the factors that motivate impression management, the conditions under which people are motivated to manage their impressions. Whereas, impression construction involves the factors that affect the choice of specific impression management tactic, and also identifies how people carry out those tactics. They suggested three distinct motives for impression management. The first one is the goal relevance of impressions. People are more likely to manage their impressions if the impressions created help them in achievement of their goals. These goals may be social and material outcomes, self – esteem maintenance and identity development. The second one is the value of desired goals. Similar to most motivation theories, they suggested that as the value of goals, which one hopes to achieve via impression management, increase impression motivation also increases. The third factor is the discrepancy between desired and current image. It involves the discrepancy between the impressions that is desired to be created on others and the impressions that one believes others already hold. If this discrepancy falls outside the latitude of acceptance, people become motivated to manage their impressions (Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

3.3.2 Practical Aspects

In impression management studies, impression motivation is generally manipulated in two ways. Researchers generally used public/ private manipulations or dependency factors to motivate impression management or to show the effects of self – presentational concerns in behaviors. Since the present study is designed to show that transmission of good news is used as an impression management tactic, participants should be motivated to manage their impressions. The literature relevant to the two common ways of impression motivation; publicity and dependence are more thoroughly discussed in the following sections.

3.3.2.1 Publicity

One's behavior that will be observed by others is called a public behavior. In other words, whether an action is taken under presence of others determines its publicity. The number of others who might learn about the behavior is another important factor that affects the publicity of behavior. Since public behaviors are more closely related with achievement of one's goals than private behaviors are, publicity affects impression motivation (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). As publicity of a behavior increases actors become more motivated to manage their impressions. In the literature there are many studies which operationalized publicity for impression motivation. Some examples are provided below.

Public private manipulation is widely used to show the impact of self – presentational concerns in attitude (especially attitudes regarding self) change studies. Dissonance theory suggests that people have an inherent drive to be consistent and when there is a discrepancy between behavior and attitude, a dissonance arouses which then may lead to attitude change (Festinger, 1957). But there is also a line of research which suggests that attitude change is primarily governed by self – presentational concerns. A classical example is the bogus pipeline experiment. In a series of studies Geas, Kalle and Tedeschi (1978) used a bogus machine which allegedly measures the participants' attitudes physiologically. As in other attitude change studies, participants wrote essays inconsistent with their attitudes (i.e. against tooth brushing). Interestingly, attitude change was observed only in participants who were not connected to

the bogus pipeline, those who thought that their true attitudes were not measured. Thus researchers concluded that participants are trying to appear consistent to others rather than alleviating an inherent dissonance. Similarly, Baumeister and Jones (1978) have shown that, when participants believe their scores would be known by an audience, they adjusted their self – presentations in a way that it is consistent with their actual performance. But when they believe their scores would not be known, they presented themselves positively regardless of their performance. In another study, which also operationalized publicity, Tedeschi and Rosenfeld (1981) showed that an attitude discrepant behavior changes the attitudes of participants only if others learn about it. Similarly, Weary and Arkin (1981) manipulated publicity to demonstrate the effects of impression management on self – serving biases.

Another line of research, that broadly utilizes publicity to demonstrate the effects of self – presentational concerns, is self – handicapping studies. The term self - handicapping, is first introduced by Berglas and Jones (1978). They coined the term to describe self – handicapping behaviors that are undertaken to discount ability attributions and to maintain and augment a positive view of self. Self – handicapper tries to discount negative ability attributions which are likely to occur in case of failure. On the other hand, if self – handicapper is successful despite the handicap; it will lead to stronger ability attributions, resulting in self – enhancement (Berglas & Jones, 1978). However, some other researchers (Kolditz & Arkin, 1982, Arkin & Baumgardner, 1985) suggested that self – presentational motives account for self – handicapping strategy which is qualified by publicity effects. To demonstrate the effect Kolditz and Arkin (1982) replicated the classical study of Berglas and Jones (1978). They found a significant interaction between contingency and publicity. Participants in public and non – contingent success condition (i.e. success feedback regardless of performance level) preferred to take performance debilitating drugs more than the participants in the three other conditions. Moreover, they observed no self – handicapping tendency in the private condition, regardless of contingency. Thus they concluded that self – presentational concerns motivate self handicapping. Similarly, Tice and Baumeister (1990) found a significant effect of publicity on self handicapping behaviors.

In their experiment, they measured preparatory effort on a novel task as an indicator of self – handicapping. It is found that, participants in the private condition practiced longer than did the participants in the public condition. They concluded that the significant main effect of publicity, to some extent, is an indicator of self presentational concerns for all participants.

In conclusion, pubic private manipulations are a common means of distinguishing between self – presentational factors and other motivational factors. However, Tetlock and Manstead (1985) criticized such public – private manipulations, arguing that it does not provide an adequate test of impression management motives. They provided two reasons for their skepticism. First, they suggested that public – private manipulations can also have other intrapsychic effects. For example, audiences may induce arousal, self –awareness or commitment in the performer and such effects can lead to a change in behaviors in public conditions (see Tetlock & Manstead, 1985). Second, self – presentational concerns may also be in effect not only in public but also in private. Thus, they concluded that differences in public and private behaviors may not only have impression motivation as an explanation and it does not provide an effective way to distinguish impression motivation and other intrapsychic factors.

Although only real audiences are discussed up to this point, Schlenker (1986) also argued about the importance of imagined audiences in impression management processes. To illustrate, the tendency to feel as if the others can access one's internal states is named as the illusion of transparency (Gilovich, Savitsky, & Medvec, 1998). In a recent study, Schlenker and Wowra (2003) have shown that when participants felt transparent they matched their self – presentations to their performance expectations, which was not the case when they felt impenetrable. Thus, they concluded that feelings of transparency have effects on self – presentation which are analogous to the effects of publicity. Their study also provided some empirical support for the criticisms of Tetlock and Manstead (1985) regarding the problems of public private manipulations.

3.3.2.2 Dependence

The second factor, which is closely related to impression motivation, is dependency on the target or outcome dependency.

In his pioneering work, Jones (1964) adopted Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) definition of power and dependence. Power is defined as the range of outcomes through which one person can move another whereas dependence is the range of outcomes through which one can be moved. Jones (1964) stated mainly three factors related to dependency that motivates ingratiation, namely; the value of the outcomes which the target can provide, the uniqueness of the target as a source of the desired outcome, and the target's ability to produce or remove negative outcomes for the ingratiator. According to Jones (1990) power maintenance is a fundamental interaction goal and the more dependent one is on another, the more motivated dependent person will be to manage impressions. In several of his experiments Jones manipulated dependence and expected ingratiation in high dependence conditions, which in fact was the case (see Jones, 1964).

For instance, it is demonstrated that people are more likely to manage their impressions when high status people have greater control over desired outcomes (Jones et.al, 1965). Also, Bohra and Pandey (1984) have shown that people are more likely to ingratiate themselves with their teachers and bosses than with their friends. Similarly, Kowalski and Leary (1990) made participants role play a worker in a company who might perform either a threatening task or a non - threatening task. In one condition, another participant, who played the role of supervisor, had the power to make the task assignment. Self – presentation effects were observed only in this condition in which dependency was high. Pandey and Singh (1986) also made participants play supervisor and worker roles to manipulate power and to motivate impression management in participants.

Status differences are a common theme in organizational settings. Numerous studies in organizational psychology literature have focused on these power and status differences and their relation with the use of influence tactics. Organizational psychologists examined the tactics used by subordinates (Kipnis , Schmitt, & Wilkinson, 1980, Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984), how the general process operates (Liden & Mitchell, 1988), the relation between the direction of the influence tactic (i.e. upward, lateral and downward) and the type of influence tactics used (Yukl &

Tracey, 1992, Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993), the performance evaluations which are susceptible to subordinates' active influence attempts (Wayne & Kacmar, 1991, Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). In sum, there is ample evidence that status differences lead to ingratiatory behaviors and impression management is often used by subordinates to gain desirable rewards from their supervisors.

In his meta – analytical review, Gordon (1996) also concluded that dependency is a critical factor for ingratiation. For instance, he found that other-enhancement produced the most positive effect in upward influence attempts (i.e. when target is a higher ranking other). Similar results are also reported in the meta – analyses of Higgins et. al. (2003).

These studies form various lines of research shows that, dependency, in other words power and status differences, is an important predictor of impression management behaviors. In the present study it is also decided to utilize dependency (with two levels as high and low) to motivate impression management since it is a more robust factor and it is easier to manipulate. The problems associated with public – private manipulations make it a less desirable alternative.

In this study, it is expected that, when participants are motivated to manage their impressions they will be more likely to transmit good news and less likely to transmit bad news. In other words, participants will be more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition. In contrast, participants will be less likely to transmit bad news in high dependence condition.

3.4 Personality Factors Related To Impression Management

In the reviewed literature, some personality factors were also found to be associated with impression management. In this section, three widely investigated factors; self – esteem, self – monitoring, and Machiavellianism, which are also assessed in the present study, are discussed.

3.4.1 Self – Esteem

Self – esteem has been one of the most widely studied topics in the psychology literature. It is a construct that is found to be related with various phenomena. There is

also a self – presentational approach to self – esteem which provides a relevant aspect for this study.

Baumeister, Tice and Hutton (1989) suggested that self esteem scales measure self presentational style more prominently than attitudes toward self. In their review, they suggested that self – esteem is a measure of willingness to claim favorable views about self to others and measurement of self – esteem determines whether one wants to present himself favorably to the other. They argued that self – protection and self – enhancement form two distinct patterns. Self – protective individuals are mainly motivated to protect the self by playing it safe, whereas self – enhancing individuals may take risks, create opportunities to enhance their selves. Baumeister et. al. (1989) suggested that high self – esteem scores imply an aggressive, ambitious self – presentation style that is oriented toward self – enhancement. In contrast, low self – esteem scores imply a cautious self – presentation style that is oriented toward self – protection. To test these hypotheses, Tice (1991) examined the moderating effects of self – esteem on self – handicapping. In support of the hypotheses, she found that high self – esteem participants tend to engage in self – handicapping for self – enhancement purposes more than did low self – esteem participants. In their attributions, high self – esteem individuals were more likely to agree with self – enhancement benefits of self – handicapping than were low self – esteem people. In contrast, low self – esteem people displayed self – protection patterns in both self – handicapping behaviors and attributions.

In fact these ideas were based on the distinction between different self – presentational styles suggested by some early researchers. For instance, Jones (1964) stated that in acquisitive ingratiation, ingratiator tries to acquire a self – benefit by biasing the target in his favor. In protective ingratiation, the goal of the ingratiator is to prevent an undesirable outcome rather than improving his outcomes. Similarly some other researchers (Arkin, 1981, Schlenker, 1987, Tedeschi & Norman, 1985) have made the distinction between acquisitive and protective self – presentation styles. It is suggested that acquisitive self – presentation is associated high self – esteem, high self – confidence, low social anxiety whereas   protective self – presentation is associated

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with low self – esteem, high fear of negative evaluation, high anxiety and shyness (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992).

