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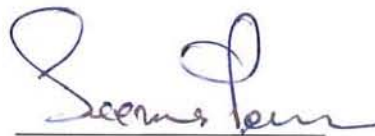
**ROLE OF SELF-MONITORING
IN IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT AMONG
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

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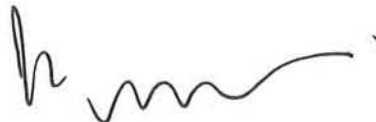
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(Dr. Seema Pervez)

Supervisor

Dedicated to my darling "Fatima"
for introducing me to the most enriching
and rewarding experience of motherhood

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, my gratitude to Allah for enabling me to accomplish this tough task and always being so munificent in showering His blessings on me. After Him my teachers, friends and family members' assistance certainly was there behind me throughout this voyage.

I would like to express my deepest sense of gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Seema Pervez for her expert guidance, encouragement and advice throughout this study. I am also thankful to her for trusting my own working style and giving me a free hand to progress through this venture. More to this, her empathy and motherly care was really precious for me. She was very patient in tolerating delays in deadlines from my side. Hats off to you, Ma'am!!!

I owe a special bundle of thanks to Dr. Anila Kamal for her expert help in clearing my confusions for statistical analysis for my thesis. She is the person who is always there to help everyone. Thanks for your unconditional help.

I also want to thank Dr. Berry Schlenker, Dr. Val Singh, Dr. Turnley and Dr. Bolino for sending me their latest articles and other related material.

I am also thankful to my friends for always being there in hard times. I am highly indebted to Rabia whose friendship is really a treasure for me and she is always there to listen to my problems and providing me a channel for catharsis all the time. Her assurances of my capabilities were very boosting for me throughout this time. Special thanks to Humaira, for giving me critical feedback on my research. I am also thankful to Fatima, Rohina, Iram and Saad for helping me in data collection.

My beloved husband's contribution is unique among the others. I owe him a lot for always being there to support in every possible way. He is the one who has always been a source of comfort and care for me. His initiatives to share my home responsibilities are really to be valued. His love and companionship are a must for me to live this life happily.

I would be amiss not to mention my parents' support to make me able to reach where I am today. No doubt they are the people behind my every success. Really I cannot find a suitable word to say thanks to them. Their boundless love and support is an unmatched treasure for me.

Last but not the least, I thank my sweetie pie, Fatima, whose charming smile and sparkling eyes cheer me up and shine my life everyday. I want to thank her for letting her time to spend for this task.

Thanks to all those participants who had been generous to provide the information needed for the collection of data.

May Allah bless you all.

Shaista.

ABSTRACT

The present research aimed to investigate the role of self-monitoring in the impression management behavior of the university students. A comparative analysis between the high and low self-monitors regarding impression management tactics and profiles was carried out. Similarly, gender differences in impression management behavior were studied. In addition to this, students of private and public universities were also compared for impression management behavior. The research was carried out in three parts. In part I, Impression Management scale (IMS) and Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) were modified in the light of pretesting of the original scales on students and judges' opinions regarding the rephrasing of some items of the original scales. Further, psychometric properties were also determined for both scales in Part II of the research. Part III, the main study of the present research purported to investigate the role of different levels of self-monitoring in impression management behavior of public and private university students. The main study was conducted on the total sample of 200, which included 150 boys and 150 girls students of business administration half from public university and half from private university. The sample was distributed in two groups of high and low self-monitors on the basis of scores on Self-Monitoring Scale using tripartite split technique. The sample was tested to check the prevalence of different impression management profiles by carrying out cluster analysis. Results showed the presence of three already established impression management profiles i.e. Positives, Aggressives and Passives. Results indicated that high self-monitors scored higher on IMS as compared to low self-monitors and boys scored high on IMS as compared to girls. Students of private universities scored higher on IMS as compared to students of public universities. Non-significant difference was found among girls and boys regarding the use of different impression management profiles. Positive profile was found to be the most frequent profile in the sample followed by Aggressive and Passive. While results indicated the significant differences among high and low self-monitors in using different impression management profiles. Aggressive profile was the most frequently used by high self-monitors followed by Positive and Passive. On the other hand, Passive was the most widely used by low self-monitors. Results showed the significant contribution of self-monitoring in the usage of impression management among university students.

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Impression management is the goal-directed activity of controlling information in order to influence the impressions formed by an audience. Through impression management, people try to shape an audience's impressions of a person (e.g., self, friends, enemies), a group (e.g., a business organization), an object (e.g., a gift, a car), an event (e.g., a task performance), or an idea (e.g. capitalism versus socialism). When people try to control impressions of themselves, as opposed to other people or entities, the activity is called *self-presentation*. The study of self-presentation involves examining (1) how people, as agents, try to shape the attitudes and behaviors of audiences through the presentation of self-relevant information and (2) how people, as targets, respond to the self-presentation activities of others (Schlenker, 2003). In the initial phase of the evolution of this construct, no distinction was defined between impression management and self-presentation and these terms have been used interchangeably. But later on the above-mentioned distinction was made.

General interest in impression management is not new, it has an ancient background. The concept has been present through many centuries and cultures. From Greece's Plato's "Great stage of human life" to Shakespearian England "All the worlds a stage, all the men and women merely players" and can also be found in any context, from political [Machiavellian's the prince] to alluring romantic potential [Elle, Mademoiselle, etc. How to win a man and keep him] (Alinea Group, 2003).

The scientific interest in the study of impression management is generally attributed to sociologist Erving Goffman. In his classic work "*The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*" Goffman saw impression management in a dramaturgical light, stating, "An individual appears in the presence of others, there will usually be some reason for him/ her to mobilize his/her activity so that it will convey an impression to others which is in his/her interest to convey" (Goffman, 1959, p. 4.)

After him, a psychologist Edward Jones in his 1964 book, *Ingratiation*, who provided a systematic evaluation of the strategic behaviors used by people to enhance

their attractiveness. These two events laid the foundational cornerstones for impression management research. From these early starting points, self-presentation or impression management research has sought and gradually gained respect from scholars in the disciplines of sociology, psychology and communication (Pratt, 1998).

Research on impression management and self-presentation had emerged as a major theme in experimental social psychology by the 1980's (e.g., Jones & Wortman, 1973; Leary & Kowaiski, 1990; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981). Today, self-presentation has emerged as an important topic in social psychology, as well as in counseling and clinical psychology (Friedlander & Schwartz, 1985; Kelly, 2000; Schuetz, Richter, Koehler, & Schiepek, 1997), developmental psychology (Aloise-Young, 1993; Bennett & Yeeles, 1990a, 1990b; Emler & Reicher, 1995; Hatch, 1987), sports psychology (James & Collins, 1997; Leary, 1992), organizational behavior and management (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 1995), marketing (Wooten & Reed, 2000), and political science (McGraw, 1991).

Impression management is not a static or one-sided process, but it is a dynamic and two-way process. As the impression manager, the person tries to tailor her/his self-presentation in her/his own way. According to Schlenker (2003), impression management is an activity that is the result of the combination of the personality, the situation and the audience. While managing impression, although much of the integrated information may be relatively truthful, but there also may be exaggerations or distortions of personal experiences and qualities. People have knowledge of a variety of identity types and roles. They manage their impressions using the information from their self-conceptions, including personal experiences, and their knowledge of identity types and roles that may not usually be included in their self-conceptions. In social situations, people draw from this knowledge to construct their self-presentations to others (Schlenker, 2003).

The question arises here that why we do need to manage our impressions? There are many reasons for this. Talking about the motives behind impression management, different theorists have presented the following views. According to Schlenker (1980), the most general motive is to maximize expected rewards and minimize expected punishments. Goffman (1959) did not discuss these motivational forces in detail. He

People hold varying views about the nature of impression management. But the reality is that impression management is not inherently good or bad but the motivation behind it and the results of this activity help in categorizing this behavior as good or bad (as cited in <http://www.uncc.edu/ragiactal/spinintro.html>). Schlenker and Weigold's (1992) have given two perspectives on impression management. They defined the first view as restrictive and the second as an expansive. The labels refer to the nature and scope of self-presentation phenomena. Mostly the word impression management is taken in a very negative way and is usually taken as the process which mostly include exaggerations or false information about the person or that may be labeled as "false advertising" of the impression manager. This is restrictive view of impression management. According to expansive view, impression management is not just superficial, deceptive or manipulative action but it also helps in conveying an "accurate" portrait of one (Rafaeli & Harness, 2002).

Taxonomies Of Impression Management

There are different tactics of impression management. Different researchers have developed different taxonomies of impression management or self-presentation tactics on the basis of their researches.

Tedeschi and Melburg's Taxonomy

In one analysis of self-presentation, Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) discuss self-presentation as varying along the dimensions of assertiveness and timeliness.

a) Assertive self-presentation.

In their analysis, *assertive* self-presentation is behavior that is aimed to create a desired identity, such as intimidating others to portray an image of power.

b) Reactive or defensive self-presentation

It is aimed at repairing potentially damaging self-images, such as excuses or justifications for an undesirable negative situation.

Schlenker and Weigold (1992) and Rosenfeld and colleagues (1995) offer similar distinctions between acquisitive and protective styles.

c) *Tactical self-presentation*

Tactical self-presentation is focused on a specific target audience and is intended at achieving concrete, short-term goals, such as getting a job interview or a job offer.

d) *Strategic self-presentation*

Strategic self-presentation is intended at building a certain reputation, such as developing an image of a competent person. This reputation is desired because it can enable impression managers to achieve future goals, in different situations or with different target audiences (Rafaeli & Harness, 2002).

Another widely accepted taxonomy of self-presentational styles distinguishes between:

- *Assertive self-presentation* (trying to look good by presenting a favorable image)
- *Offensive self-presentation* (trying to look good by making others look bad),
- *Protective self-presentation* (trying not to look bad by avoiding creating negative impressions), and
- *Defensive self presentation* (trying not to look bad by defending against negative typification) (Jones & Pittman; Tedeschi & Norman; Schutz, as cited in Boeiji, 2004). Each self-presentational style employs different strategies and tactics.

Impression Managers Typology

Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) identified five impression management tactics (reason, friendliness, assertiveness, bargaining, higher authority and coalition) and four types of impression management users.

- *Shotgun* managers used all the tactics but particularly assertiveness, and were inclined to take risk without proper evaluation of political consequences.

- *Tacticians* with sufficient power and skills resources preferred rationality and reason but also use other tactics.
- *Bystanders* used IM tactics less than the others, had less power.
- *Ingratiators* used more ingratiation and friendliness together with average use of other tactics, and were keen to pursue their own goals through influencing their managers. The existence of shotgun, tactician and bystander manager groups was confirmed, but not the ingratiator group (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001).

Strategies of Self-presentation

Impression management taxonomy presented by Jones & Pittman (1982) has been widely used in research. They offer five fundamental strategies of self-presentation: ingratiation, intimidation, self-promotion, exemplification and supplication. Each of these strategies is in turn characterized by specific motivations, goals, and tactics (Pratt, 1998).

- *Ingratiation:* Ingratiation is the most common and most studied of impression management techniques. Ingratiation refers to a set of related impression management tactics that have as their collective aim making the person more liked and attractive to others.
- *Self-Promotion:* In contrast to the ingratiator who wants to be liked, the self-promoter wants to be seen as competent (Jones, 1990). For this, the individuals show off their abilities or accomplishments to be seen as competent.
- *Intimidation:* The goal of the intimidator is to be feared. The intimidator tries to gain social power and influence by creating an identity of being dangerous -- one whose threats and warnings are to be obeyed, or negative consequences will occur. Intimidation is more likely to occur in nonvoluntary relationships such as the one between supervisors and subordinates.
- *Exemplification:* Exemplification involves managing the impressions of integrity, self-sacrifice, and moral worthiness (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Exemplifiers volunteer for difficult assignments. They willingly suffer to help

others. They go beyond the call of duty. The exemplifier attempts to influence and control through inducing guilt or attributions of virtue that may lead to imitation by others.

- *Supplication*: The supplicator exploits his own weakness to influence others. By advertising their incompetence, supplicators attempt to activate a powerful social rule known as the norm of social responsibility that says we should help those who are in need (Jones, 1990).

Profiles of Impression Management

In addition to the significant research on various patterns of influence, comparable work with regard to the use of differing patterns of impression management is not extensive one. Bolino and Turnley (2003) found out in their research that there are three profiles of impression management usage. These include *Positives*, *Aggressives* and *Passives*. These three profiles differ in using the combination of impression management tactics as given by Jones and Pittman (1982) which have been mentioned earlier.

- *Positives*

Positives have the highest use of those impression management tactics aimed at achieving positive-only images (i.e., ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification); these individuals used supplication and intimidation relatively less frequently.

- *Aggressives*

Aggressives use relatively high levels of all five impression management tactics (i.e., ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication and intimidation).

- *Passives*

The third profile is *Passives* who use relatively low levels of all five impression management tactics.

Theoretical Background of Impression Management

Impression management theory is a budding theory that has its historical roots in a variety of approaches to interpersonal relations. Facets of this theory can be seen in diverse approaches as symbolic interactionism (e.g., Dewey, 1922; Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934), self-presentation (Goffman, 1959), constructive alternativism (Kelley, 1955; Heider's, 1958) theory of interpersonal relations, and to some extent, script theory (Abelson, 1976). Because of these reasons, it would be most probably inaccurate to attribute impression management theory to any single person. Some important perspectives on impression management are discussed below:

Schlenker's Theory of Impression Management

Berry Schlenker is the psychologist who has presented an integrated and consistent approach about impression management. According to him, "*Impression management is the conscious or unconscious attempt to control images that are projected in real or imagined social interactions*" (Schlenker, 1980, p.6).

