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„Impression Management in groups“

The Influence of group characteristics on impression management tactics

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Abstract

Previous studies have noted the emphasis of impression management in organizational settings, but detecting the distinctive contribution of group characteristics to impression management has been largely ignored in recent years. This thesis studies how impression management emerges within groups. This is done by investigating whether the size, task and composition of the group affect the way an individual applies the five impression management tactics; self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation and supplication. Besides, the effect of perceived favourably of the situation on the impression management process is examined. The results of empirical study suggest that the speciality of task and heterogeneity in a group (in terms of age and gender) have a significant negative effect on the member's use of ingratiation. Moreover, homogeneity of group has a positive influence on intimidation. The size of the group is positively related to exemplification among men. Furthermore strong evidence was found between favourable perception of the situation and assertive tactics such as self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification.

Kurzfassung

Bisherige Studien haben Impression Management nur in organisatorischen Rahmen untersucht, ohne den markanten Beitrag der Gruppenmerkmale an diesem Prozess zu berücksichtigen. Diese Masterarbeit beschäftigt sich damit, wie Impression Management innerhalb von Gruppen entsteht. Durch die Untersuchung, ob die Größe, Aufgabe und Zusammensetzung der Gruppe einen Einfluss auf die Art und Weise des Impression Management haben. Außerdem wird die Wirkung der wahrgenommenen Situation auf den Impression management-Prozesses diskutiert. Die Ergebnisse der empirische Forschung zeigen, dass die Spezifität der Aufgabe und Heterogenität der Gruppe erhebliche negative Auswirkungen auf die Verwendung von „Ingratiation“ des Mitglieds haben. Außerdem hat die Homogenität positiven Einfluss auf „Intimidation“. Die Größe der Gruppe steht in direktem Zusammenhang mit dem „Exemplification“ unter den Männern. Zudem wurde starker Beweis zwischen günstigen Wahrnehmung der Situation und „self-promotion“, „ingratiatio“ und „exemplification“ gefunden.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

We are living in the age of information and the importance of controlling the information in each aspect of our lives increases every day. From dyadic to large community-organization or society- individuals try to impress others and evaluate them in return by monitoring the accessible information. Impression management is not an extraordinary or new process; it is about what people consciously or instinctively do in their everyday life to influence the others (Schlenker, 1980). Moreover, it is not limited to a special occasion (e.g. job interview) or a special type of individual (e.g. extravert), but applied in broader perspective of daily incidents.

Extensive application and strategic consequences of impression management in routine life serve a fundamental role in interpersonal relationship (Goffman, 1959). With its roots in sociology (Goffman, 1959) and social psychology (Jones, 1964, Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi, 1981), impression management has been an interesting topic in organizational context in the last four decades (Giacalone and Rosenfeld, 1986; Gardner and Martinko, 1988).

Impression management is a goal directed procedure, in which individuals try to control the impressions other have of them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Rosenfeld et al. 1995). The attempt is to control the information signalling in order to be perceived in a way that the individual desires to be seen by others. It seems like playing different roles according to a given situation. Apparently, acting against the norms of state will not be flattering and may cause problems for future interactions (Schlenker, 1980). Moreover, the desire to be perceived in a particular manner in order to influence people around, drives individuals to behave in certain ways. Study of Rosenfeld et al. (1995) also indicates that impression management facilitates goal achievement of the organization, if used properly. Therefore being aware of how a person will be perceived offers conditions to improve the communication and social interaction with the others.

Empirical studies about the impression management are mostly divided in two categories. One stream focuses on antecedent of impression management; factors created by the situation or the individual himself, which affect the impression management (Gardner and Martinko, 1988; Bolino and Turnley, 2003, Bourdage 2014). And the other type of studies concentrates on the effect of impression management on performance (Gordon, 1996; Howard and Ferris, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al. 2002, McFarland et al. 2003, Varma et al. 2004; Peeters and

Lievens, 2006). Besides, most studies in the impression management have focused mainly on one-to-one situation, such as interviewer and interviewee. Nevertheless the importance of group and team work in the organization is increasing. As a result, it is interesting to understand how interpersonal interaction regarding impression management may be different within the group, where the number of audience increases and the goal becomes mutual for all group members.

The aim of this study is to investigate the nature of impression management in group settings and determine the factors affecting the impression management strategies. The five major impression management tactics which will be studied in this paper are ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication and intimidation (Jones and Pittman, 1982). It is hypothesized that the perceived definition of the situation and the use of impression management tactics are positively related to group characteristics such as the assigned task, group size and composition of the group.

1.2 Problem statement

Individuals apply impression management tactics in various situations in organizations; e.g. at assessment centre and particularly by career interview, or at development process for performance appraisal (Howard and Ferris, 1996). It is assumed that positive impression facilitates the performance in the workplace (Rosenfeld et al. 1995). For that reason it is important to be aware of our impression and exercise related techniques to improve it. So far the impression management has been mostly studied in bottom-up relationships; to control the picture of themselves for the superiors. But how impression management may vary in group with lateral relationship has gained little attention. Moreover, the degree by which the individuals are motivated to engage in impression management is affected by several variables. For instance, some individuals are more concerned about self-image and how others observe them (e.g. self-monitor), however there are some occasions which require more attention on how to behave and control the behaviour (e.g. during a job interview). Therefore not only personal aspects but also situational conditions determine how individuals need to manage the impression. This thesis aims to study the factors affecting impression management process in groups; more specifically the group characteristics, such as group composition, size of the group and group task will be investigated.

The Research Question: which factors have an influence on the approaches toward impression management that are taken in groups?

1.3 Research method

In order to answer my research question a quantitative design for this research is intended. Meanwhile investigating the relationship in groups and the factors affecting the impression management tactics demands understanding the behaviour as well as the reason driving such a behaviour. Therefore beside literature review, an empirical research is required to gather data and test the hypotheses.

For empirical part of the study, a vignette experiment with eight different scenarios has been conducted. Each participant is randomly assigned to one of the scenarios and asked to indicate the type and extent of impression management tactics, they may engage themselves with. This experiment is conducted in two sample populations; one drawn from undergraduate business administration student at university of Vienna, and the other from human resources employees of UniCredit Bank Austria AG.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is divided in two major parts; the first three chapters will cover the literature review which subsequently build up the structure of second part, the empirical research. Chapter two contains short historical background, definition and scope of impression management and also the motives which encourage the individuals to engage in impression management. Moreover, third chapter will take a look at impression management tactics and scales to measure them. In chapter four, the impression management in organization and especially in group setting will be studied. It does that by exploring how group characteristics -such as group task, group size and composition of the group- are related to pattern of impression management. Based on this literature review, the hypothesis will be built and discussed in chapter five. The sixth chapter explains the methodology of empirical study. The result of research will be then presented in chapter seven and finally chapter eight will present the interpretation of the result with limitation and recommendation for future research.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical component of impression management study. First the historical background of impression management is being reviewed; to see how various theories have developed different aspects of this concept during time. Then the main points and facts about the impression management process are defined in order to distinguish it from similar concepts. Finally, the motivation of impression management is being discussed. Since not all social interactions are contributed to impression management behavior, the focus is to recognize the situations which drive the individuals to engage themselves with impression management behaviors.

2.2 Historical background

The concept of Impression management has been developed through different perspectives during the last five decades. Indeed the essence of this phenomenon has existed for many years. "...when an individual appears in the presence of others, there will usually be some reason for him to mobilize his activity so that it will convey an impression to others which it is in his interests to convey." (Goffman, 1959, p. 4). For an effective interaction, people seek to know what is expected and what to expect from a counter partner. Therefore any sort of information is appreciated to better identify the situation they are in. Some of this information can be directly expressed, e.g. by explicitly telling something or showing evidence. However some other information may lie beneath, such as a person's emotions and motives (Goffman, 1959).

Before a person starts to talk or behave in a particular way, the appearance forms the initial perception. In this regard, many self-help books deal with how to dress, talk, sit and etc. to apply the intended social influence. Nevertheless the impression is not only created by the outward appearance but also by means of the behaviour associated with. Therefore giving the right impression to others will be feasible through controlling the information signalling (Schlenker, 1980).

The establishment of impression management studies/theories is mainly in sociology (e.g. Goffman, 1959) and social psychology (e.g. Jones, 1964). The attention to the impression management in an organization has been first revealed in 1980s, when studies started to apply

this concept at organizational settings (e.g. Gardner and Martinko, 1988; Rosenfeld et al. 1995; Wayne and Liden, 1995). While the influence of impression management on the individual's success at the organization has already been recognized, it was mainly considered as a secondary element.

Impression management is tied up with the name of Erving Goffman (1959), who primarily explored the fundamental role of impression management in social interaction. Principally when people meet each other, they try to gain information in order to build a valuable interaction. In his book "Presentation of self in everyday life", he viewed the individual as "actor", who performs according to the situational settings. Hence the aim of an actor is to be perceived in the most favourable manner, by controlling the image that the audience is forming based on his performance (Goffman, 1959)

Goffman's theory is associated with symbolic interaction. It indicates that the relationship between an individual and society is based on symbols, which have gained a common meaning during time. Therefore depending on the definition of symbol in the society, an individual may be defined. Nevertheless individuals have many different roles in their lives and therefore the symbol changes according to the situation and the audience (Schlenker, 1980). For example, the uniform reflects the function and characteristic of a person in the society; however the same person at home, wearing a T-shirt may react somehow different as supposed to what he does at work.

So far the concept of impression management was mainly studied and applied in sociological literature. But in the 1970s impression management became a popular topic in laboratory experiments of psychology. It was Edward Jones (1964) who led this concept into social psychological by extending the goal of impression management. Through his experimental works, he found out that individuals try to control the impression others form about them not only to be seen as favourable, but also because they have some other goals such as to influence others. So through these interpersonal behaviours some information about their personal characteristic will be provided (Burnstein, 1996).

It was first during the 1980s that the interest for impression management increased and this concept gained attention in organizational settings. Findings of Giacalone and Rosenfeld (1986) in this period had undeniable effect on impression management in the organization. Rosenfeld et al. (1995) described impression management as a strategic communication in the organization, which is aimed to establish an intended identity, as well as to preserve and protect it (Rosenfeld et al. 1995). Since then, a variety of impression management's application in the organization have been studied; such as an individual's success related to

job interviews and leader's success in gaining support (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). It slowly turned the peripheral aspect of impression management into a fundamental one, by highlighting the role of an individual's perception in organizational life (Rosenfeld et al. 1995).

Ever since, impression management has received more attention especially in organizational behaviour and communication. Still many empirical studies try to extend the knowledge and understanding in this field by focusing on factors influencing the impression management and/or the outcome effect of these strategies.

2.3 Definition and scope of Impression management

Perhaps Shakespeare's statement "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players" is one of the most famous metaphors about impression management (As you like it, Act II, p. 139-42). This dramaturgical perspective of life has also been applied in organizational studies. As stated before, Goffman (1959) applies play metaphor to illustrate how people manage their impression through their performance.

Since we are living in the age of information, it is no surprise how crucial the control of information is in every aspect of our lives. We continuously try to identify the role and the meaning of the other's behaviour and evaluate the individual based on that. On the other hand we try to manage the impression and eventually give a proper one in a diverse manner; by concerning what to say, how to say, how to dress, and how to do it which defines who we are (Rosenfeld et al., 1995). It expresses our identity about the type of person we are and how we want to be perceived. Therefore the communication clarifies the role and/or goal of the individuals. Since it is not desired to confuse the audience through excess of information, we select the information to better point out our opinion (Schlenker, 1980).

It is no doubt that impression management is an undeniable part of a meaningful social interaction (Goffman, 1959), but the concern primarily will be to identify the scope of impression management behavior. It has been argued that people try to hide their true identity through managing the impression they display in order to push forward their own personal goals (Schlenker and Weigold, 1992). Whether the goal of engaging in impression management behaviour is personal or pro-social, the aim of managing the impression is to ensure that an accurate image of one person is presented (Schlenker, 1980)

In respect to the scope of impression management, Tedeschi and Reiss (1981) argued that all human behaviors are considered as impression management, as long as they have the potential

to influence the impression an individual is about to make (Rind and Benjamin, 2001). Moreover, impression management is not constrained by the conscious behavior that an actor does in order to present a specific image. It also embraces those activities affecting the impression of a person, although the purpose is not known to the actor (Schlenker, 1980).

To determine the degree of how conscious impression management is used by a person, we can differentiate between two types- objective and subjective self-awareness. Wicklund's (1980) theory of self-awareness describes the objective self-awareness as a state, where the attention of a person is on himself. However when the attention is shifted to things other than him, the state of self-awareness becomes subjective. This shifting can take place quickly with the help of some symbols such as mirror, recorded voice of oneself and even the presence of others. According to this theory, individuals are more conscious about the impression they are giving when they are in a state of objective self-awareness. However it does not mean that in subjective self-awareness people do not engage in impression management behavior, as some of them have turned out to routine behaviors and we do them without thinking much about the message they may have (Schlenker, 1980). Furthermore, people are more aware of controlling their impression, when they believe that they will receive a profound outcome through a desired impression (Schlenker and Weigold, 1992).

Schlenker (1980) describes the difference between impression management and self-presentation by highlighting the relevance of this process. He defined the impression management as the consciously or unconsciously process to control the information about an object which could also be oneself (Schlenker and Weigold, 1992). However when it deals with presenting an image about the actor, it is self-presentation. Therefore impression management covers a broader perspective than self-presentation. Since self-presentation is one major mean of impression management (Gardner and Martinko, 1988b), the focus of this study is rather on how a person will behave in order to control the impression others will have of her/him.

The general definition of impression management, which is used now a days, is the process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions other people form of them (Leary and Kowalski, 1990; Rosenfeld, Giacalone and Riordan, 1995). Although the use of Impression management is more salient in some occasions (e.g. job interview) or in a special type of people (e.g. extravert), it covers larger cases. Taking into account the fundamental role of impression management in an interpersonal relation, it expands its application in our daily lives.

2.4 Motives to engage in Impression management

People often examine the impact they have on others. However this estimation is not always aimed to create a particular image (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). Being aware of our impression and trying to control the impression is critical for an individual's success especially in the work place and organizational life. Those who do not pay attention to their impression may be confronted with difficulty in achieving their desired goal in the organization (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). Since the concept of impression management is to control the impression and display a certain image, we may need to determine the circumstances under which people become motivated to manage their impression.

People may consciously or unconsciously engage in activities which affect their impression (Schlenker, 1980). In order to manage one's behavior, the person may need to control the impression others have of her/him in the first place (Schlenker, 1980). Even in situations when they are not intentionally concerned about how others may perceive them, people seek the situations that provide them with information about how they are being perceived (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). Due to the habitual aspect of some impression management behavior, people may instinctively behave in a way without considering the reason. In general, people are intended to be perceived attractive and likeable (Schlenker, 1980, Leary and Kowalski, 1990). This may explain why a person laughs at colleagues joke, even if in reality he does not find it so funny.

As stated before, impression management depends highly on situational factors. According to Goffman (1959), norms of social system and reaction of others cause the individual to control their impression. Therefore from his point of view, motivation for impression management is driven from an external factor and not internal (Schneider, 1981).

Some theorists (i.e. Schlenker, 1980) describe the motivation of impression management by cost-benefit analysis. Through creating an image, people also consider the cost which is associated with failure of achieving the desired image (Schlenker, 1980). In other words, individuals try to manage the specific image in order to increase the benefits or/and minimize the possible punishment associated with the outcome of the impression.

Another relevant theory in explaining the motives of impression management is self-efficacy expectations, which indicate that one's expectation facilitates the goal achievement behavior (Bandura, 1977). Based on this theory, Schlenker (1980) claims that the outcome of presented image may vary depending both on its value to the actor as well as the likelihood of its achievement. In other words, not only the image with the greatest potential value drives the

person to behave in a certain way, but also the person may consider if it is possible to be perceived that way at all. Therefore the chance of gaining an image may increase or restrict the motivation for impression management behavior (Gardner and Martinko, 1988).

Leary & Kowalski (1990) categorize three distinct but interrelated motives which encourage people for managing the impression. First goal is “maximizing one’s reward-cost ratio in social relations”, which is similar to cost-benefit analysis of Schlenker (1980). They define two type of outcomes; social outcomes such as friendship or the need for approval and material outcomes such as a bonus or increase in base wage. It is assumed that the probability of receiving the intended outcome increases by presenting the proper impression. However people may still engage with how they are perceived by others, even if there is no future outcome as stated above. Therefore this factor cannot be the only motivation to engage in impression management (Leary and Kowalski, 1990, p.37).

The second one is “enhancing one’s self-esteem”. According to Social psychology, impression management enables people to adjust their self-esteem. It is assumed that self-evaluation and the reaction one gets from others affect the self-esteem. For example constantly being criticized would influence the self-esteem in a negative manner. Therefore engaging in impression management and trying to behave in a way to get positive feedback, would help the person to enhance the self-esteem (Leary and Kowalski, 1990, p.37).

The next motivation is “facilitating the development of desired identities” (Leary and Kowalski, 1990, p.37). Eventually each identity is given by society. However in order to confirm the ownership of the given identity, people behave according to the norms and what is expected from the society. This is called “self-symbolize”, which Leary & Kowalski described as a factor playing an important role in how a person presents him/herself. As a result audience’s reaction and interpersonal relationship relates to impression management behavior to promote the intended identity of an actor (Leary and Kowalski, 1990, p.38).

Moreover, self-efficacy performs as a predictor for the individual behavior. People consistently assess their effectiveness of their behavior regarding impression management by developing the future behavior based on their experiences (Bandura, 1977). Thus the impression management can be viewed as a cybernetic system, which consists of goal, feedback, comparator (i.e. process to compare the goal and feedback) and effector (i.e. process to modify the outcome). Since depending on each situation the individual’s behaviour will change, consequently the results give direction to future behaviour (Bozeman, 1997, p.11).

