Putting a Good Face on Impression Management: Team Citizenship and Team Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

In this research, we examined self-promotion and ingratiation as correlates of citizenship behavior and desired outcomes in work teams. Results of a cross-sectional study using a combination of self- and peer-report data from student work teams suggested that two dimensions of citizenship behavior, i.e., altruism and conscientiousness, were partly a function of ingratiation and self-promotion. Further, ingratiation was found to be positively associated with individual satisfaction within teams and the extent to which individual members were perceived as likable among their peers. Peer perceptions of the motivation underlying ingratiation and self-promotion also had a positive relationship with liking for team member such that the more sincere a motive is perceived to be, the more positive the perception of liking for team member.

Introduction

The topics of organizational citizenship behavior and impression management have gained increasing interest among organizational researchers in recent years. Much of the research on impression management has been based upon the assumption that it is self-serving and does not aid in the functioning of the organization or improve individual performance (e.g., Bolino, 1999). Conversely, much of the research interest on the topic of organizational citizenship behavior has been based upon the assumption that organizational citizenship behavior improves the overall effectiveness of the organization and is related to an employee’s job satisfaction (e.g., Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994, 1997).

We argue, however, that impression management could be beneficial to work team functioning, most notably, by facilitating work team members to get along well with each other and potentially reduce the number of awkward situations. Although this perspective has been suggested under the “expansive” view of impression management (Schlenker & Weingold, 1992), it has not yet been tested in a work team context where lateral impression management tactics are at work; however, some recent studies have reported positive outcomes associated with impression management (e.g., work group...
motivation, Megerian & Sosik, 1996; team cohesion, Rozell & Gundersen, 2003). Extrapolating from Rozell and Gundersen’s (2003) study, it is reasonable to expect the impression management behaviors exhibited by team members will be beneficial in self-managed work teams.

The purpose of our research was to examine impression management correlates of citizenship behavior and their outcomes, i.e., team satisfaction and perceived liking for team member from peers. In the sections that follow, we present a review of the relevant literature to suggest that impression management is a function of interpersonal relationships inherent in work groups. We then review the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature, which suggests that citizenship behavior might be positively associated with impression management. Lastly, we report the results of our research, which provides support for the argument mentioned above.

**Impression Management and Lateral Influence**

We base our framework of functional impression management on Goffman’s (1955) work describing impression management as “face-work” with rituals of social interaction including a cooperative social etiquette: “The person not only defends his own face and protects the face of others, but also acts so as to make it possible and even easy for the others to employ face-work for themselves and him. . . . A person’s performance of face-work, extended by his tacit agreement to help others perform theirs, represents his willingness to abide by the ground rules of social interaction.” (p. 224). From Goffman’s perspective impression management is omnipresent in social interaction. Further confirmation of Goffman’s analysis of self-presentation in social interaction comes from his (1959) book: “Information about the individual helps to define the situation, enabling others to know in advance what he will expect of them and what they may expect of him” (p. 1). In Goffman’s perspective then, impression management is integral to social functioning.

Little is known about impression management and its operation in the largely informal peer interactions within work teams. However, it is reasonable to believe that ingratiation may be integral to interpersonal influence among team members because it has been shown to be successful in upward (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and downward (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003) organizational influence. Recently, Cooper (2005) has proposed that group members typically exhibit ingratiation through humor to gain liking from other members toward them and that humor as an ingratiatory behavior has positive effects in workgroup outcomes. Further evidence for the presence of ingratiation was presented in a study showing a positive linkage between ingratiation used with peers and subsequent influence (Blickle, 2003).

Our presumption is that impression management, like OCB, can be beneficial and it could be interpreted as being positive, as exemplified by Eastman’s (1994) study. In Eastman’s study, attributions for various extra-role behaviors were labeled as ingratiation if they included terms such as “apple polisher” versus being labeled as citizenship if they included terms such as “will go the extra mile.” Our current premise
might be paraphrased as the notion that going the extra mile includes polishing a few apples. Impression managing behavior might be observed in a social setting as an act of sincerity instead of being viewed as a selfish motive to improve public image.