The two core constructs of his theory are self-concept and social identity. According to Schlenker, the self-concept is a theory that a person has about herself/himself, whereas social identity refers to the ways people are defined and regarded in social interactions. The self-concept of the person emerges as a result of her/his social interactions. The person comes to know many things about herself/himself as a result of knowledge that how others perceive her/him or regards her/him. In other words, people's self-concepts develop as they see themselves reflected in the actions of significant others.

Self-concept is very important as it serves some very important functions for the individual. Self-concept provides a framework to the individual to organize and interpret one's life experiences. Secondly, it helps the individual to maximize pleasures and minimize pains in one's life. And finally, it facilitates in maintaining self-esteem. The last function of the self-concept is important for impression management theory as this theory assumes that everyone is motivated to create and maintain the highest self-esteem possible.

Social identity, another important construct of this theory, is the self, known to others. It concerns the way one is viewed by others. It also emerges in social interactions with others. Social identity is a consequence of many such interactions and through this identity a person becomes part of the social relationships among people. As the components of person's self-concept also come from the way others perceive one, so in this sense social identity also affects one's self-concept. That is why, to maintain or enhance one's self-concept one tries to influence social identity through impression management.

According to Schlenker (1980), people have a need to maintain or enhance their self-esteem. According to him, this need may be innate but may self-serving actions and perceptions have their basis in the social interaction process. There are some processes, which are interdependent and contribute to the maintenance or enhancement of the self. One process is the controlling identities as what identity one holds in her/his social interactions affects the outcomes of the social interactions and the ways in which that person is treated in social interactions. One of the most obvious ways to control impressions or social identity is public description of one's own attributes, behaviors and events. Management of the self-image is another vital process. People are concerned about managing their own impressions of themselves as well as managing the impressions that others have of them. Another common way of establishing and maintaining social identity is claiming images. A claim to a particular image is said to occur when people try to associate themselves with that image. Although everybody likes to project the most attractive image of one but it is not possible as reality imposes problem here. If there is much discrepancy between the reality and the claimed image then the person might face adverse negative outcomes instead of positive one.

Schlenker (1980) also talks about the events those have undesirable implications for the identity-relevant images, people have claimed in social interactions. He termed such situations as "predicaments". The more severe the predicament, the greater the threat to the person's identity. People attempt to avoid or conceal them since the consequences of the predicaments are negative. If the person fails to avoid or conceal a predicament then the person may adopt to retreat or engage in remedial behavior. Retreat may be the most immediate response to predicament. The theory says that this flight behavior is advantageous when the expected consequences of the predicament are

severe, the person's expectations of dealing with predicament are low and there is a reasonable possibility to escape from the situation. While the remedial behavior is intended to reduce the potential negative consequences and maximize their expected reward/cost ratio, and the more severe is the predicament the greater is the motivation for such remedial behavior.

Remedial tactics have two classes: accounts and apologies. Accounts are explanations of the event that created the predicament and are designed to minimize the severity of the predicament. The three basic forms of the accounts are defenses of innocence, excuses, and justification. Apologies are designed to convince the audience that the undesirable events should not be regarded as a fair representation of what the actor is really like as a person (Schlenker, 2003).

To create a positive image, people do not only try to manage the negative situations through mentioned tactics but they also try to take full advantage of the positive situations in order to boost their image. When such a situation having positive consequences occur, people try to claim the responsibility for the positive event and also try to increase the desirable nature of the event (Shaw & Costanzo, 1985).

Leary and Kowalski model of Impression Management

According to Leary and Kowalski (1990) model of impression management, people operate with varying levels of awareness of the impressions, which they make on others. To varying degrees, they react to stimuli, sometimes learning habitual and almost unconscious responses such as standing up straight when approached by someone senior to them in age or position. They identified two components of impression management: motivation and construction. The model can be presented in the following way:

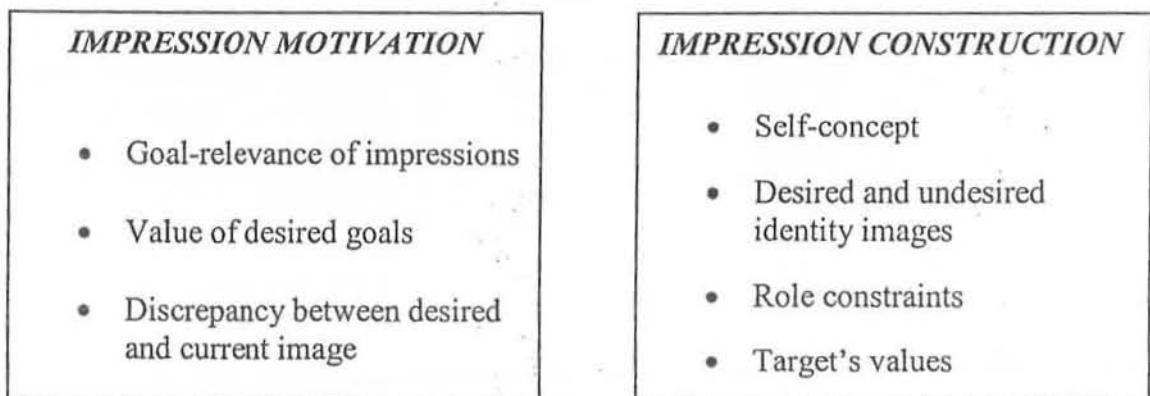


Figure 1. The two components of impression management

The antecedents of the impression motivation are the goal-relevance of impressions, value of the desired goal and any discrepancy between the desired and current image. People are more motivated to manage impressions when the impressions they make are relevant of the fulfillment of one or more of the goals (i.e. social and material outcomes, self-esteem maintenance, identity development). Dependency on the audience for valued outcome increases the motivation for impression management.

Impression motivation also increases with the value of the desired goals. Because the value of the outcomes also increases as their availability goes down, impression management is higher when desired resources are insufficient. Pandey (1986) suggested that impression management is higher in societies with limited economic and political opportunities. Other variables that determine the value or importance of creating an impression involve characteristics of the target. By virtue of their personal or social attributes, some target audiences make the people to monitor their impressions more than the others (Schlenker, 1980). The third factor that motivates impression management is the degree of the discrepancy between the real image and the ideal image of one. A common example of this involves situations in which one have public failure or some other embarrassing incident. Such an incident increases the motivation for impression management (Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

The second component of impression management is impression construction. According to this model, there are five determinants of influencing the way in which people manage their impressions. Two of these are intrapersonal (self-concept and desired identity) and three are interpersonal determinants (role constraints, target values and current or potential social image). Self-concept is the primary determinant of impressions people try to project. Most people value certain aspects of themselves that they proudly display to others at appropriate times. Self-concept of a person also makes the person to select the image one can claim. As the image that is inconsistent with the self-concept is difficult to carry so in this way self-concept narrows down the options of the images one can opt to portray. Impression management is not only affected by how people think they are but by how they would like to be and not to be. The images people project incline towards their identities while remaining within the bounds of reality.

Talking about the interpersonal factors, social role is an important factor affecting the image construction. Social roles carry specific expectations from those who carry out those roles. In this regard, impression management is often based on a prototype-matching process. As people try to make their social images conform as closely to the prototypic characteristics of the role they are playing. Researches show that people tailor their public image according to the perceived values and preferences of the target audience. They may even present themselves negatively if they think powerful others value negative attributes as in the case of “playing dumb”(Jellison & Gentry, as cited in Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Finally, the impressions people try to create are affected both by how they think they are currently regarded by others and how they think others may perceive them in the future. People are reluctant to present themselves in ways that are inconsistent with the information others have about them, presumably because they have a low probability of creating an alternative impression. Similarly, the content of people’s impression management is also affected by how they think they may be viewed in the future.

This model provided the comprehensive account of the processes involved in impression-relevant behavior (Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

Recently, Roberts (2003) in her paper on a conceptual model for professional image construction discusses the third process of the impression management and adds it to Leary and Kowalski’s model of impression management. This process is named as *impression monitoring*. She discusses this process as the first step of impression management process. The impression management process begins with monitoring: generating an awareness of how one is perceived in a given situation. As individuals interact with one another, they often search for cues or signals that indicate how others perceive them (Higgins, as cited in Roberts, 2003). They then determine if this current image is consistent or inconsistent with how they desire to be seen (Leary & Kowalski; Swann, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Individuals vary in the extent to which they are consciously aware of how others perceive them. In a given encounter, impression monitoring is contingent upon one’s general tendency to attend to others’ impressions (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss; Snyder, as cited in Roberts, 2003) as well as the salience of his or her social identities

(Deaux & Major, as cited in Roberts, 2003). The demographic composition of the interaction context also influences the salience of social identities. While culturally meaningful, socio-demographic identities, such as gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, age, and socioeconomic class, remain salient across situations (Moreland & Levine; Stangor et al., as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Through direct and subtle interpersonal cues, other people actively increase the salience of one's identities (Foldy; Ibarra; Wrzesniewski, Dutton & Debebe, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Direct cues are interpersonal acts that communicate regard or disregard for one's identities, and therefore increase awareness of how social identities may influence one's professional image. People often spotlight, or draw attention to one's identities by asking questions related to their identity group membership (Foldy, as cited in Roberts, 2003). In sum, monitoring involves attending to others' perceptions, by searching for cues regarding how one is evaluated with respect to personal and social identities, and determining if these evaluations are consistent or inconsistent with one's desired image (Roberts, 2003).

Consequences of Impression Management

Roberts (2003) in her paper on a conceptual model for professional image construction also discusses the consequences of impression management in detail.

The use of impression management directly impacts one's current image. The impact of impression management on one's current image can be positive or negative, depending upon the success of one's impression management attempt for creating the desired image. Impression management can also have beneficial or undesirable consequences that extend beyond one's image and impact one's psyche, relationships, and work groups depending upon one's success in creating the desired image.

Rosenfeld et al. (2001) suggest that impression management is beneficial when it involves an accurate, favorably regarded depiction and facilitates positive interpersonal relationships. However, it may have adverse effects for actors and perceivers when it inhibits or hampers positive interpersonal relationships or distorts information about people that leads others to incorrect conclusions. This implies that no

experience stress, depression, decreased job satisfaction and increased intentions to turnover if their publicly displayed emotions are inconsistent with internally felt emotions (Abraham; Côté & Morgan; Hochschild; Morris & Feldman; Pugliesi; Rafaeli & Sutton, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Hewlin (as cited in Roberts, 2003) also proposes that individuals who conform by masking their true values when they differ from organizational values will experience tension and stress. Individuals who are able to authentically and credibly manage impressions will likely have higher levels of psychological well-being than individuals who are less successful in their impression management attempts.

Task engagement

Many researchers have proposed that engaging in impression management has damaging effects on task engagement, due to inauthenticity and cognitive distraction. Task engagement is defined as attention to and absorption with a task, represents people's cognitive participation in a task and is essential for high quality job performance (Kahn, 1990). Any form of intentional self-presentation can place an additional cognitive load on actors (Baumeister, as cited in Roberts, 2003), due to preoccupation with self-presentation strategies. Such preoccupation often leads to attention insufficiency and reduced incidental learning on tasks (Lord & Saenz, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Inauthentic impression management can often involve deception and suppression: hiding aspects of one's true identity and/or replacing them with false information about one's values or experiences. Such deception and suppression likely increases the cognitive load that impression management usually requires (Baumeister, as cited in Roberts, 2003). For example, Smart & Wegner (as cited in Roberts, 2003) found that individuals with concealable stigmas who attempt to pass as "normal" must deal with the constant preoccupation of hiding their stigmatizing condition. Thus, employees who can enact their authentic selves at work spend less time and cognitive energy guarding against stigmatization and may contribute more fully to the workplace (Creed & Scully, as cited in Roberts, 2003). On the other hand, individuals who must suppress aspects of them will likely experience lower levels of task performance, and therefore a decreased contribution to the work place (Dickens & Dickens, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Interpersonal Consequences

High quality relationships

Human beings have an omnipresent drive to form and maintain lasting, positive and significant interpersonal relations (Baumeister & Leary, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Rejection, segregation, or being ignored leads to anxiety, grief, depression, loneliness and jealousy, while acceptance leads to positive emotions of happiness, contentment, calm and personal growth (Baumeister & Leary; Kram, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Impression management strategies are often used to signal that one possesses desirable qualities, which enhances others' perceptions of one's attractiveness and subsequent liking (Jones & Pittman; Tedeschi & Melburg; Wayne & Liden, as cited in Roberts, 2003). So impression management can also be used to increase attraction, liking and the quality of the relationship with the perceiver.

Research on similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, as cited in Roberts, 2003) indicates that people of similar backgrounds (e.g., socioeconomic status and attitudes) are more likely to be attracted to each other. Relationships tend to develop by a process of gradually increasing self-disclosure; people are more likely to disclose information to those they like initially, and after disclosing intimate information, people like more and are liked more by those to whom they disclose (Aron; Collins & Miller, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Thus, authenticity is also a critical element of high quality relationships. As Goffman (1959) stated, "To the degree that an individual maintains a show before others that he himself does not believe, he can come to experience a special kind of alienation from self and a special kind of wariness of others" (p. 236).

Authentic self-presentations create a sense of feeling known and understood by others, which enhances the quality of the relationship with the perceiver (Dutton & Heaphy; Kahn; Miller & Stiver, as cited in Roberts, 2003). People who present themselves authentically are also more likely to receive self-verifying feedback from others, which increases their sense of feeling known (Polzer, Milton & Swann, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Therefore, it is likely that individuals who employ authentic

impression management strategies will form higher quality relationships with others than individuals who employ inauthentic impression management strategies.