Finally, some researchers suggested that self – esteem is a heterogeneous construct; high self – esteem may either be defensive or genuine (Paulhus, 2002), or stability of self – esteem is a second dimension that affects the behavioral outcomes regarding self – esteem (Kernis & Walschull, 1995). To assess this heterogeneity of high self – esteem, some researchers (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003) suggested that narcissism should also be measured along with self – esteem, depending on the evidence that narcissists tend to have defensive self – esteem (Paulhus, 1998) and unstable self – esteem (Rhodewalt, Madrian & Cheney, 1998).

In conclusion, it is decided to measure both self – esteem and narcissism (Raskin & Hall, 1981) in this study. It is hypothesized that, high self – esteem participants would be more likely to transmit good news (acquisitive) whereas low self – esteem participants would be more likely to keep MUM (protective). No specific hypothesis is proposed regarding narcissism.

3.4.2 Self – Monitoring

The term self – monitoring is brought up by Snyder (1974) to assess individual differences in sensitivity to social cues. Some people have a high concern for situational appropriateness of their behaviors and these high self – monitors are more likely to regulate their self – presentations to form desired public images. In that sense, self – monitoring scale was mainly developed to measure individual differences in impression management or motivation. Self – monitoring, because of its nature, have been the most frequently studied personality factor in impression management studies.

For successful impression management it is important to read the situational cues about which impression to create and then to regulate impressions accordingly, and high self – monitors are more successful in reading such cues. For instance, in an early study by Jones and Baumeister (1976) it is found that high self – monitors were more likely to detect whether other people were ingratiating. Similarly, high self – monitors were better at remembering information about another whom they expected to meet (Berscheid, Graziano, Manson, & Dermer, 1976).

High self – monitors are also more likely to engage in self – presentational behaviors to a greater extent (Snyder, 1987). For example, high self – monitors particularly prefer physically attractive romantic partners (Snyder, Berscheid, & Glick, 1985) probably to enhance their images in the eyes of others. They tend to match their behaviors (i.e. opinion conformity) with whom they interact (Shaffer, Smith, & Tomarelli, 1982). In organizational settings, high self – monitors are also more likely to display self – presentational acts (Rosenfeld, Giacalone & Riordan, 1995). To illustrate, they were more likely to manipulate information by sending positive information and hiding negative information (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982, Fandt & Ferris, 1990).

However, there have also been some criticisms and controversy about self – monitoring scale. The scale is found to be multidimensional with three factors and the subscales sometimes show opposite correlations with variables related to self – monitoring (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984, Briggs & Cheek, 1988). Furthermore Briggs and Cheek (1988) argued that the general factor tapped by self – monitoring scale is extraversion and it does not measure a different construct. Thus two problems seem to be associated with self – monitoring scale, the first one is whether it is a single, unitary construct and the second one is whether it measures something different from the other personality measures such as extraversion.

In this study, it is hypothesized that high self – monitors would be more likely to transmit good news and less likely to transmit bad news than low self – monitors.

3.4.3 Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is introduced to the psychology literature by Christie and Geis (1970), to measure the extent individuals are being manipulative for self gains, with a scale the items of which were based on the writings of Machiavelli, *The Prince* and *The Discourses.* Christie and Geis (1970) reported that high Machs tend to be manipulative; modify their behaviors in order to control others, display high need for power, they are detached, objective toward other people and self – seeking opportunists.

Strategic impression management involves power augmentation and ulterior motives (Jones, 1990). In that sense one expects impression management to be

associated with Machiavellianism. In fact, some researchers examined this relation and there exists some empirical evidence in the literature about the relation between Machiavellianism and ingratiation.

In one study by Pandey and Singh (1986), low Machs evaluated the ingratiator more positively and they were more influenced by ingratiation, a finding which is in line with Christie and Geis'(1970) suggestion that low Machs tend to get more emotionally affected and more personally involved than high Machs. Although both high and low Machs were positively affected by ingratiation tactic, low Machs, compared to high Machs, displayed a more positive affect. Furthermore, high Machs are more likely to engage in ingratiatory behaviors such as flattery and opinion conformity than are low Machs (Pandey & Rastogi, 1979). On the other hand, unlike high self – monitors who often engage self – presentational behaviors to please others, high Machs may apply impression management tactics that more immediately benefit themselves (Ickes, Reidhead & Patterson, 1986). Some other researchers also reported that high Machs are more willing to engage in risky, deceptive forms of impression management in an all or nothing way (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

In this study, it is hypothesized that high Machs would be more likely to transmit good news than low Machs. The effect of Machiavellianism is expected only in good news condition since transmission of good news is more likely to be a manipulative tactic than keeping MUM about bad news.

3.5 An Overview of the Study and Hypotheses

This study is mainly designed to examine transmission of good news as an impression management tactic. The independent variables of the study are news valence (good, bad) and dependence (high, low) with transmission likelihood as the main dependent variable. Four variables, likeability, perceived favor doing, expectations of gratitude and likelihood of getting the desired outcome are proposed as potential mediators. Finally, four personality factors, self – esteem, narcissism, self – monitoring and Machiavellianism are also assessed to examine their moderating effects. It is expected that;

1 – Participants will be more likely to transmit good news rather than bad

news. However an interaction effect of valence and dependence is expected. Participants will be more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition than the other conditions. In contrast, participants will be less likely to transmit bad news in high dependence condition than the other conditions.

2 – Four variables; likeability, perceived favor doing, expectations of gratitude and likelihood of getting the desired outcome (i.e. ulterior motive), are expected to mediate the hypothesized relationship between independent variables and likelihood of news transmission.

3 – High self – esteem participants will be more likely to transmit good news than low self – esteem participants. Whereas low self – esteem participants will be less likely to transmit bad news than high self – esteem participants.

4 – High self – monitors will be more likely to transmit good news and less likely to transmit bad news than low self – monitors.

5 – High Machs will be more likely to transmit good news than low Machs, when they are dependent on the recipient.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

4.1 Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 306 participants from Middle East Technical University. Six of the participants were graduate students and the remaining 302 participants were undergraduate students from different departments of the university. The ages of the participants varied between 18 and 30 with a mean of 21.49 (Sd = 1.65). First and third year students formed 77.4 % of the participants. There were 146 (47.7 %) female and 160 (52.3 %) male participants. The study included 2 X 2 ANOVA design and the distributions of participants according to four experimental groups are given in Table 1.

Table 1   Demographic Information According To Experimental Groups

		Good News				Bad News			
		High Dependence		Low Dependence		High Dependence		Low Dependence	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Age									
	Mean	21.58		21.21		21.46		21.71	
Sex									
	Male	40	52.6	39	48.8	30	42.3	38	48.1
	Female	36	47.4	41	51.3	41	57.7	41	51.9
Class									
	1	19	25	41	51.3	20	28.2	23	29,1
	2	11	14.50	3	3.8	5	7	9	11.4
	3	29	38.2	35	43.8	36	50.7	31	39.2
	4	16	21.1	1	1.3	8	11.3	12	15.2
	5	1	1.3			1	1.4	4	5.1

4.2 Instruments

4.2.1 Scenarios

Four versions of a scenario were used in the study. Each participant read only one version and was asked to fill the questionnaires by imagining what his or her reaction would be in that situation. The scenario was about a graduating student who wants to take a make – up examination because of a job interview on the same day of the test. Two IV's were dependency of the student on the assistant and the news valence. The assistant either have full authority (high dependence) or low authority (low dependence) for giving the student a make – up examination. For the news valence, the assistant either got a rejection (bad news) or an acceptance (good news) from a university. Scenarios are given in the Appendix.

4.2.2 Manipulation Checks

The first two items of the questionnaire were manipulation checks which also helped to asses whether participants read the scenario or not. The two items were "What is the authority of the assistant for giving the student a make – up?" 1 (no authority at all) to 7 (full authority) and "The rejection (bad news condition) /acceptance (good news condition) from the university is" 1 (very bad news) to 7 (very good news).

4.2.3 Dependent Variables

Data for dependent variables; transmission likelihood, perceived likeability, likelihood of getting the desired outcome (ulterior motive), perceived favor doing and expectations of gratitude, is collected by means of a questionnaire. It included 12 items on a 7 point likert type scale.

4.2.3.1 Transmission Likelihood

Transmission likelihood is measured by one item on a 7 point rating scale. "Would you tell the assistant that he got a rejection/acceptance?" 1 (certainly would not) to 7 (certainly would).

4.2.3.2 Expected Likeability

Expected likeability was measured by ratings on a 7 point scale for 7 different traits. Three graduate students decided on which traits to be used (according to their common usage in Turkish language) to measure likeability. Four positive and three negative traits were included; considerate, likable, rude, sympathetic, know – all, friendly, and repulsive.

All items were the same except one word (trait); "If the student transmits the rejection/acceptance news, the assistant thinks that the student is a (considerate) person" 1 (strongly disagree) to 7(strongly agree).

Three negative items were reverse coded and the mean of the seven items formed the likeability rating. The alpha reliability of the scale was .89 and it did not increase with deletion of any items.

4.2.3.3 Ulterior Motive

One item on a 7 point rating scale measured whether participants have ulterior motives for transmission of news (i.e. whether they consider their chances of getting the desired outcome);

"If the student transmits the rejection/acceptance news, his chances of getting a make – up" 1 (strongly increases) to 7 (strongly decreases).

4.2.3.4 Perceived Favor Doing

One item on a 7 point rating scale measured whether participants perceive news transmission as a favor done for the recipient.

"If the student transmits the rejection/acceptance news, he has done the assistant a favor" 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

4.2.3.5 Expectations of Gratitude

Two items measured whether participants perceive news transmission as a part of a social exchange and think that the recipient of the news would be indebted to the transmitter.

"If the student transmits the rejection/acceptance news, the assistant feels indebted to the student" 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) and

"If the student transmits the rejection/acceptance news the assistant feels grateful"
1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The two items were combined into one mean score, and the alpha reliability of the measure was .81.

4.2.4 Individual Differences

4.2.4.1 Self – Esteem Scale

Rosenberg's (1965) Self Esteem Inventory (SEI) was used to measure self – esteem. The scale consists of ten items and the scores range between 0 and 6. Higher scores imply higher self – esteem level. Its translation, reliability and validity studies were conducted by Çuhadaroğlu (1986). In the present study, the alpha reliability of the scale was found to be .74.