At least three previous studies (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Wayne & Green, 1993) have found evidence for a positive relationship between impression management and citizenship behavior. Rosenfeld, Giacalone, and Riordan (1995) suggested that good impression management is functional to achieving organizational goals such that it fosters interpersonal relationships and harmony within and outside the company as well as facilitates organizational decision making. They went on to recommend that “organizations may wish to train employees in good impression management techniques” (p.133). We suggest that managing impressions within the context of the ongoing relationships of task interdependent team members allows relatively little room for self-serving behavior that would undermine collaborative spirit and harmony. Ongoing interaction provides the participants with ample experience for perceiving the relative sincerity of one’s co-workers.

Linking impression management to OCB and teamwork is a way to extend the empirical literature on work behavior. To date most research on citizenship behavior has focused on its attitudinal antecedents, which germinated from the supposition that happier workers are more willing to go beyond call of duty (Organ, 1988). Consequently, little research has examined impression management as a potential correlate of citizenship behavior even though such a proposition has been made (e.g., Bolino, 1999) and subsequently tested in recent research (e.g., Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Even less research can be found that has examined the consequences of both impression management and citizenship behavior within one study (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004). Therefore, we conducted this study to examine the potential impression management correlates of citizenship behavior in work teams. We chose to study self-promotion and ingratiation because they were the most researched influence tactics (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Likewise, the two most researched dimensions of citizenship behavior discussed in Organ’s (1988) and Organ and Ryan’s (1995) work, altruism and conscientiousness, were included in this study.

Jones and Pitman (1982) described ingratiation as behaviors performed by individuals that have the effect of making the actor seem more likeable, such as flattery or favor doing. This is consistent with previous research showing ingratiation as both an upward and downward influence tactic that produces a positive effect on interpersonal attraction (e.g., Gordon, 1996). We expect similar results, where ingratiation as a lateral influence strategy produces a positive result in a work team, i.e., attribution of likeability made by team members.

Anderson and Williams (1996) found that the quality of working relationships was improved when helping behaviors were performed by coworkers. In a team, an individual’s altruistic behavior focuses on helping specific team members. This invites the supposition that sometimes altruism could take the form of behaviors often classified
as ingratiating. For example, doing a favor for a teammate may be both an ingratiating tactic and an altruistic behavior. Recently, Bachrach and colleagues found a positive relationship between task interdependence and OCB ratings of helping (Bachrach, Powell, Collins, & Richey, 2006) across two lab studies and one field study. Consistent with the "expanded view" perspective described by Schlenker and Weingold (1992) we would expect ingratiatory behavior and altruism to be positively intertwined among team members. Therefore, ingratiatory behavior will promote high quality working relationships and encourage norms that reinforce high quality social exchange relationships.

H1: Team members who exhibit altruism will also likely exhibit ingratiating.

Self-promotion refers to the extent to which a team member plays up their abilities or accomplishments to be viewed by others as competent (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Because self-promotion may cause some team members to ostentatiously show off their skills and abilities, it may also be perceived by other members of the team as threatening (Rosenfeld et al., 1995). Self-promoting behavior could therefore create anxiety about team performance and inhibit communication about how each member can contribute to the team’s functioning. As a result, self-promoting behaviors might hinder social ‘ice breaking’ at which point open communication among members becomes constrained or difficult. When open communication and self-promotion is exhibited, team members will often avoid behaviors that build trust and interdependency; these behaviors are a result of altruism among the members which is discouraged by self-promotion about skills, abilities, and experience. For example, female students who dislike other students directed less helping behaviors toward the students they did not like (Carnevale, Pruitt, & Carrington, 1982). In other words, disliking one another leads to a lack of trust that prevents these people from helping each other, because each person believes that if help was provided this behavior would not be reciprocated. Because communication based upon altruism invites confidence and trust among team members, it also identifies how cooperation is possible whereas, communication based upon self-promotion identifies how competition, rather than cooperation, is possible.

H2: Team members who exhibit altruism will less likely exhibit self-promotion.

A conscientious behavior pattern within the context of interdependent team task performance is evidenced through the ongoing display of willing contributions of collaborative effort. Performance contributions to a team task may be doing oneself no less of a favor than benefiting one’s collaborators, but appreciation from those peers should not be precluded because the actor shares in the achievement. Furthermore, that conscientious actor should be perceived as no less deserving of reciprocation than someone who has done some small favor or expressed some compliment. We would therefore expect that conscientiousness shares some common variance with ingratiating.