Performance ratings

A person's career success is partially determined by the extent to which others view him/her as attaining the necessary technical and social skills to meet the demands of his/her job, according to the parameters of a given organizational culture or profession (Dickens & Dickens; Rosenfeld et al.; Rafaeli et al.; Schlenker, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Images of competence and credibility are critical for firm performance because a professional's behavior strongly affects clients' perceptions of quality and subsequent purchase of services (Ibarra, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Thus, individuals who present credible impressions will achieve a number of social benefits, including enhanced client perceptions (Ibarra, as cited in Roberts, 2003) and performance ratings (Wayne & Ferris; Wayne & Liden, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Effective impression management can even serve to raise managers' expectations concerning what one is capable of achieving, which, according to the self-fulfilling prophecy, can lead the manager to act in ways that facilitate improvements in one's own performance (Eden, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Work Group Consequences

Work group cohesion

Work group productivity requires cohesion; group members must develop genuine, open and trusting relationships with one another (Edmondson, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Such relationships can be difficult to establish in diverse organizations, as conflicts often arise based upon communication problems, discomfort, differential values, misperceptions and misunderstandings (Chatman et al.; Jehn et al., as cited in Roberts, 2003). Many scholars and practitioners recommend that employees categorize themselves on the basis of common work group memberships rather than distinct social identity groups in order to achieve cohesion and cooperation with members of different social identity groups (Allison & Herlocker; Chatman et al.; Dovidio et al., as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Work group creativity

One of the greatest benefits of diversity is the increased variation in perspectives and approaches to work members of different identity groups can bring to work

organizations (Hoffman & Maier; Nemeth; Thomas & Ely, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Cox (as cited in Roberts, 2003) proposes that, when given the opportunity to “be different,” minority group members can promote coworker innovation and creativity. Yet, people may interact with and trust in-group members more than out-group members, and thus may be less likely to share novel ideas with out-groups (Amabile; Brewer; Chatman et. al.; Nemeth, as cited in Roberts, 2003). This in-group bias can pose a considerable challenge to attaining the desired benefits of a heterogeneous work force.

Perceived similarity can influence willingness to trust and share novel ideas with work group members (Kramer, Brewer & Hanna, as cited in Roberts, 2003). People who use credible impression management to increase perceived similarity might also increase the willingness to share novel ideas in diverse groups (Chatman et al., as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Organizational Consequences

Each of the aforementioned consequences of impression management for individuals, dyads and work groups has implications for organizationally-relevant outcomes. Organizations indirectly benefit from their employees’ credible and authentic self-presentations through increased retention. Employees who experience the psychological benefits of credible and authentic self-presentation are more satisfied with their employing organizations and are less likely to quit (Abraham; Côté & Morgan; Morris & Feldman, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Further, credible and authentic self-presentation is often linked to heightened task engagement and work group creativity, both of which may enhance the quality and innovation of products and services an organization provides (Hewlin; Morrison & Milliken, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

Individuals who engage in credible and authentic self-presentation may also experience higher quality interpersonal relationships and work group cohesion. The

enhanced relational quality at the dyad and work group levels is likely to generate increased social capital within employing organizations (Adler & Kwon; Leana & Van Buren, as cited in Roberts, 2003). Moreover, the extent to which individuals present themselves in an authentic and credible manner influences client ratings of professional service, which can build the organizations' reputation as a high quality service-provider (Ibarra, as cited in Roberts, 2003).

So it becomes clear here that impression management is such a dynamic process that affects a person's life globally.

Research on Impression Management

In most of the research on impression management, focus has been on conscious impression management rather automatic impression management. And mostly those settings are studied for this phenomenon, which is valuable for the actor and can have desired outcomes. As for example, many studies focus on the impression management behavior of the subordinates with their boss or impression management in a selection interview for the job. As Kristof and Stevens (1995) conducted a research to explore that which impression management tactics are used more frequently in job interviews? They found out that self-promotion was used more frequently as compared to ingratiation.

There has been also an extensive research on "religious devoutness-impression management" hypothesis. Several researchers (e.g. Batson et al.; Bolt & Vermeulen; Pargament et al.; Watson, Hood, Morris, & Hall, as cited in Richards, 1994) have observed significant positive relations between the Social Desirability Index (SDI; Crowne & Marlowe, as cited in Richards, 1994) and the Intrinsic scale (a measure of religious devoutness and commitment) of Religious Orientation Scale (ROS; Allport & Ross, as cited in Richards, 1994). Leak and Fish (as cited in Richards, 1994) concluded that "devoutly religious, intrinsic persons have tendencies towards distortions in the way they see themselves...and in the way they intentionally present themselves to others.... the intrinsic may be overly concerned with appearances". But this religious devoutness-impression management hypothesis has been challenged (Donahue; Gorsuch; Watson, Morris, Foster, & Hood, as cited in Richards, 1994).

Five studies reported in Watson et al., (as cited in Richards, 1994) have provided the most damaging evidence against the religious devoutness-impression management hypothesis. Watson and his colleagues (Watson et al., as cited in Richards, 1994) found that while devout (intrinsic) religiousness was positively associated with the SDI (Crowne & Marlowe, as cited in Richards, 1994), it tended to be unrelated to several other impression management measures (i.e., self-consciousness, social anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, approval motivation, and a fake good scale).

Richards (1994) also found a weak positive correlation between intrinsic religiousness and impression management. Burriss and Navara (2002) also conducted a research on the same topic and found a positive relationship between intrinsic religious orientation and socially desirable responding. So nothing is conclusive about this relationship and this area needs to be explored further.

Tedeschi et.al. (2004), in a research, studied protective and acquisitive self-presentation styles and their relationship with coping strategies with social stress. They found out that those who are high in protective self-presentation compared with low protective self-presenters were more engaged in avoidance coping and more concerned with intentions that indicate avoidance of social disapproval. Furthermore, they tended to use non-authentic self-presentation and were less engaged in entertaining the audience. An almost opposite pattern of results emerged for high acquisitive compared with low acquisitive self-presenters.

Olson and Johnson (1992) studied the individual differences in self-presentation styles of American students. They found out three major groups on the basis of differences in self-presentation. These groups were labeled as *consistents*, *flexible-impression managers* and *rigid-impression managers*. Consistent impression managers were those who reported presenting themselves to others no differently than they viewed their actual selves. *Flexible-impression managers* were those whose self-presentation varied according to the social desirability of the trait behavior involved, and they attempted to present themselves more positively to others than they viewed their actual personality traits. While *rigid-impression managers* were those whose self-

presentation differed significantly from their views of their actual selves, but their self-presentation did not vary according to the social desirability of the traits involved.

Hamid (1994) conducted a research on Chinese and New Zealand students. He found out that individuals from collective culture (Chinese) showed more self-disclosure and high self-presentation as compared to individualistic culture (New Zealand).

Leary, Martin, and Rejeski (2000) conducted to explore the self-presentation concerns in older adults. Their research suggested that older adults were also motivated to engage in strategic self-presentation. They found out that numerous self-presentational concerns of older adults stemmed from age- and health-related changes and were associated with concerns about one's physical appearance, being perceived as competent and self-reliant, and ascribing to behavioral norms.

Gundersen and Rozell (2003) conducted a research on the effects of leader impression management on group dynamics. The primary purpose of the current study was to examine actual leaders in a small group setting to empirically assess the worth of using leader impression management (LIM) as a predictor of group cohesion, consensus, and communication. Results indicated that the impression management (IM) tactic of exemplification was predictive of group cohesion, feelings regarding group member relationships and decision processes, and feelings regarding group decision outcomes. The IM tactic of ingratiation was positively related to group cohesion. Helplessness was negatively related to feelings regarding group member relationships and decision processes. No IM tactics were predictive of feelings regarding individual effectiveness.

Rafaeli and Harness (2002) examined letters of application for employment as instances of individual self-presentation. They found a new strategy of self-presentation that they labeled as self-validation. This strategy is used by self-presenters to convince target persons that desirable identity claims are true. The sources for using this strategy come from self-report, other people, external indicators, and evidence of achievement, previous roles, and performance in similar situations. Pratt (1998) investigated the presence and frequency of particular impression management strategies used in opening and closing statements of E-mail communications by employees of a major aerospace

manufacturing facility. Self-promotion and ingratiation were used more often in opening statements. Ingratiation and supplication were used more often in closing statements.

Palmer et al.,(2001) conducted the study to test the proposition that organizational managers have primarily an acquisitive orientation. The affective sentiments of 95 international middle- and upper-level business managers toward their organization, its leaders, and its business control mechanisms were compared with their perceptions of the acquisitiveness and protectiveness of their work environment. The results indicated that affective sentiments of managers are correlated with the acquisitiveness, but not the protectiveness, of the work environment, supporting the notion that managers have primarily an acquisitive orientation.

Singh and Vinnicombe (2000) examined the influence of sex, managerial level and age on IM usage among male and female managers. Self-promotion of ambition, self-promotion of success and professional demeanor emerged as self-promoting strategies. Manager-focused strategies comprised networking and ingratiation; whilst job focused strategies consisted of high performance, preparation and visible commitment. The survey revealed that younger and junior females used significantly less IM than their male peers and older and more senior females.

Wayne and Ferris (as cited in Turnley & Bolino, 2001) found that the use of ingratiation by employees was positively associated with supervisor liking and performance ratings. Also, Judge and Bretz (as cited in Turnley & Bolino, 2001) found that individuals using ingratiation achieved higher levels of career success, while individuals using self-promotion experienced lower levels of career success.

Research on impression management suggests that men and women often seek to manage impressions in different ways (Gardner & Martinko; Judge&Bretz, as cited in Turnley & Bolino, 2003). Indeed, according to Eagly's (as cited in Turnley & Bolino, 2003) role theory of gender differences in social behavior, individuals tend to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their socially prescribed gender roles. Turnley & Bolino (2003) found out the significant differences in the way men and women used impression management. In general, men tended to be more aggressive in

their use of impression management than women. Compared to men, women were more passive and engaged in fewer impression management behaviors across the board.

An individual's level of Machiavellianism is likely to affect how he or she uses different types of impression management. Research suggests that Machiavellianism is likely to be positively correlated with the use of impression management (Christie & Geis, as cited in Bolino & Turnley 2003). Machiavellians may use impression management behaviors that more immediately benefit themselves (Ickes, Reidhead & Patterson, as cited in Bolino & Turnley 2003). Bolino & Turnley (2003) found out differences in the patterns of impression management tactics employed by high Machs and low Machs. As compared to low Machs, high Machs tended to use all the impression management tactics whereas low Machs tended to use those impression management tactics invoking positive images.

Schlenker and Weigold (1992) showed that privately self-conscious people are concerned with their reputations to audiences. They found that both publicly and privately self-conscious people changed their publicly expressed beliefs based on audience feedback, but for different reasons. Publicly self-conscious people conformed to the expectations of their partner – they presented themselves consistently with the type of identity the partners thought they should have. Privately self-conscious people, however, presented themselves in ways that were designed to convey an image of autonomy to the audience. They shifted their behavior just as much as publicly self-conscious participants, but for a different purpose.

These results indicate that inner and outer orientations, at least as represented by private and public self-consciousness, do not seem to be distinguished by whether self-presentations are influenced by audiences but rather by how they are influenced. People who are publicly self-conscious look to audiences to tell them who to be; they then present themselves in these ways. In contrast, privately self-conscious people look to audiences to tell them if they are coming across as they want to; they present themselves in ways that make them appear autonomous and change their behavior if feedback suggests they are not effectively creating that impression.

Analyses of individual differences in self-presentation have focused largely on

variables that reflect the distinction between inner versus outer orientations. Personality measures of self-monitoring (Gangestad & Snyder; & M. Snyder, as cited in Schlenker, 2003), private versus public self-consciousness (Carver & Scheier, as cited in Schlenker, 2003), personal and social identity (Cheek; Hogan & Cheek, as cited in Schlenker, 2003), and the need for social approval (Paulhus, as cited in Schlenker, 2003) all assess aspects of differences in inner and outer orientations.

At one time, researchers entertained the idea that people who were inner oriented, such as those low in self-monitoring or high in private self-consciousness, were able to tune out social pressures, remain ignorant to audience expectations, and be guided exclusively by inner values and beliefs (Buss & Briggs; Carver & Scheier; M. Snyder, as cited in Schlenker, 2003).

In some researches, self-monitoring has been positively associated with the extent of impression management use (Fandt & Ferris; Rosenfeld et al., as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2003). In a recent analysis of self-monitoring, Gangestad and Snyder (2000) questioned the original view that low self-monitors are oblivious to social pressure and raised the possibility that low self-monitors are concerned about their "reputations of being genuine and sincere people who act on their beliefs" (p. 547). Increasingly, though, researchers are recognizing the power of audiences to shape the self-presentations of those who are inner oriented. Gangestad and Snyder (2000) suggested that high self-monitors seem to be motivated to enhance their social status. Their chameleon-like behavior to different audiences may primarily reflect status enhancement strategies of impression management. Further, high self-monitors do not seem to display the "close attention and responsiveness to other people" that was originally a core component of the concept (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000, p. 545). However, they are high on expressive control and nonverbal decoding skills, which contribute to their strong acting skills.

Turnley and Bolino (2001) suggested that, relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors might also be more selective in their use of impression management tactics. In particular, high self-monitors may be especially cautious of using those tactics that are likely to lead to less favorable images (i.e., supplication and intimidation). High self-monitors do not necessarily engage in more impression

management across the board; rather, they tended to emphasize those behaviors that sought to obtain favorable attributions (i.e. ingratiation, self-promotion and exemplification).

Among important variables with which impression management has been studied, self-monitoring is a very important dispositional factor. As the second variable of the present research is self-monitoring so here a detailed account of self-monitoring is required.

Self-Monitoring

It reflects the ability and willingness to attend to social verbal and non-verbal cues, and to alter one's behavior accordingly (Snyder and Gangestad, 2000).