The Impression management motives presented by Leary and Kowalski (1990) are in some extend related to each other. For example receiving a punishment decreases self-esteem and therefore hinders achieving the desired identity. However, the degree in which the individual is motivated to engage in impression management depends on several factors such as impression relevancy to goal (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). When impression has implication for the desired goal, the motivation to manage the impression is high. This relevancy is even higher when the person is not alone, as there would be some audience to learn about the created impression. Moreover, when the achievement of the goal depends not only on the individual himself but also on the others, the motivation for impression management is higher. Furthermore, the motivation for impression management increases, when the individual expects to have future contact with the target. (Leary and Kowalski, 1990)

The value of the goal is also a factor in determining the motivational level of an individual; i.e. when the value of the desired goal is perceived high, the motivation for impression management increases as well. The value of the goal also depends on its availability. In case of scarce goal or limited opportunities, people are more motivated in impression management. (Leary and Kowalski, 1990)

The other factor is the divergence between current and intended image. Each person has an image about himself, which she/he considers as the proper one to reflect. When he finds out that the impression others have of him is not compatible with what they believe is acceptable, he/she tries to manage their impression. For example, failing at an assigned task is against the capable image that a person has developed for himself and therefore it will have a negative effect on his self-esteem. In order to fix the broken image, the person is more motivated to engage in impression management tactics (Leary and Kowalski, 1990).

Furthermore the tendency of people to engage in impression management also depends on personality factors. Many research has examined different aspect of personality; Machiavellian by Christie and Geis (1970) (Gardner and Martinko, 1988), Self-monitoring by Barrick et al (2005), extravert by Kristoff-Brown et al. (2002). Based on these researches, people with a higher score in Machiavellianism, self-monitoring and extravert have a greater need to manage their impression.

In addition to all that has been discussed above, interpersonal relationship is not always associated with impression management. Sometime the situation can limit the degree an individual behaves according to his personality (Barrick et al. 2005). Jones and Pittman (1982) indicated that when someone is totally captivated by a task that he is doing, it is unlikely to engage in impression management. Also in routine works, low motivation has

been observed among the individuals to engage in impression management (Gardner and Martinko, 1988).

Being aware of the impression others may have about a person helps her/him to better interact with others in order to create a proper relationship. In this regard, it is also interesting to notice that not everybody knows about the importance of self-awareness. Study of Ehringer et al. (2008) indicates that this awareness is lower in individuals who possess further development needs. Therefore, self-development will not be effective if it is not associated with recognizing the need and reason for such a behavior.

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter the historical background of impression management was discussed, as well as the role of theorist in sociology and psychology which highlighted the fundamental impact of impression management in social interactions. Impression management is defined as a process in which individuals try to control their impression on others, by providing necessary information through their conscious or non-conscious behavior. External drives (e.g. norms of the society) and/or internal motivation (e.g. enhancing self-esteem) encourages people to conduct a certain image which is assumed to enable smooth goal achievements. In the next chapter the focus is more deeply on the presentation of the desired image with help of impression management tactics.

3. Impression management behaviour

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the impression management behavior is being studied. Impression management is a two steps process. First, a person is to be motivated to manage the impression; next step is to decide how to behave in order to present that impression. Since impression management covers a wide range of behaviors, the initial part of this chapter is dedicated to examine different types of impression management behavior such as nonverbal and verbal behavior. Subsequently, the following five tactics of impression management of Jones and Pittman (1982) are discussed: self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation and supplication. Then the focus is on some personal and contextual aspects

affecting the success of impression management behaviors. At the end, scales for measuring the impression management along with their weakness and strengths are studied.

3.2 Type of Impression management behavior

When individuals are motivated to display an impression on others, the next step is to decide about the type of image they want to have and how to create it. This process is called “Impression construction” by Leary and Kowalski (1990). Taking into account not only the information regarding the audience (and situation) can provide some insight, but also it can determine some restriction on how to create the impression that others will have of the individual (Leary and Kowalski, 1990, p.35).

Impression management consists of a wide range of behaviours; from minor points such as the way someone sits to more significant points like speaking about one’s success. All these represent different types of impression management behaviours. Therefore, to have a more in-depth analysis of impression management, it has been classified in several distinctions.

First distinction in this regard can be made between purposive and non-purposive impression management behaviour. This identifies how conscious an individual selects a specific type of behaviour which affects the impression others have of him/her. According to Schlenker (1980), most of our impression management behaviours like knocking on door of your superior while entering, take place without the actor being aware of them.

The next division in impression management behaviour is between verbal and non-verbal tactics. People mostly count on non-verbal cues when they have limited or bounded information. Clothes, jewellery and in general outward appearance are being used as a tool for creating an image and statement about the type of person they intend to be perceived as. As Anna Wintour, editor-in-chief of American Vogue, states “if you can’t be better than your competition, just dress better” (Ramsdale, 2014). Study of Forsythe et al. (1985) shows the influence of female applicant’s dresses on the initial perception of an interviewer and consequently on the hiring decision for managerial positions. This study indicates that the more masculine a female candidate dresses the chance for acquiring recommendation to be hired increase. While the dress code is not the only factor affecting the hiring decision, it can facilitate achievement of goals, besides the fact that it is easy to control (Forsythe et al. 1985). However this result cannot be generalized, as culture, social norms and even the applied position may change the interpretation of the dress.

Yet verbal impression management behaviour can be well endorsed by means of nonverbal, as the goal of self-presentation tactics is to present a favourable image about oneself (De Paulo, 1992). Schneider (1981) distinguishes nonverbal tactics between presenting artefacts and expressive behaviours. Example of artefacts can be type of clothes, medals and room decoration which present a particular status of an individual (Gardner and Martinko, 1988b; Depaulo, 1992). For instance medals show what the person has experienced, to which social group he belongs and etc. Expressive behaviours on the other side represent the nature and feeling of the individual, such as smiling and handshaking (Schneider, 1981). Through this category of behaviour, people express their emotion and signal some type of information about personality, cognitive and physical states (Depaulo, 1992, p. 205). Facial expression, body gesture and posture can affect the impression we are creating, as they are mostly hard to control by normal people (Depulo, 1992). Goffman (1959) also indicated that people usually consider the less controllable behaviour such as body language, in order to verify the presenting impression. Moreover, no matter how much a person tries to hide, still some non-verbal cue will be passed over. For example having a smile on the face most of the time implies that you have a friendly characteristic (Peeters and Lievens, 2006) or even being in the presence of others and doing nothing carries out a passive or laza image about the person (Depaulo, 1992).

Nevertheless the support that verbal behaviour gets from nonverbal behaviour can give in another meaning. The most plausible interpretation is that compared to verbal behaviour, non-verbal behaviour happens faster and unexpectedly. Taking into account the fact that nonverbal behaviours are connected to our mood, interpreting the hidden message can convey other type of information (DePaulo, 1992). Considering an interview, where the answers are mostly short, the interviewer may place his judgment also based on non-verbal behaviours (Peeters and Lievens, 2006). Nevertheless the verbal behaviours are mostly supported by nonverbal behaviour and it can also gain another meaning. For example, winking or putting a funny face can convey to the audience that he was not that serious about what was discussed. Therefore a combination of harmonic and matched behaviour in both aspects can increase the probability of creating the desired impression (Schneider, 1981).

Investigating the effect of non-verbal behaviour on impression behaviour, Schlenker (1980) found out that a solid look and straight body posture could display an impression of power. In a research by Peeters and Leivens (2006), it was found that people high in self-monitoring and agreeableness would use more non-verbal impression management behaviour when they are about to create a favourable impression (Peeters and Lievens, 2006).

Although some messages are better understood through non-verbal behaviour, they are hard to be described to someone who was not in that place and time (Depaulo, 1992). This can be a reason why the body of research in impression management that have incorporated non-verbal behaviour is not substantive comparing to other impression management behaviour research. Moreover, no matter how much a person tries to hide, still some nonverbal cue will be passed over. Even being in the presence of others and doing nothing carries out a passive or lazy image about the person (Depaulo, 1992).

Impression management behaviour can be distinguished in two categories; assertive and defensive impression management tactics (Stevens and Kristoff, 1995). The aim of assertive tactics is to reveal a special positive type of image about a person (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). However based on the goal they persuade, different types of assertive behaviour can be named. For example it is ingratiation, when the actor's aim is to be received attractive. Or when the aim is to be seen competent, it is self-promotion (Jones & Pittman, 1982). However sometimes the goals can be incompatible, which cannot be attained at the same time. As an example trying to come across as a self-promoter would cause jealousy in other competitors which reduces the social attractive of the actor. In some cases, one goal can be achieved by more than one image. For example, if an individual fails to look competent, he may choose to look friendly in order to be acceptable to some other extent (Leary and Kowalski, 1990)

Although assertive behaviours are used to create a positive sense about the actor, defensive tactics are likely to protect the image of a person (Bolino and Turnley, 2003). These tactics are typically applied because of poor performance, a mistake or failure for gaining the desired image (Schlenker, 1980). In such occasions, the actor tries to fix the broken image, by averting the negative impact of that failure. For example by excusing and denying his contribution to the failure (Schlenker and Weigold, 1992; Rosenfeld et al., 1995).

Nevertheless the verbal and nonverbal behaviours influence the formation of hierarchal statuses (Brescoll, 2012). Research by Bales et al. (1950) presented that the perceived power and status of a person increases, as the individual's contribution to the group become more verbal (Brescoll, 2012). For that reason contributing more in a verbal manner helps the actor to first look powerful and then convert this status to others.

Another separation in Impression management behaviours can be made between self-focused and other-focused behaviour. Self-focused tactics are classified as behaviours which are directed at a person. It attempts to positively describe the qualities and skills one may have in order to be perceived in a particular manner for a certain goal (Kacmar and Carlson, 1999). Example about this type of tactic is self-promotion, intimidation (to make someone afraid)

and supplication (to ask for something humbly) (Jones and Pittman, 1982). Other focused behaviours are mostly aimed to others (i.e. audience) in order to gain the attraction and create a good feeling for the individual. Ingratiation is therefore categorized under this type of behaviour (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999). Depending on the type of impression management behaviour used, different outcomes for the actor are expected. For example Zivnuska and Kacmar (2004) found that in an organization with low political climate the employee who uses self-directed impression management received lower performance appraisal than those who did not engage themselves in such behavior.

Moreover, the perceived situation by the actor can also determine the type of behaviour one chooses. In an unfavourable situation rather than a favourable one, the defensive tactics are more likely to be used by the actor (Gardner & Martinko, 1988).

In this thesis both assertive and defensive tactics, as well as verbal and conscious type of behaviours in impression management behaviour will be studied, given that the individuals are aimed to control the image others may form about them. However the next step would be to measure the impression management behaviour.

3.3 Impression management tactics

With great emphasize on Jones & Pitmann taxonomy (1982), Bolino & Turnley (1999) examined and modified the existing measurements on impression management literature and created a multi-item scale, which will also be used in this study. The result scale measures 5 categories of impression management purposive behaviour: Self-promotion, Exemplification, Ingratiation, Intimidation and Supplication.

3.3.1 Self-promotion

Self-promotion and Ingratiation (i.e. trying to look attractive) are two tactics which have mostly been studied in impression management literatures. The goal of self-promotion is to be seen as competent by others (Gardner and martinko, 1988). In order to reach such a goal, an actor tries to present his abilities, skills and intelligence. Usually the term of goal for this tactic is short term, either to get the job or be selected in a group (Rosenfeld et al. 1995). According to Schlenker (1980) self-promotion can be achieved through altered sub tactics: first is *entitlements*, in which the actor attributes the positive result to his own skills and ability and takes credit for it. For example a student will describe how his perfect French

knowledge helps him to get an appointment by an investor bank. Furthermore the personal story behind this tactic makes acceptance by the audience easier (McFarland et al., 2003)

Through *enhancements*, the person tries to present an extra value for the positive result and therefore enhance the importance of the act. The next tactic is *overcoming obstacles*. In where the actor has to point out a problem that hinders the goal achievement first, and then talk about his strategy for solving the problem (Stevens & Kristoff, 1995).

It is generally believed that the most effective way to display the competent image is to reveal the skill or competence in public. According to social facilitation, the presence of others will encourage the actor to enhance his effort for performing a task, as they are expected to be evaluated by those who are watching the performance (Thomas et al. 2002). However, performing an action does not necessarily increase other's awareness about the ability that a person has, as sometimes the actor needs to highlight his contribution to the performance. This is especially true in cases where the result of an action is not that obvious. For example when there are more people engaged in doing a task, the effort level of each actor may not be clear to the person who only observes the results (Goffmann, 1959). Therefore gaining the attention of the audience through entitlement and enhancement, ensures the presentation of a claimed image.

Studies have shown that the use of self-promotion can also be affected by the personality of the actor. For example Bourdage et al. (2013) found that extraverted persons use self-promotion more often than others, since they are more sociable and care about being accepted by others (Bourdage et al. 2003). Moreover, Giacalone and Rosenfeld (1986) found that the individual tries to promote himself when confronting a superior. Therefore self-promotion is affected by the status of the audience as well (Gardner and Martinko, 1988)

The effect and outcome of self-promotion have been mostly studied in job interviews (e.g. Stevens and Kristof, 1995; Howard and Ferris, 1996). According to Jones and Pittman (1982), self-promotion is successful when the verification of that image by the audience is hard. Considering the job interview, convincing the interviewer that you are competent is easier than the direct manager. Since the latter is able to observe the actor's performance and confirm the reality of the claimed image (Rosenfeld et al., 1995, p.510). Field experiment of Stevens and Kristof (1995) about job interviews also shows that the most used impression management tactic during the interview is self-promotion. Moreover, it was found that interviewees, who are more engaged in impression management tactics, get better evaluation in their interviews (Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Another study indicates that high use of self-promotion is when the type of interview questions are experience based (Ellis et al. 2002).

Gender may also affect the outcome of self-promotion, as research by Rudman (1988) shows that self-promotion is more suitable for men than women. The most plausible reason for this result can be attributed to counter stereotypes. Although speaking about skills and talent are a necessary part of career interviews, it has a negative effect on an interviewer's decision for female candidates. However the problem is not per definition on act of self-promotion but how to apply this tactic (Rudman, 1988). Besides, studies have revealed that self-promotion increases the superior satisfaction in high political organizations (Harrell-Cook et al, 1999). Therefore the external variables existing in the organization are also involved in the perception formed about a self-promoter.

Nonetheless there are some risks associated with the self-promotion tactic. Speaking about your talent, showing your talents and in general being a self-promoter may also create jealousy among the audience and therefore the individual may end up being disliked instead. Another pitfall in using self-promotion is the self-promoter paradox. It assumes that individual who actually possess a specific ability, do not need to express and show it to the others. As a result, engaging in self-promotion tactic may decrease the likelihood of being perceived as competent by the audience (Jones and Pittman, 1982).

3.3.2 Ingratiation

The goal of Ingratiation is to be seen attractive and liked by pleasing the audience (Kacmar, 2003). Since it is hard not to like someone who likes you, the ingratiation facilitates the interpersonal relationship (Vonk, 2002). It is assumed that self-presentation is closely related to ingratiation tactics, since the actor tries to present him/herself in a way that pleases the target. The reason is due to the conformity tactic, in which the actor tries to increase his/her attractiveness, by performing according to the expectation of the audience (Baumeister & Hutton, 1987).

Ingratiation tactic is not limited to verbal behaviour, as it also covers a wide range of non-verbal behaviours e.g. smiling and nodding the head (Kacmar, 2003). This tactic is an usual organizational behaviour, especially in bottom up relations when the employee tries to impress his/her superior. Jones (1964) particularly studied ingratiation in more detail and found out that people engage in ingratiation in order to increase their social power to order to influence others. Ingratiation usually takes place in situations when there is a difference in power distributions among people. Therefore a classic setting for application of ingratiation is between the employees in the organization (Burnstein, 1996; Schlenker, 1980). However the

application of ingratiation is not limited to upward direction as it also takes place among the peers and colleagues in the same status (Liden & Mitchell, 1988).

According to Jones (1964), there are different sub-tactics of ingratiation: *self-enhancement*, in which the actor tries to improve his perceived image by the audience, *other-enhancement*, where the actor admires the target, *opinion conformity*, where the actor tries to agree with the other's opinion, and *rendering favour* is when the actor does a work-related favour for his/her target (Varma et al. 2006). Within these sub-tactics, the ingratiation can be presented in three forms. First is *self-presentation*, which is to present a general positive image about the individual, for example by using self-enhancement. This is closely related to self-promotion tactic, with the difference that the aim of self-promotion is to be seen as competent and not necessarily attractive. Next is *target directed*, which tries to awake the feeling of pleasure in the target audience in order to be perceived likeable, for example complimenting someone. The last category is *third-person directed*, which is an indirect, complex tactic requiring more skill. According to this approach, the ingratiation attempts to present a favourable impression in the target person by presenting a positive image of him/her to a third person (Liden & Mitchell, 1988)

The crucial point in ingratiation is to distinguish this tactic from normal behaviour as agreeing with other's opinion and doing a favour is not always counted as ingratiation. Therefore, the motives which indicate why a person is behaving in certain manner, help us to better identify ingratiation (Schlenker, 1980; Rosenfeld et al. 1995). Opinion conformity is one of the ingratiation sub-tactics, which usually occurs when individuals hold different position of power. Rosenfeld et al. (1995) found that the bigger difference between powers of two employees, the higher the possibility that the employee with lower power will imitate the behaviour of the other with higher power status, in order to represent an attractive image for the target audience. Experiment of Chartrand and Bargh (1999) also found out that mimicking the behaviour increases the chance of being liked and creates a smooth relationship between the participants.

Rosenfeld et al. (1995) indicates that ingratiation increases the agreement and therefore smoothens the progress of the interpersonal relationships. However since use of ingratiation tactics (such as complimenting, favour doing) is more successful on the target than the bystander (Gordon, 1996), Cooper (2005) suggested humour as an effective ingratiation tactic in creating a friendly atmosphere at the group. Therefore target groups becomes wider and the risks of displaying the undesired image are held back (Cooper, 2005).

