

1 Who needs privacy? Exploring the relations between need for privacy and personality

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13

## Abstract

14 Privacy is defined as a voluntary withdrawal from society. While everyone needs some  
15 degree of privacy, we currently know little about people's privacy needs. In this study, we  
16 explore the relations between the need for privacy and personality. Personality will be  
17 operationalized using the HEXACO personality inventory. Need for privacy will be  
18 measured in relation to social, psychological, and physical privacy from other individuals  
19 (horizontal privacy); need for privacy from government agencies and companies (vertical  
20 privacy); as well as need for informational privacy, anonymity, and general privacy (both  
21 horizontal and vertical privacy). A sample of 1,576 respondents representative of the U.S.  
22 in terms of age, gender, and ethnicity will be collected. The correlations between privacy,  
23 personality, and sociodemographics will be analyzed using structural equation modeling.

24 *Keywords:* Privacy, need for privacy, personality, HEXACO

25 Who needs privacy? Exploring the relations between need for privacy and personality

26 Privacy is a major topic of public discourse and academic interest (Dienlin & Breuer,  
27 2023). Yet despite its importance, to date we still know surprisingly little about the  
28 relation between privacy and personality (Masur, 2018, p. 155). What can we infer about a  
29 person if they desire more privacy? Are they more introverted, more risk-averse, or more  
30 traditional? Asking these questions seems relevant, not least because people who desire  
31 more privacy are often regarded with suspicion, having to justify why they want to be left  
32 alone. Consider the “nothing-to-hide” argument (Solove, 2007), which is that people who  
33 oppose state surveillance only do so because they have something to hide—because if you  
34 have nothing to hide, you would have nothing to fear. Is it true that people who desire  
35 more privacy are also more dishonest, greedy, or unfair? Or are people simply less  
36 extraverted, more diligent, or more prudent? With this paper, we seek to answer the  
37 following question: What can we learn about a person’s personality if they say they desire  
38 more privacy?

### 39 **Privacy and Personality**

40 Privacy captures a *withdrawal* from others or from society in general (Westin, 1967).  
41 This withdrawal happens *voluntarily*, and it is under a person’s *control* (Westin, 1967).  
42 Privacy is also multi-dimensional. On the broadest level, we can differentiate the two  
43 dimensions of horizontal and vertical privacy (Masur, Teutsch, & Dienlin, 2018; Schwartz,  
44 1968). Whereas horizontal privacy captures withdrawal from other people or peers, vertical  
45 privacy addresses withdrawal from superiors or institutions (e.g., government agencies or  
46 businesses). In her theoretical analysis, Burgoon (1982) argued that privacy has four more  
47 specific dimensions: informational, social, psychological, and physical privacy. Pedersen  
48 (1979) conducted an empirical factor analysis of 94 privacy-related items, finding six  
49 dimensions of privacy: reserve (“unwillingness to be with and talk with others, especially  
50 strangers,” p. 1293); isolation (“desire to be alone and away from others,” p. 1293), solitude

51 (“being alone by oneself and free from observation by others,” p. 1293), intimacy with  
52 friends (“being alone with friends,” p. 1293), intimacy with family (“being alone with  
53 members of one’s own family,” p. 1293), and anonymity (“wanting to go unnoticed in a  
54 crowd and not wishing to be the center of group attention,” p. 1293). Building on these  
55 understandings of privacy, in this study we employ a multifaceted model of need for  
56 privacy. We focus on *vertical* privacy with regard to people’s felt need for withdrawal from  
57 surveillance by a) the government and b) private companies; *horizontal* privacy in terms of  
58 the perceived need for (c) psychological, (d) social and/or (e) physical withdrawal from  
59 other people; and *general* privacy as captured by people’s felt need for (f) informational  
60 privacy, (g) anonymity, and (h) privacy in general. Although all of these dimensions were  
61 defined and established in prior research, combining these dimensions into one single  
62 comprehensive measure of privacy represents a novel approach.

63 Acknowledging that various understandings of personality exist, we operationalize  
64 personality using the factors and facets of the HEXACO inventory of personality (Lee &  
65 Ashton, 2018). HEXACO is a large and comprehensive operationalization of personality,  
66 and thus is less likely to miss potentially relevant aspects than other operationalizations.  
67 The HEXACO model stands in the tradition of the Big Five approach (John & Srivastava,  
68 1999). It includes six factors (discussed below), which have four specific facets each. In  
69 addition, the HEXACO model includes a sixth factor not present in the Big Five labeled  
70 honesty-humility (plus a meta-facet called altruism), which seem particularly well-suited to  
71 investigate the nothing-to-hide-argument.