4.2.4.2 Self – Monitoring Scale

Revised version of self – monitoring scale (Snyder, 1974, Gangested & Snyder 1985) was used to measure self – monitoring. The scale consisted of 20 true- false type items. The score range is between 0 – 20 and higher scores imply higher self – monitoring level. Its translation, validity, and reliability studies were conducted by Bacanlı (1990). Double – translation and back – translation methods were conducted and its validity was tested by peer – rating, criterion groups validity, and discriminant validity methods (Bacanlı, 1990). In different studies, the reported alpha reliability of the scale ranged between .63 and .70. In this study it was .70.

4.2.4.3 Narcissism Scale

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) was used to measure narcissism. (Raiskin & Hall, 1981). The scale consisted of 40 forced choice type items. The score range is between 0 and 40, with high scores implying high narcissism level. Its translation, validity, and reliability studies were conducted by Kızıltan (2000). The scale was adapted to Turkish by translation and back – translation method. The alpha reliability of the scale was found to be .84 and its test – retest reliability was .89. Its validity was tested by concurrent validity techniques. Kızıltan (2000) dropped 6 items from the original scale to increase the internal reliability and validity of the scale. In the present study, the alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was .86.

4.2.4.4 Machiavellianism Scale

The MACH IV scale which was developed by Christie and Geis (1970) was used in the study. It consisted of 20 items on 6 point rating scale -3 (completely disagree) to +3 (completely agree). The score range is between 20 and 140. It was adapted to Turkish by N. Sümer as an extension of ISDP (i.e. International Sexual Description Project) directed by Schmitt (see Schmitt et.al., 2003). In the present study, the alpha reliability coefficient for MACH IV scale was found to be .68 and it did not increase with deletion of any items.

Table 2 Means of Personality Factors for Each Experimental Group

		Good News		Bad News	
		High Dep.	Low Dep.	High Dep.	Low Dep.
Self Esteem					
	Mean	4.766*	4.315	4.206	4.603
	SD	1.630	1.452	1.588	1.531
Self Monitoring					
	Mean	11.258	10.527	10.928	11.437
	SD	3.473	3.382	3.359	3.425
Narcissism					
	Mean	16.612**	12.954	13.517	14.213
	SD	7.154	6.874	7.076	6.427
Machiavellianism					
	Mean	71.666	69.752	72.445	72.227
	SD	11.553	14.489	13.005	13.447

* Subjects in good news – high dependence condition have significantly higher self – esteem scores than subjects in bad news – high dependence condition ($p < .05$).

** Subjects in good news – high dependence condition have significantly higher narcissism scores than the other 3 groups ($p < .05$).

4.3 Procedure

In the present study a 2 X 2 factorial experimental between subjects design was used, with dependency on the target (high vs. low) and valence of the news (good vs. bad) as independent variables. Thus the study consisted of four experimental groups with four versions of a scenario. Scenarios were completely the same except manipulation sentences. Each participant read only one of the scenarios and then filled the questionnaires. The questionnaire included the scales in the following order; demographic questions, scenario, measures for manipulation checks and dependent variables, self – monitoring scale, Rosenberg Self – Esteem Inventory, Narcissistic Personality Inventory and Mach IV scale. Necessary instructions were provided within each scale and the completion of the whole questionnaire took about 25 minutes. The questionnaires were distributed during classes with permissions of the instructors. Participation was on a voluntary basis; and some instructors gave participants extra course credit for participation in the study. To obtain a heterogeneous sample and to increase external validity, participants were chosen from a variety of departments. Finally, after participants completed the forms they were thanked and debriefed.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Checking the Data

Prior to the main analyses, data were checked for accuracy of entry, missing values, outliers and for the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Twenty-four participants, who failed either of the manipulation checks, those who misperceived the dependence condition or valence of the news were excluded from the analysis. To detect univariate and multivariate outliers, the procedures outlined in Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) were followed. Six participants with extreme z scores were found to be outliers and to increase normality they were also eliminated. Another participant having a high Mahalonobis distance score ($p < .01$) was determined as multivariate outlier and it was also dropped from the analysis. Finally, a total of 275 cases were used in the analyses. Mean scores of the variables are replaced for missing values since cases with missing values were below 5% of total cases for each item.

Regarding personality factors, a randomization problem was observed in self – esteem and narcissism scores. Participants in good news – high dependence condition had significantly higher self – esteem scores than participants in bad news – high dependence condition ($p < .05$), and also they had significantly higher narcissism scores than all other three groups ($p < .05$). So in the main analyses, the findings were also checked by running ANCOVAs with these factors as covariates. It was found that self – esteem and narcissism were not significant covariates and did not have an effect on the results.

Correlation coefficients among variables for each group are provided in Tables 3 to 6.

Table 3 Correlation Coefficients for High Dependence – Bad News Condition

	Trans.	Likeab.	Favor	Grat.	Ult. M.	Self-E.	Narc.	Self-M.	Mach.
Transmission	1	.285*	.037	.017	-.021	-.021	-.087	-.030	-.192
Likeable	.285*	1	.375**	.237	-.274*	-.001	-.201	-.201	-.087
Favor	.037	.375**	1	.458**	-.374**	.112	-.168	.085	-.128
Gratitude	.017	.237	.458**	1	-.168	-.079	-.268*	.007	-.066
Ulterior M.	-.021	-.274*	-.374**	-.168	1	-.026	.268*	-.056	.206
Self - Esteem	-.021	-.001	.112	-.079	-.026	1	.280*	.198	-.111
Narcissism	-.087	-.201	-.168	-.268*	.268*	.280*	1	.500**	.470**
Self - Monitoring	-.030	-.201	.085	.007	-.056	.198	.500**	1	.201
Machiavellianism	-.192	-.087	-.128	-.066	.206	-.111	.470**	.201	1

Table 4 Correlation Coefficients for High Dependence – Good News Condition

	Trans.	Likeab.	Favor	Grat.	Ult. M.	Self-E.	Narc.	Self-M.	Mach.
Transmission	1	.310*	.114	.102	-.209	.09	.142	.261*	.332**
Likeable	.310*	1	.347**	.247*	-.174	-.009	.154	.380**	.203
Favor	.114	.347**	1	.187	-.144	.029	.017	.120	.127
Gratitude	.102	.247*	.187	1	-.122	-.074	.222	.141	.052
Ulterior M.	-.209	-.174	-.144	-.122	1	.054	-.043	-.135	-.027
Self - Esteem	.09	-.009	.029	-.074	.054	1	.263	.245	.106
Narcissism	.142	.154	.017	.222	-.043	.263*	1	.338**	.314*
Self - Monitoring	.261*	.380**	.120	.141	-.135	.245	.338**	1	.159
Machiavellianism	.332**	.203	.127	.052	-.027	.106	.314*	.159	1

* p < .05, ** p < .01

Table 5 Correlation Coefficients for Low Dependence – Bad News Condition

	Trans.	Likeab.	Favor	Grat.	Ult. M.	Self-E.	Narc.	Self-M.	Mach.
Transmission	1	.327**	.385**	.009	-.002	.086	.119	.129	-.135
Likeable	.327**	1	.356**	.501**	-.329**	.035	-.128	-.083	-.059
Favor	.385**	.356**	1	.212	-.041	.001	.059	.102	-.052
Gratitude	.009	.501**	.212	1	-.176	.164	-.202	-.173	-.052
Ulterior M.	-.002	-.329**	-.041	-.176	1	-.137	.161	-.175	-.118
Self - Esteem	.086	.035	-.001	.164	-.137	1	.169	.110	-.039
Narcissism	.119	-.128	.059	-.202	.161	.169	1	.486**	.332**
Self - Monitoring	.129	-.083	.102	-.173	-.175	.110	.486**	1	.210
Machiavellianism	-.135	-.059	-.052	-.052	-.118	-.039	.332**	.210	1

Table 5 Correlation Coefficients for Low Dependence – Good News Condition

	Trans.	Likeab.	Favor	Grat.	Ult. M.	Self-E.	Narc.	Self-M.	Mach.
Transmission	1	.401**	.240*	.062	-.054	-.067	.071	.058	-.092
Likeable	.401**	1	.447**	.173	-.103	-.035	-.219	.135	-.080
Favor	.240*	.447**	1	.335**	-.237*	-.031	-.057	-.032	-.024
Gratitude	.062	.173	.335**	1	-.158	-.145	.092	.151	.170
Ulterior M.	-.054	-.103	-.237*	-.158	1	.125	.058	.143	-.263*
Self - Esteem	-.067	-.035	-.031	-.145	.125	1	.195	.124	.090
Narcissism	.071	-.219	-.057	.092	.058	.195	1	.119	.338**
Self - Monitoring	.058	.135	-.032	.151	.143	.124	.119	1	.228
Machiavellianism	-.092	-.080	-.024	.170	-.263*	.090	.338**	.228	1

* p < .05, ** p < .01

5.2 Manipulation Checks

A 2 (dependence) X 2 (valence) ANOVA, with perceived authority of the assistant as dependent variable, showed a significant main effect of dependence (F (1, 271) = 675.481, p < .001). When the scenario described the assistant as having a high control on the desired outcome (i.e. getting a make- up), participants perceived the assistant as having a high authority for providing the make - up than when the scenario described the assistant as having a low control on the desired outcome (M_{high} = 6.181, SD = 1.237; M_{low} = 2.040, SD = 1.379).

A 2 (dependence) X 2 (valence) ANOVA, with the valance of the news as dependent variable, showed a strong significant main effect of valence (F (1, 271) = 2094.503, p < .001). When the scenario described the news as bad (i.e. rejection from a university) for the assistant, participants perceived the news as bad and when the scenario described the news as good (i.e. acceptance form a university) for the assistant, participants perceived the news as good (M_{bad} = 1.746, SD = .982; M_{good} = 6.708, SD = .815).

The results of two ANOVAs showed that both of the desired manipulations were successful.

5.3 Test of Hypotheses

5.3.1 Transmission Likelihood

It was suggested that, participants would be more likely to transmit good news rather than bad news. Also, participants would be more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition than the other conditions. In contrast, participants would be less likely to transmit bad news in high dependence condition than the other conditions.

The hypothesis was analyzed by means of a 2 X 2 ANOVA, with transmission likelihood as dependent variable. The results of the analysis showed a strong main effect of news valence whereas the main effect of dependence was not significant. Participants were much more likely to transmit good news if the news was good rather than bad (F (1, 271) = 535.294, p < .001, M_{good} = 5.612, SD = 1.735; M_{bad} = 1.660, SD = 1.113). The analysis also revealed a significant effect of interaction (F (1, 271) = 19.099, p < .001) as expected. Tukey – Kramer analyses revealed that, participants in

good news condition were significantly ($p < .01$) more likely to transmit the news ($M = 6.031$) if dependence was high rather than low ($M = 5.192$), whereas participants in bad news condition were significantly ($p < .01$) less likely to transmit the news ($M = 1.333$) if dependence was high rather than low ($M = 1.987$). Also, in both high and low dependence conditions good news was more likely to be transmitted than bad news ($p < .01$).