H3: Team members who exhibit conscientiousness will more likely exhibit ingratiating.
In the personnel selection literature, there has been evidence that conscientious applicants are less likely to fake on a selection test (e.g., exaggerating one’s credentials) than not so conscientious applicants (McFarland & Ryan, 2000). In the social psychology literature, studies examining the dark side of personality (e.g., narcissism that is a combination of low conscientiousness and low agreeableness with high Machiavellianism) consistently showed a positive correlation between people scoring low on conscientiousness and self-enhancement/self-promotion (e.g., Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Speaking differently, within the general population, more conscientious people are less likely to engage in self-enhancement. Given these findings, we expect that conscientious individuals will be less likely to engage in self-promotion.

H4: Team members who exhibit conscientiousness will less likely exhibit self-promotion.

To the extent that it draws attention to other people and evokes attributions related to likeability and competence, impression management behavior should be relatively capable of facilitating social interaction. Impression management may act as a catalyst for the social exchange processes, which makes it easier for people to establish a cooperative and courteous team environment that is also satisfying. For example, Isen and Baron (1991) suggested that when people experience positive affective states they are more likely to be pro-social.

If impression management can serve as a benign social lubricant facilitating affective comfort in interpersonal interaction inherently needed for self-managed work group success, we might expect the experience of social satisfaction under those circumstances. Previous research showed that team members’ perception of their leader’s frequency of downward ingratiation significantly enhanced group cohesion (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003). We expect the same effect with ingratiation as a lateral influence tactic. Further, Bolino and Turnley (1999) as well as Rioux and Penner (2001) found a modest positive correlation between ingratiation and OCB, but self-promotion and OCB were uncorrelated (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Harrell-Cook and colleagues found a higher level of job satisfaction among nurses reporting a higher frequency of upward ingratiation, yet, the association between frequency of self-promotion and job satisfaction was non-significant (Harrell-Cook, Ferris, & Dulebohn, 1999). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H5: Ingratiation will correlate more strongly with team satisfaction than will self-promotion.

From the above discussion, we would expect impression management (IM) to be a positive correlate of citizenship behaviors and team satisfaction. The question as to whether such impression management will have the same correlates across different levels of motivation remains unanswered. For example, previous research showed that engaging in impression management incurs the risk of backfiring unless such behavior was perceived as genuine or sincere. Indeed, Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that high
self-monitors were more successful in achieving the desired image with their impression management tactics than low self-monitors. Speaking differently, high self-monitors were better at making their IM behavior less transparent to the audience than low self-monitors. In this study, we identify the motive of IM perceived by the audience (i.e., the extent to which other team members perceive one’s IM behavior as sincere or insincere) as the moderating variable that results in either liking or disliking from peers.

Ralston (1985) discussed ingratiation as a simple, convenient device that individuals could use to negotiate potentially awkward social contexts. In particular, he suggested that ingratiation could be organizationally beneficial in terms of building cohesive work groups in the absence of compatibility among team members. Staw (1975) described how groups and group members develop implicit theories regarding the characteristics that make them successful. Research has suggested that managers include citizenship behaviors in their conceptual model of behaviors performed by the prototypical “good” employees (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998; Werner, 1994). It is possible that team members as well as managers develop implicit theories resulting in a conceptual prototype of “likable” team members that include both high in-role and extra-role performance (Bachrach, Bendoly, & Podsakoff, 2001). This prototype image is all that is necessary for attributions of performance ability, cooperative nature, and chances for group success. Whereas the ingratiation and the attribution of being likable linkage has been well established (e.g., Gordon, 1996), the relationship between self-promotion and liking is more complex. For example, Heine and Renshaw (2002) conducted a study in which they examined the relationship between self-enhancement, self-perception, and liking among Japanese and American students. They found that American students engaged more in self-promotion whereas Japanese students did not. Yet, American students were more accurate in their self-perception. Furthermore, they found that self-promotion was positively related to liking from peers to the extent that perceived similarity is shared. In other words, if two team members are both self-promoters, they will each be perceived by the other as a “good” or “likable” person. Another recent study showed self-enhancement (conceptualized as over-claiming that one knows more than the average person regarding declarative knowledge) having a significant positive relationship with both cognitive ability and ability enhancement (Paulhus, Harms, Bruce, & Lysy, 2003). Based on these findings, we propose that ingratiation and self-promotion may positively contribute to the positive perception of liking from peers in a team environment. We hypothesize:

H6: Ingratiation, self-promotion, altruism, and conscientiousness will be positively related to the perceived liking from peers in work teams.