The effect of ingratiation has been mostly studied on job interviews as well as performance evaluation at the organization. In general some authors (e.g. Allen et al., 1979) recognized the ingratiation as a political tactic used in interviews. Ellis et al (2002) found the positive impact of self-promotion and ingratiation on how the interviewers evaluate the candidate. In meta-analysis of Higgins et al. (2003) strong relationships between ingratiation and performance result have been found. The reason is due to the fact that employee's behaviour affects the performance appraisal in first place and then incentive system (Higgins et al, 2003). Research of Wayne and Liden (1995) also shows that ingratiation is positively related to an evaluator's liking about the target person, as it increases the perceived similarity between them. Consequently, perceived similarity affects the performance rating (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Research of Gordon (1996) also supports the positive impact of ingratiation and liking and performance rating.

The ingratiation is not always successful as there is the chance of being perceived not liked (Godfrey et al, 1986). Therefore the actor has to consider three aspects before engaging in ingratiation: first is the motivational aspect, to consider how crucial the goal of being liked by the others is. The next step is the cognitional aspect, to check how successful the ingratiation can be. Last one is the ethical aspect, which requires an evaluation of the situation in order to verify if the ingratiation fits the situation or not (Jones and Pittman, 1980).

Moreover, Gordon (1996) found out that the type of ingratiation sub tactic, the transparency of attempt and the type of the audience (target or bystander) can affect the outcome of ingratiation. Also the upward ingratiation has the better outcome in evaluation than downward and lateral (Gordon, 1996). Also an essential factor in being an ingratiator is having good listening skills, as the actor has to seek for the occasion to implement ingratiation effectively (Godfrey et al. 1986).

3.3.3 Exemplification

The goal of exemplification is to be admired due to moral principles and courtesy (Jones and pitman, 1982). By using exemplification, the actor wants to be a fine example of disciplined student or employee or etc. by making the others aware of this fact. Staying late at work or being first in the office are the example of showing how dedicated a person is to his job.

Although such a person is willing to do self-sacrifices and be dedicated, he/she tries to make the others feel blameworthy by not behaving in the same way as she/he does. Therefore this feeling encourages them to at least support the person who is engaged in exemplification

(Jones and Pittman, 1982; Rosenfeld et al. 1995). Moreover, individuals who use exemplification, attempt not to be seen lazy by others, since they are more committed and hardworking, especially when they know that their cause is being observed (Bolino and Turnley, 2001). Therefore they will not only behave committed but also publicize it.

Since exemplification is aimed to create a positive impression about the actor, it is also categorized as an assertive tactic. Studies have shown that individuals who use more assertive behaviours such as exemplification, are assumed more favourable than those who use defensive tactics (Bolino and Turnley, 2003)

The application of exemplification varies among individuals with low and high in self-monitoring. Bolino and Turnley (2001) found that people high in self-monitoring use exemplification to be perceived as dedicated, and goal of people low in self-monitoring is to be “feel superior” (Bolino and Turnley, 2011, p.355). So we can see that the same tactic may have different goals, concerning how effective the actor may apply the impression management behaviour. In another study conducted by Bolino and Turnley (2003), it was found that self-monitors apply exemplification and self-promotion more than people low in self-monitoring.

Nevertheless, the risk associated with exemplification is to be seen arrogant or fake by the audience (Bolino and Turnley, 2001; Mcfarland et al., 2003). When the peers find out that staying late at work was not aimed to finish the appointed task, they may lose faith in the actor; hence no positive image can be gained. Wayne and Liden (1995) found out that self-focused tactics such as exemplification and self-promotion affect negatively the outcome of performance evaluation. As they decrease the liking and similarity between evaluator and subordinate which lead to lower ratings in appraisal (Wayne and Liden, 1995)

3.3.4 Intimidation

Individuals use intimidation in order to be seen feared and dangerous. This means that the actor attempts to achieve the social power by creating an uncomfortable situation for others. Threatening and generating a feared feeling in the target are the example of such a tactic (Jones and Pittman, 1982).

There are as well some mutual feature in self-promotion and intimidation. Sometimes to be successful in intimidation the actor may also need to show that he/she is competent in first place. However it is not the essential element of self-promotion, as the actor can also be perceived competent without creating fear in the audience (Jones and Pittman, 1982).

In contrast to ingratiation which presents a likeable image of the person, intimidation makes the actor less attractive (Jones and Pittman, 1982). However according to studies (Bolino and Turnley, 1999) the intimidation and supplication are the least used tactics and therefore it can be assumed that it is not desirable to be seen intimidating especially in work groups. However there are some situational and personality characters, which promote using such a tactic. Research by Bolino and Turnley (2001) has shown that people low in self-monitoring uses intimidation in order to be seen “intimidating” and “bossy” (Bolino and Turnley, 2001, p. 355). In another study of Bourdage et al. (2014) it has been presented that individuals with low agreeableness personality use more intimidation, as they are more unreceptive. It supports the fact that through this tactic the actor looks unfriendly. Furthermore, the states of mind may have an influence on use of intimidation and impression management in general (Jones and Pittman, 1982). For example the probability that a person uses intimidation is higher when he/she is angry than happy. Yet further studies need to clarify this relationship (Gardner and Martinko, 1988).

Usually intimidation takes place among people in involuntary relationship (Jones and Pittman, 1982, Rosenfeld et al. 1995). When people are assigned to perform a task, actor uses intimidation in order to ensure that the target audience will agree on what he/she asks for, and therefore increase the probability of goal achievement. Furthermore, intimidation is used by the party with a higher power status to the target with lower power; for example from teacher to the student. In the organization, a superior can make the subordinate obey, since she/he can control the payment and evaluation for her/him. In other words, the superior is able to use intimidation, when he/she has coercive power. Therefore intimidation is more common in downward relationship (Rosenfeld et al. 1995).

3.3.5 Supplication

Individuals use supplication to advertise their weakness and thereby affect others (Jones and Pittman, 1982). Through supplication, the actor demands for help and attention of the audience, by presenting a needy and incompetence image of her/himself. Therefore supplication can be considered as opposite tactic to self-promotion.

Supplication is a passive type of tactic (Lim et al. 2008). Claiming the weakness and limitation also negatively affects the self-esteem (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). Therefore the concern about supplication is the extent a person can apply it. Since it is not usual pleasing to look needy at a workplace, this could be the reason why supplication is one of the least used tactics in an organization. Women especially attempt to avoid any behaviour which may

present their lack of ability (Bolino and Turnley, 2001). According to the norm of social responsibility, people have to help the others, who are not able to take care of themselves (Rosenfeld et al. 1995, p.56). The helpless image presented through supplication, activates this responsibility in an audience.

Studies about supplication mostly consider its effects on performance evaluation. It is expected that looking needy at a workplace causes a lower evaluation rating. Showing that a person is not able to do his task on his own will lead to low performance ratings for the actor. A target feeling associated by supplication is sympathy and sorry. Although study of Longenecker et al. (1987) presents that superior may assign a high rate for performance evaluation, when he/she feels sorry for that person. According to their research, the performance evaluation has political essence, as it can be used as a motivational tool for the subordinate. However inflating evaluation may cover the problem for a short time but eventually it has negative consequences for both superiors and subordinates (Longenecker et al. 1987).

According to research of Kacmar et al. (2007), the highest correlation among the five impression management tactics is between intimidation and supplication. Although it does not quite make sense that a person trying look dangerous also wants to be needy at the same time, the most plausible reason can be due to the fact that both of these tactics are supposed to present a negative image about the actor, contrary to self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification. Nevertheless not many researches have been focused specifically on supplication, and our understanding about the motives and circumstances lead an individual trying to look needy is yet not sufficient.

Table 3-1 displays an overview of impression management tactics and the image associated with them.

IM tactic	Representative behaviour	Desired image	Undesired image
Self-promotion	Performance claims, boasting	Competent	Conceited
Ingratiation	Flattery, favour –doing	Likeable	Sycophant
Exemplification	Going beyond the call of duty, appearing busy	Dedicated	Feels superior
Intimidation	Making threats, displaying anger	Intimidating	Bossy
Supplication	Asking for help, playing dumb	Needy	Lazy

Table 3-1: *Impression management tactics of Jones and Pittman (1982) p.249*

3.4 Multidimensional construct of Impression Management

Considering the effect of different behaviours individually and independently may not make sense straight away, as impression management is a multidimensional construct. (Jones & Pitmann, 1982; Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Study of Kipnis and Schmidt (1983) on different approaches to influence the others in an organization also considered the use of various tactics together; in the “shotgun” approach the person wants to have a high impact on the others and therefore applies many tactics such as assertive tactics and bargaining. In “tactician” approach, which is mostly used in higher hierarchical level of the organization, moderate - not high nor low- level of influence on the others is aimed. A practical tactic in this approach is reasoning; to explain and bring forward evidence as support to conduct a better impact on the others. People with the lowest power and goal in the organization apply “bystander” approach, which presents the least influence on others. Therefore depending on the approach of the actor different strategies are expected to be applied to help the actor reach what he/she is aiming for (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988, p. 529).

Law et al. (1998) use three models (i.e. “latent”, “aggregate” and “profile” model) to reflect the relationships between different dimensions of impression management construct. According to the latent model, active impression management approach is when she/he engages in all the tactics of impression management. However, according to the aggregate model the sum of one’s engagement in each impression management tactics describes the impression management style. Although through the profile model, the pattern of applying the impression management behaviour denotes the individual’s approach in impression management (Bolino and Turnley, 2003, p.143).

Bolino and Turnley (2003) use the profile model of Law et al. (1998)’s taxonomy in order to study the effect of different impression management tactics in combination. The focus of their analysis was to categorize the individuals who use the impression management similarly. It shows that those who are high in self-monitoring apply self-promotion and exemplification more than other tactics.

By considering the combination of impression management tactics, we may also notice that some tactics may not work successfully together (Bolino and Turnley, 2003). For example ingratiation and intimidation is not a good combination; Complimenting your colleague and showing interest in their personal lives to be friendly but on the other hand, aggressively asking the others to do something may reduce the effectiveness of the attractive image of the actor. However, if ingratiation is applied along with other assertive tactics such as

exemplification, this may be more affective. (Jones and Pitmann, 1982; Bolino and Turnley, 2003)

Another example of a good combination is self-promotion and ingratiation, as their goals are not that conflicted with each other. However an efficient combination of tactics is not an easy task. Godfrey et al. (1986) found out that to be perceived likeable is much easier than competent. The reason can be due to the nature of these tactics. Self-promotion is a proactive behaviour, in which the person needs to actively talk and behave in correspondence to the claimed image. However ingratiation is more of a reactor behaviour (Godfrey et al. 1985). Complimenting someone or doing a requested favour requires waiting for the proper situation to behave so.

3.5. Success factor of Impression management tactics

Different kinds of behaviours enable the individuals to establish certain impression in on others. E.g. doing personal favour or complimenting your colleague is in attribution to be perceived as a friendly person (Jones & Pitmann, 1982). However the success of creating a desired impression is not related to how often someone uses an impression management tactic. Besides, the actions and outcome of others may have an attribution on self-concept. For example if a person notices that the task of colleagues using ingratiation works more smoothly, he would understand that ingratiation helps interaction and communication within the organization (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Gioia & Manz, 1985).

In a study conducted by Bolino and Turnely (2003), it has been observed that those who use excessively all type of impression management tactics are perceived less favourable. In fact the result of impression management behaviour may vary according to the organizational context; gender ratio in the organization (Rudman, 1998; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Bolino & Turnley, 2003b; Brescoll, 2012), organizational status of the audience (Gurevitsch, 1984), the norm and culture of the organization (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Riemer & Shavitt, 2011), and the political situation of the organization (Zivnuska et al., 2001; Harrell-Cook et al, 1999). This highlights the necessity to study different aspects and skills of how to successfully manage the impression.

Results of Impression management tactics are not straightforward; as Jones and Pittman (1982) also indicated each tactic has a desirable and not desirable image with itself. One can argue that taking more share in tasks than requested will not always present a dedicated image, but may also reflect that the person feels superior and better than others. From the

other side, different perceptions of a tactic will exist at the same time. For example talking about the experiences and one's accomplishment can lead to being perceived as competent, as well as a threat to others (Rosenfeld et al. 1995).

Moreover, the gender of the actor may have an impact on the result of the same behaviour. For example, it was found that women who speak a lot at work are perceived less competent than men who speak the same amount (Brescoll, 2012). In a research conducted by Guadagno & Cialdini (2007) it has been presented that women tend to use more passive impression management behaviours, while men would rather use proactive types. Bolino and Turnley (2003b) found out that use of aggressive tactics have a positive effect on performance appraisal for men, while women using such strategies receive lower levels of likeability. The reason for this contradictory result may lie on what is commonly believed to be proper in social context. According to Rudman (1998) the behaviour needs to be compatible with the gender stereotype role, otherwise it may decrease the likeability. Therefore lack of alignment between impression management behaviour and stereotype behaviours for men or women may affect the outcome of impression management (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007).

Besides, the status position of the audience and the actor is considerable. According to social comparison theory when the outcome of impression management causes higher threat for the audience to lose his/her relative status, a more negative reaction towards the claimed image is expected (Gurevitsch, 1984), although this outcome has been mostly seen among individual who are in similar or lower status than the actor.

Furthermore the success of impression management also depends on the audience attribution (Jones and Pittman, 1982). When audiences understand that they have been manipulated, they will not be pleased through impression management behaviour and therefore the aimed image may be hard to display. The problem however is that in most cases no information about the attribution of the audience is available to distinguish the result and get the better understanding about this relationship (Bolino and Turnley, 2003).

Culture and organizational norm affects the use of impression management tactics in organization. As an example if the organization values the productivity, the application of ingratiation by lower productive individuals will not be supported and for that reason not effective, since ingratiation is based on relational behaviour (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Study of Riemer and Shavitt (2011) shows that collectivist individuals are more likely to engage themselves in impression management behavior than individualist (Riemer & Shavitt, 2011).

Furthermore the ability of a person on how to present him/herself is crucial to the success of a tactic (Schneider, 1981). In this regards, the role of effective interpersonal skills and communication at the workplace is undeniable. People need to know how to deal with different types of individuals and create an effective relationship in order to reach a personal or organizational goal. Research of Bolino and Turnley (2001) indicated that self-monitors are more skilled in application of impression management as they are more sensitive about how others perceive them. Consequently they are more skilled in an interpersonal relationship and are therefore better managers.

Communication, presentation skills and in general people skills are so natural that it may be taken for granted. However, with a little attention and time we may be able to develop the interpersonal skills and build a meaningful relationship with others. Practicing reinforces the knowledge and activities which is perceived significant for changing the behaviour in desired direction (Gioia & Manz, 1985). The first step in improving these skills is to examine ourselves in order to know our weaknesses and strengths. This increases the self-awareness and therefore provides some useful information for self-presentation (Klaus, 2013). Listening actively, being open to other's opinion, communicating clearly and providing useful feedback helps us to practice professional communication and therefore influence other's perception (Hatter, 2015)

In order to better understand the mentioned circumstances, we can also distinguish the displayed impression in to primary and secondary impression (Schneider, 1981). This division is based on how intentionally an impression is created. The intended impression is known as primary impression and the secondary impressions are those, which may be created in addition to the desired impression. However the secondary impression is not constantly opposing the primary impression. For example, it has been found that ingratiation also creates a competent image additional to the likeable impression for the person (Godfrey et al. 1986), if the audience identify no motives for manipulation (Gurevitsch, 1984). Or successful and powerful image of a person is also associated with dominant and arrogant perception (Gurevitsch, 1984).

As long as the secondary impression is compatible with the primary impression, no issue is addressed. However, it is appropriate to consider how a person will be able to manage all the impressions in a proper manner. One way is paying attention to the effect of nonverbal behaviour along with verbal behaviour (DePaulo, 1992). Although these behaviour are linked to feeling (Depaulo, 1992), they can convey some information which the actor may not intentionally plan or not be aware to share. Therefore the attempt is to control and align the

nonverbal behaviour with verbal behaviour, the chance of creating the desired impression properly will be increased (Schneider, 1981).

3.6. Taxonomy for measuring the Impression Management

For conducting a quantitative research about the impression management behaviour, an appropriate scale would be required to evaluate the tactics. There are several frameworks introduced by theorist and researchers in this field. In this section, some of the popular measurements is being briefly reviewed.

Self-presentation scale of Roth, Harris and Snyder (1988) measures two different styles in self-presentation. In attributive impression management style, individuals try to declare some positive qualities and traits in order to make an affirmative identity. However individuals with a high score in repudiative style, attempt to disprove the unpleasant traits. It measure the behaviour by indirectly asking about their tendency to control the impression. However, a weakness about this scale is that it does not reveal what kind of image an individual intends to display.

Balanced inventory of desirable responding of Paulhus (1984) measures the self-presentation by two subscales: self-deception and impression management. This measurement is a self-report about how individuals present themselves. The former scale measures the tendency to over evaluate oneself in a positive manner. While the impression management subscale measures the tendency to intentionally present favourable image to the audience, by knowing that the intended image is too good to be true. Since this model is a self-report measurement, it may contain the response bias. The other critic about this measure is that it copes more with intentionally manipulating than the measure of impression management (Paulhas, 1991)

Self-monitoring scale of Snyder (1974) is also one of the popular scales which reflect the engagement level of people in impression management. It measures the impression management by considering the tendency to control the behaviour related to impression management and also the capability of individuals to do so. Self-monitoring scale is consists of several factors, each presenting different aspects of the person. The first factor considers the personal characteristic, which can be inherited to a person. Another factor measures how active a person can control his/her impression management behaviour. Moreover, it considers the tendency to act in social settings and attracts the other's attention. The other factor is other-directed self-presentation, measuring the compatibility of individual's performance to what other may expect from him. Although this scale has broad applications such as a

template for other scales (e.g. Lennox and Wolfe, 1984), it does not make a distinction between the various types of impression management strategies. Several critics on dimensionality and reliability of the scale limit its focus on the social and interpersonal aspect (Day et al. 2002). Moreover, it is more associated with assertive tactics and therefore comes short for impression management which covers broader strategies.