72 In predicting the need for privacy, we will primarily focus on the facets, because it is  
73 unlikely that the very specific need for privacy dimensions will relate closely to more  
74 general personality factors (Bansal, Zahedi, & Gefen, 2010; Junglas, Johnson, &  
75 Spitzmüller, 2008). And for reasons of scope, below we cannot discuss all four facets for all  
76 six factors. Instead, we focus on those we consider most relevant. However, all we be  
77 analyzed empirically.

## 78 **Predicting the Need for Privacy**

79         So far, only few studies have analyzed the relation between personality and need for  
80 privacy empirically (Hosman, 1991; Pedersen, 1982, see below). Moreover, we are not  
81 aware of a viable theory specifically connecting privacy and personality. Due to the dearth  
82 of empirical studies and the lack of theory, in this study we hence adopt an exploratory  
83 perspective.

84         In order to understand how personality might relate to privacy, we can ask the  
85 following question: Why do people desire privacy? Privacy is important. But according to  
86 Trepte and Masur (2017), the need for privacy is only a secondary need—not an end in  
87 itself. Accordingly, privacy satisfies other more fundamental needs such as safety, sexuality,  
88 recovery, or contemplation. Westin (1967) similarly defined four ultimate purposes of  
89 privacy: (1) self-development (i.e., the integration of experiences into meaningful patterns),  
90 (2) autonomy (the desire to avoid being manipulated and dominated), (3) emotional  
91 release (the release of tension from social role demands), and (4) protected communication  
92 (the ability to foster intimate relationships). Privacy facilitates self-disclosure (Dienlin,  
93 2014), and thereby social support, relationships, and intimacy (Omarzu, 2000). But  
94 privacy can also have negative aspects. It is possible to have too much privacy. Being  
95 cut-off from others can diminish flourishing, nurture deviant behavior, or introduce power  
96 asymmetries (Altman, 1975). And privacy can also help conceal wrongdoing or crime.

97         Privacy also has strong evolutionary roots (Acquisti, Brandimarte, & Hancock, 2022).  
98 Confronted with a threat—for example, the prototypical a tiger—people are inclined to  
99 withdraw. In the presences of opportunities—for example, the unexpected sharing of  
100 resources—people open up and approach one another. Transferred to privacy, we could  
101 imagine that if other people, the government, or companies are considered a threat, people  
102 are more likely to withdraw and to desire more privacy. Conversely, if something is  
103 considered a resource, people might open up, approach others, and desire less privacy  
104 (Altman, 1976). Privacy also affords the opportunity to hide less socially desirable aspects

105 of the self from others, which may bestow evolutionary advantages in terms of sexual  
106 selection or other social benefits and opportunities. Indeed, the need for privacy may have  
107 evolved precisely because it offers such advantages.

108 In what follows, we briefly present each HEXACO factor and how it might relate to  
109 need for privacy.

110 **Honesty-Humility & Altruism.** Honesty-humility consists of the facets sincerity,  
111 fairness, greed avoidance, and modesty. The meta-facet altruism measures benevolence  
112 toward others and consists of items such as “It wouldn’t bother me to harm someone I  
113 didn’t like” (reversed).

114 According to the nothing-to-hide argument, a person desiring more privacy might be  
115 less honest, sincere, fair, or benevolent. People who commit crimes likely face greater risk  
116 from some types of self-disclosure because government agencies and people would enforce  
117 sanctions if their activities were revealed (Petronio, 2010). In those cases, the government  
118 and other people may be perceived as a threat. As a consequence, people with lower  
119 honesty and sincerity might desire more privacy as a means to mitigate their felt risk  
120 (Altman, 1976).

121 Empirical studies have linked privacy to increased cheating behaviors (Corcoran &  
122 Rotter, 1987; Covey, Saladin, & Killen, 1989). Covey et al. (1989) asked students to solve  
123 an impossible maze. In the surveillance condition, the experimenter stood in front of the  
124 students and closely monitored their behavior. In the privacy condition, the experimenter  
125 could not see the students. Results showed greater cheating among students in the privacy  
126 condition, suggesting that in situations with more privacy people are less honest. While  
127 this shows a connection between privacy and dishonesty, other studies more directly  
128 support the notion that a desire for privacy is related to increased dishonesty. In a  
129 longitudinal sample with 457 respondents in Germany (Trepte, Dienlin, & Reinecke, 2013),  
130 people who felt they needed more privacy were also less authentic (and therefore, arguably,  
131 also less honest and sincere) on their online social network profiles ( $r = -.48$ ). People who

132 needed more privacy were also less authentic in their personal relationships ( $r = -.28$ ).