**The Moderating Effect of Peer Perception of Impression Management Motive**

In the impression management literature, the motive of the impression managed behavior affects the extent to which such behavior produces the desired effect (Baumeister, 1982; Rosenfeld et al., 1995). Furthermore, to evaluate whether IM is good or bad, the motive for this behavior needs to be examined. For example, if Jane is considerate and helpful so that other members in her team become more productive,
few would consider her IM as bad. However, if she abuses the trust gained from being a considerate and helpful member for her personal gain (e.g., obtaining a high salary raise at the expense of other team members), that would be considered bad. In other words, IM in this study is viewed as functional to the extent that it leads to social gain (e.g., workgroup satisfaction), rather than personal gain (e.g., higher performance rating). Along this line of reasoning, we contend that in self-managed work teams, IM exhibited by members whose motive is perceived as self-serving or insincere will be viewed less favorably than the same perceived as other-serving or sincere.

H7: Peer perception of the motive of ingratiation and self-promotion will moderate the ingratiation – liking from peers relationship and self-promotion – liking from peers relationship such that they will be stronger when the motive is perceived as sincere and weaker when the motive is perceived as insincere. Figure 1 shows a graphical representation of our proposed hypotheses.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model

Sample and Procedure

The sample for this study was drawn from students working in teams on a class project. The student teams were required to assume the role of a consulting firm called in to solve a specific problem in an organization using management concepts and practices learned in class. They were encouraged to interview business managers to arrive at realistic problems. The groups used descriptions of current management practices.
reported in business and/or management journals in developing recommendations for solutions. Confidential peer evaluation was conducted at the end of the semester after the student teams had turned in the project reports and delivered oral presentations. The team project was interdependent in nature such that a student's project grade was determined by peer evaluation. This grading structure presumably created an incentive for team members not only to contribute to group task performance, but to make their contribution visible to others. The motivation would be for individual team members to impression manage and engage in team citizenship more than they normally did because they knew their individual grades would be determined by how they were perceived by their team members. According to McGrath's (1984) group task circumplex, the interdependent nature of the team task is positively related to communication and coordination activities. This linkage was supported in Strauss’s (1999) and Strauss and McGrath's (1994) work. Along this line, it is reasonable to expect that it is the interdependence of the team project that is conducive to impression management behavior displayed by team members.

Data were collected during class time to maximize the response rate several days after the mid-term examination. At this point in time, most groups had almost finished their class team projects and thus the students had been given enough time to get to know their team members fairly well. To ensure confidentiality, the students were instructed to assign themselves as well as their team members with random alphabetical letters. Students were asked to complete the questionnaire during the first half of the class meeting to minimize any potential problems such as eagerness to leave the classroom.

The sample was 226 undergraduate and MBA students in a southeastern research university, participating in the study for course credit. Students were asked to evaluate their own as well as their team members’ frequency of impression management and team citizenship behavior. Ten participants did not provide information on demographic variables. One participant did not fill out the questionnaire completely. Missing responses from other variables result in six more cases being eliminated from the final usable sample of 209 working in 52 teams ranging from three to six members in size. Of these participants, most (82 percent) were from 20 to 29 years of age with 40 percent (83) males. In ethnic background, the sample was fairly diverse with 53.1 percent (111) identifying themselves as White, 21.5 percent (43) Black, 13.9 percent (29) Asian, and 1.9 percent (4) Hispanic, while 10.5 percent (22) chose the category “other.”

Method

Measures

Ingratiation. Four items (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) were used to measure the frequency of team members displaying ingratiatory behavior. The wording of the items was adapted to fit the work team context. For example, “Compliment your team members so they will see you as likeable” was used instead of “Compliment your co-workers so they will see you as likeable” as in the original scale. For ingratiation, the internal consistency
estimates were .82 and .89 for self-report and peer-report data. We used averaged peer ratings for each team member based on Scullen and colleagues’ recommendation that an averaged rating from independent raters (i.e., team members in this case) is more reliable and reduces error of measurement, compared to individual ratings (Scullen, Mount, and Goff, 2000).