Snyder (as cited in Salter, 2003) related that people who engage in high self-monitoring behavior regulate their behavior in ways that are highly sensitive to situational cues. High self-monitors have a strong concern that their behavior is appropriate for the social situations in which they find themselves. Individuals who are high self-monitors are particularly sensitive to the social cues and self-presentations of others, and use social cues as guidelines for managing their own behavior and or creating desirable impressions (Snyder, as cited in Salter, 2003)). In contrast, low self-monitoring persons display less concern for the situational appropriateness of their behavior, which appears to be guided from their internal cues, rather than by situational specifications of appropriate behavior. Therefore, one might say that high self-monitors are impression managers who are to a great degree concerned with the impression their actions have on others. Their concern for the impression they make results in their adjusting their behavior so as to present themselves in the most favorable light. Low self-monitors are more inclined to act in accord with their own true feelings, attitudes, and values in social settings (Snyder, as cited in Salter, 2003).

Self-Monitoring Theory

An important theory which is concerned with the antecedents and consequences of variations in the extent to which individuals strategically cultivate public appearance is Self-Monitoring theory (Snyder; Gangestad & Snyder, 1991 as cited in Snyder, 2000). This theory has generated an extensive literature on the role of such processes in

diverse domains of individual and social functioning.

The theory of self-monitoring, first introduced almost three decades ago, composed of conceptual propositions based upon a theoretically straightforward foundation (Snyder, as cited in Snyder, 2000). The central concerns of the self-monitoring orientation are expressed in the following two questions:

1. To what extent do individuals actively attempt to control the images and impressions that others form of them during social interaction and
2. Of what consequence is the adoption of such a strategic and pragmatic orientation to interpersonal relationships? (Snyder, as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985).

The core assumptions of the theory answer these questions. According to fundamental postulates of the theory, people differ meaningfully in the extent to which they can and do engage in expressive control. Some people, out of a concern for the situational appropriateness of their expressive self-presentation, have come to monitor their expressive behavior and accordingly regulate their self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances. Thus, the behavior of these high self-monitors may be highly responsive to social and interpersonal cues of situationally appropriate performances. By contrast, other people, those who (relatively speaking) do not engage in expressive control, have not acquired the same concern for the situational appropriateness of their expressive behavior. For these low self-monitors, expressive behaviors are not controlled by deliberate attempts to appear situationally appropriate; instead, their expressive behavior functionally reflects their own inner attitudes, emotions, and dispositions (Snyder, 2000).

Stated otherwise, the theory of self-monitoring concerns differences in the extent to which people value, create, cultivate, and project social images and public appearances. High self-monitors can be likened to consummate social pragmatists, willing and able to project images designed to impress others. Moreover, they seem to believe in the appearances they create and to take stock in the fact that these appearances can and do become social realities. By contrast, low self-monitors seem not only unwilling but also unable to "carry off" appearances. They live as if put-on images are falsehoods, as though only those public displays true to the privately

experienced self are principled (Snyder, 2000).

According to Snyder (as cited in Dobbins, Farh, & Werbel, 1993) self-monitoring is related to cognitive, behavioral, and interpersonal functioning. For example, high self-monitors are better able to accurately communicate an intended emotion through both vocal and facial channels of expression. They also spend more time and energy reviewing the background information so that they can accurately understand their audience. High self-monitors also tend to use plural nouns more frequently and singular pronouns less frequently than low self-monitors. The attitude-behavior congruence is low for high self-monitors since their behavior are in service of social expression rather than self-expression. But for low self-monitors, their behavior is in the service of self-consistent expression and thus a high attitude-behavior consistency is expected (Shaw & Costanzo, 1985).

A high self-monitor is highly attuned and responsive to the cues of other people and uses those interpersonal and social signals to determine how best to manage his or her own presentation. This orientation is primarily a pragmatic or strategic one (McCann & Higgins, as cited in Behncke, 2000). In addition to a focus on the actions of other people and a desire to mesh with those people, a high self-monitor may strive to fit a prototypic image that is elicited by a certain situational categorization (Cantor; Cantor, Mischel, & Schwartz, as cited in Behncke, 2000). The behavior of such people should show considerable cross-situational inconsistency as the cues attended to by the high self-monitor change according to the altering contexts.

In contrast to this, low self-monitors exhibit behavior that is relatively stable from situation to situation. In determining appropriate actions, they look to themselves first. Such people see themselves as principled individuals who seek correspondence between their public behaviors and their visions of their inner selves and attitudes (Gollwitzer & Wicklund; Snyder, as cited in Behncke, 2000). They are less concerned with the social consequences of their actions (Berger & Roloff, as cited in Behncke, 2000) and may rely on a schema which says that they will do something only if they feel like doing it (Kruglanski & Klar, as cited in Behncke, 2000).

High self-monitors are keenly interested in the actions of others and in trying to

"read" their motives, attitudes and traits. Presumably, they do this so they will know how to present themselves to a particular person. In contrast, low self-monitors seek to match their public behavior to their private attitudes, feelings and beliefs. They tend to speak their mind no matter who is listening. High self-monitors are flexible and adaptable – they display different behavior from situation to situation. On the other hand, low self-monitors change little from situation to situation. They value the match between who they believe they are and what they do. Low self-monitors do not want to change opinions to please others or win their favor.

High self-monitors tend to declare who they are by listing their roles and memberships – student, post office employee, school orchestra member, tennis player and so on. Contrary to this, low self-monitors identify themselves in terms of their beliefs, emotions, values and personality. High self-monitors choose friends who are skilled or knowledgeable in various areas. They tend to have specific friends for specific activities. However, low self-monitors are more likely to have friends who all tend to be alike in basic ways. No matter what the activity, they prefer to get together with the same friends.

High self-monitors are concerned with outer appearances. They choose their clothes, hair style, and jewelry and so forth to project an image. That image can change from situation to situation. Varying from this, low self-monitors have a wardrobe that is less varied. They do not believe they have to look different as often as high-monitors do. High self-monitors prefer jobs where their role is clearly defined, but low self-monitors prefer jobs where they can "just be themselves." (Coon, 1989).

Snyder speculates that high self-monitors possess a flexible self-concept (or many self-concepts) to accommodate his/her variations in myriad situations, while the low self-monitor is attached to a rooted and relatively inflexible self-identity (as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985).

Later on, Snyder and Gangestad (as cited in Thayer, J. & Miller, M., 1989) argued that low and high self-monitors represent qualitatively distinct personality types. They proposed that a latent (and largely) genetic variable exists that ultimately manifests two quite different forms of personality, that of low self-monitoring personality and that

of high self-monitoring personality. Same ideas about the nature of self-monitoring construct has been supported by Caligiuri and Day (as cited in Behncke, 2000). Gender appears to play a role in self-monitoring and regulation in different socio-cultural situations (Rekers & Varni, as cited in Behncke, 2000).

Research on Self-Monitoring

There has been a lot research on the construct of self-monitoring. The published literature on self-monitoring includes, for instance, studies of the relation of self-monitoring to: (a) expressive control (e.g., Riggio & Friedman; Siegman & Reynolds; Snyder, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (b) the ability to accurately perceive social cues (e.g., Costanzo & Archer; Funder & Harris; Hosch, Leippe, Marchioni, & Cooper; Mill, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (c) the accessibility of personal attitudes, self-knowledge, and attitude-value relations (e.g., DeBono, Green, Shair, & Benson; DeBono & Snyder; Kardes, Sanbonmatsu, Voss, & Fazio; Mellema & Bassili; Snyder & Cantor, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (d) correspondence between private attitudes and public actions (e.g., Ajzen, Timko, & White; DeBono & Omoto, in press; DeBono & Snyder; Kraus; Maio & Olson, in press; Snyder & Kendzierski; Snyder & Swann; Snyder & Tanke; Wymer & Penner; Zanna, Olson, & Fazio; Zuckerman & Reis, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (e) tendencies to be influenced by the expectations of others (e.g., Harris; Harris & Rosenthal; Lassiter, Stowe, & Weigold, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (f) propensities to tailor behavior and judgments to general dispositional and to specific situational cues (e.g., Danheiser & Graziano; Dardenne & Leyens; Fiske & Von Hendy; Lippa & Donaldson; Friedman & Miller-Herringer; McCann & Hancock; Snyder & Monson; Wong & Watkins, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (g) responsiveness to situational cues in the self-attribution of emotion, judgments about the self, and the expression of attitudes (e.g., Chen, Schechter, & Chaiken; Fritz, Lavine, & Huff; Graziano & Bryant; Jones, Brenner, & Knight; Krosnick & Sedikides, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (h) susceptibility to influence by advertisements that offer appeals to images associated with consumer products relative to those that make claims about the actual quality of the products being advertised (e.g., DeBono & Packer; Shavitt, Lowrey, & Han; Snyder & DeBono, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (i) evaluations of consumer product quality (e.g., DeBono & Krim; DeBono & Leavitt; DeBono & Packer; DeBono & Rubin; DeBono & Snyder, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (j)

responsiveness to persuasive messages that invoke functional considerations associated with the display of social images versus those that invoke matters of the expression of personal attitudes and values (e.g., DeBono; DeBono & Harnish; Kristiansen & Zanna; Lavine & Snyder, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (k) reliance on physical appearance as a criterion for evaluating other people (Snyder, Berscheid, & Glick; Snyder, Berscheid, & Matwychuk; Terkildsen, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (l) orientations toward social interaction, friendship, and romantic relationships (e.g., Berscheid, Graziano, Monson, & Dermer; Broderick & Beltz; Ickes & Barnes; Ickes, Reidhead, & Patterson; Jones & Baumeister; Simpson; Simpson, Gangestad, & Biek; Snyder, Gangestad, & Simpson; Snyder & Simpson; Snyder, Simpson, & Gangestad, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (m) leader emergence in groups (e.g., Anderson & Tolson; Cronshaw & Ellis; Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons; Ellis; Garland & Beard; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, as cited in Snyder, 2000), (n) organizational behavior and managerial outcomes (e.g., Baron; Caldwell & O'Reilly; Deluga; Fandt & Farris; Jenkins; Kilduff; Kilduff & Day, in press, as cited in Snyder, 2000), and (o) socialization and developmental processes (e.g., Eder; Eisenberg, Fabes, Schaller, Carlo, & Miller; Graziano, Danheiser, & Halverson; Graziano, Leone, Musser, & Lautenschlager; Graziano & Ward; Graziano & Waschull; Helling, Yu, & Hines; Musser & Browne, as cited in Snyder, 2000).

There has been an also extensive research on the high and low self-monitors on different dimensions of behavior. For instance, research on interpersonal orientations has revealed that high, relative to low, self-monitors choose as activity partners friends who will facilitate the construction of their own situationally-appropriate appearances (Snyder, Gangestad, & Simpson, as cited in Snyder, 2000). Furthermore, high self-monitors particularly prefer romantic partners with an attractive physical appearance (Snyder, Berscheid, & Glick, as cited in Snyder, 2000), a characteristic that enhances their own status in the eyes of others (e.g., Sigall & Landy, as cited in Snyder, 2000). Perhaps because of their concern with appearances, high self-monitors have romantic relationships characterized by less intimacy than those of low self-monitors (Snyder & Simpson, as cited in Snyder, 2000); as well, they seem more willing to engage in deception in romantic pursuits (Rowatt, Cunningham, & Druen, as cited in Snyder, 2000). By contrast, the friendship choices of low self-monitors tend to reflect similar identities and shared values (Snyder et al., as cited in Snyder, 2000). Their

romantic relationships are relatively stable (Snyder & Simpson, as cited in Snyder, 2000) and characterized by closeness and commitment prior to sexual relations (Snyder, Simpson, & Gangestad, as cited in Snyder, 2000).

Lester (as cited in Behncke, 2000) found that high self-monitoring subjects reported experiencing "multiple selves" (i.e., different aspects of external behavior) in social situations more so than low self-monitoring subjects. High self-monitors recognized more external cues that changed their behavior than low self-monitors. Although these results coincide with Snyder's predicted performance of high self-monitors, it does not indicate whether they could observe their psychological content (thoughts and feelings), or simply knew (recalled) they were behaving differently. Conversely, the low self-monitors, not reporting an experience of multiple selves, did not indicate whether, from observing themselves, they chose not to react to external cues and preserve that state of self.

Snyder (2000) also discusses the two broad consequences of self-monitoring in the interpersonal domain. First of all, since the vicissitudes of the high self-monitor's social orientation in any given situation are dependent upon the particular array of social stimuli confronting him/her, he/she should be more motivated to have a clear and orderly view of such stimuli for purposes of effective action. As a consequence of this presumed motivation of high self-monitors, they should be likely to construe others in the terms of traits and dispositions. Such a stance should serve to facilitate the individual's ability to both predict and influence the behavior of others in social contexts.

In support of this assumption, researchers (Berschied, Graziano, Monson, & Dermer, as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985) found out that high self-monitors who observed another person with the anticipation of social dating were more likely than low self-monitors to notice and remember information about the observed other, make inferences about his or her traits, and express liking for their prospective dates.

A second difference because of low and high self-monitoring styles is the in the development of interpersonal relationships. Researchers (Ickes & Barnes, Pilkonis, as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985) suggest that high self-monitors are more likely than

low self-monitors to initiate, lead, and otherwise take an active role in social encounters. Snyder (as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985) speculates that the high self-monitor's regulatory orientation disposes him/her to a leadership role in group interactions (Shaw & Costanzo, 1985).

Snyder and Monson (as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985) found out the tendency of high self-monitors to conform to opinions of peers was dependent upon the manipulated normative appropriateness of conformity, while the conformity of low self-monitors was unaffected by experimenter-induced situational variations in the normative appropriateness of conformity. In other words, the conformity behavior of high self-monitors was situationally specific, while that of low self-monitors was cross situationally consistent in conforming tendency.