Thus, findings were in full support of hypothesis 1. But it should be noted that there was a violation of homogeneity of variance, although outliers were eliminated. However, Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) stated that if sample sizes are relatively equal (i.e. within a ratio of 4 to 1) an F_{max} ratio; ratio of largest cell variance to the smallest cell variance, up to 10 is acceptable. In the analysis, F_{max} was found to be 10 so the findings were in acceptable limits.

Finally, controlling for the impact of self – esteem and narcissism by running ANCOVAs did not reveal significant effects of covariates (F (1, 270) = .044, $p < .9$; F (1, 270) = 1.494, $p < .3$, respectively).

TABLE 7   Group Means with Transmission Likelihood as Dependent Variable

| | Dependence | | | |
| | Low | | High | |
News valence	M	n	M	n
Good	5.192_a	73	6.031_b	64
Bad	1.987_c	75	1.333_d	63
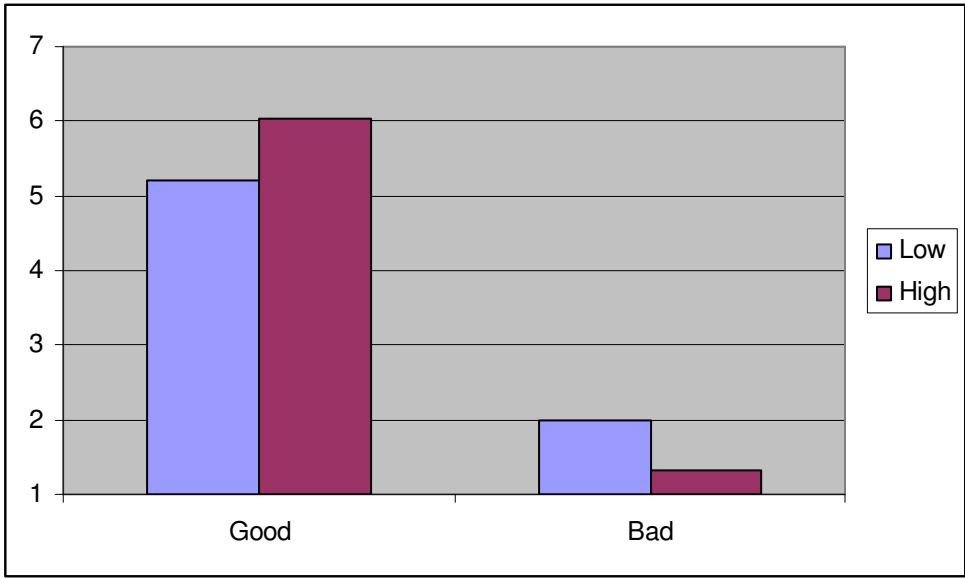
FIGURE 1 Bar Diagram of Group Means with Transmission Likelihood as D.V.

5.3.2. Expected Likeability As Dependent Variable

A 2(dependence) X 2(valence) ANOVA, with likeability as dependent variable, is conducted. Again the results of the analysis showed a strong main effect of news valence and the main effect of dependence was not significant. Participants tend to think that the communicator would be perceived as more likable if the news was good rather than bad (F (1, 271) = 313.649, p < .001, M_{good} = 5. 165, SD = .946; M_{bad} = 3.000, SD = 1.110). Also the analysis revealed a significant effect of interaction (F (1, 271) = 9.687, p < .01). Tukey – Kramer comparisons showed that, participants in good news, high dependence condition expected the communicator to be perceived as more likable (M = 5.382) by the recipient than did participants in good news, low dependence condition (M = 4.949, p <. 05). The difference in bad news condition did not reach significance however the tendency was in the opposite direction. Participants in bad news – high dependence condition expected the communicator to be perceived as less likable (M = 2.836) than did participants in bad news, low dependence condition (M = 3.164, p <.06).

Self – esteem and narcissism were not significant covariates, however the effect of narcissism was marginally significant (F (1, 270) = 3.762, p < .06). The difference in bad news condition became significant after controlling for the impact of narcissism (M_{high}= 2.822, M_{low} = 3.163, p < .05).

TABLE 8 Group Means with Likeability Expectation as Dependent Variable

| | Dependence | | | |
| | Low | | High | |
News valence	M	n	M	n
Good	4.949_a	73	5.382_b	64
Bad	3.164_c	75	2.836_c	63
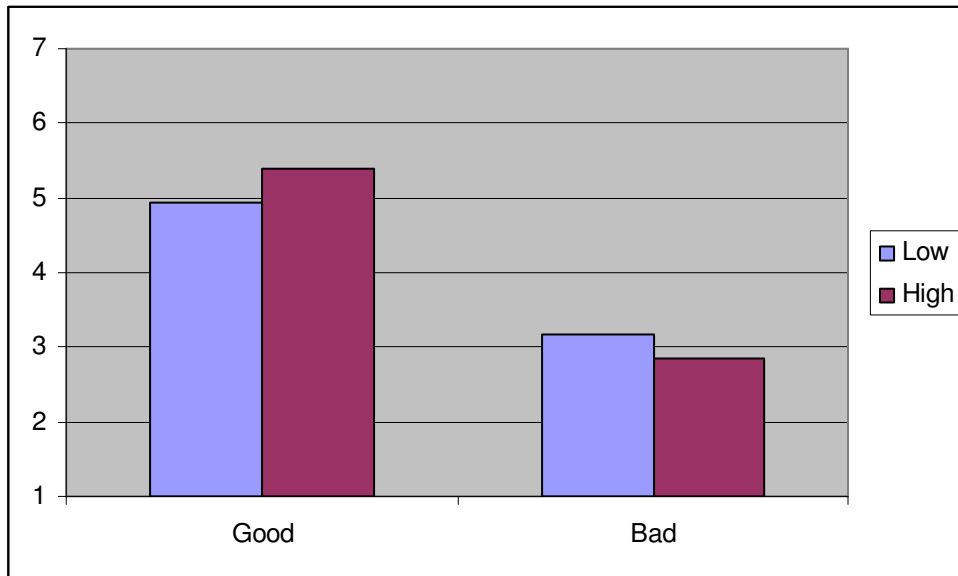
Figure 2 Bar Diagram of Group Means with Likeability Expectation as D.V.

5.3.3 Expectations of Gratitude as Dependent Variable

A 2(dependence) X 2(valence) ANOVA, with gratitude as dependent variable is conducted initially. The main effects of both independent variables; news valence and dependence, were significant. Participants tend to think that the recipient would feel more grateful to the communicator if the news was good rather than bad ($\underline{F}$ (1, 271) = 118.097, $\underline{p}$ < .001, $\underline{M}_{good}$ = 3. 621, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.750; $\underline{M}_{bad}$ = 1.802, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.059). Also they expected the recipient to feel more grateful to the communicator in high dependence condition than they did in low dependence condition ($\underline{F}$ (1, 271) = 9.269, $\underline{p}$ < .01, $\underline{M}_{high}$ = 2. 966, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.857; $\underline{M}_{low}$ = 2.457, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.503). Furthermore, the interaction effect was also significant ($\underline{F}$ (1, 271) = 17.564, $\underline{p}$ < .001). Tukey - Kramer comparisons revealed that in good news – high dependence condition, participants expected the recipient to feel significantly ($\underline{p}$ < .01) more grateful ($\underline{M}$ = 4.227) to the communicator than did the participants in good news low dependence condition ($\underline{M}$ = 3.016). However, in bad news condition, there was no significant difference between high dependence ($\underline{M}$ = 1.706) and low dependence conditions ($\underline{M}$ = 1.898).

Self – esteem and narcissism did not have any significant effects ($\underline{F}$ (1, 270) = .478, $\underline{p}$ < .5; $\underline{F}$ (1, 270) = .012, $\underline{p}$ < 1, respectively).

Table 9 Group Means with Expected Gratitude as Dependent Variable

| | Dependence | | | |
| | Low | | High | |
News valence	M	n	M	n
Good	3.016_a	73	4.227_b	64
Bad	1.898_c	75	1.706_c	63
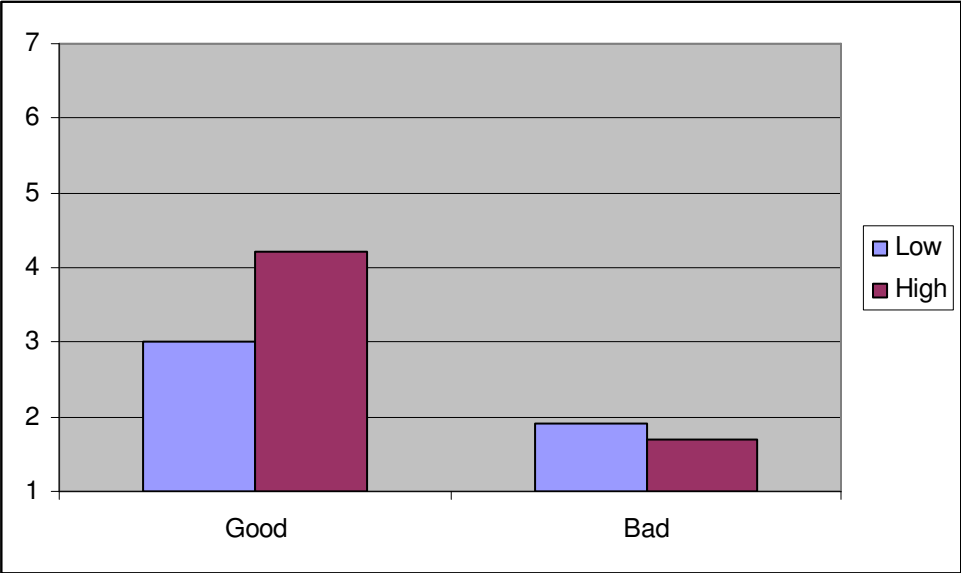
Figure 3 Bar Diagram of Group Means with Expected Gratitude as D.V.

5.3.4 Perceived Favor Doing As Dependent Variable

A 2(dependence) X 2(valence) ANOVA, with perceived favor doing as dependent variable is performed. The only significant effect was the main effect of news valence ($\underline{F}$ (1, 271) = 105.795, $\underline{p}$ < .001). Participants were more likely to think that communicator would have done a favor for the recipient by transmitting good news ($\underline{M}_{good}$ = 4.831, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.948) rather than bad news ($\underline{M}_{bad}$ = 2.571, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.673). Neither the main effect of dependence nor the interaction effect reached significance.

Also, self – esteem and narcissism did not have any significant effects ($\underline{F}$ (1, 270) = .122, $\underline{p}$ < .8; $\underline{F}$ (1, 270) = .289, $\underline{p}$ < .6, respectively).