133 We do not mean to suggest that it is only dishonest people who feel a need for  
134 privacy. Everyone, including law-abiding citizens, have legitimate reasons to hide specific  
135 aspects of their lives (Solove, 2007). A recent study confirmed this notion, finding that also  
136 those people who explicitly endorsed the statement that they would have nothing to hide  
137 still engaged in several privacy protective behaviors (Colnago, Cranor, & Acquisti, 2023).  
138 Our argument is rather that people lower on the honesty HEXACO factor may feel a  
139 greater need for privacy. Considering all the evidence, it seems more plausible to us that  
140 lack of honesty may indeed relate to an increased need for privacy, and perhaps especially  
141 when it comes to privacy from authorities such as government agencies.

142 **Emotionality.** Emotionality is captured by the facets fearfulness, anxiety,  
143 dependence, and sentimentality. People who are anxious may be more likely to view social  
144 interactions as risky or threatening (especially with strangers or weak ties, Granovetter,  
145 1973). Anxious people might hence desire more privacy. People who are more concerned  
146 about their privacy (in other words, more anxious about privacy) may be more likely to  
147 self-withdraw online, for example by deleting posts or untagging themselves from linked  
148 content to minimize risk (Dienlin & Metzger, 2016). On the other hand, the opposite may  
149 also be true: People who are more anxious in general may desire less privacy from others  
150 (especially their strong ties), as a means to cope better with their daily challenges or to  
151 seek social approval to either verify or dispel their social anxiety.

152 People who are more anxious might also desire less privacy from government  
153 surveillance. Despite the fact that only 18% of all Americans trust their government “to do  
154 what is right,” almost everyone agrees that “it’s the government’s job to keep the country  
155 safe” (Pew Research Center, 2015, 2017). More anxious people might hence consider the  
156 government a resource rather than a threat. They might more likely consent to government  
157 surveillance, given that such surveillance could prevent crime or terrorism. On the other  
158 hand, it could also be that more anxious people desire more privacy from government

159 agencies, at least on a personal level. For example, while they might favor government  
160 surveillance of *others*, this does not necessarily include *themselves*. Especially if the  
161 government is perceived as a threat, as often expressed by members of minority groups,  
162 then anxiety might lead one to actually desire more personal privacy.

163 **Extraversion.** Comprising the facets social self-esteem, social boldness, sociability,  
164 and liveliness, extraversion is arguably the factor that should correspond most closely to  
165 need for privacy. Conceptually, social privacy and sociability are closely related. More  
166 sociable people are likely more inclined to think of other people as a resource, and thus  
167 they should desire less horizontal privacy and less anonymity (e.g., Buss, 2001). Given that  
168 privacy is a voluntary withdrawal from society (Westin, 1967), people who are less sociable,  
169 more reserved, or more shy should have a greater need for privacy from others.

170 This assumption is supported by several empirical studies. People who scored higher  
171 on the personality meta-factor plasticity, which is a composite of the two personality  
172 factors extraversion and openness, were found to desire less privacy (Morton, 2013). People  
173 who described themselves as introverted thinkers were more likely to prefer social isolation  
174 (Pedersen, 1982). Introverted people were more likely to feel their privacy was invaded  
175 when they were asked to answer very personal questions (Stone, 1986). Pedersen (1982)  
176 reported that the need for privacy related to general self-esteem (but not social self-esteem),  
177 which in turn is a defining part of extraversion (Lee & Ashton, 2018). Specifically, he found  
178 respondents who held a lower general self-esteem were more reserved ( $r = .29$ ), and needed  
179 more anonymity ( $r = .21$ ) and solitude ( $r = .24$ ). Finally, Larson and Bell (1988) and  
180 Hosman (1991) suggested that people who are more shy also need more privacy.

181 As a result, we expect that people who are more extraverted also need less social  
182 privacy and less privacy in general. Regarding the other dimensions of privacy, such as  
183 privacy from governments or from companies, we do not expect specific effects.

184 **Agreeableness.** Agreeableness has the four facets of forgiveness, gentleness,  
185 flexibility, and patience. It is not entirely clear whether or how agreeableness might relate



186 to the need for privacy, although people who are more agreeable are also moderately less  
187 concerned about their privacy (Junglas et al., 2008). Thus, because need for privacy and  
188 privacy concern are closely related, more agreeable people might desire less privacy. To  
189 explain, more agreeable people might hold more generous attitudes toward others and are  
190 less suspicious that others have malicious motives, and consequently perceive less risk from  
191 interacting with others.