Measure of Ingratiation Behaviours in Organizational Settings of Kumar and Beyerlein's (1991) has also been used in impression management studies. This scale measure the extend an individual applies different tactics of ingratiation within an organization. Obviously the main problem of this scale is the restricted centre on one impression management behaviour, ingratiation. Moreover, this scale is not purely behaviour related to impression management, but also organizational citizenship behaviour. However the motivation of these two process is different, as organizational citizenship behaviour aims bigger picture of the organization than actor self (Bolino and Turnley, 1999). Although organizational citizenship behaviour and ingratiation share similar expressive behaviour, the superior's evaluation of such behaviour alters depending on the actor's motive. According to the study of Eastman (1994), the better outcome is attributed to those who were perceived to engage themselves in citizenship behaviour rather than ingratiation behaviour (Eastman, 1994).

Impression management scale created Bolino and Turnely (1999) is one of the models that have been widely tested and validated through empirical researches (i.e. Kacmar et al. 2007). Bolino and Turnely (1999) used impression management taxonomy created by Jones and Pittman as the basis of their scale for measuring impression management. As stated before, Jones's study (1964) was basically about self-presentation and he found ingratiation as the main practice in this regard, which is to be seen attractive. Together with Pitmann(1982) , they created taxonomy with focus on a particular organizational behaviours. It categorises 5 different tactics of impression management based on their result attribution such as being competent (self-promotion), worthy (exemplification), likeable (ingratiation), helpless (supplication) and dangerous (intimidation). The reliability of this scale and the primary focus on those tactics that are most likely used in organizational settings turn this tool to one of the most popular scales for measuring the impression management in organizations. Nevertheless s broad range of behaviours embraced in these categorises, allow us to study the combination of tactics much easier. Yet this scale does not yet cover all types of impression management tactics such as nonverbal-behaviour and there are many other outcomes and impressions in addition to those stated by this scale, such as being open minded.

3.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the impression management behaviours have been studied. Presenting an image to others is not only feasible through actively promoting one's skills and qualifications, but also associated with nonverbal behaviour, such as facial expression. The taxonomy of Jones and Pittman (1982) offers us a wide range of behaviour in 5 distinct tactics. Some tactics gained more attention in impression management literature such as ingratiation and self-promotion, while others, e.g. supplication relatively less. Each tactic pursues a specific image of its own which in some cases is totally opposite to the each other, e.g. self-promotion and supplication. However these tactics are not applied individually, as in most cases a combination of different tactics is expected (Bolino and Turnley, 2003). For example self-promotion and exemplification is a better match than ingratiation and intimidation. Nevertheless the success of an intended impression may depend on many variables, such as gender and ability of the actor as well as the norm and culture of the group. Therefore merely performing a specific tactic of impression management is no guaranty to be perceived in intended manner by others.

4. Impression management at workplace group

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the role of impression management in organization and especially in group settings is being studied. According to group characteristic, the type of impression management behaviour an actor may attempt to apply, as well as its outcome may vary from one-to one situation. In order to study the impression management in group settings, first the attention will be on the reasons why group members may engage themselves with impression management tactics. For this reason some group dynamics are briefly reviewed. Second, the influences of a group setting to its member, and vice versa, are studied. Third the focus will be on how impression is formed during group interactions, following some individual and group characteristics which affect the definition of situation for applying the impression management tactics.

4.2 Impression management in the organizational group

An organization consists of individuals and their relationships (Daft, 2011). The social interaction among the individuals in the organization is not far apart from the impact of impression management. While most studies on impression management in the organization consider the vertical relationship between the individuals, little attention has been given to study the lateral relationships. Possible reason for such a point of view is that impression management is more practical when the counter partner (i.e. audience) has lower or higher status of power (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). However there are many situations in the organization, in which individuals are requested to work with their peers and colleagues in order to achieve the predefined goal. Therefore, they need to present themselves and evaluate the others in order to create a friendly atmosphere, assign the roles within the group and help each other to reach the common goal.

Moreover, studies have shown that performance of individuals improves when the group member feels competence and close to the other (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In group level, type and outcome of impression management an individual applies may differ from dyadic occasions. Group members join the group with their demographic status, personality, attribution and skills (McGrath, 1984). Yet the impact of individuals on the interaction within the group provides a basis for considering the influence on impression management behaviours.

On the other hand, the attention of organizations on teams and group work has been increasing in the past few decades. Research studies about the social interaction of groups (Hare, 2003) enable us to gain more insight into the application of impression management within a group setting. People tend to outline the type of impression one is presenting, when they expect to interact with him/her in future (Vonk, 2002). Research of Nguyen et al. (2008) on organizational citizenship behavior shows that altruism is positively related to use of ingratiation in lateral relationship and consequently increases team satisfaction. Moreover, they found that self-promotion and ingratiation affect the liking among the team members (Nguyen et al. 2008).

A group is two or more people who are gathered around for particular time to reach a common goal (Robins, 2005). By joining a group several dynamics are involved in which impression management will be expected to take part: dependency of group outcome on the efforts of group members, evaluating the other group member's behavior, justifying the performed behavior to the group member and expecting to working with the same group in future (Guerin, 1991). Moreover, research studies on group dynamics have shown that people

try to engage themselves in behaviour which creates positive affective relationship among the members of the group (Nguyen et al. 2008). Since group members are expected to work for a certain time together as a group and also each member's contribution is crucial to the success of the team, it will be important for the individuals to know how the other team members see them. They want to form a favorable picture of themselves, in order to increase the willingness of other group members to work and cooperate with them in the group (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Therefore the impression management can be interpreted as facilitator, a process which helps the team member to work better with each other, especially in self-directed team (Rosenfeld et al. 1995; Rozell & Gundersen, 2003).

In group level, type and outcome of impression management an individual applies may differ from one-to-one occasions. Group members join the group with their demographic status, personality, attribution and skills (McGrath, 1984). Yet the impact of individuals on the interaction within the group provides a basis for considering the influence on impression management behaviours.

In forming phase of the group, people try to gather information during their interpersonal interaction (McGrath, 1984) in order to define the group situation. However due to the lack of time and previous readiness, it will not be possible to gather all relevant information. For that reason each member may rely on some tangible clues for creating relationship with other group members (Goffman, 1959).

For instance when the roles in a group have not been pre-assigned to the members of the group, individuals try to gain information about the anticipation of others and also showing what they expect from the others (Hare, 2003). Therefore, one situation in which the impression management may take place, is the role assignment among group members. In hope to claim a specific role, some start to talk about the skills and their experiences in similar situations, some may act more passively by reacting to others attempt, for example confirming other's opinion.

During these interactions, people get to know the capacity of others and anticipate how each member can contribute to the goal achievement of group. According to expectation states theory, the evaluation and expectation forms the group "status structure" (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003 p.29). Later referring to these expectations, each member may get relative chance to participate in the group and gain approval for displayed image (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). Therefore the tendency to fulfill the expectation of other drives the individual to engage in impression management.

While the actor offers some information cues about holding specific characteristic, the audiences from the other side, try to verify the received information. However the motives of the actor have great impact on the receiver's perception (Gurevitsch, 1984). The degree in which the audiences believe that the actor is real and not acting, moderates the outcome of the impression management (Nguyen et al. 2008).

Considering the leadership dynamic, people tend to engage in certain impression management behaviour, in order to be perceived as a leader. Studies have shown that being a leader is in line with active character rather than passive one. Therefore it is clear that self-promotion will support the leader image, by highlighting the skills and ability required by such a role. In contrast, the supplication as passive behaviour may reduce the possibility of being perceived as leader (Lim et al. 2008). Moreover, it has been observed that people consider someone as a leader, when that person speaks more than others (Craig & Sherif, 1986). Consequently if the person aims to be the leader, he may engage in specific tactics, such as describing his experiences as a leader or the qualification that he possesses in order to ensure that group members get the accurate message.

However the application of impression management in group is not restricted to role assignment. As the group members are expected to work together for certain time, they need to create a productive atmosphere as well. Given that some of the impression management tactics have prosocial drive, intending to benefit others rather than one self, it helps the team member to work better with each other (Rosenfeld, et al. 1995). For example studies have shown that ingratiation increases the group cohesiveness by reducing the unusual situation among the member of the team (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003). Study of Harrell-Cook et al. (1999) supports this result. They found out that ingratiation and self-promotion increase the job satisfaction by reducing the stress and therefore foster the team spirit (Harrell-Cook et al. 1999).

According to what was discussed above it is assumed that some impression management tactics have different and in some cases less impact on group than in dyadic situations. In order to determine the effect of group on an individual's use of impression management tactics, we can categorize the tactics into self interest and other oriented tactics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999). Self-oriented tactics are related to those strategies, in which the actor is about to promote an image of himself about his own ability and competences in general. Therefore it is not aimed to a special target and the problem of multiple audiences is not considered that much in this case. The actor creates a statement about the type of a person he is overall and

engages himself with the behavior compatible with this impression. Self-promotion and exemplification are the examples of this type of tactics (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999)

On the other hand, intimidation and ingratiation require determination of the target group, meaning that it depends highly on the audience. Since the complimenting or threatening are effective when applied in unique and personal way. Therefore it is assumed that other-oriented tactics lose their effectiveness when applied in group. Guerin (1991) indicated that accountability is diffused among the members when the group size increases. For example threat may have greater negative effects such as anxiety and fear, when used to a single person than in a group with more participants.

Moreover, in group situation there are different classifications among the audience which determine the consequences of the impression management behaviors, such as target and bystander. In one-to-one situation bystander does not play a significant role in impression formation of an individual on the audience. Bystanders or observers are defined as the audience who are not categorized as the target audience. Vonk (2002) found out that the effects of ingratiation are more favorable for target audience than bystanders. Complimenting a person in a group may have some negative effects on those who have not been complimented and therefore felt offense (Gordon, 1996; Vonk, 2002). Moreover, uniqueness and personal attribution foster the effects of impression management behavior, especially ingratiation (Goffman, 1959).

Conceivably impression management behavior affects the informal interaction between the group members (Nguyen et al. 2008). Study of Rosenfeld et al. (1995) indicates that impression management facilitates goal achievement of the organization, when used properly, since it improves Communication and social interaction within the member of the organization and fosters the decision making process (Allen et al. 1979; Rosenfeld, et al. 1995).

4.2.1 Influence in group

People come together as a group in order to reach a common goal (Robins, 2005). During the group interaction, individuals influence each other to gain the personal or group goal. Therefore the influence of group affects the behavior of group member (Thomas et al, 2002; Robins, 2005). But this impact on the group behavior may occur in different ways.

Social facilitation indicates that the performance of individuals is affected by the presence of other. In some studies, it has been observed that the individual's performance increases by being in a group than being alone. However some other studies show contrary result,

indicating that the performance may decrease when someone is asked to work in a group, especially with a complicated task (Thomas et al. 2002). In this regard, drive theory of social facilitation of Zajnovic (1965) indicates that the presence of others does not directly affect the behavior but the motivation for changing the performance. Furthermore he classifies the reaction of the individual in two groups of dominant and non-dominant; Dominant reaction is what the actor has learned perfectly and in return non-dominant activities still need practice and improvement. Considering the effect of undertaking a task in groups, the individual's performance will improve and enhance if the task has been categorized as dominant reaction. If one does not know the elements of doing a job perfectly, he may not be able to perform better in presence of others which may increase the ambiguity and difficulty instead (Thomas et al. 2002).

In social facilitation the performance of each group member has been measured before and after being with others, but there are situations especially in group where the final performance of the group is what matters and not the individual performance of the member. Social loafing indicates that the individuals are willing to work less, when they are in a group, as their effort are not identifiable (Meydan et al. 2014). However the finding of Meydan et al. (2014) shows that social loafers also engage themselves in impression management, mostly in order to be approved by other group members though to their low effort level.

Furthermore we can also differentiate the types of influences created in group. According to social conformity, people change the attitude and behavior due to group force (Robins, 2005). Normative influence is when the individual perform a behavior which is compatible with the expectation and norm of the group, in order to gain the group approval (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). However the individual can believe in something but acts in another way, when he/she is in a group in order to follow the group norm. From the other side, informative influence is when the individual accepts the information which has been provided by the group members (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). This mostly takes place in situations when there is limited information. As a result both normative and informative influences affect one's attempt to manage his/her impression in group.

Additionally, how successful individuals are able to perform their influence in a group depends on several aspects. According to minority influence, the minority is able to change the behavior and opinion of majority under some circumstances. For example consistency in opinion encourages the majority in a group to change the behavior according to minority's point of view. Additionally if majority identify the minority similar to themselves, the possibility of changing their behavior increases (McLeod, 2007; Nemeth, 2010). Study of

Craig and Sherif (1986) shows that men rather than women have more influence in the group when they are in minority. Therefore characteristic of the person aiming to influence others may play an important role on the outcome of impression management in the group.

4.2.2 Impression within group

In earlier phase of the group forming, people do not have a clear image about the fellow group members, therefore it is expected that the use of impression management increases during this phase. Hence the effectiveness of impression management behavior in enhancing the positive appraisal decreases, when the target formed the relationship with the actor (Cooper, 2005). Therefore when people first come together to form a group, they may consider various types of methods to build up an accurate interaction with each other (Goffman, 1959).

According to equilibrium model for group development of Bales (1950) we can distinguish the interaction within the group in two interrelated processes. First is “*task oriented*” interaction which aims at exploring the information from other group members relevant to the group task. In the other hand the “*socio-emotional oriented*” interaction focuses on the expressive behaviour among the group members. As the group forms and further develops itself, the socio-emotional oriented interaction increases and the task oriented declines in return (McGrath, 1984, p.140). Therefore it is expected that people use impression management tactics when they form the group in the first place. While observing these tactics, the audiences consider other characteristic of the actor such as status and gender, in order to better understand the message.

In a group, the impression formation is based on role attributes and features, which individual values the most. (Flynn et al. 2001). Correll & Ridgeway (2003) categorize the status of individual as diffuse and specific characteristic. Diffuse characteristic are general attribution about the capability and know-how of the person, for example the gender. Specific characteristic on the other hand are based on some observable skills and therefore related to special task (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). Therefore not only our ability and skills in doing a task form what others can expect from us, but also some characteristics which are not related to group task have an impact on how other group members assess us, such as attractiveness, status and power. (Jones 1964)

Moreover, people’s perception is affected by “self-categorizing” (Flynn et al. 2001, p. 416), in which individuals classify themselves either similar or different to other group members. One

of the primary categories in the organization is demographic characteristics (such as gender or race). Because it is more likely that the members of one category share the similar experiences with each other, the individual attributes him/herself to that category. According to this information, people tend to perceive more favorable impression about the group member, who is categorized in same sex or age as them (Flynn et al, 2001). This classification also supports the stereotyped features. Acting against what is expected from a person decreases the likeability (Rudman, 1988) since people tend to keep the information which is constant with formed stereotype and perception (Flynn et al, 2001).

The effect of individual's cognition is also considerable on impression management. As mentioned earlier, the observation and feedback received from the audience help the individual form self-concept (Schlenker, 1980). However structure of self-concept is not limited only by one's behavior but the performance of others may provide some inputs. For example if a person notices that a group member using ingratiation, gets his work done easier, he would believe that it is the ingratiation which improves his situation (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Gioia & Manz, 1985). Taking into account that by developing future behavior based on the experiences, people consistently assess their effectiveness of their behavior regarding impression management (Bandura, 1977). Nevertheless the reaction of audience depends on how compatible the expected behavior is with observed behavior (Schneider, 1981).

According to Gardner and Martinko (1988), the characteristic of actor as well as the audience and the situation determine how a person will manage the impression. Thus we can distinguish these features into the individual characteristic such as personality of the actor, gender, status and the group characteristics such as the group task, size and the composition of the group.

Individual characteristic: Role of gender and stereotype on the outcome of impression management have been discussed earlier (e.g. Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Singh et al. 2002), but their effect on the utilization of impression management in general is also considerable. It has been found that women are more engaged in socio emotional activities (Rogelberg & Rumery, 1996). Therefore it is expected that they apply more impression management behaviours. But in a study conducted by Singh et al. (2002), it comes out that women rather than men have fewer tendencies to engage in impression management tactics such as ingratiation and self-promotion and rather act committed and show high effort to superior.

Moreover, status of the actor also plays a role on how individuals present themselves. Political behavior such as image building is more often seen in higher level of the

organization. In other words, individuals with higher status become more willing to draw attention of positive outcome to themselves and therefore form a favorable impression about them (Allen et al., 1979).

Studies have shown that physical attractiveness has an impact on interpersonal relationship and therefore attractive people have higher tendency to create a positive impression for others (Anderson et al. 2001). Given that they are mostly the center of attention, their skills in controlling their nonverbal behavior are relative higher than less attractive people. For example while telling a lie, some facial expressions such as blushing or rolling the eyes are normally associated, however physical attractive persons are not subject to these behaviors; in other word they are able to control them successfully (Depaulo, 1992)

Moreover, skills and ability of the individuals in creating impression affect the application as well as the outcome of impression management. Bolino and Turnley (2003) find out that people high in self-monitoring aim to create a positive image and therefore mostly use impression management tactics which display such a favour image, for instance ingratiation and self-promotion. Although self-monitoring affects managing the impression rather than the motivation to impress others, it can be counted to greater extend as skill instead of characteristic trait (Barrick et al. 2005). Self-monitors tend to engage only in those tactics which have high probability in achieving the positive impression (Barrick et al. 2005), since they care more about what is known as proper behavior (Bolino and Turnley, 2001) and therefore self-monitoring reflects the ability of an individual to control the expressive behavior. In addition, the individual status in the organization also determines the person's ability in managing the behavior and impression. For example people with high status are more capable in keeping their positive traits, than individuals with lower level of status in the organization (Gurevitsch, 1984).

Furthermore studies have shown that personality characteristics affect the person's impression management behavior. For example extraverts use more assertive tactics such as self-promotion, since they have high tendency to express themselves with the others (Kristof-Brown et al. 2002). However Barrick (2005) indicates that situation moderates the effect of personality on the behavior. As stated before the reaction of audience depends on how corresponding the expected behavior is with observed behavior (Schneider, 1981). Concerning the reaction of the audience as a situational factor, people behave more according to their personality when low expectation exists, named as weak situation (Barric, 2005).