**Self-promotion.** Four items (Bolino & Turnley, 1999) were used to measure the frequency of team members displaying self-promoting behaviors towards other members of their teams. Again, the wording of the items was adapted to fit the work team context. For example, “Talk to other team members proudly about your experience or education” was used instead of “Talk to other co-workers proudly about your experience or education” as in the original scale. Anchors of all the items in the scale range from (1) “Never behave this way” to (5) “Often behave this way.” An averaged peer rating for each team member was used in subsequent analyses. The internal consistency estimates (Cronbach alpha) for self-promotion were .86 for self-report data and .87 for peer-report data. The scale can be found in the Appendix.

**Altruism.** This variable was measured by a two-item scale adapted from Organ (1988) to fit the work team context. Items included “Help other team members to perform their tasks better,” “Help other team members with their tasks when they have been absent”. The anchors for the items range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree.” An averaged peer rating for each team member was used in subsequent analyses. The Cronbach alphas for altruism were .61 for self-report data and .72 for peer-report data respectively.

**Conscientiousness.** Four items were developed to measure conscientiousness in the context of a course team project. Conscientiousness items included “Willing to share and accept the group responsibility,” “Willing to work with other team members,” “Willing to listen to other team members’ ideas,” and “Show up on time for group meetings.” An averaged peer rating of this variable was used in subsequent analyses. The reliabilities of conscientiousness for self-report and peer-report were .71 and .78 respectively.

**Team satisfaction.** Team satisfaction is measured by three items based on the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) to fit the class team context. Each of three facets of work group satisfaction, i.e., satisfaction with the team task, satisfaction with team members, and satisfaction with being part of the team was captured in one item. The team satisfaction items included “I am satisfied with my team members,” “I am satisfied with my team task(s),” and “Overall, I am satisfied with being a part of my team.” The anchors for the items range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree.” The coefficient alpha for this scale was .89 for self-report data. No peer-report data were collected for this variable.

**Peer liking for team member.** This variable was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Wayne & Ferris’s (1990) “liking for subordinate” scale. Sample items include “Working with this team member is a pleasure” and “This team member would make a good friend.” The anchors for the items range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5)
“Strongly agree”. Each team member was rated by other team members in their team and an averaged peer rating was used in subsequent analyses. This variable had a Cronbach alpha of .83.

Peer perception of motive. This variable was measured using two items: “This team member’s behavior is phony;” and “This team member fakes a positive attitude toward others.” The anchors for the items range from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree.” Both items were reverse-coded to make the higher the score, the more sincere the motive was perceived. Each team member was rated by other team members in their team and an averaged peer rating for each team member was used in subsequent analyses. This variable had a Cronbach alpha of .83.

Results

Tables 1 and 2 show the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of variables included in the study for self-report and peer-report data. As shown in Table 1, ingratiation was correlated with altruism at .54 for self-report data (p < .01) and Table 2 shows the same positive correlation of .67 (p < .01) for peer-report data, providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 1. This hypothesis states that team members who exhibit altruism will also likely exhibit ingratiation. Hypotheses 1 through 6 were tested using two hierarchical regression analyses for each hypothesis. Each pair of analyses began with a hierarchical regression using all self-reported variables, while the second was exactly the same except for the use of peer-reported version of the dependent variable instead of the self-reported version of the variable used in the first analysis. Results for each of these analyses are summarized below and can also be found in Table 3.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of variables in the study – Self-report data (N = 209)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age group</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Race</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Self-promotion</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ingratiation</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Altruism</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Team satisfaction</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Gender is coded as 1 = Female, 0 = Male; Race is coded as 1 = White, 2 = Non-White. Correlations = .15 are significant at p < .05; Correlations = .20 are significant at p < .01. Reliabilities are shown in bold along the diagonal.