Table 10 Group Means with Perceived Favor Doing as Dependent Variable

News valence	Low		High	
	M	n	M	n
Good	4.630_a	73	5.031_a	64
Bad	2.634_b	75	2.508_b	63

Note: The header "Dependence" spans the Low and High columns.
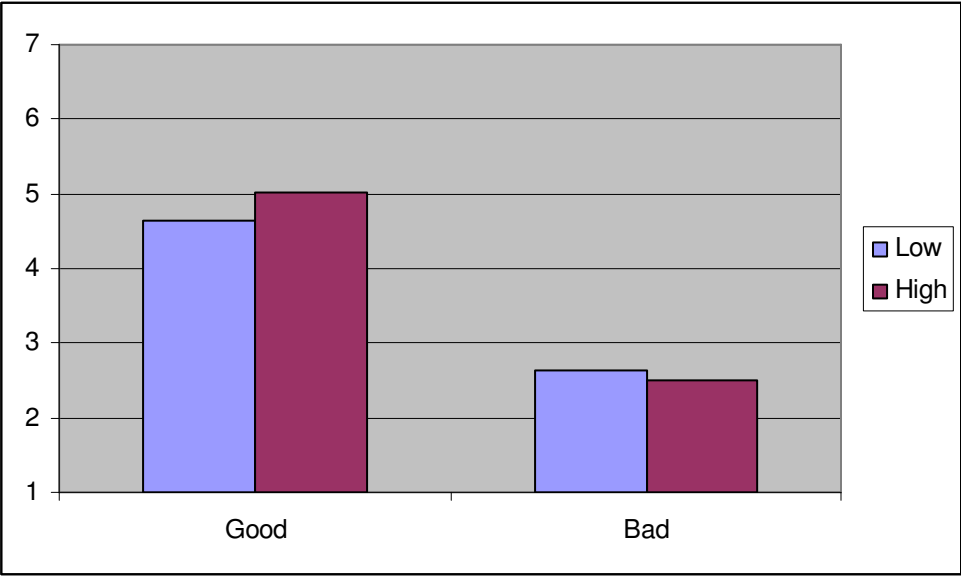
Figure 4 Bar Diagram of Group Means with Perceived Favor Doing as D.V.

5.3.5 Ulterior Motives as Dependent Variable

A 2 X 2 ANOVA, with ulterior motives (i.e. student's likelihood of getting a make – up) as dependent variable, showed a main effect of news valence whereas the main effect of dependence did not reach significance. Participants thought that, the student is significantly more likely to get a make – up if he transmits good news rather than bad news (F (1, 271) = 113.679, p < .001, M_{good} = 4.820, SD = 1.439; M_{bad} = 3.046, SD = 1.403). The interaction effect was also significant (F (1, 271) = 17.647, p < .001). Participants reported that if the student transmits bad news, he is significantly (p <.01) less likely to get a make – up in high dependence condition (M = 5.302) than in low dependence condition (M = 4.339). Although Tukey – Kramer comparisons in good news condition did not reach significance, the tendency was in the opposite direction (p < .06). Participants thought that if the student transmits good news, he is more likely to get a make – up in high dependence condition (M = 2.828) than in low dependence condition (M = 3.264).

Self – esteem and narcissism did not have any significant effects (F (1, 270) = .02, p < .9; F (1, 270) = 3.142, p < .08, respectively).

Table 11 Group Means with Ulterior Motive as Dependent Variable

	Dependence			
	Low		High	
News valence	M	n	M	n
Good	3.264_a	73	2.828_a	64
Bad	4.339_b	75	5.302_c	63

Figure 5 Bar Diagram of Group Means with Ulterior Motive as D.V.

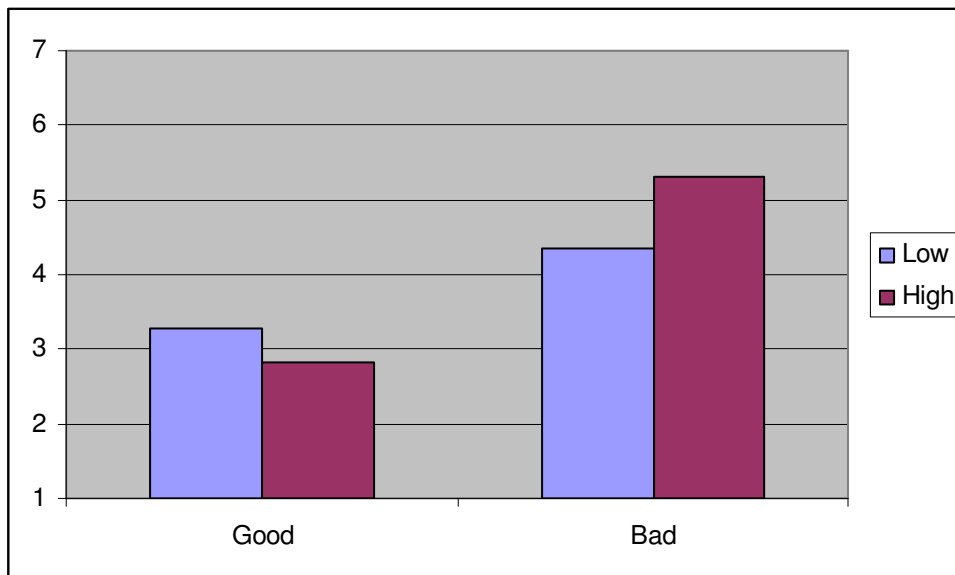### 5.3.6 Mediation Analysis

All of the four variables, likeability, expected feelings of gratitude, favor doing and ulterior motive were found to be significantly related with at least one of the independent variables. Since these four variables are hypothesized as possible underlying factors for transmission likelihood, a mediation analysis is conducted to determine significant mediators.

To test mediation, Baron and Kenny's (1986) guidelines for mediational analysis are followed. The results of the previously performed ANOVAs with four different potential mediators; appearing likeable, expectations of gratitude, perceptions of favor doing and ulterior motive, as dependent variables are summarized in Table 12.

Next, four ANCOVAs are performed with potential mediators as covariates and transmission likelihood as dependent variable to observe reductions in transmission likelihood when the effects of each mediator is controlled for. The results of these analyses are given in Table 13.

Two factors; perceived likeability and perceptions of favor doing turned out to be significant covariates. Since perceived likeability was the only variable which was affected by two of the experimental effects (i.e. valence and interaction), it was the main mediating variable. There was a considerable reduction in both effects; in the main effect of valence and the interaction effect, when the impact of likeability is controlled for. However none of these effects became non-significant. To test whether these reductions in effect were significant, Sobel test was applied (see Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998). Independent variables were contrast coded and then used in regression analyses to obtain regression coefficients. The results of the Sobel test revealed that, there were significant reductions in the effect of news valence ($\underline{Z}$ = 5.938, $\underline{p}$ < .001) and in interaction effect ($\underline{Z}$ = 2.729, $\underline{p}$ < .001). Also, perceptions of favor doing only mediated the main effect of news valence ($\underline{Z}$ = 3.745, $\underline{p}$ < .001).

Thus, likeability turned out to be the only mediator from four potential mediators. So hypothesis 2 is partially confirmed.

Table 12 ANOVAs with potential mediators as DVs

	News Valence (V)		Dependence (D)		Interaction (V X D)	
	F(1, 271)	η²	F(1, 271)	η²	F(1, 271)	η²
Expected Likeability	313.649***	.536	.183	.001	9.687**	.035
Expectations of Gratitude	118.097***	.304	9.269**	.033	17.564**	.061
Perceived Favor Doing	105.795***	.281	.391	.001	1.440	.005
Ulterior Motive	113.679***	.296	2.507	.009	17.647***	.061

Table 13 - ANCOVAs with potential mediators as CVs

	Covariate		News Valence (V)		Dependence (D)		Interaction (V X D)	
	F(1, 271)	η²	F(1, 271)	η²	F(1, 271)	η²	F(1, 271)	η²
Main ANOVA			532.294***	.664	.297	.001	19.099***	.066
Expected Likeability	31.787***	.105	156.077***	.366	.184	.001	12.139***	.043
Expectations of Gratitude	.802	.003	353.752***	.567	.139	.001	16.102***	.056
Perceived Favor Doing	14.261***	.05	327.416***	.548	.172	.001	17.551***	.061
Ulterior Motive	1.193	.004	354.656***	.568	.419	.002	15.729***	.055

* p < .05, ** p<.01, *** p <.001

5.3.7 Individual Differences

Four personality factors, self – esteem, self – monitoring, narcissism and Machiavellianism were assessed in this study. Following the procedures described by Aiken and West (1991), moderated regression analyses were conducted for each of the personality factors to test moderation effects. The variables were centered and the interaction effect was represented by multiplying them. The regression lines were created for one standard deviation above and below the mean. The simple slope coefficients and F^2 values are summarized in Tables 14 and 15. The only significant moderator was Machiavellianism. In good news condition there was a significant interaction effect of Machiavellianism and dependence. As the dependence level increased, high Machs showed a greater tendency to transmit good news than did low Machs ($\underline{F}^2$ (1,133) = .030, $\underline{p}$ < .05). Also, in high dependence condition, there was a significant interaction effect of Machiavellianism and news valence. In high dependence condition, as the news changed from negative to positive, high Machs displayed a greater tendency to transmit the news than did low Machs ($\underline{F}^2$ (1,123) = .085, $\underline{p}$ < .01). Regression lines are provided in Figures 6 – 7.

Since the other personality factors did not have significant effects, only hypothesis 5 was confirmed. In high dependence condition, high Machs were more likely to transmit good news than low Machs.