Group characteristic: The characteristic of audience also creates great influence on how actors identify the situation and therefore on the impression management strategies (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). Especially in newly formed group, where the members have no previous knowledge or experience about each group member, they are expected to rely more on some feasible aspects presented by the group such as the goal of forming the group in order to control their behavior.

People coming together in form of a group may share one common goal, but there are other aspects such as value, perspective, expectation, knowledge and ability, which make people different from each other (Schneider, 1981; McGrath, 1984). Nevertheless the interpretation of a single behavior may vary among group members. Talking loud can be perceived as high self-confidence by a group member or being rude by another.

Impression management in group is more complicated from impression management used in dyadic situations. The first reason is due to the number of the individuals who are associated in group. Leary (1995) called this situation multi audience problem, in which an actor has to present different impressions through one act (Nichols & Cottrell, 2015). Moreover, people adapt the self-presentation behavior according to the preferences of audience. Therefore by choosing a strategy, the individual must consider different attribution among the audience, which creates an uncomfortable situation for predicting the result. For example one may highly evaluate competence of the individual as it helps the group for achieving the defined goal, but another person may define it as a threat for his own sake. Therefore it is harder for an individual to predict the impression he is making while in a group. This feature affects the selection of a particular behavior according to the diverse audience, as well as the different interpretation of same behavior by the audiences (Nichols & Cottrell, 2015).

Since there are several targets in a group, actor is expected to manage multiple impressions to display an impression for some group members and sometimes a different one to other group members (Bolino and Turnley, 2003). According to Goffman (1959) individuals may act in a particular way for special audience and then set apart this audience for another act, to ensure the maintenance of appropriate relationship. Considering the group situation that some people are expected to work together for specific time, makes separation among the audience harder. What actually happens in practice is that actor sets a group of people as the audience and the rest will be the bystanders. By engaging in particular impression management behavior, the actor mostly tries to affect the outcome for the target audience. But the effect on bystanders loses the attention. As Vonk (2002) found that the outcome of ingratiation varies among the

audience, creating a positive feeling in target person but negative and offensive on those who observe the act.

Nevertheless, evaluation of the situation also varies by presence of others. In an experiment conducted by Thomas et al (2002) it has been observed that the extreme judgment occurs in situations when the participant were in group than alone. Therefore the presence of others in group, and how they see and think about a group member, is expected to affect the outcome of impression formation.

The composition of the group has also an impact on how a person identifies the situation. Arise (1976) indicates that mix gender is more cohesive for men, when women are more cohesive in an all women group. However study of Rogelberg & Rumery (1996) indicates no relation between the gender and group social interaction. Instead it turns out that composition of the group affects the group performance (Rogelberg & Rumery, 1996). In research of Hans and Eisenberg (1985) it has been found that women shift the self-presentation techniques more in masculine way. However it is not clear if shifting is due to the gender distribution in group or other reasons. Therefore it is interesting to examine if the composition of the group influence controlling the impression one is about to present.

Moreover, the perceived similarity between the actor and audience affect the impression in different dimension. Flynn et al. (2001) indicates when the demographic similarity between the actor and audience is high, the probability of creating a positive impression is also higher. But the similarity is not always in favor of Impression management. As in study of Gurevitsch (1984) it turns out that when the similarity is high, it is more likely to create undesired image of manipulation through engaging in self-promotion.

In research of Ruble and Higgins (1976), it has been indicated that when there is a single man in an all women group, or vice versa, he/she tries to represent a similar image to the majority in the group (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007). Being in the minority reflects a distinctive aspect of individual's relationship with social. Furthermore women are more open to conformity when they form the minority (Hans & Eisenberg 1985).

Even if the individuals are demographically different than the rest of the group, it does not necessarily induce the impression of weak performance of them. Through successful implementation of impression management, it will be possible to replace the initial effect of gender or ages by desired image. Therefore improved impression can enhance the performance and experience of demographically different people in the group (Flynn et al. 2001).

The interaction within the group is also affected by the task which is assigned to the group (McGrath, 1984; Hackman & Morris). Shaw(1973) indicates six characteristic for group task; *intellective vs. manipulative requirement*, which is directly attributed to nature of the task which the group has to carry it out, *Task difficulty*, *intrinsic interest* and *population familiarity* which determine the relationship between the group members and task. The fifth characteristic is *solution multiplicity vs. specificity* which shows how the result of group work is rated. And last one is *cooperation requirement* that indicate the relationship among group members themselves to reach the common goal (McGrath, 1984, p.55). Moreover, the group task creates value for the group and encourages the team member to judge the idea and performance of others in order to ensure the achievement of the group's aim (Guerin, 1991). Therefore depending on the assigned task, the people will decide on the image they desire to display. Studied have shown that when the task have some specific features, it may encourage people to put more effort on task performance. For example when the task covers several skills, or when it has significant impact on their well-being in/outside the group, or when individual's attribution to the outcome is able to be identified, the individuals are more motivated to control the others' perception (Hackman and Morris, 1974).

4.3 Conclusion

As discussed in this chapter, impression management has many applications in organizations and groups. Since groups are people who gather around to reach a common goal, justification of performance as well as evaluation of member performance is necessary to ensure goal achievement. Moreover, they have to create a friendly and productive atmosphere in the group as they are expected to work with each other for a certain period of time. Impression management improves the communication and for that reason is common in socio-emotional as well as task oriented interaction within group members. However according to group features, the application and the outcome of impression management in groups vary from one-to-one situation. Having more than one audience with different attributions makes it hard for the actor to predict the interpretation of his behaviour. In this regard, some of the individual characteristics (e.g. personality skills) as well as group characteristic (e.g. composition of the group) has been reviewed. Moreover, it is expected that impression management tactics have lower or different effect in group settings.

5. Hypothesis and research model

Based on the theories and findings reviewed in previous chapters, the hypothesis and research model will be presented in this chapter. In today's organizational settings, people occasionally are asked to work in teams. Within the lateral and horizontal relationships, individuals also intend to be seen as a flattering group member. In order to answer to our main research question, namely, the impression management taken in a group, we will need to study role of some group characteristics such as the type of group task in question, group size and the composition of the group. These factors together with personal characteristics such as age, gender and professional background will build up a specific perceived situation for the actor which then determines the type of impression management behavioural approach she/he may be inclined to pursue. Finally the chapter will end with a model demonstrating relationships. To make the situation in question more comprehensible, when formulating the hypothesis the terms actor and audience will be respectively replaced by candidate and group members.

Group Size

Due to the number of individuals associating in group settings, impression management is more complicated in groups comparing to one-to-one situations. With respect to diversity among the audience attribution and interpretation, the selection of a particular behaviour may require more consideration. Therefore it is more challenging for an individual to predict the impression he is making while working within a group (Nicols and Cottrell, 2015). Moreover, the evaluation of the situation is affected by the presence of others (Thomas et al. 2002), which is expected to have an impact on the impression management tactics.

Unfortunately not many researches have examined the effect of group size on impression management behaviour. One of the few studies in this regard conducted by Gardner and Martinko (1988b), found no significant difference in time spent to address self-presentation in group and one-to-one situations.

Size of the group reflects the existing amount of talent and knowledge in the group. The larger the group the more variety of experiences and skills will be expected to exist among the group members. Moreover, the group size can also affect the interaction among group members.

As the group size grows the amount of possible communication among the group members increases (Gardner and Martinko, 1988b). Considering the extent of each group member's participation, as the group gets larger the differentiation among the roles requires a person to become leader, while in smaller groups the roles are performed in a more common manner. Moreover, increasing the group members increases the amount of communication that the top initiators begin and in contrast decreases among other group members (McGrath, 1984). Therefore, the participants get more indication to control the impression in larger group as there is more potential communication.

On another note, the likelihood of having a closer relationship with group members decreases as the group gets larger. Gardner and Martinko (1988) also indicate that the size of a group affects how formal the situation is perceived by the actor (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). So that a group consisted of 2-3 people is more casual than 30 or more.

Moreover, as Guerin (1991) points out, the accountability diffuses among the group members as the group gets larger. Therefore it is expected that the use of specific impression management tactics are affected by the group size. According to the bystander effect, the larger the group is the more audience exists to watch the participants' performance. Therefore it is expected that in larger groups participants use more impression management tactics to impress the others.

According to the above discussion, the size of the group may have an influence on the member's use of impression management.

H1) Group size is positively related to the member's use of impression management tactics.

Group Composition

People bring their own characteristics when coming together to form a group. Therefore, members' characteristic such as age, gender, nationality, status, abilities and skills will impact the group that they belong in. From the other hand, the behaviour and image one is about to present is affected by the audience, since they influence the perceived situation by the actor (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). In a group setting, other group members are playing the role of the audience and therefore, it is expected that group composition affects the impression management. However, since the composition covers various aspects, I decided to consider only the physical factors such as age and gender. For this reason the composition of the group will be classified as homogeneous or heterogeneous.

As stated before, there are two kind of status characteristics; *diffuse* and *specific* (Correl & Ridgeway, 2003). Although specific characteristics reflect the ability of a person for a particular task, people also consider other (diffuse) characteristics which are not directly related to task related skills, such as gender or age for evaluating the participants (Jones, 1964).

According to self-categorizing, individuals classify themselves as either similar or different to other group member based on altered features (Flynn et al. 2001). One possible basis for classification is demographic characteristics such as gender or age. Since being in the same status implies the same scope for comparing the ability, it somehow increases the reliability of the evaluation and comparison (Gurevitsch, 1984).

From the other side, the perception of an individual is affected by the composition of the group. As Arise (1976) indicates, men found the mix gender group more cohesive, however for women cohesive group is composed of only females. Although Rogel and Rumery (1996) found no significant effect of gender distribution in a group and social interaction, studies have shown that people behave differently according to the gender of the audience. For example Hare (2003) indicates that the relationships between women are more friendly and expressive than between men. The study of Ruble and Higgins (1976) shows that when the participant is the only opposite sex in a group, the attempt to be perceived similar to the rest of the group is higher (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007).

According to what has been discussed, it is interesting to test if being a part of homogeneous group (all in the same age and gender) affects how one presents him/herself. Keown (1983) has declared that people in homogenous group feel more comfortable and hence a higher level of interaction is expected (Corfman, 1995). Moreover, the possibility of having a similar experience in homogenous groups is higher compared to the heterogeneous groups. From this point of view, participants are expected to form a more positive impression about the member of a homogenous group. Further to that, it is assumed that when impression management is used properly, the participant may be able to replace the initial perception created by gender or age (Flynn et al. 2001). Therefore it is expected that their motivation to intentionally behave in a way to support the intended image will increase as the group's heterogeneity increases. Therefore the last hypothesis is:

H2) Heterogeneity of the group from physical aspects (age and gender) is positively related to the member's use of impression management tactics.

Task of the group

People come together and form a group to reach a particular objective (Robbins, 2005). Each group is defined by the task assigned to it, since it provides a direction in which the group activity is expected to go. In general, group tasks determine the activities which are necessary for achieving the goal of the group. However according to the type of task, different approaches for carrying out the task will appear; For instance to do it individually or together. In other words, although group members are asked to work together, some tasks need to be done individually. For that reason people assign critical roles to each other in order to better organize the activities and efforts. Moreover, according to task oriented interaction, which occurs frequently in the beginning phase of group formation, people seek for information regarding the assigned task among the group members (McGrath, 1984). This drives the individuals to care about how other may see and evaluate their ability to help out the group task in question (Hare, 2003)

According to impression management motivation, individuals try to present an image which brings the most value of outcome for them in the first place (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). From the other side, performance of a group is mostly evaluated as a whole outcome rather than single result of each member. Consequently, if the achievement of this outcome depends not only the individual but also on the performance of the other group members, she/he may be highly motivated to engage in impression management (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). While in a newly formed group the members are not that familiar with each other, no sufficient direction and cooperation would be expected unless each member presents her/himself during the group interaction. Study of Liden and Mitchell (1988) also supports this argument that when the accomplishment of task is not entirely based on what the actor performs but also other's contribution is necessary, individuals use more of the ingratiation in the group.

Besides the type of group task creates value for the group, which encourages the group member to judge the idea and performance of others in order to ensure the achievement of the group's goal (Guerin, 1991). As soon as people come together in a group, they are highly motivated to gain information about their group members to better identify the situation (Gofmann, 1959), for instance in order to assign a role to the right member in the group.

It is also assumed that the type of the task a group is aiming at will influence the image that an individual is about to present. According to McGrath (1984) the relationship between the task and group members is determined by difficulty of task as well as population familiarity. Therefore in this study, the task will be categorized in either easy or specialized task, based on

the amount of required skills and talent for performing the task. Furthermore Harris and Morris (1974) indicate that when a task covers more skills, it encourages the individuals to put more effort in their performance. Given that in a specialized task the participant has a greater opportunity to identify her/his attribution of responsibility for success of the group, the motivation for controlling the impression is essential. As a result, it is expected that the individuals will be highly motivated to present a certain image, such as competent and dedicated, when the task of the group covers assured skills and specializations. Therefore I formulize my third hypothesis as:

H3) speciality degree of group task is positively related to the member's use of impression management tactics.

Perception about the situation

Throughout the cognition process, it is no surprise that interpretations of the individuals are not identical. For example a group consists of 3 people may not sound formal for a person who usually works in a larger group. It is also expected that people are more conscious about the way they behave in a novel rather than routine situation (Jones and Pittman, 1980).

The favourability of situations can also be verified through the culture of the organization. As James and White (1983) indicate, the utilization of ingratiation carries out less risk for a person, where the social culture encourages such a behaviour (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). According to Gardner and Martinko (1988) impression management behaviour is highly linked to the actor's perception of the situation. People are more likely to present a positive image about themselves when the situation is favourable (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). Pleasant perception about the given situation increases the comfort as well as confidence to better control the behaviour and impression. From the other side, Kristof-Brown et al. (2002) also point out that extraverts feel more comfortable during the social interactions and apply more self-promotion tactics.

According to what is stated above, perception about the situation is formed individually. Therefore it is expected that situational features such as group characteristic indirectly affect the impression management behaviour and for that reason favourable perception acts as a mediator in this relationship.

H4) member's perception about the favourability of the situation mediates the relation between group characteristic and the application of impression management.

The model below presents an overview about the predicted relationships between the mentioned variables in the hypotheses. Individual characteristics and group characteristics together build up how an individual perceives the situation. According to the perceived situation the actor will decide about the image she/he wants to display as well as the methodology in form of impression management strategies. Identified hypotheses will try to test whether the group characteristics affect the utilization of impression management tactics in a group.

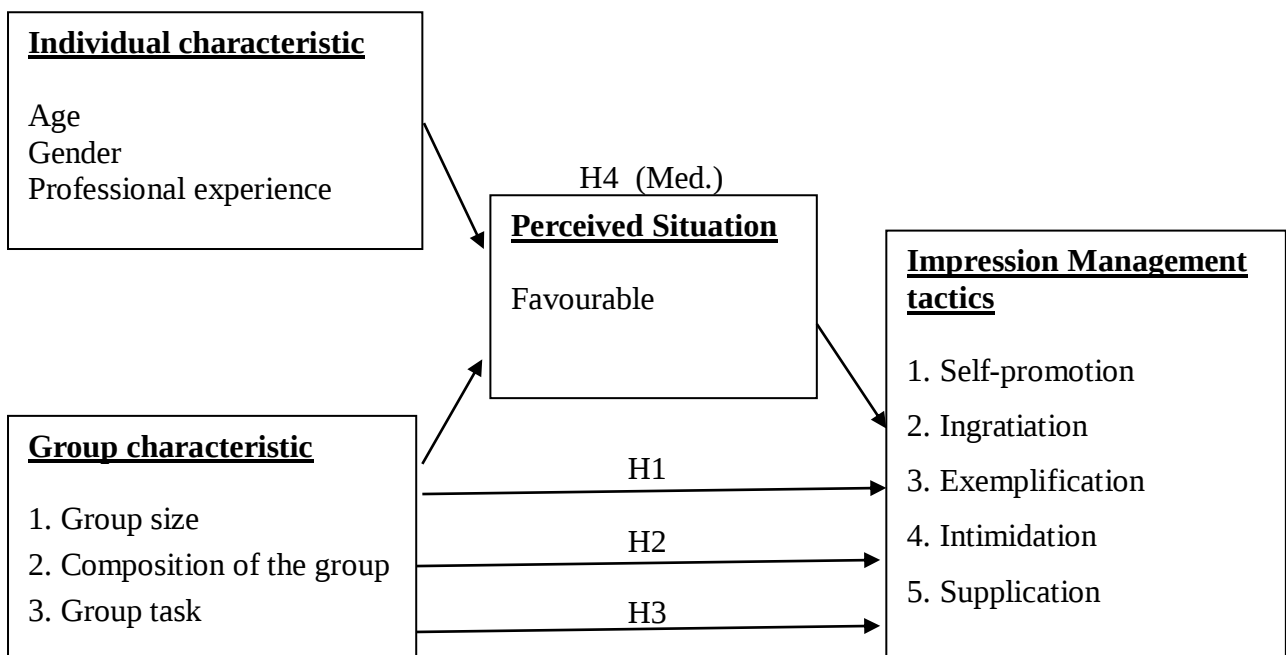


Figure 5-1: Overview of all hypotheses

6. Methodology

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview about the empirical research which carried out through this study. First the sample population is being studied followed by an elaboration of the type of research and method in which the data were collected are discussed. Subsequently I explain the manner in which the independent and dependent variable were measured.

6.2 Sample

Participations in this study consisted of two groups: a group of 104 undergraduate students enrolled in the business administration program at University of Vienna and a group of 56 Human Resources employees of the UniCredit Bank Austria AG. The undergraduate students were selected because it is assumed that they have no or few years of experience as working in an organization. Although they had worked in different university project groups which to some extent resemble workplace. However the amount of experience is still lower than employees at Bank. Participation in survey was completely voluntary and of course anonymous. The age of participants varies between 20 and 54 with a mean value of 27.4 (the mean age of student sample is 24.5 and that of bank sample is 32.6). The gender distribution is relatively equal, however the majority (56.88%) of the respondents were Female (56% of student sample and 59% of bank sample were female participants).

6.3 Research design

Since the aim of this study is to investigate the factors affecting the impression management tactics in groups, a qualitative type of design is more suitable. Moreover, this study focuses on investigating the impression management process by testing the hypotheses driven from theory, therefore it is classified as a deductive and descriptive study. For this reason, I decided to use a between-subjects factorial design in order to identify factors affecting the decision making of the participants regarding their impression management behaviour. The independent variables are group size, composition of the group and group task, each with two levels resulting in eight different scenarios.

All scenarios start with asking each participant to imagining herself/himself as a part of a newly formed group and then answer a series of questions about the likelihood of engaging in some behaviour within the group. Being a new member of the organization and trying to reinforce the position is expected to motivate the individuals for engaging in impression management behaviour. The scenario starts as follows:

“Imagine that you are the newly hired Human Resources manager of a mid-size company. Previously the owner of the company had been doing everything related to Human Resources Management. In order to get a handle on the value of your position in the organization, you were asked to take part in a newly formed group.”

In the next stage, each subject was randomly assigned to one of the eight scenarios. Each scenario contains sequence of sentences in a fixed order which present 3 independent factors (group size, composition, and task of the group) and each factor has two levels. Table 6-2 shows 8 different experimental combinations.

EXPER COMB.		FACTORS	
Scenario	Size	Composition	Task
1	Large (1)	Homogenous (1)	Easy (1)
2	Large (1)	Homogenous (1)	Specialized (0)
3	Large (1)	Heterogeneity (0)	Specialized (0)
4	Small (0)	Heterogeneity (0)	Specialized (0)
5	Small (0)	Heterogeneity (0)	Easy (1)
6	Small (0)	Homogenous (1)	Easy (1)
7	Small (0)	Homogenous (1)	Specialized (0)
8	Large (1)	Heterogeneity (0)	Easy (1)

Table 6-1: experimental combinations in the 2³ factorial design

For example scenario No. 4:

“Your group is composed of 4 people coming from different departments, who might have seen each other before but did not work together. There are 2 men and 2 women, from 22 to 45 years old and all have voluntarily decided to be a part of this project. The task of this group is to develop a software program to allow employees to access pay information and compensation policy online.”

At the end, demographic characteristic of participants such as gender and age have been registered. In order to reduce the bias of the study result some control questions have been included. For example whether the participant has any experience of working in an organization, as having work experience is expected to increase the use of impression management behavior. Since it is expected that in organizational life, the possibility that an individual has practiced or observed the impression management behaviour increases (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Gioia & Manz, 1985).

The other control question is the perception of favorability of a given situation for reaching the goal. It is assumed that the participants are more engaged in impression management tactics which aim to promote a positive image, when they find the situation as an opportunity rather than inappropriate (Gardner and Martinko, 1988) to reach their goal.

Finally the questions about the age and gender were also included in order to check if they caused any further influence on the impression management behavior in groups.

6.4 Data collection

The type of data collected in this survey is primary and self-reported. Scenarios have been programmed and conducted with the experiment software z-Tree (Fischbacher, 2007). Participants were asked at the end of each scenario to fill a questionnaire containing questions about the favorability of the situation to persuade the given goal, the impression management behavior within this group, and demographical information. Each participant was asked to fill them individually without discussing it with other participants. Furthermore the participants were allowed to ask privately any questions concerning the scenario or the questionnaire. Each session lasted 10 minutes on average. After the completion of experiment, the data were saved at host computer. Participation in this survey was completely voluntary. Confidentiality of the collected data was guaranteed in verbal as well as written form at the beginning of each experiment. For each scenario 20 participants were asked and in sum 160 filled questionnaires build the sample data for testing the hypotheses.

6.5 Measures

After reading the information about the group each participant was assigned to, the next step was to specify the impression management behaviour. Of all available methods and frameworks the Bolino and Turnely (1999) instrument has been used to measure the

impression management behaviors; since it has widely been tested and validated through empirical researches (i.e. Kacmar et al. 2007). This scale identifies five categories of impression management strategies based on the intended impression to be displayed: self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, supplication and intimidation. For each tactic only 4 questions have been selected and in total the questionnaire consists of 20 items. The primary questionnaire consisted of 22 questions (Kacmar et al, 2007, p.29-30), in which during a pre-test with 16 participants, one item of supplication has been dropped and one item of intimidation has been replaced by an integrated statement out of two items. Furthermore, in this study some of the items were adjusted in order to capture the group work concept of the study. For example instead of “arrive at work early to look dedicated” has been changed to “I arrive at group meetings on time in order to look dedicated”. In order to specify the engagement in impression management tactics, participants were asked to indicate how accurate each of 20 items was in describing their behavior during this group. Responses were made on a scale ranging from (1) very inaccurate to (5) very accurate. The whole questionnaire is included in appendix.

The favorable situation was measured by one control question. After reading the given scenario, the participants were asked how well the situation is in supporting their goal accomplishment. They could indicate their response as yes or no.

In order to test the consistency of applied scale for measuring the impression management behaviour, the reliability analysis with inter item correlation has been used. One item from ingratiation, exemplification and intimidation have been dropped in order to increase the inter consistency of index and therefore improve reliability of the scales. The final Cronbach Alpha for impression management tactics are as follows: self-promotion (0.746), ingratiation (0.734), exemplification (0.716), intimidation (0.719) and supplication (0.769).

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter explained the elements of empirical design of this study. To test the hypotheses driven from the theory part of this study a sample group was required. The participants consisted of undergraduate business administration students of University of Vienna and human resources employees at UniCredit Bank Austria AG. Data were collected through between-subject experiment with eight different scenarios. The scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999) has been used to measure the impression management behaviors.

7. Result

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter the empirical result of study is being discussed. First the descriptive statistic of sample is presented. Then the focus is on testing the hypotheses which were conducted earlier at chapter 5. Data have been collected directly from experiment's result and is analysed with Stata 11.0. Later the model is displayed in order to present the significant relationships found between variables.

7.2 Descriptive statistics

Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the impression management tactics are presented in table 7-1. According to below table, means of most tactics are above the scale's midpoint of 3, but intimidation and supplication. This means that on average the participants reported to use these two tactics (i.e. supplication and intimidation) less than other tactics. Self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification are left-skewed which implies that mass of the distribution are on left side of the figure. The kurtosis below 3 indicates that distributions of all tactics are flatter than a normal distribution. However according to sktest (skewness and kurtosis test for normality), self-promotion is the only impression management tactic which is normally distributed. Therefore instead of using T-test, Mann-Whitney test has been used to deal with non-normal data.

Tactics	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Sig.
Self-promotion	3.3625	.80378	-.115310	2.758244	0.73
Ingratiation	3.3187	.82699	-.353862	2.491914	0.05
Exemplification	3.4520	.79599	-.542654	2.542395	0.01
Intimidation	2.2583	.87909	.399766	2.281019	0.00
Supplication	1.9859	.81130	.669659	2.904691	0.00

Table 7-1: Descriptive statistic of impression management tactics

Since data have been collected from two different samples, first it has to be tested how significant the difference in measuring the variables is between the sample groups. In other words, the higher amount of ages (mean age of employee sample= 32.6, mean age of student sample= 24.5) and professional experience in employee sample may have influence on the

amount and type of impression management behaviour that an individual may apply in group settings. For this reason, *two-sample Mann-Whitney test* has been run on all independent and dependent variables. According to table 7-2, the only significant difference between two samples is linked to the self-promotion tactic ($p < 0.01$). It implies that on average the employee at bank use more self-promotion than students of University.

In order to control if being a part of each sample groups affects the respondents, a dummy variable ‘GROUP’ have been created. ‘1’ is when they belong to the university sample and ‘0’ to the bank sample. Therefore when the intent was to test the correlation among the variables, the partial correlation has been used. And when the regression was required to test the relationship among the variables, the dummy variable ‘GROUP’ was included.

	Rank sum	Adjusted Variance	Significance
Self-promotion			
Bank employee	5323.5	77410.21	0.00
University student	7556.5		
Ingratiation			
Bank employee	4286	76745.97	0.42
University student	8594		
Exemplification			
Bank employee	4550.5	76521.16	0.87
University student	8329.5		
Intimidation			
Bank employee	4607.5	76974.21	0.71
University student	8272.5		
Supplication			
Bank employee	4252	77067.38	0.35
University student	8628		

Table 7-2: Two sample Mann-Whitney test

Mean, standard deviation and correlation between the impression management tactics and the age of both samples are reflected together at table 7-3 as well as separately at table 7-3-1 and 7-3-2. Two sample groups, that the experiment survey was administered, had a total of 160 participants. The age varies between 20 and 54 with a mean value of 27.4.

According to table 7-3, the positive correlation between age and self-promotion indicated that the older the participants were, the more self-promotion tactic is used ($r = 0.194$, $p < 0.05$).

Interestingly there is correlation among the impression management tactics as well. For example, there is a strong positive correlation among self-promotion and exemplification ($r=0.44$, $p<0.01$). In the same manner, exemplification is correlated with ingratiation ($r=0.42$, $p<0.01$) and intimidation ($r=0.33$, $p<0.01$). Moreover there is a weak positive correlation among supplication and ingratiation ($r=0.24$, $p<0.01$), as well as supplication and intimidation ($r=0.20$, $p<0.01$). A general remark is that most of impression management tactics are positively correlated with each other, but the regression coefficient associated with self-promotion and supplication, which was negative and failed to reach the statistical significance.

Variable	Mean	Sd.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Age	27.37	5.89					
2. Self-pro.	3.36	0.80	0.194*				
3. Ingrat.	3.31	0.82	0.026	0.198*			
4. Exempli.	3.45	0.79	-0.013	0.445**	0.428**		
5. Intimi.	2.25	0.87	0.077	0.131*	0.202*	0.333**	
6. Suppli.	1.98	0.81	-0.089	-0.142	0.248**	0.078	0.207**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

Table 7-3: Correlation, means and standard deviation of all participants

According to table 7-3-1, a strong positive correlation can be seen between self-promotion and exemplification ($r=0.53$, $p<0.01$), ingratiation and exemplification ($r=0.35$, $p<0.01$), and exemplification and intimidation ($r=0.39$, $p<0.01$) in employee sample.

Variable	Mean	Sd.	1	2	3	4	5
1.Age	32.66	6.75					
2.Selfpro.	3.63	0.75	-0.009				
3.Ingrat.	3.24	0.72	0.110	0.329*			
4.Exempli.	3.48	0.74	-0.178	0.537**	0.356**		
5.Intimi.	2.27	0.74	0.010	0.119	0.257	0.393**	
6.Suppli.	1.87	0.69	-0.186	-0.117	0.269*	-0.027	0.123

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7-3-1: Correlation, means and standard deviation of Bank employee sample

In the student sample, the age is positively correlated to intimidation ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.05$). A positive correlation can also be seen among exemplification and intimidation ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$) as well as ingratiation and supplication ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore there is a strong positive relation among self-promotion and exemplification ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$) and between ingratiation and exemplification ($r = 0.46$, $p < 0.01$).

Variable	Mean	Sd.	1	2	3	4	5
1.Age	24.5	2.42					
2.Selfpromotion	3.21	.79	.128				
3.Ingratiation	3.35	.83	.101	.169			
4.Exemplification	3.43	.82	.112	.413**	.467**		
5.Intimidation	2.24	.89	.225*	.136	.177	.305**	
6.Supplication	2.04	.86	.132	-.126	.235*	.125*	.246*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7-3-2: Correlation, means and standard deviation of University student sample

Table 7-4 and 7-5 reflect the relationships between binary factors and impression management tactics. Gender is coded as a dummy variable with “0” for female and “1” for male. The whole sample consisted of 91 women and 69 men, which implies rather balanced gender diversity among sample. It is interesting to see that ingratiation is more used by male than female participants ($p < 0.05$).

Moreover, 74.4 % of the participants responded positively to the question of having a professional experience. In addition to bank sample group, high proportion of students (60.58 %) is also employee or have experienced working in an organization. According to table 7-4, having a professional experience showed a positive correlation with self-promotion ($p < 0.01$) but negative correlation with supplication ($p < 0.05$).

How favourable a participant has perceived the given situation (scenario) seems to have a positive correlation with some impression management tactics. According to below table, perceiving a situation as favourable has positive correlation with self-promotion, exemplification ($p < 0.01$) and ingratiation ($p < 0.05$).

Tactics	Gender		Experience		Favourable	
	Female	Male	No	Yes	No	Yes
Self-promotion	3.348	3.380	2.939**	3.508**	2.974**	3.448**
Ingratiation	3.194*	3.483*	3.455	3.271	3.011*	3.386*
Exemplification	3.450	3.454	3.406	3.467	3.045**	3.541**
Intimidation	2.150	2.400	2.211	2.274	2.103	2.292
Supplication	1.903	2.094	2.207*	1.909*	1.732	2.041

** Significant at the 0.01 level

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7-4: Mean differences between control factors and impression management tactics

The size of the group has been found to have no significant effect on the use of the impression management tactics. A positive relation can be seen among homogeneity of the group and intimidation ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, ingratiation is also been used more when the speciality of task is lower ($p < 0.05$).

Tactics	Size		Composition		Task	
	Small	Large	Hete	Homo	Speci.	Easy
Self-promotion	3.443	3.281	3.437	3.287	3.381	3.343
Ingratiation	3.304	3.333	3.225	3.412	3.158*	3.479*
Exemplification	3.379	3.525	3.358	3.545	3.458	3.445
Intimidation	2.262	2.254	2.120*	2.395*	2.195	2.320
Supplication	1.940	2.031	1.934	2.037	2.031	1.940

** Significant at the 0.01 level

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7-5: Mean differences between main factors and impression management tactics

7.3 Hypothesis testing

Hypotheses propose that group characteristics such as size, homogeneity and specialty degree of a task will be related to member's use of impression management tactics. In order to test if the group characteristics can predict the use of impression management behavior in a group *factorial analysis of variance* has been used. Each round one of the impression management tactics has been selected as dependent variable and all the group characteristics (i.e. size, task and the composition of the group) as well as control variables (i.e. having professional experience, gender) as independent variable. The interaction terms between

independent variables have also been considered, in order to better apprehend the relationships between variables.

Table 7-6 demonstrates multiple regression with self-promotion as dependent variable. It turns out that regressing the group characteristics on self-promotion leads to a significant model ($p = 0.00$). According to adjusted R^2 , 10% of model is explained through regression. Having professional experience seems to have an impact on use of self-promotion ($F = 15.37$, $p < 0.01$) which can be expected, since the Mann-Whitney test already revealed a significant difference between two sample groups. The partial correlation among size, composition and task of the group is not significant at level of 5%. This leads to the conclusion that hypotheses 1-1, 2-1 and 3-1 predicting a positive relation between self-promotion and group size, heterogeneity and specialty degree of task do not hold.

Model	R^2	Adj. R^2	Model Sig.	Variables	MS	F	Sig
1	0.11	0.08	0.00	Size	0.583	0.98	0.32
				Compo.	1.603	2.73	0.10
				Task	0.010	0.02	0.89
				Experience	10.133	17.23	0.00
				Gender	0.007	0.01	0.91
				Gender#Size	0.116	0.20	0.65
				Gender#Compo	0.146	0.25	0.62
				Gender#Task	0.342	0.57	0.44

Table 7-6: Regression- Self-promotion as dependent variable

Variable	Margin	SE	Sig	95% Conf. Interval	
Experience					
No	2.929	0.121	0.00	2.691	3.166
Yes	3.513	0.071	0.00	3.373	3.652

Table 7-6-1: Predictive marginal means of self-promotion

Ingratiation is selected as the independent variable in model 2. The results show that the overall model is significant ($p < 0.01$). As shown in table 7-7 some of my prediction are supported. However the non-significant correlation among ingratiation and size of the group does not support the hypothesis 1-2. There is a significant correlation among composition of the group and ingratiation ($F = 5.57$, $p = 0.01$). According to the estimated marginal means

(table 7-7-1), being in a homogenous group increases the use of ingratiation, therefore the hypothesis 2-2 is supported. Moreover, group task has a strong contribution to ingratiation, when the variance explained by all other variables is fixed ($F= 5.41$, $p= 0.02$). It has been observed that when the task was easy rather than specialized, the participants use more integration at 95% of confidence interval. Therefore the hypothesis 3-2 predicting a negative relation among specialty degree of the group task and ingratiation is supported. Furthermore this model shows that the gender is also significantly related to ingratiation ($F=5.23$, $p=0.02$), in which that men reported to use this tactic more than women. It is also interesting to mention that composition was only significant predicting the use of ingratiation, when the interaction between experience and composition have been added to the model ($F= 4.02$, $p= 0.04$). By examining the predictive marginal means, it seems that those without professional experience use more ingratiation in homogenous rather than heterogeneous group.

Model	R ²	Adj. R ²	Model Sig.	Variables	MS	F	Sig
2	0.10	0.07	0.00	Size	0.269	0.43	0.51
				Compo.	3.528	5.57	0.01
				Task	3.431	5.41	0.02
				Exper.	1.124	1.77	0.18
				Gender	3.316	5.23	0.02
				Gender#Size	0.005	0.01	0.92
				Gender#Compo	0.759	1.16	0.28
				Gender#Task	0.159	0.24	0.62
				Exper.#Compo	2.546	4.02	0.04

Table 7-7: Regression-Ingratiation as dependent variable

Variable	Margin	SE	Sig	95% Conf. Interval	
Composition					
Heterogeneous	3.227	0.097	0.00	3.036	3.418
Homogenous	3.572	0.109	0.00	3.357	3.786
Task					
Specialized	3.251	0.099	0.00	3.056	3.447
Easy	3.547	0.0994	0.00	3.362	3.733

Gender					
Female	3.250	0.091	0.00	3.070	3.430
Male	3.549	0.104	0.00	3.344	3.753
Exper.*Compo.					
No*Hete	3.178	0.163	0.00	2.857	3.498
No*Homo	3.817	0.194	0.00	3.436	4.197

Table 7-7-1: predictive marginal mean of ingratiation

Table 7.8 presents the third model with exemplification as the dependent variable. Although the overall model fails to reach the statistical significance, a significant effect has been found. The test shows that none of the independent variables are individually significant in predicting the use of exemplification, which leads to the conclusion that hypotheses 1-3, 2-3 and 3-3 do not hold. Interestingly the interaction between gender and the size of the group has a significant effect on predicting the use of exemplification ($F = 2.88$, $p = 0.02$). The predictive marginal means (table 7.8.1) specifies that use of exemplification is higher among the men when the group is larger. However as the presented model is not significant at level of 10%, no solid conclusion can be made.

Model	R²	Adj. R²	Model Sig.	Variables	MS	F	Sig
3	0.13	0.04	0.11	Size	0.683	1.13	0.28
				Compo.	1.394	2.30	0.13
				Task	0.377	0.62	0.43
				Exper.	0.018	0.03	0.86
				Gender	0.607	1.00	0.66
				Gender#Size	1.743	2.88	0.02
				Gender#Compo	0.413	0.64	0.42
				Gender#Task	0.064	0.10	0.75

Table 7-8: Regression- Exemplification as dependent variable

Variable	Margin	SE	Sig	95% Conf. Interval	
Gender*Size					
Male*Small	3.107	0.199	0.00	2.715	3.499
Male*Large	3.840	0.232	0.00	3.384	4.296

Table 7-8-1: predictive marginal means of Exemplification

According to table 7-9, the overall model for intimidation as dependent variable is marginally significant ($p=0.05$). Moreover, there is a significant correlation among composition of the group and intimidation ($F=3.92$, $p=0.04$). The predictive marginal means (table 7-9-1) shows that individuals in homogenous rather than heterogeneous group used more intimidation. This leads to the conclusion that the hypotheses 2-4 predicting a relation between heterogeneity among group members and member's use of intimidation is supported. However the effect of size and task of the group on this tactic are not significant and therefore the hypothesis 1-4 and 3-4 are not supported.

Model	R ²	Adj. R ²	Model Sig.	Variables	MS	F	Sig
4	0.24	0.08	0.05	Size	0.007	0.00	0.97
				Compo.	2.957	3.92	0.04
				Task	0.917	1.23	0.26
				Exper.	1.406	1.90	0.17
				Gender	1.949	2.60	0.10
				Gender#Size	1.757	2.31	0.13
				Gender#Compo	0.067	0.09	0.76
				Gender#Task	0.045	0.06	0.80

Table 7-9: Regression- Intimidation as dependent variable

Variable	Margin	SE	Sig	95% Conf. Interval	
Composition					
Hete	2.139	0.097	0.00	1.947	2.330
Homo	2.411	0.097	0.00	2.220	2.602

Table 7-9-1: predictive marginal means of intimidation

Table 7.10 displays model 5 with supplication as a dependent variable which is significant at 5% of level ($p=0.03$). The partial correlation among the size, composition and task of the group with supplication is not significant at 5% level, which point out that hypotheses 1-5, 2-5 and 3-5 predicting a positive relation among these group characteristic and supplication are not supported. However having a professional experience turns out to be significant in this model predicting the use of supplication ($F=5.58$, $p=0.01$). According to table 7-10-1, individuals with professional experience reported to use less of this tactic. Moreover gender seems to have a significant effect on the use of supplication, when associated with task. The

predictive margin means indicates that when the task is easy, the use of supplication is less among women than men ($F=3.76$, $p=0.05$).

Model	R ²	Adj. R ²	Model Sig.	Variables	MS	F	Sig
5	0.11	0.05	0.03	Size	0.003	0.00	0.94
				Compo.	0.987	1.60	0.20
				Task	0.732	1.18	0.27
				Exper.	3.455	5.58	0.01
				Gender	0.385	0.62	0.43
				Gender#Size	0.000	0.00	0.98
				Gender#Compo	0.982	1.54	0.21
				Gender#Task	2.725	3.76	0.05

Table 7-10: Regression- Supplication as dependent variable

Variable	Margin	SE	Sig	95% Conf. Interval	
Experience					
No	2.244	0.132	0.00	1.984	2.504
Yes	1.881	0.074	0.00	1.735	2.028
Gender*Task					
Female*Easy	1.815	0.125	0.00	1.557	2.045
Male*Easy	2.274	0.156	0.00	1.967	2.581

Table 7-10-1: predictive marginal means of Supplication

Hypothesis 4 predicts a mediating role of favorable perception of the situation in the relationship between group characteristic and impression management tactics. For mediating effect of favorable situation on use of impression management tactics several regression analyses need to be run. According to Baron and Kenny (1986) a variable is mediator when there are significant effect between (a) independent variable and dependent variable, (b) independent variable and mediator, (c) mediator and dependent variable. When these conditions hold, then another regression will be conducted to check if the dependent variable is significantly regressed with independent variable and mediator at the same time. If the significant effect of independent variable decreased then there is a partial mediation, and if it is no longer significant then there is a full mediation.

Congruent with previous hypothesis tests, the only significant relationship among group characteristic and impression management tactics were found between task and ingratiation, composition and ingratiation, and composition and intimidation. Therefore the mediating effect of situation perception will be tested only on these three relationships. In other words, hypothesis 4-1 predicts favorability of the situation acts as mediator in relation between composition of the group and ingratiation. Hypothesis 4-2 predicts that member's perception about the favourability of the situation mediates the relation between task of the group and ingratiation. Hypothesis 4-3 predicts that member's perception about the favourability of the situation mediates the relation between group composition and intimidation.

In order to test the hypothesis 4-1 some regression will be run:

Model 1: $\text{Ingratiation} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Composition}$

Model 2: $\text{Favorable} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Composition}$

Model 3: $\text{Ingratiation} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Composition} + \beta_2 \text{Favorable}$

If favorable perception is mediator, both model 1 and 2 must be statistically significant. Besides a decrease in significance level of β_1 coefficient in model 3 from model 1 has to be observed. According to model 1 (table 7-11), regression coefficient associated with composition of the group in predicting ingratiation is positive but failed to reach statistical significant ($\beta_1=0.18$, $p= 0.15$). Likewise at model 3 the relation between ingratiation and composition of the group is not significant ($p= 0.11$), but the favorable perception is significantly related to ingratiation ($F=0.40$, $p< 0.01$). However in model 2 no significant relation has been found between composition and favorable perception at the 10% ($p= 0.54$). Therefore hypothesis 4-1 predicting a mediation role of favorability perception between composition of the group and ingratiation is not supported.

Model	R ²	Ad. R ²	M-Sig	DV	IV	Coef.	SE	Sig
1	0.017	0.004	0.25	Ingrat	Compo	0.18	0.130	0.15
					GROUP	0.11	0.136	0.40
2	0.01		0.33	Fav	Compo	-0.03	0.061	0.54
					GROUP	-0.08	0.064	0.17
3	0.053	0.035	0.03	Ingrat	Compo	0.20	0.128	0.11
					Fav	0.40	0.167	0.01
					GROUP	0.15	0.135	0.26

Table 7-11: Regression- favorable perception as mediator in relation between composition and ingratiation

To test hypothesis 4-2, three regressions have to be run:

Model 1: Ingratiation = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Task

Model 2: Favorable = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Task

Model 3: Ingratiation = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Task + β_2 Favorable

Conforming to table 7-12, model 1 indicates that task of the group is positively associated with ingratiation. It predicts that when the group task was easy (i.e. task=1) the use of ingratiation was bigger ($\beta_1=0.32$, $p < 0.01$). Model 3 shows significant relation between ingratiation and task of the group as well as favorable perception ($p < 0.01$). However in model 2 no significant relation has been found between task and favorable perception at the 10%. Since the significant effect of task on ingratiation has not decreased from model 1 ($p = 0.014$) to model 3 ($p = 0.011$), and the relation between task and favorability is non-significant, it can be concluded that there is no mediating variable. Although hypothesis 4-2 predicting an indirect relationship between favorable perception and ingratiation is rejected, model 3 reveals a significant direct effect between favorable perception and ingratiation.

Model	R ²	Ad. R ²	M-Sig	DV	IV	Coef.	SE	Sig
1	0.042	0.030	0.03	Ingrat	Task	0.32	0.128	0.014
					GROUP	0.11	0.134	0.39
2	0.01		0.39	Fav	Task	-0.01	0.061	0.83
					GROUP	-0.08	0.064	0.17
3	0.077	0.059	0.00	Ingrat	Task	0.32	0.126	0.011
					Fav	0.40	0.165	0.01
					GROUP	0.14	0.133	0.26

Table 7-12: Regression- favorable perception as mediator in relation between task and ingratiation.

To test hypothesis 4-3, three regressions have to be run:

Model 1: Intimidation = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Composition

Model 2: Favorable = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Composition

Model 3: Intimidation = $\beta_0 + \beta_1$ Composition + β_2 Favorable

According to table 7-13, model 1 and 3 indicates that composition of the group is positively associated with intimidation. It predicts that when the group was homogeneous (i.e. compo=1) the use of intimidation was bigger ($p < 0.05$). However in model 2 no significant relation has been found between composition and favorable perception at the 10%. Moreover, the significant effect of composition on intimidation has not decreased from model 1 to model

3. As a result hypothesis 4-3 predicting a mediation role of favorable perception between task and ingratiation is rejected.

Model	R ²	Ad. R ²	M-Sig	DV	IV	Coef.	SE	Sig
1	0.024	0.012	0.13	Intimi	Compo	0.27	0.138	0.048
					GROUP	-0.03	0.144	0.82
2	0.01		0.33	Fav	Compo	-0.37	0.061	0.54
					GROUP	-0.08	0.64	0.17
3	0.032	0.014	0.15	Intimi	Compo	0.28	0.138	0.048
					Fav	0.20	0.180	0.25
					GROUP	-0.01	0.145	0.91

Table 7-13: Regression- favorable perception as mediator in relation between composition and intimidation.

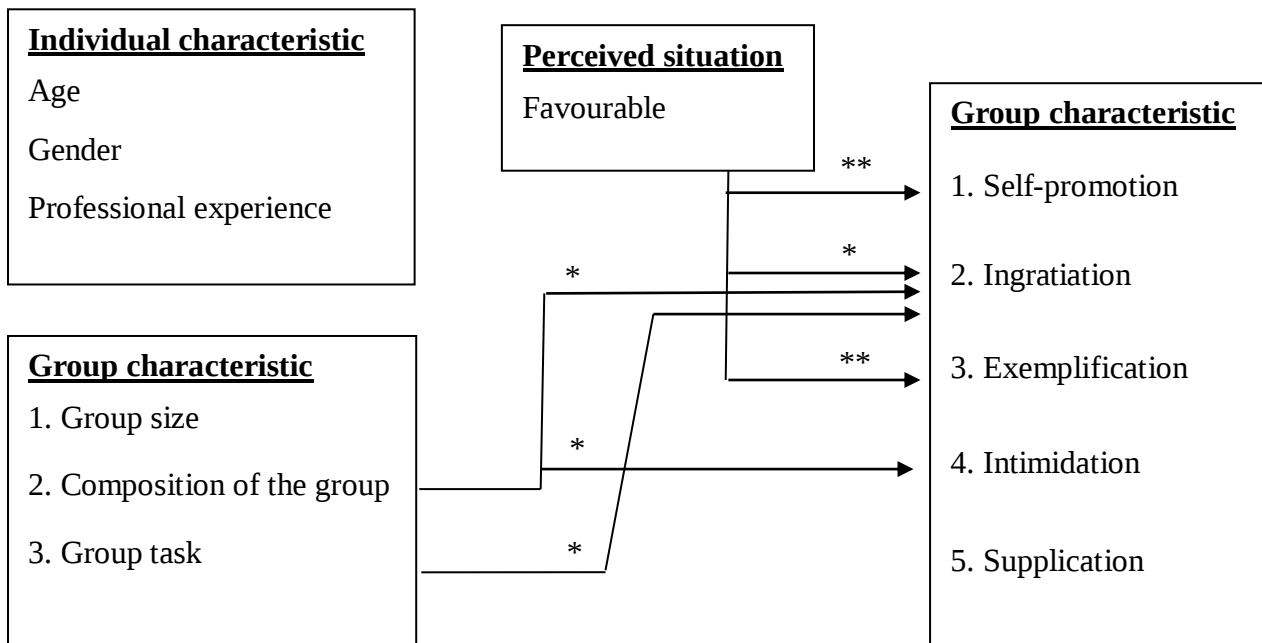
While the mediating role of favorable perception has not been supported, it is interesting to test if variation in perception has any significant effect on impression management tactics. According to table 8, there are significant relations on most of the impression management tactics. This implies that on average in favourable situation the participants use more self-promotion ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$), ingratiation ($r = 0.39$, $p < 0.05$) and exemplification ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$). Nevertheless since the fifth model is not significant, no solid conclusion can be made about positive correlation among the perceived situation and supplication ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.1$). The regression coefficient associated with self-rating favourable in predicting use of intimidation was also positive but failed to reach the significant 10 % of level.

Model	R ²	Ad. R ²	M-Sig	DV	IV	Coef.	SE	Sig
1	0.10	0.09	0.00	Self-promotion	Fav	0.42	0.15	0.00
					GROUP	-0.38	0.12	0.00
2	0.03	0.02	0.04	Ingratiation	Fav	0.39	0.16	0.02
					GROUP	0.14	0.13	0.27
3	0.05	0.04	0.00	Exemplification	Fav	0.49	0.16	0.00
					GROUP	-0.01	0.12	0.92
4	0.00	-0.00	0.57	Intimidation	Fav	0.18	0.18	0.30
					GROUP	-0.01	0.14	0.90
5	0.03	0.02	0.06	Supplication	Fav	0.33	0.16	0.04
					GROUP	0.19	0.13	0.15

Table 7-14: Regression- effect of favorable perception on impression management tactics

7.4 Model overview

To test the research question if group characteristic affect the impression management tactics used in a group, some regression have been conducted. Figure 7-1 presents the significant relations among the variables which were tested through the hypotheses. The implication of the results will be discussed in next chapter.



** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Figure 7-1: Relations between variables as tested by hypotheses

8. Discussion and limitation

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results found in the previous chapter. Since only a few of the hypotheses were supported, the focus of this chapter is to interpret the result and inspect the underlying causes. Eventually, the application of the findings as well as its limitations with guideline for further research is presented.

8.2 Discussion and interpretation of results

The present study examined the effect of group characteristics and how individuals attempt to control the image other group members create about them through altered impression management tactics. This relationship was hypothesised to be mediated by the favourable perception about the situations.

This study builds on former studies in several ways as it considers 5 impression management tactics, presented by Jones and Pittman (1982), and 3 group characteristics which were expected to have an impact on the impression management process: size, composition and task of the group. Since for the majority of the hypotheses no significant relation has been found, such relations are not supported in this study. In addition, other findings emerging out of interaction terms that were not hypothesized in the fifth chapter will be presented in this chapter.

The results of this study support preceeding researches stating that intimidation and supplication are the least used tactics and people tend to use assertive tactics to create a favourable impression about themselves (Bozeman and Kacmar, 1977; Rozell & Gundersen, 2003; Nguyen et al. 2008). Self-promotion, Ingratiation and Exemplification were found to be used more than Intimidation and Supplication, as they aim to form a positive relationship within the group and therefore increase the willingness of group members to cooperate with each other. In general it is advantageous for an individual to present a desirable image (Bozeman and Kacmar, 1997), especially by entering in a new relationship with a person or a group.

In line with the research of Singh et al (2002), women reported to have fewer tendencies to engage in impression management tactics, and in particular in ingratiation and supplication. Also the study of Mishra and Raveendran (2011) shows that men use more ingratiation than

women. One plausible interpretation can lay on attitude and cognitive differences between men and women, and how they identify the situational factor. For instance, the findings of Hare (2003) indicates that relationships among women are more friendly and expressive. Therefore, men may use ingratiation to appear friendly and attractive among others and to create a pleasant relationship for further interaction within the group.

Moreover, in past studies it was mostly estimated that women apply more passive rather than proactive impression management tactics (Guadagno and Cialdini, 2007). Considering supplication as a passive tactic, results show higher use of supplication among men rather than women when the given task is assumed easy. Although supplication is considered as a passive tactic, therefore expected to be used more by women, the discrepancy may be due to the speciality degree of the task. As Harris and Morris (1974) indicate, people are encouraged to work harder and provide more effort when the task requires more skill. Yet it is in line with findings of Bolino and Turnley (2001) indicating that women do not use supplication so often, as they attempt to avoid any behaviour which may present their lack of ability. This can explain the lower level of supplication among women when the task is easy, as they are not highly engaged with the task in order to promote their value and attribution to the group's success. Therefore based on results, it can be concluded that at least the use of passive impression management tactics (i.e. ingratiation and supplication) are less among women.

Contrary to what was expected, the control variable of professional experience shows little evidence for being strongly related to all impression management tactics. However the analysis of variances found significant relations between professional experienced and self-promotion as well as supplication; in which those who replied positive to the question of working at an organization use more self-promotion and less supplication. The most plausible explanation for such results is that working at an organization provokes more accomplishment and qualification for the individual on one hand, and better knowledge of how to use this tactic to meet own goal on the other hand. As they may have learned or seen that only having a skill or talent in not sufficient in making the others aware of their accomplishments and qualifications (Goffman, 1959). Therefore they are inclined to highlight their contribution to the group by talking about their experiences and what they have accomplished so far.

Additionally, the results illustrate that supplication was more used among individuals with no professional experiences. Not many studies have investigated supplication and the extent a person may use this tactic in the organization. One can argue that not being familiar with how to perform a task or to behave in such a situation causes some sort of weakness that in return increases the tendency to look helpless and/or to rely on assistance and sympathy of group

members to help one out. However those with professional experiences should know how to overcome this weakness by applying less supplication, as this will reflect a negative image.

According to Gardner and Martinko (1988), characteristic of the individuals as well as the situation determine how a person will manage the impression. Especially in a newly formed group, where the members have no previous knowledge about other group members, they are expected to rely more on some perceptible aspects presented by the group, such as the goal of forming the group, in order to control their behavior. The results suggest that speciality of tasks have a negative influence on the actor's use of ingratiation; when the given task was easy, individuals are reported to use more ingratiation. The existing studies have not investigated this matter in depth. With reference to Hackman and Morris (1974), people make more effort on task performance when the actor's contribution to the group task is more identifiable. Moreover, when the task covers more skills, it encourages the actor to control the presented image to be compatible with the required ability. Hence when the given task is assumed easy, without special skills or knowledge required for completion of the task, people turn out to be friendlier instead in order to establish a pleasant group work. Regarding the cognitional and ethical aspect of ingratiation, the actor evaluates this tactic fitting the present situation more suitable (which in this study is to throw a party). Therefore the use of ingratiation increases as the given task is assumed to be easy.

According to Gardner and Martinko (1988), the behaviour and consequently the image one is about to present is affected by the audience. In a group setting, the group members are playing the audience role and therefore it was expected that group composition affect the impression management. According to the result, it has been found that homogeneity among the group members is positively related to the member's use of ingratiation. Since people consider not only specific characteristics but also diffuse ones (such as gender or age) to appraise the other (Jones, 1964) and being in the similar category increases the likelihood of forming a positive image about each other (Flynn et al. 2001). In line with Keown (1983), people in homogenous groups feel more comfortable and therefore a higher level of interaction is expected (Corfman, 1995) to foster the pleasant collaboration. Moreover the positive impact of homogeneity of the group on how individuals use ingratiation has been revealed through an interaction with professional experience, in which those with no professional experience reported to have greater use of ingratiation, when they were in homogenous group. Since people form a more pleasant impression about a member who is more similar to them due to the self-categorizing theory (Flynn et al. 2001), the application of ingratiation is higher within

a homogenous rather than heterogeneous group. As they consider the situation more convenient to build the friendly atmosphere among the members.

Furthermore in this study composition differences in a group predicted the pattern of intimidation. Although it is not usually desirable to be seen intimidating, but the goal of this tactic is to gain the social power (Jones and Pittman, 1982). When people are assigned to perform a task, an individual may use intimidation in order to ensure that the other group members will agree on what he/she asks for, and therefore increase the probability of goal achievement. Although in previous studies (e.g. Rosenfeld et al. 1995) intimidation has been used by the party with a higher power status to the target with lower power, my result shows that homogeneity of the group increases the application of intimidation. According to self-categorizing theory, people are more likely to form a positive impression about the group member who is similar (in term of age, gender and etc.) to them, since they share more or less similar understandings (Flynn et al. 2001). From the other side, approaching proactive tactics such as intimidation can be more effective when the person is part of a homogenous group, as it implies more or less the same scope for comparing and evaluation (Guevitsch, 1984). Hence it may be easier to be respected (obey) due to common morality among homogenous rather than heterogeneous groups, as they all value the same thing. As a result individuals prefer to use intimidation when they are in a homogenous group.

The hypothesis about size of the group was rejected for all impression management tactics except exemplification, where an interesting result is identified through interaction with gender. It has been observed that the use of exemplification among men is positively related to size of the group. The goal of exemplification is to be the example of a perfect group member, by being admired according to what is expected to be best for the team to success. As Bolino and Trunley (2003) indicated, exemplification can also reflect an arrogant image about the actor. Publicizing how much a person makes the effort in a given task, increases the awareness of other group members but also carries the risk of creating an uncomfortable feeling in them for not being the perfect member (Rosenfeld et al., 1995). In this study, it has been found that men apply less exemplification in smaller groups. The most plausible reason for this is that as the size of the group grows, the possibility to testify the motivation and goal of a person applying exemplification gets harder. This is because a person applying exemplification can only get the credit for the success of a task when there are larger amount of group members. While among a group made out of three or four persons, the task is performed in such a mutual form where each member has a better estimation of what others have carried out in reality, and therefore the use of exemplification is expected to be less.

Contrary to what was expected, the favourable perception about the situation does not mediate the impression management behaviour. Since most of the relationship between group characteristic and impression management tactics were not significant, the mediating role of perceived situation has only been tested for relation between task and composition of the group with ingratiation. However, the relationship between these group characteristics and favourable perceptions turns out also to be non-significant, and therefore the hypothesis predicting that favourable perception of the situation mediates the relation between group characteristic and impression management tactics is not supported.

The plausibility of the hypothesis calls attention to other roles of perceived situation in predicting the impression management behaviours. It has been found that individuals use more self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification when the situation is assumed to be more suitable and favourable. In line with research of Gardner and Martinko (1988), people tend to display more positive image about themselves when the perceived situation is desirable. Since assertive tactics attempt to attribute certain positive impressions (Stevens and Kristoff, 1995), the utilization of such tactics increases when the opportunity to fulfil the goal is accurately perceived by the person. Besides, high positive correlation among exemplification and ingratiation, as well as self-promotion, also indicates that assertive tactics occur together (Jones and Pittman, 1982). If individuals consider the situation not suitable, the motivation to control the impression decreases, that consequently leads to lower engagement level in impression management behaviour.

8.3 Limitation

Some limitations of the study that may have affected the result of the study are given here. First of all, the sample consisted of 104 students and 56 employees, which limits the generalization of the finding as the employees are under-represented. Secondly the bank sample consisted of Human Resources employees. It is not clear if the same results would also be found among employees in other departments, since they have more contact with personnel and it is expected to read between the lines and better understand the signals of others behaviour especially in working environment. Therefore replication would be essential to test the similarity of the result among other populations.

Another issue referring to generalization can be due to sample size. Although the overall sample composed of 160 respondents, however for each eight scenario only 20 respondents were recorded. Since the purpose of the study was to find out the association between group

characteristics and application of the impression management tactics, where the effect size is small or unknown, greater sample size is required to detect the impact (Kadam and Bhalerao, 2010). This means that because of the limited sample size, small effects in this study could have been overlooked.

Other limitations can be attributed to common method bias. The impression management tactics in this study were measured using self-reported questionnaire, which has the risk of being associated with social desirability bias. Since each participant was asked to report his own behaviour, it would have encouraged them to present more attractive images as opposed to what they really are. Therefore there would be the possibility that individuals not necessarily indicate their actual behaviour but what they think is best to do in a given situation. Tendency and being able to truthfully reply to the questions are two main conditions which increase the validity of respondents (Hoskins, 2012). In this study no name has been required from the participants, to ensure that they feel comfortable responding to question about their own behavior. In term of applying the impression management tactics there is no right or wrong, besides the purpose of the research was also not to study the outcome of impression management. For next conditions however, it must be assumed that they are sufficiently informed about themselves and their behavior. Since individuals are all to some extend not able to evaluate themselves entirely correctly conferring to questionnaires, there is a slight chance of this bias in the information gathered by means of self-report measures.

Furthermore, there may be some problems due to research methods. In this study case scenarios (vignette) has been used, instead of direct observation and measuring the quality as well as quantity of group information in which the perceivers need to attend. Although the vignette experiments are faster, cheaper and more flexible than observations, the obvious drawback of this method is that reading a scenario has a smaller effect than experiencing the stimulus and situation. In other words, it can be argued that the scenarios were not that strong in stimulating the situation, and participants may have answered the questionnaire according to their personal experiences of working in group rather than paying much attention to the criteria of mentioned group (i.e. in terms of size and composition). Therefore the pure effect of suggested group characteristics may have been unnoticed. Future studies may better understand these relations by including more explicit methods to improve the quality of the information being shared.

Another difficulty of this study was the operationalization of the variable “composition of the group”. The groups were categorized as homogenous with respect to age and gender of group members. It is questionable if the individuals were able to assess the homogeneity of the

group, since there is no group which can be purely counted as homogenous or heterogeneous (Rogelberg and Rumery, 1996). Although the attempt was to reflect the physical aspect of a homogenous group in terms of gender and age, but even so the assessment of the situation can be interpreted differently by each person. Referring to findings of Arise (1976), the male found a group consisted of mixed gender more cohesive than a group made out of only men. Some other problems which may have influenced the data are the questionnaires. First, each tactic of impression management was measured by 4 questions in this study. Each item was described precisely, and the participants could select whether they perform similar behaviour during the group work to reflect the mentioned image. However some questions were multi-dimensional, in which it was hard to distinguish between the behaviours a person may typically perform in a given situation and those which a person may do in order to appear in a certain way. For example, one may do personal favour for group mates not only to look nice and friendly, but also because he/she believes it is the right thing to do. This may reflect the habitual aspect of impression management tactics. As people may behave in a particular manner without necessarily thinking about the outcome of impression and considering the message their behaviour may have on others. According to Schlenker (1980) most of the impression management behaviours take place without the person being aware of them. Moreover, the impression management can be seen as deceptive behaviour, in which a person may cover up his role so that group members see something other than what he/she is in ordinary life. Since they may believe, it is mostly expected by others to perform that particular way for gaining their approval.

Secondly the questions were initially expected to measure the impression management behaviour instead of tendency to behave like that. For this end, it reflects the verbal behaviour which is crucial but does not cover the whole range of impression management behaviour. For example the effects of non-verbal behaviours such as facial expression are coming short through this method. Considering the act of compliment, the formed impression may vary depending on the tone of voice of the presenter. Therefore there is a slight chance that the questions were not all-embracing. However the fact that the instrument provided by Bolino and Turnley (1999) consider different impression management tactics and is statistically verified, this highlights the room for improvement.

Furthermore the literatures in impression management are mostly related to ingratiation and self-promotion and come short in other tactics such as supplication and exemplification. This requires more attention within this field to research the condition that individuals may use these tactics and how the other group members respond to them. Further, since there is no

right or wrong in using impression management tactics, it is interesting to know how the image is perceived as individuals try out different behaviours and which approach the person finally finds most useful for personal goals.

8.4 Conclusion

This study investigated the role of important group characteristics on the type of impression management behavioural approach individuals may inclined to pursue. Since personal characteristics as well as situational features are expected to build up a specific perceived situation for the person, it is examined whether the type of group task in question, size and composition of the group affect the way individuals apply impression management tactics. In addition, the effect of perceived favourably of the situation on the impression management process was investigated.

The research used two samples, university students and bank employees, to also check the role of professional background on controlling the impression. A Questionnaire developed by several researchers (e.g. Jones and Pittman, 1984) were used to gather information about individual's use of impression management behaviour in a group. In this study professional experience was found to have a positive relation with self-promotion and negative relation to supplication. It indicates that individuals who have professional background working at organizations are more likely skilled in efficiently using the self-promotion tactics. Moreover they try to overcome their weakness by avoiding to appear helpless.

It was mostly predicted that there would be a relationship between gender of individuals and use of impression management behaviour. Yet in this study it has been found that women use impression management tactics less than men, and in particular ingratiation and supplication. Given that the women have lower tendency to rely on these passive tactics to reach their goal, as they prefer to have their execution as evidence.

According to previous studies, the characteristics of individuals as well as the situation determine how a person will manage the impression. In this study, strong evidence was found between the type of group task and ingratiation, indicating the possibility of a causal link among them. Results indicate that when the given task is easy, without special skills or knowledge required for completion of the task, people turn out to be friendlier in order to establish a pleasant group work

The audience in group settings (i.e. the group members) play an important role in impression management model. Not only how they judge the individual's behaviour is affected by their

characterization of the situation, but their features have an impact on how a person outlines the occasion. In this study another positive relationship was found between homogeneity among the group members and ingratiation. It could be that people in a homogenous group feel more comfortable and therefore higher level of interaction is expected. Since being in the same status implies more or less a similar scope for evaluation, which also fosters the pleasant interaction within the group. Moreover, composition differences predicted that usage of intimidation tend to be more by individuals in homogenous rather than heterogeneous group. Although it is not usually desirable to look intimidating, but the composition of a group may modify the outcome. Since a goal of intimidation is to gain the social power, individuals use this tactic to ensure that the other group members will agree on what they ask for, and therefore increases the probability of goal achievement. It was drawn from self-categorizing theory that people are more likely to form a positive impression about the group member who is similar (also in term of age and gender) to them. Hence it may be easier to follow her/him due to common morality among the homogenous groups, as they almost value the same things.

Additionally, no significant relation has been found between the size of the group and impression management tactics, this indicates that the amount of people who joined a group does not seem to affect the type of impression a person is willing to control. However it seems to be effective only on exemplification among men, where individuals use more of this tactic in larger group. The most plausible reason is that as the size of the group grows, the possibility to testify the motivation of individuals applying exemplification gets harder. This is because, since they can only get credit for the success of task, when there are larger amount of members in a group, where no one has a clear estimation of what others have carried out in reality, and therefore lower level of exemplification is used.

In line with previous studies, results show that individuals apply assertive impression management tactics- self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification- in newly formed groups more often. Likewise, a strong evidence was found between favourable perception of the situation and self-promotion, ingratiation and exemplification, indicating the possibility of a causal link between perceived situation and impression management tactics. It points out that people tend to display a more positive image about themselves, by utilization of assertive tactics, when joining a group that they perceived to best suit the opportunity to pursue their goal.

As this study demonstrated, understanding how situations are perceived differently may help to intensify the concerns that are associated with impression management in groups. First of

all, group characteristics are expected to have different effects on different individuals, especially as some of the characteristics define the situation. Thus a more specific model could be used to investigate the relative effect of group on how different individuals try to control the impression other group members form about them. For future studies, it may be interesting to take a further approach and test how effective the impression management tactics will be among the group members. Multi-audience features expect different attitudes and interpretations of the same behavior among the group members, which may affect the selection of a particular impression management behavior.

And I would like to end my thesis with this statement of Woodruff (2008): “there is an art to watching and being watched and that is one of the few arts on which all human living depends....Watching well, together, and being watched well, with limits on both sides we grow, and grow together” (Woodruff, p.10, 2008)

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Appendix



Hi,

You are invited to participate in a survey I am conducting as a part of my master thesis at University of Vienna about organizational behaviour in group setting.

Your participant in this study is completely voluntary. However it is very important for me to learn your opinions. Your survey responses will be confidential and data from this research will be coded and reported only in the aggregate.

Completion of this survey will take approximately 15 minutes. Answer the question privately without discussing them with other participants. If you have any questions at any time about the survey, please raise your hand and I will come to you.

Thank you very much for your time and support!

Setareh Zafari

Imagine that you are the newly hired Human Resource manager of a mid-size company. Previously the owner of the company had been doing everything related to Human Resource Management. In order to get a handle on the value of your position in the organization, you were asked to take part in a newly formed group.

Your group composed of 20 people coming from different departments, who might have seen each other before but did not work together.

There are 10 women and 10 men from 22 to 45 years old, who have voluntarily decided to be a part of this project.

The task of this group is to develop a software program to allow employees to access pay information and compensation policy online.

**Now it is your chance to show yourself and reinforce your position in the organization.
How well do you think that this group can help you meet your goal?**

☐ I think it is a good opportunity.

☐ I do not think it is appropriate.

Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 (1= very inaccurate, 5=very accurate), to what extent the following statements are related to your behaviour in this group.

1: I talk proudly about my experience or education.	1	2	3	4	5
2: I praise my group members for their accomplishment so that they will consider me a nice person.	1	2	3	4	5
3: I do beyond my share of the project so that other group members will see me as dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
4: I deal strongly or aggressively with group members who interfere in this project.	1	2	3	4	5
5: I act like I know less than I do so that other group members will help me out.	1	2	3	4	5
6: I let others know I can make things difficult for them if they push me too far.	1	2	3	4	5
7: I act like I need assistance so that other group members will help me out.	1	2	3	4	5
8: I compliment my group members so they will see me as likeable.	1	2	3	4	5
9: I arrive at group meetings on time in order to look dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
10: I let other group members know that I am a noteworthy person for this group.	1	2	3	4	5
11: I take an interest in other group members' personal lives to show them that I am friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
12: I use intimidation to get other group members to accomplish their part of the project.	1	2	3	4	5
13: I try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower	1	2	3	4	5
14: I deal forcefully with group members when it will help me get my work done.	1	2	3	4	5
15: I let other group members know how serious I take this project.	1	2	3	4	5
16: I do personal favors for members of the group to show them that I am friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
17: I try to gain assistance or sympathy from other group members by appearing needy in some area.	1	2	3	4	5
18: I make other group members aware of my talents or qualifications	1	2	3	4	5
19: I make other group member aware of my past activities which might help this project effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
20: I pretend not to understand how to do something to gain my group member's help.	1	2	3	4	5

How old are you?

What is your gender? (F/M)

Do you have any professional experience (also in form of internship or trainee)? (Y/N)

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<i>Sep.-Nov. '14</i>	UniCredit: Audit development Center 2014 Vienna, Bank Austria member of UniCredit
<i>Winter Semester '13</i>	Hilti Cooperation: Business Intelligence Solution Vienna, University of Vienna
<i>Summer Semester '13</i>	Hilti Cooperation: Cloud-based CRM System for Emerging Markets Vienna, University of Vienna Telekom Austria: Vorstandsvergütungen bemessen an der Unternehmensperformance Vienna, University of Vienna, Leitner und Leitner GmbH Binder und Co.: Unternehmensbewertung Vienna, University of Vienna, Leitner und Leitner GmbH
<i>Winter Semester '12</i>	IBM: The nature and dynamic of change at IBM Vienna, University of Vienna
<i>Summer Semester '12</i>	Accenture Campus Challenge: Social Media in Unternehmen Vienna, University of Vienna, Accenture GmbH
<i>Winter Semester '09</i>	Nersi Wood Co.: Purchasing and logistic system Tehran, Shahid Beheshti University
<i>Summer Semester '09</i>	Poster Design for ART play Tehran, Shahid Beheshti University

RESEARCHS

<i>Summer Semester '14</i>	Value-based management framework for managerial accounting Effect of social status on dating desire of students Cooperation and Creativity- Does prosocial behaviour support the creativity? Impact of Non-standard employment relationship on organizational commitment- Contingent work
<i>Winter Semester '13</i>	Legitimacy as a goal for organizations: the institutional perspective The concept of probability
<i>Winter Semester '12</i>	Resistance to organizational change

OTHER SKILLS AND QUALIFICATION

<i>Language</i>	Germany (Very Good Knowledge) English (Fluent) Persian (Native) Arabic (Basic knowledge)
<i>EDV</i>	Microsoft-Office (Word, Power-Point, Excel, Outlook) SPSS Stata SAP for Controlling Z-Tree
<i>Driving license</i>	B