In the first regression with self-reported variables, altruism was regressed onto self-rating of self-promotion and ingratiation respectively. Table 3 shows the regression coefficient associated with ingratiation in predicting altruism as positive and significant controlling for self-promotion ($\beta = .36, p < .01; \Delta R^2 = .09$). In the second regression with
a peer-reported dependent variable, peer ratings of altruism were regressed onto self ratings of self-promotion and ingratiation respectively. Although this analysis was completed with mixed sources of data altruism was again found to positively relate to ingratiation ($\beta = .19, p < .01; \Delta R^2 = .03$); therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported. The result of the second regression analysis using mixed sources of data provides support in light of the concern for common method variance in our self-report data, which might bias research findings (e.g., Doty & Glick, 1998).

Table 2. Correlation matrix of variables in the study – Peer report data (N = 209)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Self-promotion</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ingratiation</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Altruism</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Liking for team member</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Peer perception of motive</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlations = .15 are significant at $p < .01$. Reliabilities are shown in bold along the diagonal.

Hypothesis 2 states that team members who exhibit altruism will less likely exhibit self-promotion. Contrary to our expectation, the correlation of altruism and self-promotion was positive and significant for both self-report data ($r = .46, p < .01$) and peer report data ($r = .52, p < .01$). Further, Table 3 shows a positive relationship with self-promotion in predicting altruism for the analyses including self-reported as well as mixed reported data ($\beta = .27, p < .01; \Delta R^2 = .09; \beta = .19, p < .01; \Delta R^2 = .03$ respectively). Hypothesis 2 was thus, not supported.

Hypothesis 3 states that team members who are conscientiousness will more likely engage in ingratiation than those who are not so conscientious. Again, we conducted two hierarchical regression analyses. In the first one, conscientiousness was regressed onto self-promotion and ingratiation; the regression coefficient associated with ingratiation in predicting conscientiousness was not significant. In the second regression, we regressed peer ratings of conscientiousness onto self-ratings of self-promotion and ingratiation respectively. Self-ratings of ingratiation were not significantly related to peer ratings of conscientiousness. Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 states that team members who are conscientious will less likely engage in self-promotion. Contrary to our expectation, the regression coefficient associated with self-ratings of self-promotion in predicting self-ratings of conscientiousness was positive but not significant. For the mixed data source regression analysis, self-ratings of self-promotion were positively but not significantly related to peer ratings of conscientiousness. Hypothesis 4 was thus, not supported.

Hypothesis 5 states that ingratiation will be a stronger correlate of team satisfaction than
will self-promotion. As shown in Table 3, the regression coefficient associated with self-ratings of ingratiation in predicting team satisfaction was positive but failed to reach statistical significance (β = .13, p > .05). For the analysis with mixed source data, since no peer report data were available for team satisfaction, we regressed self-report team satisfaction on peer ratings of self-promotion and altruism respectively. Peer ratings of ingratiation were positively and significantly related to self-ratings of team satisfaction (β = .19, p < .05; ΔR² = .02). For the self-promotion – team satisfaction linkage, the relationship was near zero with self-report data (β = .01, p > .05) and negative but not significant with peer-report data (β = -.10, p > .05; R² = .005). Taken together, these findings indicate that team members were happier with their teams only when their team members perceived them as engaging in ingratiation, not when team members described themselves as ingratiating or self-promoting. Hypothesis 5 was thus, partially supported.