Table 14 Simple Slope Coefficients With Dependence As IV and Personality Factors As Moderators

	Good News			Bad News		
	Low	High	F^2	Low	High	F^2
Self - Esteem	5.619	5.569	0.005	1.601	1.703	0.004
Self - Monitoring	5.395	5.807	0.002	1.579	1.728	0.008
Narcissism	5.450	5.766	0.000	1.599	1.710	0.010
Machiavellianism	5.462	5.716	**0.030***	1.811	1.509	0.000

Table 15 Simple Slope Coefficients With News Valence As IV and Personality Factors As Moderators

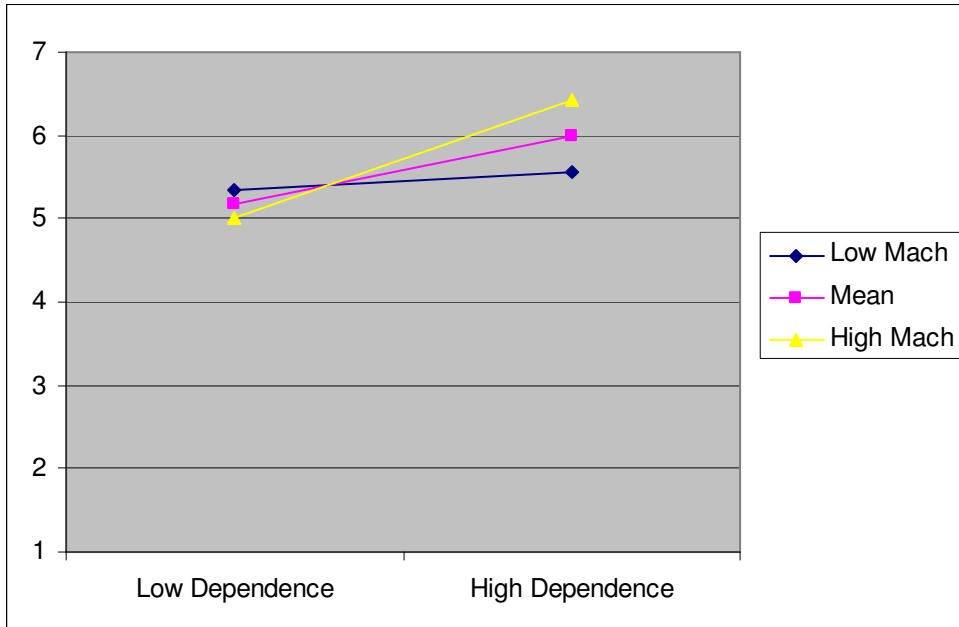| Valence	High Dependence			Low Dependence		
	Low	High	F^2	Low	High	F^2
Self - Esteem	3.628	3.716	0.004	3.593	3.561	0.005
Self - Monitoring	3.541	3.809	0.029	3.440	3.732	0.000
Narcissism	3.607	3.711	0.014	3.436	3.741	0.000
Machiavellianism	3.551	3.830	**0.085****	3.774	3.404	0.000

$* p < .05, ** p < .01$

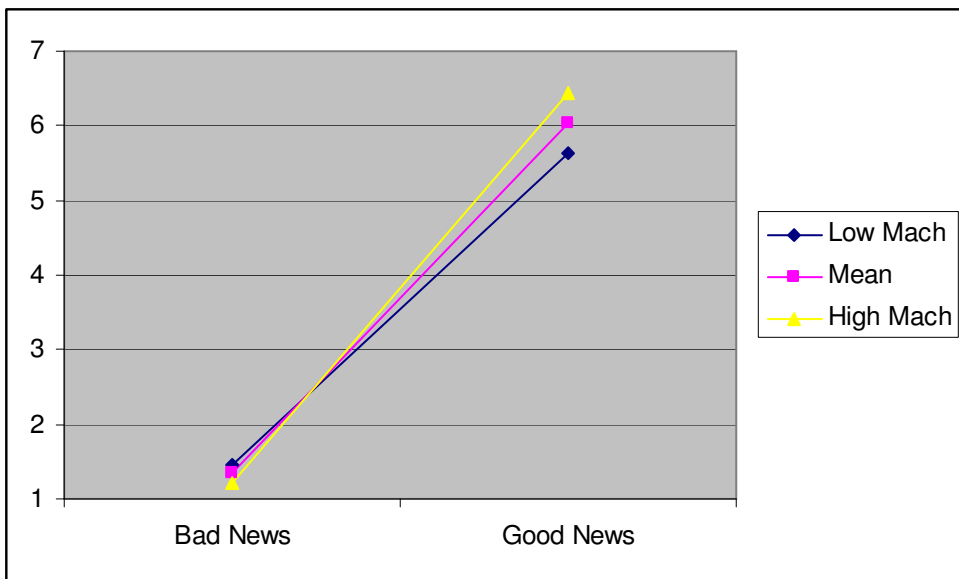Figure 6 Regression Lines for Machiavellianism in Good News Condition

Figure 7 Regression Lines for Machiavellianism in High Dependence Condition

* In both figures the dependent variable is Transmission Likelihood.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1 Evaluation of the Analyses

In general, the results of the study provided support for the main hypothesis that people strategically transmit good news to appear likeable.

First, the results were in congruence with previous studies about MUM effect. When communicating bad news, people tend to keep mum and display a reluctance to transmit bad news (Tesser & Rosen, 1975). Similar results were obtained in the present study. Participants were less likely to transmit bad news rather than good news. These findings provide more support for the robustness of the MUM effect.

Second, outcome dependence was found to be a significant moderator of the MUM effect and the willingness to transmit good news. When the news was good participants were more likely to transmit the news in high dependence condition than they were in low dependence condition. In contrast, when the news was bad participants were less likely to transmit the news in high dependence condition than they were in low dependence condition. Since outcome dependency was manipulated to motivate participants for impression management, this interaction effect clearly supports our hypothesis that people tend to use news transmission as an impression management tactic under certain conditions. That is when they are dependent on a target that controls a desirable outcome they are more willing to transmit good news and are more reluctant to transmit bad news to manage their impressions. This idea assumes that individuals are trying to appear likable by communicating good news and by appearing likable they are trying to increase their chances of obtaining the desired outcome. These assumptions were tested by means of a mediation analysis.

Initially, all potential mediators were analyzed as dependent variables. Regarding likeability as dependent variable it is found that; when the news was good,

participants thought that the communicator will be perceived as more likable than they did when the news was bad. This finding was in line with previous studies (see Tesser & Rosen, 1975). It suggests that people may be managing their impressions by transmitting good news since they are expecting to be perceived as more likeable. Furthermore, pairwise comparisons revealed that the effect of dependence was significant only in good news condition. To make it clear, in good news condition, high dependence participants expected the recipient to perceive the communicator as more likeable than did low dependence participants. It is interesting that a change in dependence level lead to a change in expected likeability ratings in return of transmitting exactly the same news. In other words, participants' perceptions about their images in the eyes of the recipient become distorted when they are dependent on the recipient. By communicating good news, participants thought that they will appear more likeable when they are dependent on the recipient rather than when they are not dependent. Thus it can be suggested that, they are also more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition because of this bias in their likeability perceptions. To test the idea, a mediation analysis was conducted. Indeed, there was a significant drop in the effects of news valence and interaction when the impact of likeability is controlled for. So, it is concluded that self – presentational motives (desire to appear likeable) mediates the relationship between the experimental factors and transmission likelihood. Since there was no significant difference between the likeability ratings of high dependence and low dependence groups in bad news condition, it can be suggested that willingness to transmit good news is more likely to be used as an impression management tactic rather than reluctance to transmit bad news.

Another factor that was considered as a possible mediator was expectations of gratitude. It measured whether participants thought that the recipient would feel indebted to the communicator if he were to transmit the news. Results of the ANOVA with expectations of gratitude as dependent variable showed that, the means for each group, except good news high dependence condition, were significantly below the midpoint in the scale (i.e. participants did not agree that the recipient would feel grateful). Participants expected that the recipient would feel grateful to the

communicator only in good news – high dependence condition. Similar to the results of likeability, dependence level again affected their gratitude expectations only in good news condition. Although the mean scores of the groups were not fully supportive, the general tendency of the participants was in line with the main hypothesis. However, mediation analysis for expectations of gratitude showed that it was not a mediator of the investigated relationship.

The third potential mediator was perceptions of favor doing. When it was analyzed as dependent variable, the only significant effect obtained was the main effect of news valence. Participants thought that the communicator would have done something good for the recipient only when they transmit good news. It was also found that perceptions of favor doing mediated the impact of news valence on transmission likelihood. That is, people tend to think that they would have done a favor for the recipient by transmitting good news and thus they are more likely to transmit it. Since favor doing is defined as one way of ingratiation (Jones, 1990), one can suggest that participants were trying to ingratiate themselves by transmitting good news. Thus, the results can be said to be in support of the self – presentation hypothesis. However, dependence had no effect on perceptions of favor doing and as a result perceptions of favor doing did not mediate the interaction effect of dependence and valence on transmission likelihood.

The final factor was ulterior motive that is whether participants expect to achieve the desired outcome by news transmission. Participants thought that; the chances of obtaining the desired outcome (i.e. receiving a make – up examination) would increase if they transmit good news, whereas it would decrease if they transmit bad news. In bad news – low dependence condition mean scores did not differ significantly from the mid point of the scale (i.e. no change in chances of receiving a make – up examination) which is trivial since the recipient (the assistant) has low control over the desired outcome. However, in high dependence condition participants reported that the student would be significantly less likely to receive a make – up examination if he were to transmit bad news. Moreover, participants in good news condition reported that the student would be more likely to receive a make – up

examination regardless of dependence condition. It is interesting that, unlike bad news condition, dependence level had no effect on good news condition. Even in low dependence condition, where the recipient has low control over the desired outcome, participants still tend to think that the communicator would be more likely to get the desired outcome if he were to transmit good news. Again the participants were biased in their expectations for transmitting good news. These results imply that people are worried about their ulterior motives and tend to think that the valence of the communicated news will affect their images in the eyes of others and thus others' decisions about themselves. So, when they are highly dependent on the recipient these considerations become more significant. These findings support the self – presentational approach adding more empirical evidence to the main idea of the study. However, controlling for the effects of ulterior motives in the main analysis did not lead to a significant change in transmission likelihood.

In sum, likeability is found to be the partial mediator of the relationship between independent variables (dependence & news valence) and transmission likelihood, adding more support for the main hypothesis. When the impact of likeability is controlled for there was a significant reduction in the main effect of news valence and the interaction effect. Although the other three potential mediators; expectations of gratitude, perceptions of favor doing and ulterior motive considerations did not mediate the relationship, all of them were affected by both news valence and dependence, except perceptions of favor doing which was affected by news valence only. The analyses of these variables as dependent variables also revealed congruent results with self – presentational concerns.

Finally, four personality factors; self – esteem, self – monitoring, narcissism, and Machiavellianism were analyzed as moderators by means of moderated regression analyses. Only Machiavellianism had a significant effect and confirmed the hypothesis that high Machs would be more likely to transmit good news in high dependence condition than low Machs.

6.2 General Discussion

These findings, in general, provide strong support for the idea that people

strategically use good news transmission to manage their impressions. Also, in this study, transmission of good news was proposed as an ingratiation tactic. The findings were in line with this idea. First, it is found that likeability is a significant mediator and communicators of good news expect to appear more likable to the recipient. Secondly, rendering favors is a form of ingratiation and the participants tend to think that they did a favor for the recipient by transmitting good news. Finally, Jones (1964) stated that ingratiation bypasses the channels of social exchange and exploits it. In this study participants also showed a similar tendency by expecting the recipient; to feel more grateful, to think that he received a favor, to evaluate the communicator more positively when the news was good rather than bad.