192 **Conscientiousness.** Conscientiousness consists of the facets organization,  
193 diligence, perfectionism, and prudence. Arguably, all facets are about being in control,  
194 about reducing relevant risks and future costs. Because control is a central part of privacy  
195 (Westin, 1967), people who avoid risks, who deliberate, and who plan ahead carefully,  
196 might prefer to have more privacy because it affords them greater control. Especially if  
197 others are considered a threat, being risk averse might increase the desire for more  
198 horizontal privacy. Similarly, if government agencies or private companies are considered a  
199 threat, risk averse people might have a stronger desire for vertical privacy. In either case,  
200 the most cautious strategy to minimize risks of information disclosure would be to keep as  
201 much information as possible private. Empirical studies have found that people with a  
202 stronger control motive require slightly more seclusion ( $r = .12$ ) and anonymity ( $r = .15$ )  
203 (Hosman, 1991). People who considered their privacy at risk are less likely to disclose  
204 information online (e.g., Bol et al., 2018). Moreover, conscientious people are more  
205 concerned about their privacy (Junglas et al., 2008).

206 **Openness to experience.** Openness to experiences comprises the facets aesthetic  
207 appreciation, inquisitiveness, creativeness, and unconventionality. Openness to experience  
208 is also considered a measure of intellect and education. In one study it was found that  
209 more educated people have more knowledge about how to protect their privacy (Park,  
210 2013), which could be the result of an increased need for privacy. Similarly, openness to  
211 experience is positively related to privacy concern (Junglas et al., 2008).

212 On the other hand, openness is conceptually the opposite of privacy. People more

213 open to new experiences might not prioritize privacy. Many digital practices such as social  
214 media, online shopping, or online dating offer exciting benefits and new experiences, but  
215 pose a risk to privacy. People who are more open to new experiences might focus on the  
216 benefits rather than the potential risks. Hence, either a positive or negative relationship  
217 between need for privacy and openness is possible.

218 **Socio-demographic variables.** The need for privacy should also be related to  
219 sociodemographic aspects, such as sex, age, education, and income. For example, a study  
220 of 3,072 people from Germany found that women desired more informational and physical  
221 privacy than men, whereas men desired more psychological privacy (Frener, Dombrowski,  
222 & Trepte, 2023). In a nationally representative study of the U.S. and Japan, people who  
223 were older and who had higher income reported more privacy concern. More educated  
224 people possess more privacy knowledge (Park, 2013), and as a consequence they might  
225 desire more privacy. Ethnicity might also correspond to the need for privacy, perhaps  
226 because members of minority groups desire more privacy from the government, although  
227 not necessarily from other people. Some minorities groups (e.g., Black or Native  
228 Americans) often report lower levels of trust in white government representatives (Koch,  
229 2019), which might increase the desire of privacy from government agencies. Last, we will  
230 examine whether one's political position is related to the need for privacy. We could  
231 imagine that more right-leaning people desire more privacy from the government, but not  
232 necessarily from other people. People who are more conservative tend to trust the  
233 government slightly less (Cook & Gronke, 2005), which might be associated with an  
234 increased need for privacy. We will also explore whether a person's romantic relationship  
235 status corresponds to their expressed need for privacy.

236 **Overview of expectations.** The arguments discussed above lead to a number of  
237 expectations for our data which we delineate below, in order from most to least confidence  
238 in terms of identifying significant effects. First, we strongly assume that more extraverted  
239 people will desire less privacy, especially less social privacy. We also expect that people

240 who are less honest will express greater need for privacy. We further assume that more  
241 conscientious people will desire more privacy and that more agreeable people may desire  
242 less privacy. Yet it is largely unclear how privacy needs relate to openness to experience  
243 and emotionality. In terms of the sociodemographic variables, we expect females likely  
244 need more informational and physical privacy, while males will likely report needing more  
245 psychological privacy. Older, more highly educated, and affluent people are also expected  
246 to need more privacy, and we anticipate that people who are ethnic minorities or are  
247 politically conservative will express greater need for privacy from the government than  
248 from other people.

249

## Method

250

This section describes how we determine the sample size, data exclusions, the  
251 analyses, and all measures in the study. The Study will be conducted as an online  
252 questionnaire, programmed with Qualtrics. A preview of the survey can be found here.