Hypothesis 6 states that ingratiation, self-promotion, altruism, and conscientiousness will be positively related to liking for team member from peers. As shown in Table 2, all four variables positively correlated with liking for team members from peers with rs ranging from .30 (self-promotion) to .51 (conscientiousness) providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 6. A multiple regression analysis was conducted in which liking for team member was regressed onto peer ratings of self-promotion, ingratiation, altruism, and conscientiousness at the same time. Interestingly, self-promotion’s relationship to liking from peers that was positive in the zero-order correlation, turned negative but not significant when the other three variables were in the equation (β = -.07, p > .05). Ingratiation, altruism, and conscientiousness all significantly and positively predicted liking for team member from peers. Altogether, the four variables explained 37% of variation in peer perception of liking for team member (R² = .37, p < .001). These results suggest that self-promotion may appear to relate positively to the perception of a likable person from peers when we ignore its simultaneous occurrence with other IM and citizenship behaviors. However, when we remove the confounding effects of the other behaviors, self-promotion might produce a negative effect. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 7 states that the perceived motive underlying both ingratiation and self-promotion will moderate the effect these two impression management strategies have on liking for team member from peers. To test this hypothesis, we conducted a moderated regression analysis, in which we entered peer ratings of self-promotion and ingratiation in the first step, followed by peer ratings of altruism and conscientiousness in the second step, followed by perceived motive in the third step, and the two interaction term of ingratiation and motive as well as self-promotion and motive in the last step. Multicollinearity known to cause biased moderated regression results (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997) was not considered to be a problem, because correlations between the moderator variable (perceived motive of IM behavior) and the predictor variables (ingratiation and self-promotion) were near zero and non-significant. As can be seen in Table 3, both interaction terms were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 7 was not supported.
Table 3. Hierarchical regression results for combined self and peer-report data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Altruism</th>
<th>Conscientiousness</th>
<th>Team Satisfaction</th>
<th>Liking for team member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>Peer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impression Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.15†</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingratiation</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.14†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.09**</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td>.03*</td>
<td>.02†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
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<td>.11**</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship behavior</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
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<td>.92**</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
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<td>.44**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-promotion*Motive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingratiation*Motive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: Except for R², tabled values are standardized regression weights at the last step.
† p < .10  * p < .05  ** p < .01.
Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate self-promotion and ingratiation as correlates of citizenship behaviors of altruism and conscientiousness as well as team satisfaction. We found that the citizenship behavior of altruism shared a significant portion of variance with the impression management strategy of ingratiation.

The finding that ingratiation positively correlated with conscientiousness was also revealing. We see the most plausible interpretation as reflecting that in an interdependent team context, a considerable overlap exists between behavior that is beneficial to interdependent others and behavior that advances an actor’s own interests. It may remain possible to advance one’s own interests at the expense of others, or to sacrifice one’s own interests to the benefit of others, but the outcome of interdependence associates the interests of the individuals involved.

The finding that self-promotion was positively related to altruism is not readily explained in relation to the notion of the social lubrication aspects of impression management. Yet because of the general pattern of positive association within the set of two impression management facets combined with two citizenship facets, it may well be the case that the major source of common, shared variance could be differentiation in the extent of social engagement among individuals assigned to work together on a collaborative intellectual task. Performing such a task requires both that individuals advance their ideas and negotiate mutual support of those ideas. Among members of undergraduate student teams, the individuals may feel considerable equivocation regarding various ideas encountered in their learning process, and the knowledge limitations of the average student may limit the likely extent of controversy regarding the relevant ideas. The average student may feel that their best situation is to be on a team with bright, hard-working students. There is likely to be more restriction of range regarding intellectual ability than with respect to academic motivation, so it is unsurprising that conscientiousness is the strongest zero-order correlate, at least nominally, of liking for team member ($r = .51$).

An explanation for these results that preserves the common presumption that impression management necessarily reflects manipulative behavior requires speculation. Along these lines, team members might have perceived the need to ingratiate with other team members as a coping mechanism in a political team environment. Since individual members’ performance was determined by peer evaluation, this might have created a tense work environment when team members didn’t get along well with one another. To reduce the stress associated with this tension and anxiety, team members might have engaged in ingratiation. Previous research showed that in a political environment, ingratiation and self-promotion helped members to reduce stress and increase job satisfaction (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999). However, without having measured the political environment variable, such speculation should be considered tentative awaiting future empirical support.
Our study was the first to empirically test the perceived motivation underlying impression management. We found that others' perception of motive did not interact with the impression management behavior in influencing the outcome of liking for team member. However, we found motive had a positive, main effect of explaining 7% of unique variance in liking for team members from peers (see Table 3) with sincere motives contributing to more positive perception of liking than insincere motives.

Our research extended previous studies in two ways. First, because impression management involves a variety of behaviors, our study examined two most popular and researched behaviors, i.e., self-promotion and ingratiation that have been shown to be related to citizenship behavior but have not yet been shown to be related to work group functioning. Second, our study was the first to empirically examine the “bright side” or “expanded view” of impression management (Schlenker & Weingold, 1992) in work teams.