One should note that words like "strategic" or "tactic" do not imply a conscious process. In fact most impression management tactics are unconscious and habitual processes (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). For instance, Jones (1990) suggested that ingratiation is illicit and strategic but it remains cognitively inaccessible because the actor does not want to see himself as ingratiating and thus some cognitive self – deception is involved. In this study, since transmission of good news is conceptualized as an ingratiation tactic, it can be suggested that it is more likely to be a subconscious process, undertaken without deliberate planning however there is no empirical evidence for this idea.

The results of the study provide more direct support to the impression management aspect of news transmission than the previous studies in the literature. As stated before, initial findings, by Tesser and his colleagues on fear of negative evaluation hypothesis, were partially supportive with some ambiguity. In the experiments of Manis et.al (1974), transmission of attitude – relevant information to a pro or con audience is hypothesized as opinion conformity tactic which is an ingratiation tactic. Although they found some supportive findings (e.g. increased likeability), unfortunately they failed to show that communicators use it strategically. Bond and Anderson (1987) found that the reluctance to transmit bad news is a public display and may be driven by self – presentational concerns. Their findings were clearer than the previous ones since the study mainly examined the self – presentation

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aspect. But, these studies related to the impression management aspect of the MUM effect focused on the reluctance to transmit bad news, generally ignoring its counterpart; the willingness to transmit good news. However, these two processes may differ in psychological aspects. For instance, in this study, pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences in likeability and expectations of gratitude between high and low dependence participants in only good news condition. The differences in bad news condition did not reach significance. Furthermore, for ulterior motives, dependence level had a significant effect in bad news condition but not in good news condition. Similarly, in the study of Weenig et.al (2001) two factors (definitiveness of consequences of the news and the relationship between communicator and recipient) had significant effects on the likelihood of bad news transmission but not on the likelihood of good news transmission.

Thus it can be suggested that the reluctance to transmit bad news and the willingness to transmit good news are different psychological processes. In fact, keeping MUM is a passive process, it does not require any action and it is a protective strategy. One can not expect to appear more likeable by keeping MUM, but only to protect his image. Whereas transmission of good news is an acquisitive strategy, individual is trying to enhance his image actively.

Regarding the previous studies on acquisitive and protective self – presentation (Arkin, 1981, Baumeister et.al, 1989) it was expected that this difference in good news and bad news transmission would be more pronounced when self – esteem was introduced as a moderator. However no significant results were found. Narcissism was also measured considering its relation with self – esteem, but it also did not affect the relationship.

Contrary to expectations, self – monitoring did not have any effect in the study. One reason may be the self – monitoring scale in itself. As stated before, self – monitoring is problematic in some aspects. In a recent review of the scale, Gangestad and Snyder (2000) suggested that self – monitoring is not related with all kinds of impression management strategies and precise forms of impression management associated with self – monitoring are still to be determined. For instance, they found

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that self –monitoring is not closely associated with the phenomena in the category of attention and responsivity to others. In other words, in contradiction with its original conceptualization, the scale was found to be not related with impression management tactics that involve close attention and responsiveness to others. They suggested that self – monitoring may be related to status oriented impression management strategies. High self – monitors try to convey images that emphasize social status whereas low self – monitors try to convey no false images. Thus, in hindsight, it can be suggested that, transmission of good news involves responsiveness to others rather than cultivation of a social image and it is not associated with self – monitoring. Another explanation may be that self – monitoring is related with impression construction (choosing the appropriate image) not with impression motivation and thus, there was no difference in transmission likelihood between high and low self – monitors. Indeed, Nezlek and Leary (2002) found no significant relationship between impression construction appropriateness (a factor consisting of self – monitoring and social anxiety) and desire to appear likeable, or how much participants thought of others' evaluations.

On the other hand, Machiavellianism was found to be associated with ingratiation in some studies, and similar effects were found in this study. It can be concluded that high Machs were more manipulative and when they were highly dependent on the recipient, they were more likely to transmit good news to ingratiate themselves. As expected Machiavellianism did not have an effect on reluctance to transmit bad news.   This finding also supports the suggestion that the reluctance to transmit bad news is a passive behavior and it differs from willingness to transmit good news. Since high Machs are more likely to engage in risky, deceptive forms of impression management that more immediately benefit themselves (Ickes et.al., 1986, Bolino & Turnley, 2003), no effect of Machiavellianism was observed in reluctance to transmit bad news which can be considered as a safer strategy oriented towards maintaining power rather than augmenting power in the relationship.

6.3 Limitations and Future Directions

It is important to note that most behaviors are multi-causal and the current study focused on impression management aspect of good news transmission. Although self –

presentational concerns are shown to be a cause, news valence in itself still accounted for an important part of variance in transmission likelihood. Thus, there are still other causal factors that lead to good news transmission. Some of the explanations suggested by Tesser and Rosen (1975) still remain plausible. But those hypotheses were generated mainly for the MUM effect, in other words, the reluctance to transmit bad news. For instance, guilt hypothesis suggests that participants feel guilty since they do not share the same fate with the recipient and as a result they prefer not to transmit bad news. However, this does not provide a suitable explanation for the willingness to transmit good news. So, future studies should also investigate other explanations of willingness to transmit good news.

In this study, it was found that being dependent prompts people to transmit good news to ingratiate. However, there may also be other factors that make people more likely to use news transmission as an ingratiation tactic. For instance, one factor may be the transparency of the tactic. A tactic becomes transparent when it becomes obvious to the target that the actor is ingratiating. As the ingratiator becomes more dependent on the target, the tactic is more likely to become transparent and, when ingratiation becomes transparent it is more likely to backfire (Gordon, 1996). Transmission of good news is an indirect tactic and it is probably less likely to become transparent than direct tactics of impression management. Thus, ingratiators may be more likely to use good news transmission as a tactic when transparency becomes a risk factor, in other words, when there are highly aversive consequences if their strategy is noticed by the target. Another factor may be the role of the recipient in the consequences of the news, that is, to what extent the recipient is responsible from the consequences of the news. To illustrate, winning a lottery or getting a very high score on a hard test are both good news for the recipient. However, winning a lottery does not involve personal control and can result in a "lucky" attribution at best, whereas getting a very high score on a hard test implies internal, self – enhancing attributions. In the former, the recipient does not have a contribution to the consequences of the news, whereas in the latter the recipient is the main contributor. So, individuals may be more likely to use good news that implies other – enhancing attributions, to ingratiate. Such

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qualitative aspects of the communicated news may also be an important factor in its utilization as an impression management tactic. In conclusion, more studies are needed to determine the factors that prompt people to use transmission of good news as an impression management tactic.

In the literature there are considerable numbers of studies showing the effects of arbitrary associations on psychological judgments (see Cialdini & Nicholas 1989). Such effects are generally explained by Heider's (1958) balance theory, in brief; to keep cognitive harmony people tend to judge two associated things similarly. In that sense there is also ample evidence that people try to associate themselves with popular, successful others to manage their impressions (Cialdini, 1989). This study suggests that people try to associate themselves also with good news and disassociate themselves from bad news to manage impressions. Thus, good news transmission may be an association tactic. However the design of the study does not lead to conclusions on this hypothesis. On the other hand, it may also be that participants perceive good news transmission as the given benefit of an exchange relationship, as a favor rather than an association tactic. In exchange relationships, people expect to receive a benefit in return of a given benefit whereas in communal relationships people have a concern for the welfare of other and benefits are not part of an exchange (Clark & Mills, 1979). Furthermore, these benefits also increase attraction in exchange relationships. Some findings of this study partially support this idea; participants thought that the communicator would have done the recipient a favor by transmitting good news and they also expected a favor in return; expected that the communicator is more likely to achieve the desired outcome. Future studies may also investigate this cognitive aspect, whether good news transmission is an association tactic or it is perceived as a benefit.

The current study was a scenario study and observed likeability effects were perceptions of the participants that the recipient will like them in return of good news. However, this study does not test whether the recipient actually evaluates the communicator more positively in return of good news. That is, whether transmission of good news is an effective tactic is not determined in the current study. In fact, in the present study, an experiment was conducted to observe whether communicator of good

news was really perceived as more likeable by the recipient. In the cover story, participants were told that the experiment was related to cyber psychology and they would make a small chat session over the internet with some other students they do not know. They were also told that 3 participants, who would be determined by lottery, would win 20$ each. Before the experiment, the researcher told that two roles will be assigned as active and passive (allegedly the investigated factor in the experiment) in conversations. However, all participants were asked to play a passive role during the chat session by not directing and initiating the conversation and generally by replying the questions from their partners who were assigned to the active role. In fact their partners were confederates and active/passive manipulation was conducted to make following a previously written script for all participants possible and to control for differences in conversation. During the experiment assigned participant numbers appeared on the screen as the participants' names. After 4-5 mins of conversation confederates in the experimental group told participants that they had overheard about the lottery at that moment and one of the winning numbers is the participants' number. That was the only difference between the experimental and the control group scripts which formed the experimental manipulation (good news transmission). Then the experimenter told the participants that the time was up and the participants filled a questionnaire to evaluate their partners. However, participants were psychology students and they were suspicious. Cover stories worked well but most of them did not believe in the good news; that they had won the lottery. Two attempts with psychology students failed and students from other departments were not available at the time so the experiment was postponed to a future time.

The scenario in the present study included third persons, it was not told from a first person perspective. It may be that participants did not reflect their actual selves since they made decisions about third persons. In other words, it could be that participants answered the questions considering what happens in general rather than how they would act or feel. This may also be the reason for unconfirmed hypotheses regarding personality factors. Thus a replication of the study with a first person scenario may give better results. But it should also be considered that, a first person

scenario may also result in social desirability effects, attenuating the findings, since ingratiation is not a socially desirable action and participants may not want to appear as ingratiators.

Finally, the sample of the present study was composed of Turkish university students, which provided a confirmation of the MUM effect in a non – individualistic culture. However, university students are probably more individualistic than the rest of the population so the hypotheses should also be tested by different samples of the population to increase external validity of the findings. Moreover, cross – cultural studies may provide a broader test of the hypotheses. Whether people transmit good news to ingratiate should be tested also in different cultures since cultural norms regarding the phenomena may differ. It may be a more effective tactic in cultures that emphasize interdependent selves.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

The current study makes some important contributions to the literature. First, it is shown that people tend to use good news transmission as an impression management tactic, more specifically, as an ingratiation tactic. Also, additional evidence is provided for fear of negative evaluation hypothesis as one cause of the MUM effect.

Second, it is suggested that the willingness to transmit good news and the reluctance to transmit bad news are different psychological processes, they may have different causes and effects. Some findings of the present study provided support for the idea. In future studies, the willingness to transmit good news should be differentiated from the MUM effect.

Third, Machiavellianism was found to be associated with strategic good news transmission. However, contrary to expectations, self – esteem, narcissism, and self – monitoring had no significant effects. So, more research is needed on personality factors and their relation with indirect forms of impression management.