## 253 Prestudy

254

This study builds on a prior project in which we analyzed the same research question  
255 (Dienlin & Metzger, 2019). This study was already submitted to Collabra, but rejected.  
256 The main reasons were that the sample was too small, that not one coherent personality  
257 inventory was used, that most privacy measures were designed ad-hoc, and that the  
258 inferences were too ambitious. We hence decided to treat our prior project as a pilot study  
259 and to address the criticism by conducting a new study. In this new study, we redevelop  
260 our study design, we collect a larger sample, implement the HEXACO inventory together  
261 with established need for privacy measures, and overall adopt a more exploratory  
262 perspective. Being our central construct of interest, we also develop a small number of new  
263 items to have a more comprehensive measure of need for privacy.

## 264 **Sample**

265 Participants will be collected from the professional online survey panel Prolific. The  
266 sample will be representative of the US in terms of age, gender, and ethnicity. The study  
267 received IRB approval from the University of Vienna (#20210805\_067). We calculated  
268 that participation will take approximately 15 minutes. We will pay participants \$2.00 for  
269 participation, which equals an hourly wage of \$8.00.

270 To determine sample size, we ran a priori power analyses using the R package *simsem*  
271 (Pornprasertmanit, Miller, Schoemann, & Jorgensen, 2021). We based our power analysis  
272 on a smallest effect size of interest (SESOI; see also below). We only considered effects at  
273 least as great as  $r = .10$  as sufficiently relevant to support an effect's existence (Cohen,  
274 1992). To estimate power, we simulated data." We set the correlation between two  
275 exemplary latent factors of personality and privacy variable to be  $\Psi = .10$ . We,  
276 furthermore, set the latent factor loadings to be  $\lambda = .85$  (the SESOI) Adopting an  
277 exploratory perspective, and not wanting to miss actually existing effects, we considered  
278 both alpha and beta errors to be equally relevant, resulting in balanced/identical alpha and  
279 beta errors (Rouder, Morey, Verhagen, Province, & Wagenmakers, 2016). Because  
280 balanced alpha and beta errors of 5% are outside of our budget, we opted for balanced  
281 alpha and beta errors of 10%. A power analysis with an alpha and beta error of 10% and  
282 an effect size of  $r = .10$  revealed that we required a sample size of  $N = 1501$ . To account  
283 for potential attrition (see below), we will oversample by five percent, leading to a final  
284 sample size of  $N = 1576$ . We obtained sufficient funding to collect a sample of this size.

## 285 **Exclusions and Imputation**

286 We will individually check answers for response patterns such as straight-lining or  
287 missing of inverted items. We will conservatively remove participants with clear response  
288 patterns. We will automatically exclude participants who miss the two attention checks we  
289 will implement. Participants who miss one attention check will be checked individually

290 regarding response patterns. We will remove participants below the minimum participation  
291 age of 18 years. We will remove respondents with unrealistically fast responses (three  
292 standard deviations below the median response time).

293 Missing responses will be imputed using multiple imputation with predictive mean  
294 matching (ten datasets, five iterations, using variables that correlate at least with  $r = .10$ ).  
295 The analyses will be run with all ten datasets, and the pooled results will be reported.

## 296 **Planned Analyses**

297 The factorial validity of the measures and the relations will be tested using structural  
298 equation modeling. If Mardia's test shows that the assumption of multivariate normality is  
299 violated, we will use the more robust Satorra-Bentler scaled and mean-adjusted test  
300 statistic (MLM) as estimator. We will test each scale in a confirmatory factor analysis. To  
301 assess model fit, we will use more liberal fit criteria to avoid overfitting ( $CFI > .90$ ,  $TLI >$   
302  $.90$ ,  $RMSEA < .10$ ,  $SRMR < .10$ ) (Kline, 2016). In cases of misfit, we will conservatively  
303 alter models using an a priori defined analysis pipeline (see online supplementary material).  
304 As a "reality check," we will test items for potential ceiling and floor effects. If means are  
305 below 1.5 or above 6.5, these items will be excluded.

306 We want to find out *who* needs privacy, and not so much *what causes* the need for  
307 privacy. Hence, to answer our research question, in a joint model combining all variables  
308 (including sociodemographic variables) we will analyze the variables' bivariate relations. To  
309 predict the need for privacy, we will first use the six personality factors. Afterward, we will  
310 predict privacy using the more specific facets. To get a first idea of the variables' potential  
311 causal relations, we will also run a multiple structural regression model.

312 We will use two measures as inference criteria: statistical significance and effect size.  
313 Regarding statistical significance, we will use an alpha value of 10%. Regarding effect size,  
314 we will define a SESOI of  $r = .10$ , and thereby a null-region ranging from  $-.10$  to  $.10$ . As  
315 proposed by Dienes (2014), we will consider effects to be meaningful if the confidence

316 interval falls outside of the null region (e.g., .15 to .25 or -.15 to -.25). We will consider  
317 effects irrelevant if the confidence interval falls completely within the null region (e.g., .02  
318 to .08). And we will suspend judgement if the confidence intervals partially include the null  
319 region (e.g., .05 to .15).

320 Fully latent SEMs seldom work instantly, often requiring modifications to achieve  
321 satisfactory model fit. Although we explicate our analysis pipeline, there still remain  
322 several researcher degrees of freedom. We decided to use fully latent SEMs because we  
323 consider it superior to regular analyses such as correlation or regression using manifest  
324 variables (Kline, 2016). Combining several items into latent factors helps reduce noise and  
325 thereby the beta error. To provide context, in the online supplementary material (OSM)  
326 we will also share the results of alternative analyses, such as correlations of average scores.

327 We anticipate to finish the project three months after our registration was accepted.

## 328 Measures

329 All items will be answered on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*)  
330 to 7 (*strongly agree*).<sup>1</sup> A list of all the items that we will use are reported in the online  
331 supplementary material. The personality and privacy items will be presented in random  
332 order, and the sociodemographic questions will be asked at the end. We will later report  
333 also the results of the CFAs/EFAs, as well as item statistics and their distribution plots.

334 **Need for privacy.** Although there exist several operationalizations of need for  
335 privacy (Buss, 2001; Frener et al., 2023; Marshall, 1974; Pedersen, 1979), we are not aware  
336 of one encompassing, comprehensive, and up-to-date scale. Hence, we use both existing  
337 scales and self-developed items, some of which were tested in our pilot study. Ad-hoc scales  
338 were or will be (preliminarily) validated using the following procedure: We (a) collected

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<sup>1</sup> Note that the HEXACO inventory normally uses 5-point scales. Because we were not interested in comparing absolute values across studies, we used 7-point scales to have a uniform answer format across all items.

339 qualitative feedback from three different privacy experts;<sup>2</sup> (b) followed the procedure  
340 implemented by Patalay, Hayes, and Wolpert (2018) to test (and adapt) the items using  
341 four established readability indices (i.e., Flesch–Kincaid reading grade, Gunning Fog Index,  
342 Coleman Liau Index, and the Dale–Chall Readability Formula); (c) like Frener et al.  
343 (2023), we will assess convergent validity by collecting single-item measures of privacy  
344 concern and privacy behavior, for which we expect to find small to moderate correlations;  
345 (d) all items will be analyzed in confirmatory factor analyses as outlined above.

346 Overall, we will collect 32 items measuring need for privacy, with eight subdimensions  
347 that all consist of four items each. Three subdimensions capture horizontal  
348 privacy—namely *psychological*, *social*, and *physical* privacy from other individuals.  
349 Psychological and physical privacy were adopted from Frener et al. (2023). Because Frener  
350 et al. (2023) could not successfully operationalize the dimension of social privacy, building  
351 on Burgoon (1982) we self-designed a new social privacy dimension, which in the prestudy  
352 showed satisfactory fit. Two subdimensions measure vertical privacy. The first  
353 subdimension is *government surveillance*, which represents the extent to which people want  
354 the government to abstain from collecting information about them. The scale was  
355 pretested and showed good factorial validity. The second subdimension is need for privacy  
356 from *companies*, which we will measure using four new self-designed items. Finally, three  
357 subdimensions capture general privacy. The first subdimension is *informational* privacy,  
358 with items adopted from Frener et al. (2023). The second subdimension is *anonymity*,  
359 which captures the extent to which people feel the need to avoid identification in general.  
360 The scale was pretested and showed good factorial validity; one new item was designed for  
361 this study. Third, we will also collect a new self-developed measure of *general* need for  
362 privacy.

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<sup>2</sup> The three experts who provided feedback were Moritz Büchi (University of Zurich), Regine Frener (University of Hohenheim), and Philipp Masur (VU Amsterdam).

Table 1

*Predicting the need for privacy dimensions using sociodemographic variables.*

Sociodemographics	Need for privacy							
	Social	Phys.	Psych.	Comp.	Gov.	Anonym.	Inform.	General
Age	-0.05	0.16	0.00	0.02	-0.29	0.41	-0.14	0.31
Gender	0.20	0.00	-0.03	-0.03	-0.12	-0.06	0.04	-0.51
Ethnicity	0.19	0.05	-0.01	-0.01	0.05	-0.07	0.01	-0.47
Relationship	0.09	-0.04	-0.01	0.00	-0.19	-0.07	-0.11	-0.19
College	-0.10	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	-0.07	0.10	0.07	-0.42
Income	-0.10	-0.07	0.04	-0.01	0.12	-0.13	-0.08	-0.22
Conservatism	-0.26	0.06	0.12	0.01	-0.05	0.30	-0.03	0.48

363 **Personality.** Personality will be measured using the HEXACO personality  
 364 inventory. The inventory consists of six factors with four facets each, including the  
 365 additional meta scale of “altruism”.

## 366 Results

367 To visualize how results might look like, we have simulated some random data.  
 368 Please note that these results are completely random and do not make sense from a  
 369 theoretical perspective. When calculating the multiple regressions, the models did not  
 370 converge, which is why several estimates could not be computed (see below).

371 In Table 1, we report how sociodemographics predict need for privacy.

372 In Table 2, we report how personality factors predict need for privacy.

373 In Table 3, we report how personality facets predict need for privacy.



Table 2

*Predicting the need for privacy dimensions using personality factors.*

Personality factors	Need for privacy							
	Social	Phys.	Psych.	Comp.	Gov.	Anonym.	Inform.	General
Honesty humility	-0.31	0.01	-0.01	0.24	0.26	-0.85	-0.03	-0.28
Emotionality	0.94	-0.02	0.07	-0.47	-0.04	1.27	0.05	0.20
Extraversion	-0.99	-0.03	0.07	0.77	1.78	-0.10	0.71	-2.68
Agreeableness	-0.64	0.04	-0.12	-0.52	0.84	0.95	0.08	2.09
Conscientiousness	0.25	-0.01	0.02	0.01	-0.82	-0.04	0.15	-0.13
Openness	0.07	0.01	-0.07	-0.56	0.09	0.99	0.11	-0.21

374 In Figure 1, you can find how each personality factor—while holding constant all  
375 other personality factors and sociodemographics—predicts need for privacy.

Table 3

*Predicting the need for privacy dimensions using personality facets.*

Personality facets	Need for privacy							
	Social	Phys.	Psych.	Comp.	Gov.	Anonym.	Inform.	General
Honesty humility								
Sincerity	-0.63	0.01	-0.87	0.38	-0.51	0.22	-0.04	0.44
Fairness	0.05	0.01	0.02	-0.31	0.50	1.61	0.16	-1.67
Greed avoidance	0.17	-0.06	-3.02	-0.47	-1.51	1.03	2.07	10.90
Modesty	0.43	-0.01	-1.11	-0.61	0.57	1.91	0.17	2.28
Emotionality								
Fearfulness	0.68	0.00	0.62	0.60	0.62	1.46	0.58	1.23
Anxiety	-0.64	0.03	-0.21	-0.05	0.42	-0.83	-0.05	-0.32
Dependence	-0.39	0.00	0.23	-0.15	-0.02	-0.31	0.26	1.12
Sentimentality	-0.88	0.02	-0.70	0.44	0.23	-0.08	0.30	1.65
Extraversion								
Social self-esteem	-0.44	0.02	0.16	0.28	-0.32	0.85	-0.49	-2.70
Social boldness	-0.91	-0.03	-0.21	-0.25	0.51	3.06	0.36	-0.07
Sociability	-0.49	-0.01	0.32	0.36	0.11	2.36	0.02	-0.07
Liveliness	2.00	0.00	-2.64	-2.49	-1.39	9.42	-4.20	-6.44
Agreeableness								
Forgiveness	-0.45	0.03	0.26	-0.50	-0.17	0.80	-0.23	-0.51
Gentleness	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	-0.03
Flexibility	-0.25	0.01	0.26	-0.30	0.54	0.09	0.38	1.40
Patience	0.33	-0.01	0.11	-0.34	-0.63	-3.00	0.16	-0.55
Conscientiousness								
Organization	-2.04	0.02	0.61	-0.51	2.55	1.02	1.42	3.58
Diligence	-0.27	-0.01	0.08	-0.20	-0.07	1.10	0.28	0.79
Perfectionism	-0.41	0.02	0.69	-1.26	0.53	0.89	-0.39	1.79
Prudence	0.54	-0.02	-0.50	-0.04	-1.17	-3.01	-0.69	1.36
Openness to experiences								
Aesthetic appreciation	-0.30	0.00	-0.94	-0.07	-0.44	-2.01	-0.35	0.15
Inquisitiveness	-1.49	-0.03	-0.14	0.31	0.12	-0.56	-0.67	1.11
Creativeness	0.19	0.00	0.01	-0.65	-0.11	2.46	0.07	-0.12
Unconventionality	-0.82	-0.02	0.54	-0.08	0.12	1.51	0.05	0.97
Altruism	0.56	0.00	-0.28	0.18	-0.33	-0.36	0.36	0.70

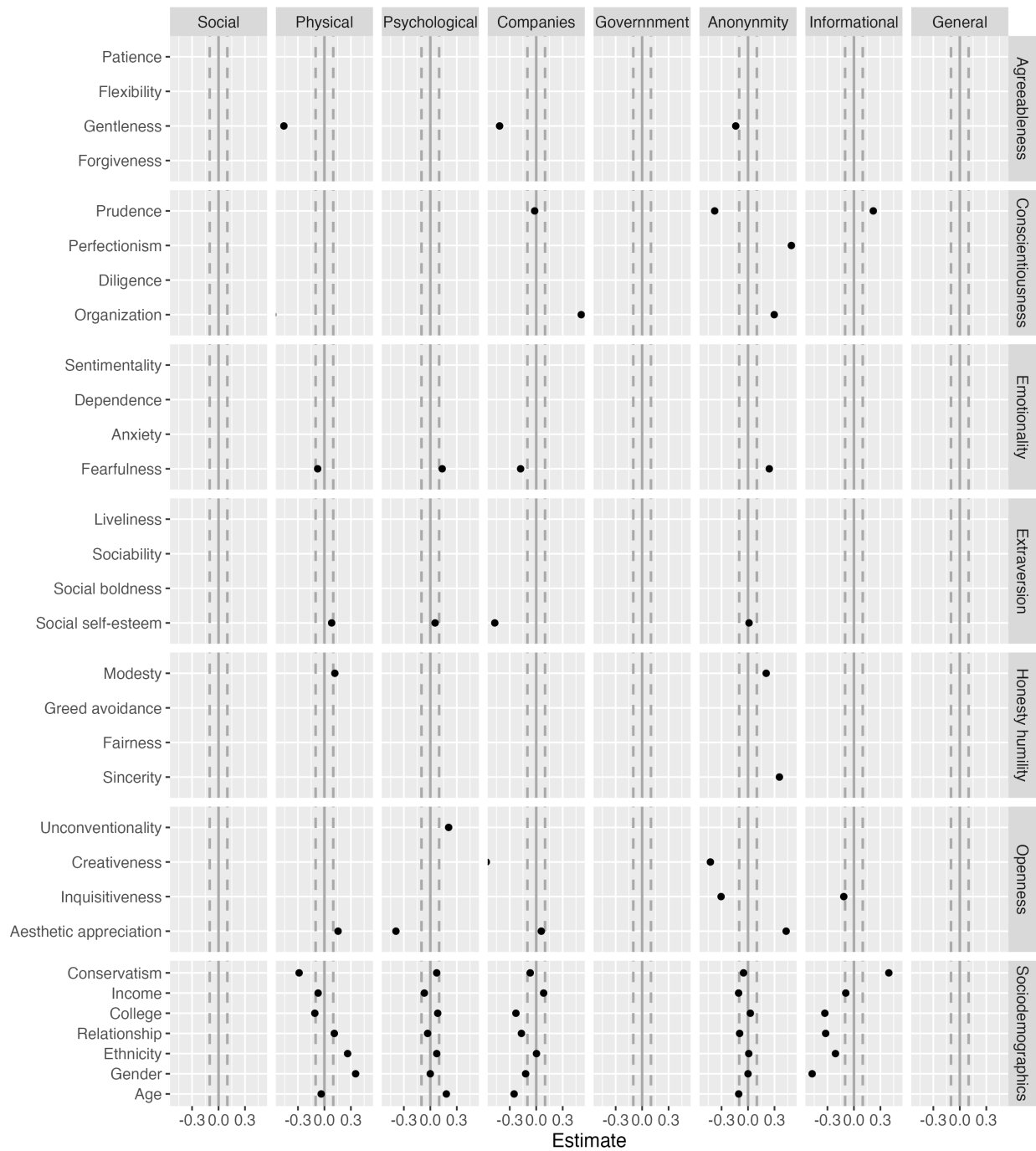


Figure 1. Results of multiple regressions, in which we predict all dimensions of need for privacy using all personality facets and sociodemographic factors simultaneously.

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**Conflict of Interests**

508

Both authors declare no conflict of interests.

509

**Supplementary Material**

510

All the stimuli, presentation materials, participant data, analysis scripts, and a  
reproducible version of the manuscript can be found or will be shared as online  
supplementary material on the open science framework (<https://osf.io/e47yw/>). The paper  
also has a companion website where all materials can be accessed  
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**Data Accessibility Statement**

516

The data will be shared on the open science framework (<https://osf.io/e47yw/>) and  
on github.

517

518