There are limitations to this study. First, while this particular sampling frame of students includes an unusually high proportion of individuals who are actually employees and happen to be also taking courses, the student sample may limit the generalizability of the findings in the present study. Second, the non-experimental design of the present study also precludes causal inferences. As such, both controlled experiments and future studies in work organization settings are needed to extend our understanding of the above-hypothesized relationships. As we worked through the interpretation of our results, we realized that the ingratiation scale items that we adapted from previous studies use “double-barreled” wording that may confound observed behaviors with inferred reasons for those behaviors. Scale development work to improve these measures for future studies should prove worthwhile.

Nonetheless, this study made a useful contribution by finding positive correlates associated with impression management. Despite continued reminders in the literature that impression management need not be inherently dysfunctional, empirical studies have continued to examine it predominantly, if not exclusively, in that light. Impression management might be responsible, at least in part, for people engaging in helping and responsible behavior in work teams. Decades of studies in group dynamics and leadership have identified an important category of behavior associated with the development and maintenance of positive emotional and affective relationships among participants. While such behaviors have often been found to be unrelated to typical task-oriented behaviors, their ubiquity speaks to the extent of our human unwillingness, or inability, to work together on tasks without them. As Liden and Mitchell (1988) suggested, impression management behaviors like ingratiation may facilitate behavioral reciprocation within dyads. The under-investigated forms of sincere impression management may be integral to the willingness of participants in role-making exchange (Graen, 1976) to take the interpersonal risks necessary to develop leader-member exchange and team-member exchange relationship (Seers, 1989).
Conclusion

Although our study should be replicated in future research, it represents the first effort in showing the positive aspects of impression management to advance this emerging literature. Using Goffman's (1955, 1959) description of face-work as a cooperative matter of social etiquette as our framework, we showed that impression management may be integral to work group functioning. Specifically, we found that ingratiation was positively related to the team citizenship behaviors of altruism and conscientiousness, which in turn, related to team satisfaction. Ingratiation and self-promotion were also found to be positively related to liking team members, and these behaviors appeared to be an important lubricant of team functioning. Our results are compatible with Rosenfeld and colleagues’ suggestion that impression management is a competency that should be nurtured in organizations (Rosenfeld et al., 1995). Impression management has too long been preoccupied with the possibility of manipulative intent underlying behaviors that may facilitate social lubrication. The behaviors that can help build a polite society may also help people negotiate positive collective identities and collaborative working relationships.

Appendix

Adapted from Bolino and Turnley’s (1999) IM Scale

Self-promotion scale
1. Talk to other team members proudly about your experience or education.
2. Make other team members aware of your talents or qualifications.
3. Let other team members know that you are valuable to the organization.
4. Make other team members aware of your accomplishments.

Ingratiation scale
1. Compliment your team members so they will see you as likeable.
2. Take an interest in your team members’ personal lives to show them that you are friendly.
3. Praise your team members for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person.
4. Do personal favors for your team members to show them that you are friendly.

Anchors:
1. never behave this way
2. rarely behave this way
3. occasionally behave this way
4. sometimes behave this way
5. often behave this way
References


**Author's note:** An earlier version of this article was presented at the 2001 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management: Washington, D.C. We wish to thank Deborah Kidder for her suggestions on an earlier version of this article. We acknowledge two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments that strengthen this article.
Teams often become more motivated when they have a positive leader. This is why focusing on your own happiness, well-being, and emotional intelligence is the first step toward creating a great team. Martin Seligman, a leading positive psychologist, developed the PERMA model to highlight the five essential elements that we all need to make us happy. PERMA is an acronym that stands for

No matter how good the product is, if you don't make a good impression at the first business meeting, you could lose a potential new backer or ... À For more than a decade, Tia Benjamin has been writing organizational policies, procedures and management training programs. A C-level executive, she has more than 15 years experience in human resources and management. Benjamin obtained a Bachelor of Science in social psychology from the University of Kent, England, as well as a Master of Business Administration from San Diego State University. We then propose team citizenship to be a consequence of leadership, possibly mediated by job satisfaction. We describe the research method: a longitudinal field study over three periods of data collection in which team leadership was measured at time 1, job satisfaction of team members at time 2, and TOCB at time 3. Next, we present the results of the study. To conclude, we discuss the implications of our findings. Impression management is a conscious or subconscious process in which people attempt to influence the perceptions of other people about a person, object or event by regulating and controlling information in social interaction. It was first conceptualized by Erving Goffman in 1959 in The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life, and then was expanded upon in 1967.