In a related study, the same authors (Snyder & Monson, as cited in Shaw & Costanzo, 1985) asked high and low self-monitoring participants whether they would display in nine variations of situations calling for generosity, honesty, or hostility. For each variation, participants constituted the index of that participant's cross-situational variability in generosity, honesty and hostility. In accordance with the Snyder's theory, high self-monitors reported greater cross-situational variability in the behavior than low self-monitors in all three domains of the behavior.

Graziano and Bryant (as cited in Behncke, 2000) found that high self-monitors reacted to bogus biofeedback (heart-rate monitoring) when viewing slides of attractive people more so than low self-monitors, coinciding with Snyder's (1979) theory. However, like Lester (as cited in Behncke, 2000), no differentiation was made concerning the ability of high and low self-monitors to regulate internal states of self. The authors concluded that high self-monitors are more susceptible to external stimuli than low self-monitors and could not give a causative explanation.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

A detailed literature review on impression management made us realize that impression management is the phenomenon, which acts as an important ingredient of our social life by defining and guiding our social interactions. Whether the current social interaction will be a successful in meeting our goals or not is much determined by this omnipresent and dynamic process. The current age around the globe is the age of information, which is playing the most important role even in the prosperity of nations. This is the time of media war, which is definitely about disseminating specific information and hiding the other. If we talk about the importance of information in interpersonal interactions then it will be clear that to achieve one's goal his/her's image others have counts a lot. So the way one exerts a social pressure on others is crucial for one's success. Here the importance of impression management is magnified as it helps great in this context. We may say that impression management is the process, which helps one in packaging information and advertise oneself. This "advertisement" helps the audience to respond to one in specific ways. If this advertising strategy is meticulous and involves truthful and believable information then audience will respond in the desired way otherwise not. So impression management is the process, which is equally influential at interpersonal level, organizational level and even with the nations while presenting them at international level.

This utmost importance and strength of this phenomenon attracted the researcher for conducting this study. As a first step of exploring this area of social and organizational psychology, this study aimed to investigate this phenomenon in interpersonal setting. This research will see how students manage their impressions while working in mix gender groups. When working in a group, group members are dependent on others for some tasks so here comes the situation where the completion of one's goal is dependent on other's contribution. For this reason, one needs to exert some influence on others while employing specific impression management tactics i.e. ingratiation, supplication, exemplification, self-promotion and intimidation. These tactics provoke different images like ingratiation makes oneself likable by others and so on.

Prior research suggests that some impression management tactics seem to have more in common than others like ingratiation, self-promotion and exemplification (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Recently, Turnley, and Bolino (2001) studied the way in which people combine these different tactics to manage their impressions and their study yielded three impression management profiles named as Aggressives, Passives and Positives. There are some predispositional differences in using these impression management profiles. Among these self-monitoring and gender are very important factors. Previous researches suggest that gender and self-monitoring play an important role in making choices among impression management tactics. So these factors are also important in determining the profiles used by different individuals.

Realizing the significance of this phenomenon in the social life, it is essential for all of us first to understand this phenomenon. Unless one understands this issue in detail, one may not be able to use this process skillfully and meaningfully. So it can be said that basically the aim of the present study is to understand this phenomenon with some other related variables. This topic has been a widely researched topic in interpersonal and organizational contexts but our country is lacking in this type of research. This study will explore the prevalence of different IM tactics and the resultant possible IM profiles. Realizing the importance of this issue in our social life, a need was felt by the present researcher to explore it in our culture.

On the basis of these grounds, an initiative for this research is being taken.

METHOD

METHOD

Objectives of the Research

The objectives of the present research were as following:

1. Modification of Impression Management Scale (IM) and Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) for making them relevant to our culture.
2. To test the reliability and validity of the modified scales.
3. To explore the relationship between impression management and different levels of self-monitoring among university students.
4. To see gender differences among students in impression management behavior.
5. To explore the prevalence of existing impression management profiles among university students.
6. To see the difference between the students of private and public universities regarding impression management behavior.

Hypotheses of the Research

The hypotheses formulated for the present research were as followed:

1. High self-monitors will score high on Impression Management Scale than low self-monitors.
2. There will be a gender difference in impression management behavior among university students.
3. There will be three impression management profiles namely, *Positive, Aggressive and Passive*.
4. High self-monitors will have *Positive* impression management profile more frequently as compared to low self-monitors.
5. Low self-monitors will have *Passive* profile of impression management more frequently as compared to high self-monitors.

6. Girls will have *Passives* profile for impression management more frequently as compared to men.
7. Boys will have *Aggressive* profile for impression management more frequently as compared to women.
8. *Positive* profile will be the most frequently used impression management profile by girls and boys students as compared to aggressive and passive impression management profiles.

Definitions of Variables

Impression Management

Impression management is the process people attempt to influence the images that others have of them (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riardan as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2001).

Jones and Pittman (1982) have identified five impression tactics, which were used in the present research. These tactics are as followed:

1. *Self-promotion*, whereby individuals point out their abilities or accomplishments in order to be seen as competent by observers.
2. *Ingratiation*, whereby individuals do favors or use flattery to elicit an attribution of likeability from observers
3. *Exemplification*, whereby people self-sacrifice or go above and beyond the call of duty in order to gain the attribution of dedication from observers.
4. *Intimidation*, where people signal their power or potential to punish in order to be seen as dangerous by observers.
5. *Supplication*, where individuals advertise their weaknesses or shortcomings in order to elicit an attribution of being needy from observers.

Bolino and Turnley (2003) have identified three impression management profiles. These profiles are given below:

- *Positives*: Individuals who have the highest use of those impression management tactics aimed at achieving positive-only images (i.e., ingratiation,

self-promotion, and exemplification); and relatively less usage of supplication and intimidation.

- *Aggressives*: Individuals who use relatively high levels of all five impression management tactics.
- *Passives*: Individuals who use relatively low levels of all five impression management tactics.

Respondents were categorized in different profiles on the basis of their scores on five impression management techniques.

Self-Monitoring

It reflects the ability and willingness to attend to social verbal and non-verbal cues, and to alter one's behavior accordingly (Snyder & Gangestad, 2000).

High self-monitors are sensitive to the appropriateness of the image they are projecting and have the ability to change their behaviors to suit different situations. They are very interested in their "*public image*." In contrast, low self-monitors are less interested in controlling the impression they make.

Respondents were divided in two groups labeled as High Self-Monitors and Low Self-Monitors on the basis of their scores on Self-Monitoring Scale using tripartite technique.

Instruments

Impression Management Scale

Jones and Pittman's (1982) five impression management tactics was measured using Bolino and Turnley's (1999) impression management scale. This measure consists of 23 items tapping the extent to which individuals in organizational settings engage in ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation. Bolino and Turnley (2001), in their study on student sample, reworded few items and a few additional items were added to each of the subscales in order to better capture the nature of impression management in the context of student work groups. The measure

asks how accurate each of 23 statements was in describing the individual's behavior during the mix gender academic group projects.

Responses were made on a scale ranging from (1) *Very Inaccurate* to (5) *Very Accurate*.

- A sample item from the ingratiation subscale is: "Do personal favors for members of the group to show them that you are friendly."
- A sample item from the self-promotion subscale is: "Make other group members aware of your unique skills and abilities."
- A sample item from the exemplification subscale is: "Let others know that you have been putting in a lot of time on the project."
- A sample item from the supplication subscale is: "Act like you need assistance on your part of the project so that other group members will help you."
- A sample item from the intimidation subscale is: "Be intimidating with other group members when it is necessary for the good of the project."

Cronbach's alpha for the five impression management subscales measuring five impression management tactics are as follows: Ingratiation (.72), Self-Promotion (.83), Exemplification (.71), Supplication (.80), and Intimidation (.79).

Self-Monitoring Scale

Self-monitoring was measured using the 18-item revised version of the Self-monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). This scale was developed in response to criticisms directed at the original version of Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) by several other researchers (e.g Briggs, Cheek, & Buss; Lennox & Wolfe, as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2003). Compared with the original version of the scale, the revised version appears to be more reliable and to more effectively tap a single latent factor of self-monitoring than did the original 25-item scale (Krosnick & Sedikides; Snyder & Gangestad, as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2003). As recommended by Briggs and Cheek (as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2003), a 5-point scale, ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5) *Strongly Agree*, was used rather than the True-False format.

Sample items include: "I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people" (reverse scored) and "I am not always the person I appear to be." Cronbach's alpha for the scale is .81.

In this scale, there are 10 items, which are reverse scored. These items are 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16.

Research Design

To fulfill the mentioned purposes, the research plan was as followed:

Phase I: Modification of scales

Phase II: Pilot study

Phase III: Final study

The present study was planned to explore the relationship between self-monitoring, gender and impression management among university students. First of all, in first phase, scales were modified. In the next phase, pilot study was carried out to determine the psychometric properties of the scales. Then in the last phase, the final study to determine the relationship among self-monitoring, gender and impression management behavior among university students was conducted.

**MODIFICATION AND DETERMINATION
OF PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES
OF THE SCALES**

MODIFICATION AND DETERMINATION OF PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE SCALES

Phase I

Objective

The objective of this phase was to explore the cultural relevance of the scales and to modify the original scales, if required.

Sample

The sample included 10 students of M.Sc. Psychology.

Instruments

Instruments used in this phase were original Impression Management Scale (IMS) and Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS).

Procedure

First of all, the original scales were given to 10 students of M.Sc. Psychology. They were requested to read the scales and give their feedback on the comprehension level of the language of the scales and whether the translation of scales into Urdu is required or not. On the basis of the students' feedback, it was decided that translation of the scales is not required but some items needed to be rephrased. Then the original scales were given to eight judges consisting of 2 Ph.Ds, 3 Ph.D scholars and 3 M.Phil scholars and they were requested to rephrase the items those were pointed out by the students.

Results

In the light of students' feedback and judges' suggestions, 4 items of Impression Management Scale and 6 items of Self-Monitoring Scale were rephrased. Examples of modified items are as follows:

- Be intimidating with other group members when it is necessary for the good of the project. (IMS Original)

- Be threatening with other group members when it is necessary for the good of the project. (Rephrased)
- I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. (SMS Original)
- I can make spontaneous speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. (Rephrased)

Phase II

Objective

The objective of Phase II was to determine psychometric properties of revised versions of scales to be used in the present research.

Sample

The sample for the pilot study included 55 students having 25 males and 30 females. 40 students were taken from public university and 15 students were taken from private university. These all students were from business administration departments of the universities.

Instruments

The revised versions of Impression Management Scale and Self-Monitoring Scale were used in this phase.

Procedure

Teachers of the students were requested to ask the students at the end of the class to participate in the group administration of the revised versions of the scales. Those volunteer students who had the experience of doing academic group projects in mix gender groups were included in the sample. Students were given the option to participate in the study or not. After their consent, they were provided the scales and were asked to read the questionnaires carefully and provide the genuine responses. The demographic information collected from the students included the age, gender, and university name.

RESULTS

After collecting the data, psychometric properties of the scales were established. The Alpha coefficient was calculated for both scales as a measure of the reliability. The construct validity was determined by Item-total correlation.

Table 1

Alpha reliability coefficients of Impression Management Scale and Self-Monitoring Scale (N = 55)

S. No.	Scales	No. of Items	Alpha-coefficient
1.	Impression Management Scale	23	.82
2.	Self-Monitoring Scale	18	.59

Table 1 shows the alpha reliability coefficients for IMS and SM Scales by computing Cronbach's Alpha-coefficients. For IMS the Alpha-coefficient is .82, which is very good. For SMS it is .59, which is somewhat acceptable for such a small size sample.

Table 2

Alpha reliability coefficients of the Subscales of Impression Management Scale (N=55)

S. No.	Scales	No. of Items	Alpha-coefficient
1.	Exemplification	5	.63
2.	Supplication	5	.64
3.	Intimidation	5	.54
4.	Ingratiation	4	.40
5.	Self-Promotion	4	.57

Table 2 shows the alpha reliability coefficients for subscales of IMS. The Cronbach's Alpha-coefficients for subscales of IMS range from .40 to .63, which is satisfactory to some extent considering the small size of sample.

Table 3*Item total correlation of IMS (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	1	.40*
2.	2	.29*
3.	3	.39*
4.	4	.29*
5.	5	.65**
6.	6	.49**
7.	7	.51**
8.	8	.45**
9.	9	.52**
10.	10	.35**
11.	11	.47**
12.	12	.60**
13.	13	.60**
14.	14	.49**
15.	15	.53**
16.	16	.21
17.	17	.31*
18.	18	.43**
19.	19	.42**
20.	20	.46**
21.	21	.25
22.	22	.49**
23.	23	.73**

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

Table 3 shows the item-total correlation of the items pertaining Impression Management Scale. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ except item 16. This shows that this scale is internal consistent.

Table 4*Item total correlation of SMS (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	r
1.	1	.40**
2.	2	.25
3.	3	.24
4.	4	.40*
5.	5	.36*
6.	6	.57**
7.	7	.27*
8.	8	.32*
9.	9	.36**
10.	10	.09
11.	11	.25
12.	12	.62**
13.	13	.50**
14.	14	.19
15.	15	.35**
16.	16	.45**
17.	17	.36**
18.	18	.41*

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

Table 4 shows the item-total correlation of the items pertaining to Self-Monitoring Scale. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$ except 2, 3, 10, 11 and 14. This shows that this category is internal consistent and a valid measure of self-monitoring.

Table 5*Item total correlation of Ingratiation (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	4	.53**
2.	10	.64**
3.	15	.73**
4.	20	.50**

**** $p < .01$**

Table 5 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Ingratiation Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent.

Table 6*Item total correlation of Self-Promotion (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	5	.70**
2.	8	.64**
3.	14	.54**
4.	18	.74**

**** $p < .01$**

Table 6 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Self-Promotion Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent.

Table 7*Item total correlation of Exemplification (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	1	.53**
2.	9	.62**
3.	13	.66**
4.	17	.55**
5.	23	.80**

** $p < .01$

Table 7 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Exemplification Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent.

Table 8*Item total correlation of Supplication (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	2	.43**
2.	6	.63**
3.	11	.68**
4.	19	.64**
5.	22	.82**

** $p < .01$

Table 8 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Supplication Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent.

Table 9*Item total correlation of Intimidation (N =55)*

S. No.	Item No.	r
6.	3	.66***
7.	7	.82***
8.	12	.76***
9.	16	.35*
10.	21	.51***

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

Table 9 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Intimidation Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent.

Table 10*Interscale correlation of IMS and correlation of subscales with total score on IMS (N =55)*

Scales	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
IMS (I)	-	.68**	.77**	.81**	.67**	.68**
Ingratiation (II)	.68**	-	.39**	.54**	.39**	.25
Self-Promotion (III)	.77**	.39**	-	.60**	.31**	.56**
Exemplification (IV)	.81**	.54**	.60**	-	.41**	.39**
Supplication (V)	.68**	.39**	.31**	.41**	-	.24
Intimidation (VI)	.68**	.25	.56**	.39**	.24	-

** $p < .01$

Table 10 shows the item-total correlation of scores on subscales of IMS with total score on IMS. The correlations of all the subscales are significant with the total score at $p < .01$. except correlation among Supplication and Intimidation and Intimidation and Ingratiation.

MAIN STUDY

MAIN STUDY

Phase III

Objective

The objective of the Phase III (main study) was to test the hypotheses of the present study.

Sample

The sample of the main study consisted of 200 students of masters equally from public and private universities having 100 boys and 100 girls. The data was collected from public and private universities of Islamabad.

Instruments

The revised versions of Impression Management Scale and Self-Monitoring Scale were used in this phase.

Procedure

The teachers of business administration department of public and private universities were contacted. They were requested to help in data collection. After taking permission from them, students were told about the nature of the study. Only those students were selected who had experience of working on an academic project in a mix gender group. They had an option to participate in the study or not. Later on, they were given the demographic information sheet along with Impression Management scale and Self-Monitoring Scale. The demographic information collected from the students included the age, gender, and university name. The questionnaires were administered in group settings. The students were requested to provide genuine response and were assured of the confidentiality of the information provided by them.

After data collection, different statistical analyses including t-tests, cluster analysis and chi square were carried out.

RESULTS

In order to fulfill the objectives of the study and to test the hypotheses formulated, a series of statistical analysis were done. The results obtained as a result of analysis of main study data are given below.

Data Analysis for establishing psychometric properties of modified Impression Management Scale (IMS)

Table 11

Alpha reliability coefficients of Impression Management Scale (N = 200)

S. No.	Scales	No. of Items	Alpha-coefficient
1.	Impression Management Scale	23	.83

Table 11 shows the alpha reliability coefficients for IMS by computing Cronbach's Alpha-coefficient. For IMS the Alpha-coefficient is .83, which is very good.

Table 12

Alpha reliability coefficients of the Subscales of Impression Management Scale (N=200)

S. No.	Scales	No. of Items	Alpha-coefficient
1.	Exemplification	5	.57
2.	Supplication	5	.60
3.	Intimidation	5	.50
4.	Ingratiation	4	.60
5.	Self-Promotion	4	.67

Table 12 shows the alpha reliability coefficients for subscales of IMS. The Cronbach's Alpha-coefficients for subscales of IMS range from .50 to .67, which are satisfactory.

Table 13*Item total correlation of IMS (N =200)*

S. No.	Item No.	r
1.	1	.47**
2.	2	.36**
3.	3	.43**
4.	4	.51**
5.	5	.48**
6.	6	.44**
7.	7	.31**
8.	8	.53**
9.	9	.57**
10.	10	.54**
11.	11	.45**
12.	12	.40**
13.	13	.50**
14.	14	.58**
15.	15	.57**
16.	16	.27**
17.	17	.44**
18.	18	.52**
19.	19	.40**
20.	20	.39**
21.	21	.48**
22.	22	.39**
23.	23	.53**

**** $p < .01$**

Table 13 shows the item-total correlation of the items pertaining to Impression Management Scale. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total scale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internal consistent.

Table 14*Item total correlation of Ingratiation (N =200)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	4	.65**
2.	10	.78**
3.	15	.65**
4.	20	.61**

** $p < .01$

Table 14 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Ingratiation Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this subscale is internally consistent.

Table 15*Item total correlation of Self-Promotion (N =200)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	5	.62**
2.	8	.70**
3.	14	.78**
4.	18	.75**

** $p < .01$

Table 15 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Self-Promotion Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this subscale is internally consistent.

Table 16*Item total correlation of Exemplification (N =200)*

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	1	.56**
2.	9	.62**
3.	13	.57**
4.	17	.57**
5.	23	.70**

** $p < .01$

Table 16 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Exemplification Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this subscale is internally consistent.

Table 17

Item total correlation of Supplication (N =200)

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	2	.50**
2.	6	.62**
3.	11	.66**
4.	19	.60**
5.	22	.73**

** $p < .01$

Table 17 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Supplication Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this subscale is internally consistent.

Table 18

Item total correlation of Intimidation (N =200)

S. No.	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1.	3	.63**
2.	7	.62**
3.	12	.53**
4.	16	.44**
5.	21	.58**

** $p < .01$

Table 18 shows the item-total correlation of the items of subscale Intimidation Scale of IMS. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this subscale is internally consistent.

Table 19

Interscale correlation of IMS and correlation of subscales with total score on IMS (N = 200)

Scales	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
IMS (I)	-	.74**	.74**	.82**	.67**	.67**
Ingratiation (II)	.68**	-	.50**	.55**	.36**	.31**
Self-Promotion (III)	.74**	.50**	-	.57**	.29**	.38**
Exemplification (IV)	.82**	.55**	.57**	-	.40**	.46**
Supplication (V)	.67**	.36**	.29**	.40**	-	.31**
Intimidation (VI)	.67**	.31**	.56**	.38**	.31**	-

** $p < .01$

Table 19 shows the item-total correlation of scores on subscales of IMS with total score on IMS. The correlations of all the subscales are significant with the total score at $p < .01$. This shows that this scale is internally consistent and a valid measure of impression management.

Data Analysis for establishing psychometric properties of modified Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS)

Table 20

Alpha reliability coefficients of Self-Monitoring Scale (N = 200)

S. No.	Scales	No. of Items	Alpha-coefficient
1.	Self-Monitoring Scale	18	.70

Table 20 shows the alpha reliability coefficients for SMS by computing Cronbach's Alpha-coefficient. For SMS the Alpha-coefficient is .70, which is very satisfactory.

Table 21*Item total correlation of SMS (N = 200)*

S. No.	Item No.	r
1.	1	.48**
2.	2	.40**
3.	3	.45**
4.	4	.32**
5.	5	.50**
6.	6	.37**
7.	7	.30**
8.	8	.50**
9.	9	.39**
10.	11	.29**
11.	12	.42**
12.	13	.37**
13.	14	.35**
14.	15	.46**
15.	16	.41**
16.	17	.51**
17.	18	.36**

****p<.01**

Table 21 shows the item-total correlation of the items pertaining to Self-Monitoring Scale. The correlations of all the items are significant with the total subscale score at $p < .01$. This shows that this category is internal consistent and a valid measure of self-monitoring.

Mean scores and standard deviations on IMS and SMS

Table 22

Mean scores and Standard Deviations for IMS and SMS (N = 200)

S. No.	Scales	N	M	SD
1.	Impression Management Scale	200	72.06	12.58
2.	Self-Monitoring Scale	200	51.98	9.08

Table 22 shows the mean scores and standard deviations on IMS and SMS of the sample.

Table 23

Mean, standard deviations on subscales of IMS (N=200)

S.No.	Subscales of IMS	N	M	SD
1.	Ingratiation	200	13.25	3.28
2.	Self-Promotion	200	13.34	3.22
3.	Exemplification	200	15.86	3.75
4.	Supplication	200	14.51	3.63
5.	Intimidation	200	15.09	3.36

Table 23 shows the mean scores and standard deviations on subscales of IMS. The sample yielded the highest mean on exemplification. The next most widely used tactic is intimidation followed by supplication and self-promotion. While the least used tactic in the present sample is ingratiation.

Impression Management Profiles

Table 24

Cluster Analysis to check the prevalence of Impression Management Profiles on the basis of scores on dimensions of IMS (N = 200)

Subscales	Impression Management Profiles		
	Positive Profile (Cluster I)	Aggressive Profile (Cluster II)	Passive Profile (Cluster III)
Ingratiation	15.92	19.81	10.21
Self-Promotion	15.86	16.63	10.90
Exemplification	14.35	18.48	12.48
Supplication	14.05	15.58	10.85
Intimidation	13.51	15.96	13.29

Table 24 shows the results of cluster analysis done to find out the impression management profiles. This table shows the mean scores of the sample on the subscales of IMS. Three profiles have been emerged, namely, Positives, Passives and Aggressives. Positives score high on Ingratiation, self-promotion and exemplification than supplication and intimidation. Aggressives score high on all tactics while the Passives score low on all the subscales.

Figure 2

Mean scores on subscales of Impression Management Scale for different impression management profiles

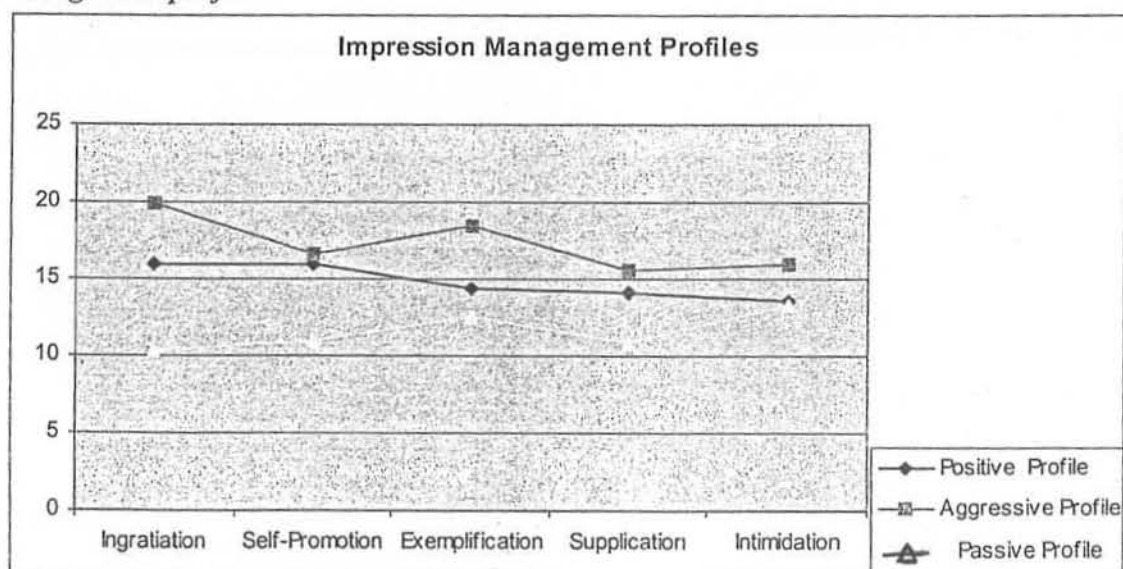


Table 25

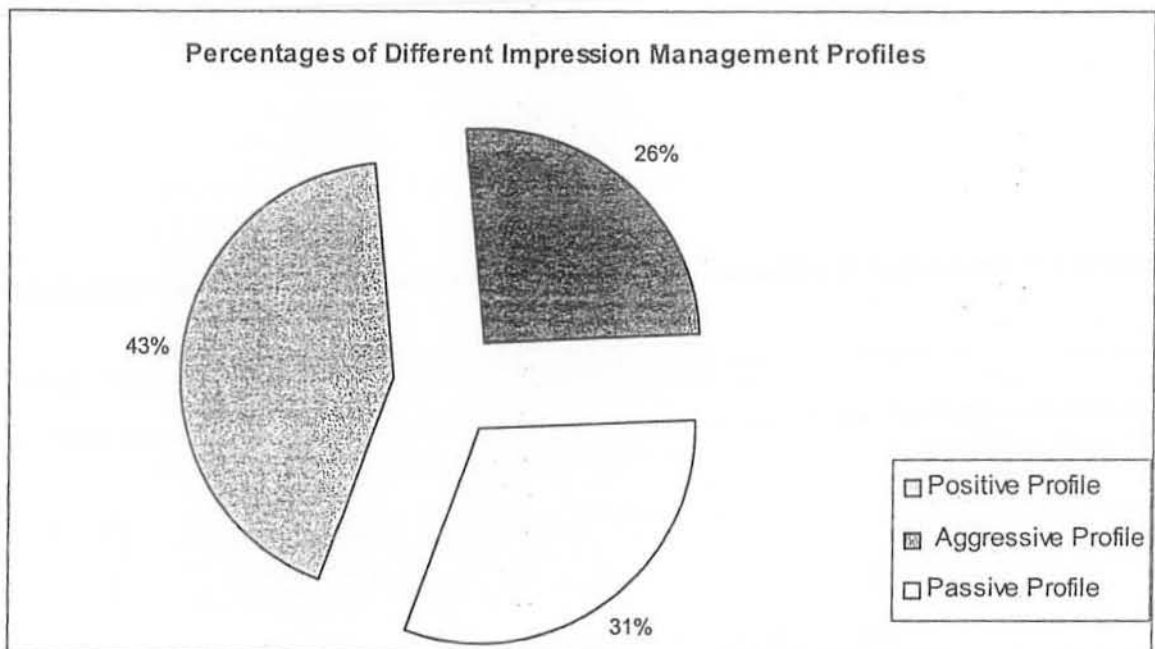
Frequency of cases in each Impression Management Profile (N =200)

IM Profiles	Frequency	Percent
Positives Profile	86	43
Aggressive Profile	52	26
Passive Profile	62	31
Total	200	100

Table 25 shows the frequency of cases in each of the impression management profiles. In this sample, most of cases fall in Positives profile. The second prevalent profile is Passive and the third one is Aggressive.

Figure 3

Percentages of cases in each of the impression management profiles



Gender and Impression Management

Table 26

Mean, standard deviations and t-values for boys and girls on IMS (N=200)

Scales	Boys (n = 100)		Girls (n = 100)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
IMS	72.70	13.89	71.43	11.16	.71*	.02

df=198

Table 26 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of boys and girls on IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for comparing boys and girls on IMS. The results suggest significant gender differences in impression management.

Table 27

Mean , standard deviations and t-values for boys and girls on subscales of IMS (N=200)

Scales	Boys (n = 100)		Girls (n = 100)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ingratiation	13.16	3.26	13.35	3.31	.40	.68
Self-Promotion	13.36	3.27	13.32	3.20	.90	.93
Exemplification	15.96	4.04	15.77	3.45	.35	.72
Supplication	15.06	3.47	13.96	3.73	2.1	.03*
Intimidation	15.16	3.58	15.03	3.14	.27	.78

df=198

Table 27 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of boys and girls on subscales of IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for comparing boys and girls on these scales. The results suggest significant gender differences only on supplication scale scores.

Table 28

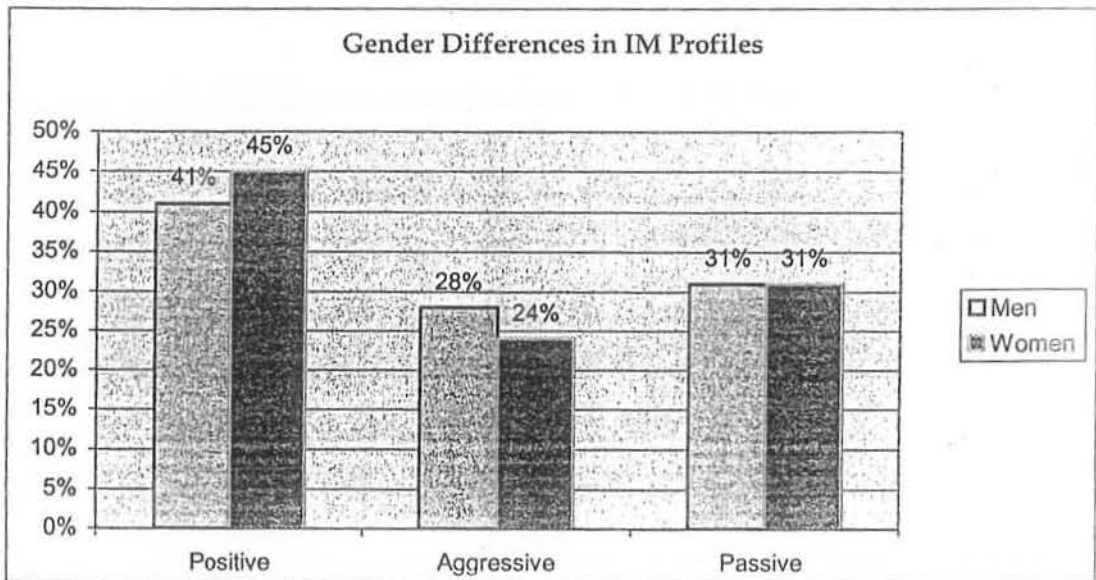
Frequencies, percentages and chi-square value showing gender differences each Impression Management Profile (N = 200)

IM Profiles	Boys (n = 100) f	Girls (n = 100) f	X ²	p	df
Positives Profile	41	45	0.32	.66	1
Aggressive Profile	28	24	0.41	0.62	1
Passive Profile	31	31	0.00	1.00	1

Table 28 shows the frequencies and percentages of cases in each of the impression management profiles on the basis of gender. Among girls the most prevalent profile is Positives followed by Passive and Aggressives. The same pattern has been found among boys. This table also shows the chi-square test results to find out the differences in IM profiles for both genders. The test results show no differences among boys and girls for different IM profiles.

Figure 4

Gender differences in impression management profiles



Self-Monitoring and Impression Management

Table 29

Mean, standard deviations and t values for High and Low Self-Monitors on IMS (N=138)

Scales	High Self-Monitors (n = 72)		Low Self-Monitors (n = 66)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
IMS	77.11	12.34	67.51	13.94	4.28**	.000

df=198

Table 29 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of high and low self-monitors on IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for comparing both on IMS scale. The results suggest significant differences in scale scores for high and low self-monitors.

Table 30

Mean, standard deviations and t-values for high and low self-monitors on subscales of IMS (N=138)

Scales	High Self-monitors (n = 72)		Low Self-monitors (n = 66)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ingratiation	14.27	3.30	12.09	3.37	3.84**	.000
Self-Promotion	14.36	3.48	12.43	3.08	3.41**	.001
Exemplification	17.47	3.36	14.69	4.01	4.41**	.000
Supplication	15.16	3.89	14.16	3.40	1.59	.112
Intimidation	15.83	3.52	14.12	3.18	2.98**	.003

df=136

Table 30 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of high and low self-monitors on subscales of IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for comparing

them on these scales. The results suggest significant differences on all other subscales except supplication.

Table 31

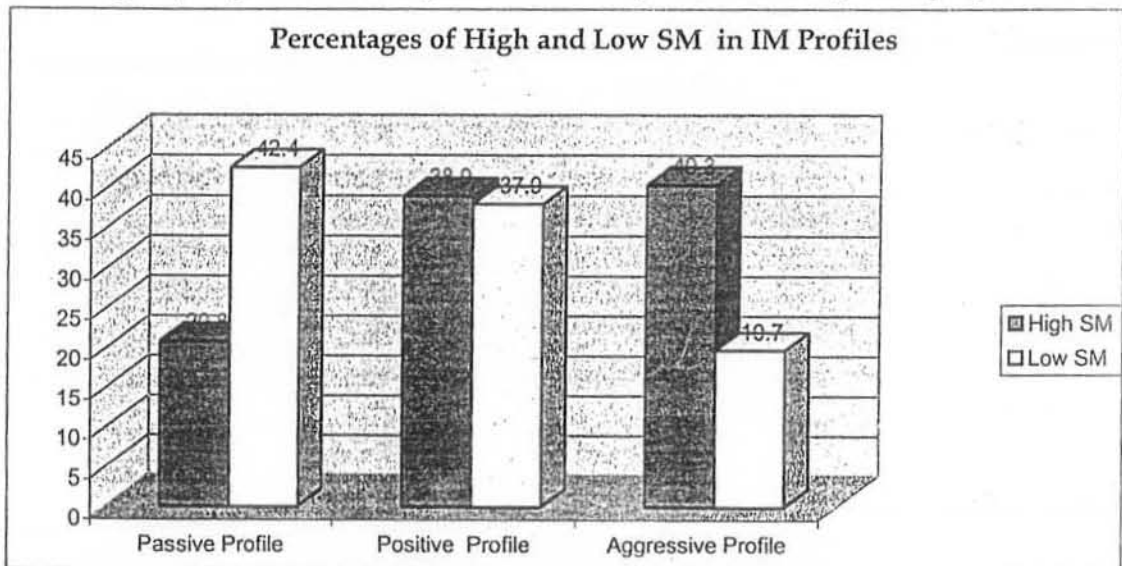
Frequencies, percentages and chi-square value showing high and low self-monitoring differences in each Impression Management Profile (N =138)

IM Profiles	High Self-Monitors (n = 72)		Low Self-Monitors (n = 66)		X^2	p	df
	f	%age	f	%age			
Passive Profile	15	20.8	28	42.4	7.48*	.01	1
Positives Profile	28	38.9	25	37.9	0.01	1	1
Aggressive Profile	29	40.3	13	19.7	6.89*	.01	1

Table 31 shows the frequencies and percentages of high and low self-monitors in each of the impression management profiles. Among high self-monitors, the most prevalent profile is Aggressive followed by Positives and Passive. While in case of low self-monitors, Passive is the most prevalent followed by Positives and Aggressive. This table also shows the chi-square test results to find out the differences in IM profiles for high and low self-monitors. The test results show significant differences among high and low self-monitors for Aggressive and Passive IM profiles.

Figure 5

Percentages of High and Low Self-Monitors in impression management profiles



Impression Management Among Students of Public and Private Universities

Table 32

Means, standard deviations and t-value for public and private university students on IMS (N=200)

Scale	Public University Students (n = 100)		Private University Students (n = 100)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
IMS	71.91	11.51	72.32	14.29	.22*	.02

df=198

Table 32 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of students of public and private universities on IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for comparing both on IMS scale. The results suggest significant differences in scale scores for students of public and private universities.

Table 33

Means, standard deviations and t-values for public and private university students on subscales of IMS (N=200)

Scales	Public University Students (n = 100)		Private University Students (n = 100)		t	P
	M	SD	M	SD		
Ingratiation	13.49	3.28	13.02	3.28	1.01	.82
Self-Promotion	13.47	3.25	13.21	3.21	.56	.57
Exemplification	16.26	3.77	15.47	3.70	1.49	.98
Supplication	14.60	3.69	14.42	3.59	.34	.91
Intimidation	15.29	3.25	14.90	3.48	.81	.41

df=198

Table 33 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of students from public and private universities on subscales of IMS. It is also showing the results of t-test for

comparing students from public and private universities on these scales. The results suggest non-significant differences across all scale scores.

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

The study aimed to understand the role of self-monitoring in impression management behavior of university students. Modification of the scales used in the study was also an important objective. In addition to these, different impression management profiles were checked for their prevalence in our culture. Gender differences for overall impression management behavior and for different profiles have also been explored. Another important aspect of this study was to see the role of self-monitoring in bringing differences in overall impression behavior and impression management profiles.

Modification of the Scales

Self-Monitoring Scale and Impression Management Scale were modified and analyses were done to find out the psychometric properties of the scales. Cronbach's Alpha-coefficients were computed for both the scales. Alpha coefficient for Impression Management Scale was .83 (see Table 11), which is quite good, and for Self-Monitoring Scale, it was .70 (see Table 20), which is also quite satisfactory. These coefficients prove the acceptable reliability of the two modified scales. Alpha coefficients for 5 subscales of IMS namely, Ingratiation, Self-promotion, Supplication, Intimidation and Exemplification were also computed. Their coefficients ranged from .50 to .67 (see Table 12), which can also be considered as acceptable.

For checking the content validity of the modified scales, inter item correlations for the two scales were calculated. All the items of IMS correlated with the total score on IMS on .01 significance level presenting a good index of internal consistency. The correlation matrix for subscales of IMS with total score on IMS was also developed (see table 19), this matrix indicates a high correlation of subscales with total scores on IMS thus providing another evidence of the internal consistency of IMS. For checking the content validity of SMS, same analysis was done. That analysis yielded a significant inter item correlation suggesting high internal consistency of the scale.

Impression Management Profiles

The prevalence of three already established impression management profiles was explored and cluster analysis was carried out for this purpose (see Table 24). Three impression management profiles emerged as a result of this analysis. First profile showed the pattern of high mean scores on all the dimensions of impression management (i.e. ingratiation, supplication, exemplification, intimidation, self-promotion). This profile has been labeled as *Aggressive*. 26% of the total sample used this profile. The second cluster that emerged consisted of low mean scores on all the tactics of impression management. This profile has been labeled as *Passive*. This profile has been used by 31% of the sample. The third cluster included relatively high mean scores on exemplification, self-promotion and ingratiation as compared to supplication and intimidation. This cluster used those tactics, which aim to provoke positive image than those who provoke negative images. This profile has been labeled as *Positive*. 43% of the sample used this profile. These results support our hypothesis No. 3 and 8 which stated that there would be three impression management profile and Positive profile will be the most frequently used profile.

Theses pattern of using impression tactics in various combinations is consistent with the findings of Bolino and Turnley (2003). They carried out an exploratory study to find the most recurring combinations of impression tactics by people. They found three possible combinations and labeled them as three impression profiles. The present study also showed the same pattern. There are differences in the mean scores but the trend is the same. So present study supports the presence of the same three impression management profiles in our culture. But the frequency of these profiles found by Bolino and Turnley (2003) is different from that found in the present research. They found the Positives profile as the most frequent one followed by Aggressives and Passives. But in this study, the most frequent one is the same profile i.e. Positives but it is followed by Passives and Aggressives.

Self-Monitoring and Impression Management

To study the role of self-monitoring in impression management behavior, the sample was divided into high and low self-monitors using tripartite split technique. A

series of analysis was carried out to test the hypotheses of the research related to high and low self-monitors. First of all, the difference between high and low self-monitors regarding their overall impression management behavior was checked. The t-test was used for this purpose and the results suggested a significant difference in the impression management behavior of the two groups (see Table 29). High self-monitors scored high on overall impression management behavior as compared to low self-monitors. So our hypothesis was supported. This finding is consistent with the findings of a previous research which provided evidence of the positive association between self-monitoring and impression management (Fandt & Ferris; Rosenfeld et al., as cited in Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

High and low self-monitors were also compared on different tactics of impression management. Significant differences were suggested by using t-test on these IM tactics except supplication (See Table 30). High self-monitors as compared to low self-monitors have used all other impression management tactics more except supplication. These findings support the assumption that high self-monitors are more likely to engage in impression management behavior than low self-monitors. They have scored significantly higher on all impression management tactics.

While Turnley and Bolino (2001) suggested that high self-monitors are especially conscious of using those tactics, which may provoke less favorable images (i.e. supplication and intimidation). But the present study suggests that high self-monitors use intimidation more frequently than low self-monitors. The reason for this may be that in specific situations, the image that may be less favorable in normal conditions may help one to attain a specific goal. As while working in a mix gender group as in our society, the image of a bossy person may help a boy to make girl members to work or help him in attaining some goal. It is not justified to conclude that some tactics as supplication and intimidation have negative connotations but the reality is that there are some situations where the impression manager wants to convey a negative image to others to attain his/her goal.

High and low self-monitors have also been compared for three impression management profiles. Results suggest that the most prevalent impression management profile among high self-monitors are the Positive and Aggressive profiles (see Table

31). Almost 40% of the total high self-monitors have Positive Profile and 40% have Aggressive profile. 21% of high self-monitors have Passive profile. While talking about low self-monitors, 42% of low self-monitors showed to have Passive profile, 38% had Positive profile and 20% had Aggressive profile. There are significant differences in high and low self-monitors regarding Aggressive and Passive profiles. Hence, hypothesis No. 5 has been supported. This finding is consistent with the findings of Bolino and Turnley (2003). On the other hand, high and low self-monitors do not differ significantly regarding Positive profile. These findings do not support our hypothesis no. 4. In the present sample, high and low self-monitors did not differ significantly regarding Positive profile, this finding is contrary to Bolino and Turnley (2003) in which they found out a significant difference between these two groups for Positive profile.

There may be cultural reasons for this difference. The socialization in our collectivist culture make us to be much conscious of the images that we are conveying than individualistic culture. Since our childhood we are socialized to be perceived as good by other people. May be this is the reason that high and low self-monitors do not differ in using those impression management tactics which aimed to project positive images but differ in having an aggressive or passive approach to impression management.

Gender Differences in Impression Management

After exploring the various impression management profiles, gender differences in impression management behavior was studied. Boys and girls were compared for the overall impression management behavior and also with reference to the specific tactics. Results showed a significant gender difference in the overall impression management behavior (see Table 26). Boys scored significantly high than girls. This supports our hypothesis Nn. 2. This finding is consistent with the research findings of Bolino and Turnley (2003).

According to Eagly's (1987) role theory of gender differences in social behavior, individuals tend to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their socially prescribed gender roles. Since the female gender role typically discourages aggressive

or assertive behavior, women are less likely than men to use an aggressive approach to managing impressions and will be more likely to use a passive approach. In contrast, the male gender role typically encourages and rewards assertiveness (Eagly et al., 1992). For this reason, men are more likely than women to actively manage impressions and do so in an aggressive fashion.

While comparing boys and girls on different impression management tactics, results revealed no significant differences except on supplication. Boys scored significantly higher than girls on this tactic (see Table 27). This finding may look surprising in the first glance. But if we go in detail, then it can be seen that in some situations the image of being weak or needy may help one to achieve one's goal.

Specially, in our culture, working in a mix gender group has different dynamics. In our educational settings, it is a widely observed phenomenon that boys are not very much interested in such academic projects. They are not very serious in carrying out such academic tasks and do not give much time to these activities. Moreover, they are not much focused to their education and more interested in other activities. In most cases, boys study just to get degree and job. While the motives of girls are very much different, they are much more interested and serious in academic activities and this trend is well reflected in the examination results of our educational institutes. So in this scenario, when mostly girls are more interested, it is very easy for boys to get rid of such tasks by showing their weakness in such areas and get the work done by their girl group fellows. Girls also get willing to help their male group fellows for their projected "weaknesses" to feel superior to their male group fellows. May be in this way they get a platform where they can show their superiority to boys which is difficult to show in other aspects of life. So these results seem to be logical in this social scenario.

Gender difference with reference to impression management profiles have also been investigated in the present research (see Table 28). Among boys, 41% showed to have Positive profile, 31% Passive Profile and 28% Aggressive profile. In case of girls, 45% had Positive, 31% Passive and 24% Aggressive profile. No significant differences have been observed in this study. These findings do not support our hypotheses 6 and 7. It was hypothesized that boys will have more Aggressive profile than girls but the research findings suggested that this study also showed the same trend as 28% of boys

had Aggressive profile and 41% girls had Aggressive profile but there are no significant differences. Our hypothesis that girls would have more Passive profile than boys has also not been supported in this study.

The reason for these findings again can be the setting taken in this study. Working in a mix gender group in our society has very different dynamics as compared to day-to-day social life. Due to non-serious attitude of majority of boys students, their impression management behavior is very much different than routine life. Similarly, the attitude of girls in an academic group project may not represent their general social impression management behavior. Girls' behavior is very much different in such academic set up as they feel "the privileged lot" after joining higher education institute. They feel obliged to society and parents to allow them to quest for higher education. Being able to get out of their homes for getting higher education is a result of struggle on the part of girl students. As a reaction to this social situation, they feel it as their duty to put in maximum efforts and take this opportunity to perform to their possible best level. As a result of these feelings on the part of girls students their behavior is different from their daily routine social life.

Impression Management in the students of Public and Private Universities

The students of public and private universities were compared for their overall impression management behavior. The t-test showed a significant difference in the overall impression management behavior of the students from the public and the private universities (see Table 32). Students of private universities showed higher impression management behavior than public university students.

The reason for this may be the differences in the environment of the public and private universities. In our country, we have a lot of "mushroom universities" in all our cities. The trend in the private universities is to give admissions not on a pure merit basis. These universities have a high fee structure and the environment of these universities promote more emphasis in co-curricular activities than academic activities. So most of the students coming to private universities belong to high socio economic background, which makes them able to afford to manage specific images. While in case of public universities, more emphasis is on merit and students come from all socio

economic classes. Due to this factor and the higher emphasis on academics in public universities make students to invest more time to studies that is why it gets difficult to spend more time and efforts on their self-presentations. Because of these reasons, students of public and private universities showed variations in their self-presentations.

Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate the overall impression management behavior and role of self-monitoring in impression management behavior of the university students. Results showed that self-monitoring had a significant role in impression management behavior of the university students. High self-monitors scored significantly higher on overall impression management as compared to low self-monitors. They also scored significantly higher on all impression management tactics i.e. ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification and intimidation except supplication, as compared to low self-monitors.

Results have revealed that there existed three impression management profiles. These were labeled as *Positives*, *Aggressives* and *Passives*. Positive profile of impression management emerged as the most prevalent profile among both high and low self-monitors. But high and low self-monitors differed significantly on *Aggressive* and *Passive* impression management profiles. *Passive* profile was more prevalent in the low self-monitors as compared to high self-monitors. On the other hand, *Aggressive* profile was more prevalent among high self-monitors as compared to low self-monitors.

Data analysis regarding gender differences in impression management behavior revealed significant gender difference in overall impression management behavior of the university students. Boys scored higher on overall impression management behavior. While gender comparison on impression management tactics revealed non-significant difference except on supplication. Boys scored significantly higher on supplication as compared to girls. Gender comparison for impression management profiles yielded non-significant differences for all three impression management profiles.

A comparison of the students of public and private universities revealed a significant difference in the overall impression management behavior. Students of private universities scored significantly higher on overall impression management behavior. These two groups of the students were also compared on impression

management tactics. The results showed a non-significant difference between these two groups of students.

Limitations

No research can be flawless. Especially when there are time and resources constraints ten many flaws can be expected. Same is the situation with this research. Although this study improves our understanding of impression management, it is not without limitations. The limitations of the present research are as follows:

- The sample was a small one. Because of the limited time and resources only this sample was manageable not a large one. Generalizability of the results could be improved by enlarging the sample size.
- This research focused on only a relatively small set of variables. Therefore, additional studies are also needed to examine other important antecedents and outcomes associated with the use of various impression management profiles.
- The groups used in this study are similar to autonomous work teams in which group members have fairly equal status but different type of impression management behavior is expected where there is a hierarchy of group members. This aspect of the impression management behavior was not there to be studied.
- Impression management is not a one-sided process but it is a two-way process. In particular, the members of a work team do not only manage impressions, but also form impressions of their teammates at the same time. This research investigates only one side of the coin i.e. impression management but no the other side which is impression formation.

Recommendations

Every research opens the avenues for the further investigations. Similarly, this research, being the first research in this field provides the following pathways to improve our understanding.

- Future research should be undertaken with an enlarged sample to improve the generalizability of the results.
- Impression management is the phenomenon having a vital importance in the organizational settings. It has different dynamics in that setting. The different hierarchies, which are present in the organizations, provide different views of this phenomenon. So future research should investigate this process in organizational setting.
- Impression formation should also be studied for being able to see the complete picture of impression management.
- The effectiveness of the different profile or different impression management tactics should be studied to understand the success of using various impression management profiles and tactics.
- Future research can also be studied to investigate the role of self-monitoring in successful impression management.
- This research only investigated the already established impression management profiles. Furthermore, an exploratory study can be carried out to explore the more possible impression management profiles.
- Valuable knowledge about this phenomenon can be obtained by studying it through an experimental research design.

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APPENDIXES

Instructions:

Please read the following statements carefully and indicate the extent to which you engaged in the mentioned behaviors during the latest group project you did in your academics. Please indicate your answer by encircling the option that describes intensity of your behavior most appropriately.

1 means *Very Inaccurate*

2 means *Inaccurate*

3 means *Undecided*

4 means *Accurate*

5 means *Very Accurate*

1.	Let other group members know how hard you have been working on this project.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Disclose your weakness in a particular area so that you can avoid an unpleasant part of the assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Deal strongly or aggressively with group members who aren't contributing their fair share to the project.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Praise your group members for their efforts so they will consider you a nice person.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Talk proudly about your past accomplishments which might help make this project successful.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Pretend not to understand how to do something in order to avoid having to work on an undesirable part of assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Be intimidating with other group members when it is necessary for the good of the project.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Let other group members know that you are a valuable member of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Take on more than your fair share of the project so that other members will see you as dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Do personal favors for your group members to show them that you are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Act like you need assistance on your part of the project so that other group members will help you out.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Use intimidation to get other group members to do their share of work.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Try to appear like you have been very busy working on your part of the project.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Make other group members aware of your unique skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Compliment your group members so they will see you as likeable.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Let other group members know that you are not willing to be pushed around or dictated to.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Arrive at group meetings on time and stay until the end in order to look dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Make other group members aware of your talents or qualifications.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Try to gain assistance or sympathy from other group members by appearing needy in some area.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Take an interest in other group members' personal lives to show them that you are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Speak strongly or forcefully to get other group members to agree to do the project the way you think it should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Act like you need assistance on your part of the project so that other group members will help you out.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Let others know that you have been putting in a lot of time on the project	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions:

Please read the following statements carefully and indicate the extent to which you engaged in the mentioned behaviors during the latest group project you did in your academics. Please indicate your answer by encircling the option that describes intensity of your behavior most appropriately.

1 means *Very Inaccurate*2 means *Inaccurate*3 means *Undecided*4 means *Accurate*5 means *Very Accurate*

1.	Let other group members know how hard you have been working on this project.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Disclose your weakness in a particular area so that you can avoid an unpleasant part of the assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Deal strongly or aggressively with group members who aren't contributing their fair share to the project.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Praise your group members for their efforts so they will consider you a nice person.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Talk proudly about your past accomplishments which might help make this project successful.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Pretend not to understand how to do something in order to avoid having to work on an undesirable part of assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Be threatening with other group members when it is necessary for the good of the project.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Let other group members know that you are a valuable member of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Take on more than your fair share of the project so that other members will see you as dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Do personal favors for your group members to show them that you are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Act like you need assistance on your part of the project so that other group members will help you out.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Use threats to get other group members to do their share of work.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Try to appear like you have been very busy working on your part of the project.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Make other group members aware of your unique skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Give compliments to your group members so they will see you as likeable.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Let other group members know that you are not willing to be pressurized or dictated to.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Arrive at group meetings on time and stay until the end in order to look dedicated.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Make other group members aware of your talents or qualifications.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Try to gain assistance or sympathy from other group members by appearing needy in some area.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Take an interest in other group members' personal lives to show them that you are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Speak strongly or forcefully to get other group members to agree to do the project the way you think it should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Act like you need assistance on your part of the project so that other group members will help you out.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Let others know that you have been putting in a lot of time on the project	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions:

The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. It is important that you answer as frankly and as honestly as you can. Encircle the option ranging from 1 to 5 that describes your behavior most appropriately.

1 means *Strongly Disagree*

2 means *Disagree*

3 means *Undecided*

4 means *Agree*

5 means *Strongly Agree*

1.	I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I can only argue for ideas, which I already believe.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I would probably make a good actor.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I'm not always the person I appear to be.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I have considered being an entertainer.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with straight face (if for a right end).	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions:

The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. It is important that you answer as frankly and as honestly as you can. Encircle the option ranging from 1 to 5 that describes your behavior most appropriately.

1 means *Strongly Disagree*

2 means *Disagree*

3 means *Undecided*

4 means *Agree*

5 means *Strongly Agree*

1.	I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I can only argue for ideas, which I already believe.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can make spontaneous speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Probably, I can be a good actor.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I'm not always the person I appear to be.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I have been considered as an entertainer.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I have never been good at games involving spontaneous acting or parody.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I feel a bit awkward in group and do not show up so well as I should.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with straight face, if it is for a right cause.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	1	2	3	4	5