Finally, the MUM effect was confirmed in a non – individualistic culture, providing some empirical support for the universality of the phenomena.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Scenarios

Cinsiyetiniz: K___   E___   Yaş:___   Bölüm:_____

Lütfen aşağıdaki yazıyı dikkatli bir şekilde okuyup, olayı gözünüzde canlandırmaya çalışınız ve devamındaki soruları cevaplayınız.

Okan ODTÜ'de bir öğrencidir ve okulu bitirmek üzeredir. Çeşitli yerlere iş başvurusunda bulunmuş ve İstanbul'da girmeyi çok istediği bir şirket Okan'ı mülakata çağırmıştır. Fakat mülakat, aldığı seçmeli dersin finaliyle aynı güne denk gelmiş ve şirket mülakat tarihinin değişmesinin mümkün olmadığını Okan'a bildirmiştir. Bunun üzerine Okan, make-up almak için dersin hocası olan Dr. Aksoy'la görüşmeye gitmiştir. *Dr. Aksoy da, make-up konusunda birşey diyemeyeceğini, sınavları hazırlayanın asistanı Erdal olduğunu ve bu konuda tüm yetkiyi asistanına verdiğini söylemiştir.*

Okan*, make – up alıp alamayacağını* belirlemek üzere asistanların odasına gider. Erdal odada yoktur ve odadaki diğer iki asistan, Erdal'ın biraz sonra gelebileceğini, isterse beklemesini söylerler. Okan odada beklerken, asistanların konuşmalarına şahit olur. Erdal'a bir mektup gelmiştir ve yurtdışında doktora için başvurduğu üniversiteden *kabul* aldığını belirtmektedir. Bir süre sonra odaya giren bir diğer asistan, Erdal'ın hasta olduğunu ve bugün gelemeyeceğini söyler. Günlerden Cuma olduğu için, Okan sonraki hafta Erdal'a uğramaya karar verir.

Okan, cumartesi akşamı sinemaya gider ve film arasında Erdal'la karşılaşır. Birbirlerini simaen tanıyor olsalar da, Okan selam verir ve konuşmaya başlarlar. Konu bir süre sonra ileriye yönelik planlarına gelir. Okan iş başvuruları yaptığını ve bir işe girmek istediğini söyler, fakat sinemada make – up hakkında konuşmanın pek uygun olmayacağını düşünüp, bu konudan bahsememeye karar verir. Erdal ise yurtdışına gitmeyi çok istediğini fakat başvurduğu üniversiteden hala cevap beklediğini söyler. Okan, Erdal'ın *kabul* aldığından haberdar olmadığını fark etmiştir, ve birazdan film başlayacaktır.

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Okan, *make – up gününü* belirlemek üzere asistanların odasına gider. Erdal odada yoktur ve odadaki diğer iki asistan, Erdal'ın biraz sonra gelebileceğini, isterse beklemesini söylerler. Okan odada beklerken, asistanların konuşmalarına şahit olur. Erdal'a yeni bir mektup gelmiştir ve yurtdışında doktora için başvurduğu üniversiteden *kabul* aldığını belirtmektedir. Bir süre sonra odaya giren bir diğer asistan, Erdal'ın hasta olduğunu ve bugün gelemeyeceğini söyler. Günlerden Cuma olduğu için, Okan sonraki hafta Erdal'a uğramaya karar verir.

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APPENDIX B

Scenario Questionnaire

Her madde 1 den 7 ye kadar derecelendirilmiştir. Size uygun olanını yuvarlak içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

1 – Okan'ın makeup almasında Erdal'ın yetkisi nedir?

Erdal'ın bir yetkisi yok 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 tamamen Erdal'ın yetkisinde

2 – Erdal'ın red(kabul) alması, Erdal için

çok kötü bir haber   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 çok güzel bir haber

3 – Siz Okan'ın yerinde olsaydınız, Erdal'ın red (kabul) aldığını

Kesinlikle söylemezdim 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle söylerdim

4 – **Okan red (kabul) haberini iletirse,**

a) Erdal, Okan'ın düşünceli biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

b) Erdal, Okan'ın hoş biri olduğunu düşünür.

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

c) Erdal, Okan'ın kaba biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

d) Erdal, Okan'ın sempatik biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5 6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

e) Erdal, Okan'ın ukalâ biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

f) Erdal, Okan'ın canayakın biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

g) Erdal, Okan'ın itici biri olduğunu düşünür

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

h) Okan, Erdal'a bir iyilik yapmış olur

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

i) Okan'ın make-up alma ihtimali

kesinlikle artar   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle azalır

j) Erdal kendini Okan'a borçlu hisseder

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

k) Erdal, Okan'a minnettarlık duyar

kesinlikle katılmıyorum 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   kesinlikle katılıyorum

Rosenberg Self – Esteem Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri dikkatle okuyun ve her maddenin altındaki 4 cevap şıkkından, size en uygun olanını daire içine alarak işaretleyin.

1 - Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

2 - Bazı olumlu özelliklerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

3 - Genelde, kendimi başarısız biri olarak görme eğilimindeyim.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

4 - Ben de diğer insanların bir çoğunun yapabildiği kadar, birşeyler yapabilirim.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

5 - Kendimde gurur duyacak fazla birşey bulamıyorum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

6 - Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içindeyim.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

7 - Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

8 - Kendime karşı daha fazla saygı duyabilmeyi isterdim.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

9 - Bazen kesinlikle bir işe yaramadığımı düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

10 - Bazen hiç de yeterli bir insan olmadığımı düşünüyorum.
a) Çok doğru   b) Doğru   c) Yanlış   d)Çok yanlış

Self – Monitoring Scale

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, sizin farklı durumlara verdiğiniz kişisel tepkilerinizle ilgili olarak sunulan maddelerdir. Hiçbir ifade bir diğeri ile tam tamına aynı değildir. Bu nedenle cevaplamadan önce maddelerin herbirini lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz. Size uyan, ya da sizin için genelde doğru olan maddelerin karşında bulunan DOĞRU (D) seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. Size uymayan yada size göre genelde yanlış olan maddelerin karşısına ise YANLIŞ (Y) seçeneğini yuvarlak içine alarak veya X koyarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen tüm maddeleri yanıtlayınız.

1 – Başkalarının davranışlarını kolaylıkla taklit edebilirim
     D ( )   Y ( )

2 – Sosyal toplantılarda başkalarının hoşlanacakları şeyleri söylemeye veya yapmaya çalışmam.
     D ( )   Y ( )

3 – Başkalarını eğlendirmek veya etkilemek için eğlendirici birşeyler yapabileceğimi sanıyorum.
     D ( )   Y ( )

4 – Sosyal durumlarda nasıl davranacağımı bilemediğim zaman, ipucu bulmak için başkalarının davranışlarına bakarım
     D ( )   Y ( )

5 – İyi bir aktor/artist olabilirim.
     D ( )   Y ( )

6 – Bazen başkalarına gerçekten yaşadığımdan daha derin duygular yaşıyor gibi görünürüm.
     D ( )   Y ( )

7 – Bir komediyi başkalarıyla seyrederken, yalnız başıma seyrettiğimden daha çok gülerim.
     D ( )   Y ( )

8 – Bir grup insan içinde, nadiren dikkat merkezi olurum.
     D ( )   Y ( )

9 – Farklı durumlarda ve farklı kişilerle birlikteyken sıksık çok farklı kişiler gibi davranırım.
     D ( )   Y ( )

10 – Başkalarına kendimi sevdirmede pek başarılı değilim.
     D ( )   Y ( )

11 – Halimden memnun olmasam bile, keyfim yerindeymiş gibi davranırım.
     D ( )   Y ( )

12 – Hoşsohbet biri sayılırım.

D ( )   Y ( )

13 – Sosyal durumlarda, başkalarının davrandığı gibi davranmaya çalışırım.

D ( )   Y ( )

14 – (Sessiz sinema gibi) rol yapmamı gerektiren oyunlarda ve hazırlıksız olduğum durumlarda hiç başarılı olamamışımdır.

D ( )   Y ( )

15 – Davranışlarımı farklı kişilere ve farklı durumlara uydurmak için değiştirmede zorluk çekiyorum.

D ( )   Y ( )

16 – Toplantılarda fıkra ve hikayelerin anlatılmasını, şakaların yapılmasını başkalarına bırakırım.

D ( )   Y ( )

17 – Topluluk içinde kendimi biraz beceriksiz hissettiğimde bunu gereği kadar gizleyemem.

D ( )   Y ( )

18 – Birinin gözlerinin içine baka baka yüzüne karşı yalan söyleyebilirim (eğer iyi bir amaç için ise).

D ( )   Y ( )

19 – Gerçekten hoşlanmadığım insanlara da dostça davranabilir ve onları dost olduğuma inandırabilirim.

D ( )   Y ( )

20 – (Düğün, disko gibi) toplu eğlencelerde kalkıp oynayabilirim.

D ( )   Y ( )

APPENDIX E

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Sample of Items)

1. A   İnsanları etkileme konusunda doğal bir yeteneğe sahibim.

    B   İnsanları kolay etkileyemem.

2. A   Alçakgönüllülük bana yakışmaz.

    B   Temelde alçakgönüllü bir insanım.

3. A   Cesaretimi kanıtlamak uğruna hemen her şeyi yapabilirim.

    B   Oldukça temkinli bir insanımdırç

4. A   İnsanlar bana ilitifat ettiklerinde bazen utanırım.

    B   İyi biri olduğumu biliyorum çünkü herkes böyle söylüyor.

5. A   Dünyayı yönetme düşüncesi ödümü koparır.

    B   Ben yönetseydim dünya daha iyi bir yer olurdu.

6. A   Genellikle konuşarak her beladan kurtulabilirim.

    B   Davranışlarımın sonuçlarını Kabul etmeye çalışırım.

7. A   Kalabalık içinde herkesten biri olmayı tercih ederim.

    B   İlgi merkezi olmayı severim.

APPENDIX F

MACH IV Scale (Sample of Items)

1. Gerekmedikçe, yaptığınız şeylerin altında yatan gerçek nedenleri asla kimseye söyleme.

+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
Kesinlikle	Biraz	Çok Az	Çok Az	Biraz	Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum

2. İnsanları idare etmenin en iyi yolu onlara duymak istediklerini söylemektir.

+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
Kesinlikle	Biraz	Çok Az	Çok Az	Biraz	Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum

3. Bir şey yapmadan önce, yapılacak işin ahlaksal olarak doğru olduğuna emin olmak gerekir.

+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
Kesinlikle	Biraz	Çok Az	Çok Az	Biraz	Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum

4. İnsanların çoğu temelde iyi ve naziktir.

+3	+2	+1	-1	-2	-3
Kesinlikle	Biraz	Çok Az	Çok Az	Biraz	Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum