Development of a Scale to Measure Impression Management in Job Interviews

Irmak Erdogan*

This study aims to enhance our understanding of the construct "Impression management in job interviews" and develop a scale for its measurement. A preliminary scale is constructed with the help of qualitative studies and existing literature on impression management. The scale is pretested through an online survey which revealed six factors labeled as "Self-promotion", "Defensive", "Modeling", "Other-focused", "Avoidance" and "Non-verbal". Thisstudy is an initial step in filling the gap in common measurement methodsin the literature of impression management in job interviews. Implications of the emerged factor structure and potential practical uses of the developed scale are discussed.

Field of Research: Organizational Behavior

1. Introduction

A basic motive of individuals is to be viewed by others in a favorable manner and avoid being seen negatively (Rosenfeld 1997). Both in social and organizational settings, individuals try to influence the image others have of them by engaging in a variety of behaviors, consciously or unconsciously. A specific organizational setting which is ripe for this kind of behavior is the job interview situation in which the concern for a positive image is particularly salient.

Interviews offer individuals the perfect opportunity to manage their impressions because both the interviewer and the applicant are attempting to fit the needs of the other (Godfrey, Jones & Lord 1986). The present study explores impression management behavior of applicants during the job interview process. Although much research has been carried out on impression management in general, the specific behaviors associated with the job interview situation have not been widely explored. Also, there is a lack of common measurement tools in the literature related to impression management in job interviews. In this study, along with an extensive literature review, a series of qualitative studies are conducted to enhance our understanding of the construct and develop a scale for its measurement.

2. Literature Review

Impression management (IM) is defined as "conscious or unconscious attempts to control the images that are projected in ... social interactions" (Schlenker 1980) or similarly as "the process by which people attempt to influence the image others have of them" (Rosenfeld,Giacalone& Riordan2002).

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*Irmak Erdogan, Ph.D. candidate and research assistant at the Department of Management of Bogazici University, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: irmak.erdogan@boun.edu.tr

The topic of IM has originally been the focus of sociologists and social psychologists. But it has also received the attention of organizational researchers and become recognized as a common occurrence in organizational settings (Bolino&Turnley1999). Drory and Zaidman (2007) suggested that existing research on impression management can be divided into two main approaches. The universal approach focuses on the individual actor and studies impression management in a culture-free or context-free environment, whereas the second approach studies impression management as constructed within several contexts. In line with the second approach, IM behaviors have been studied in the organizational context in relation to many areas such as job interviews, performance appraisal and career success. Furthermore, IM has been useful in examining a variety of workplace phenomena such as feedback seeking, organizational citizenship behavior and leadership (Bolino et al. 2008).

In addition to individual-level analyses, IM has also been investigated at the organizational-level. This stream of research is not as extensive as the individual-level research but suggests that organizations can also make use of IM tactics to create a positive organizational image (Bolino et al. 2008).Summing up, literature indicates that IM has been studied in relation to a variety of organizational areas. As mentioned before, the focus of the present study will be on IM in job interviews in particular.

2.1 Impression Management in Job Interviews

IM is assumed to become more intentional and focused when people believe that they will gain valued outcomes by fostering particular impressions in others (Schlenker&Weigold 1992). Consistent with this line of reasoning, a job interview situation constitutes an appropriate context for applicants to elicit IM behaviors since it provides access to desired job opportunities. In a job interview situation, while the interviewer is attempting to gather information about the applicant in the interview, the applicant is similarly trying to convince the interviewer that he or she is indeed the best candidate (Kacmar, Delery& Ferris 1992).

For the applicant, the employment interview is often a very ambiguous and uncertain social situation (Rosenfeld 1997). The applicant is expected to be "confident but not brash, polite but not sycophantic, lively and interested but not voluble or manic, sufficiently nervous to show an appreciation of the importance of the occasion but not visibly anxious throughout" (Fletcher 1989, p. 273). Given the expectations, it is reasonable that the individual will try to control his/her image. Literature suggests that there are different forms of IM tactics which applicants may choose to employ in order to achieve this purpose.

## 2.2 Forms of Impression Management in Job Interviews

From a general social psychological point of view, Schneider (1981) suggested that IM can take many forms such as verbal statements, nonverbal or expressive behaviors, modifications of one's physical appearance, and integrated behavior patterns. Stevens and Kristof (1995) proposed that in an interview situation the use of some of these behaviors would be limited due to interview time and context constraints. They suggested that IM behaviors that are used in job interviews can be basically classified as verbal and nonverbal, and that verbal IM tactics can be further

classified as assertive or defensive. Kacmar et al. (1992), on the other hand, identified two sets of impression management tactics as self-focused-type and other-focused-type tactics. Both classifications have been adopted by many organizational researchers studying IM in job interviews (McFarland et al. 2005; Kacmar& Carlson 1999;Kristof-Brown, Barrick&Franke 2002; Peeters&Lievens 2006; Tsai, Chen & Chiu 2005; Van Iddekinge, McFarland &Raymark2007; Tsai et al. 2010).

With the help of existing literature, a basic framework for studying IM tactics used in job interviews is developed for purposes of the present study. Figure 1 shows that IM in job interviews can be comprehensively classified as verbal IM and non-verbal IM. Applicants can make use of a variety of verbal expressions to impress the interviewer in a job interview situation. These verbal IM tactics are further classified as either assertive or defensive, according to their purpose of use.

Figure 1: A Framework of IM Tactics Used in Job Interviews
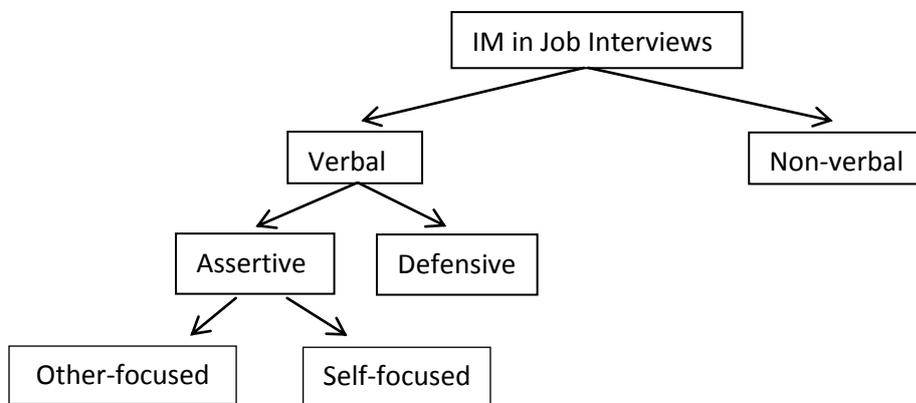
Assertive IM tactics are used to establish or extend a positive identity. They can either be focused on the target or the actor (Kacmar& Carlson 1999), termed as other-focused and self-focused tactics, respectively. Other-focused impression management tactics are used to increase the target's interpersonal attraction to or liking for the actor. Most frequently studied other-focused impression management tactics are other-enhancement and opinion conformity. Other-enhancement refers to the praising of another person and being complimentary to the role-players or the organization (McFarland et al. 2005). Opinion conformity refers to expressions of beliefs, values, or attitudes that are known or that could reasonably assumed to be held by the target, given the target's position, occupation, status, or organizational affiliation (McFarland et al. 2005).

The most frequently studied self-focused IM tactic is self-promotion. Self-promotion refers to verbal demonstration of the possession of desirable qualities such as competence, reliability, conscientiousness and so on (McFarland et al. 2005). In addition to positive self-descriptions, applicants may engage in self-promotion behaviors by using entitlements (claims of responsibility for positive events), enhancements (claims that the event for which one is responsible is more positive than it initially appears), or descriptions of how they overcame obstacles while pursuing goals (Stevens &Kristof 1995).

Defensive IM tactics, on the other hand, are used to repair one's image after it has been damaged or questioned (Stevens &Kristof 1995). It involves the use of explanations by which the individual elaborates on the reasons for negative outcomes (Shaw, Wild & Colquitt 2003; Tsai et al. 2010). The following behaviors are included in defensive IM tactics (Tsai et al. 2010); apologies (accepting responsibility for a negative event, offering to make things right, and promising to do better in the future), justifications (accepting responsibility for negative outcomes but not the negative implications) and excuses (shifting responsibility to some external causes).

Applicants can also attempt to impress interviewers by engaging in non-verbal behaviors. Non-verbal IM tactics consist of bodily movements and positions, such as eye contact, limb and facial gestures, and posture (Stevens &Kristof 1995). Smiling, hand movements, eye-contact, head nods, hand gestures and handshakes are suggested to be non-verbal IM tactics used in job interviews (McFarland et al. 2005). Non-verbal IM tactics are proposed to accompany both assertive and defensive verbal IM tactics (Stevens &Kristof 1995).

2.3 Effects of Impression Management in Job Interviews

The study of IM in job interviews is important because it can affect interviewer evaluation significantly and make us question the reliability and the validity of the employment interview as a selection device. Literature shows that many organizational researchers have examined the effects of IM on interviewer evaluation. For instance, Gilmore and Ferris (1989) showed that IM tactics positively influenced interviewer evaluation, even when controlling for the effects of applicant credentials. Furthermore, many researchers have studied the effects of different forms of IM tactics on interviewer evaluation or related variables. Kacmar et al. (1992) found that self-focused IM tactics were more effective than other-focused IM tactics in influencing interviewer ratings and job recommendations. Stevens and Kristof (1995) showed that self-promotion tactics and nonverbal IM tactics had a positive effect on interviewer evaluation, whereas other-enhancement had no significant influence. Howard and Ferris (1996) found that nonverbal IM tactics lead to higher perceived job suitability of the applicants by affecting interviewers' perceived competence of the applicants. Kristof-Brown et al. (2002) showed that self-promotion tactics significantly affected interviewers' perceptions of person-job fit, and nonverbal IM tactics correlated positively with interviewer perceived similarity. Ellis et al. (2002) also found that both ingratiation and self-promotion tactics correlated positively with interviewer evaluation.

Some researchers have attempted to examine the moderating roles of interview structure on the effectiveness of IM tactics. Tsai et al. (2005) found that the more structured the interview, the weaker the relationship between non-verbal IM and interviewer evaluation. They also showed that when the interview was of longer duration, the effects of applicant self-focused tactics became insignificant. Peeters and Lievens (2006) found that behavior description interviews triggered self-focused and defensive tactics, whereas situational interviews triggered other-focused tactics. VanIddekinge et al. (2007) also found that interview format predicted self-focused and defensive behaviors.

2.4 Measurement of Impression Management in Job Interviews

Literature suggests that IM behavior has a substantial effect on interviewer evaluations and thus on the effectiveness of the selection process. Although the measurement of IM is a critical part in studying the construct, there is a significant lack of measurement tools in the literature. Bolino and Turnley (1999) stated that one approach of measuring IM involves observing and recording participants' IM behaviors in an experimental context or under naturally occurring conditions. Supporting their view, most of the studies on IM in job interviews use coding schemas in their measurement procedures (Ellis et al. 2002; McFarland et al. 2005; Peeters&Lievens 2006; VanIddekinge, McFarland &Raymark 2007; Weiss & Feldman 2006). For instance, in a study of Ellis et al. (2002) about IM in structured interviews, IM was measured by coders who listened to interview tapes and coded IM behaviors. Behaviors were coded with respect to descriptions gathered from Stevens and Kristof (1995). McFarland et al. (2005) also used trained coders who listened to interview tapes, categorized the statements made by the candidates and recorded the frequency with which candidates used each tactic.

Similarly, VanIddekinge et al. (2007) measured IM behaviors in interviews by using coders who listened to interview tapes and recorded the frequency with which interviewees displayed each behavior using behavior definitions and coding procedures described in previous research. Peeters and Lievens (2006) measured verbal and nonverbal IM tactics in behavior description and situational interviews with coders who were trained to recognize verbal and nonverbal IM tactics. Likewise, Weiss and Feldman (2006) examined participants'use of lies in job interviews by using coders who read and categorized each participant's lie as either involving or not involving IM. Usually, multiple coders are used in these studies to increase the reliability of the measurement procedure.

As demonstrated in the literature review, past studies have failed to produce a valid instrument for measuring IM in job interviews. Although there are scales constructed for measuring IM in other organizational settings (e.g. Bolino&Turnley 1999; Drory&Zaidman 2007; Kumar &Beyerlein 1991; Wayne & Ferris 1990), the only scale measuring IM in job interviews was constructed by Stevens and Kristof (1995). Yet, this scale has not been validated either, although it has been used in other studies on IM in job interviews (e.g. Kristof-Brown, Barrick & Franke 2002; Tsai, Chen & Chiu 2005). Clearly, there is a gapin common measurement methods in the literature of IM in job interviews. The present studyattempts to fill this gap by developing an instrument to be used as a common tool for measuring the construct.

3. Methodology

Although literature has provided the researcher with an initial understanding of the construct, a series of qualitative studies were conducted to enhance this understanding. Details of qualitative studies are discussed in the following section.

3.1 Qualitative Studies

One of the features of qualitative research is to contribute insights into existing or emerging concepts that may help to explain human social behavior (Yin2011). In this study, we made use of qualitative research to gain a better understanding of

IMbehaviors used in job interviews. As discussed before, literature on IM in job interviews provides us withonly a limited set of items. Thus, collecting the views, perspectives and experiences of people was important for the definition of the construct and for the generation of scale items. Two focus groups, two in-depth interviews and the critical incident technique wereapplied in the qualitative part of the study.

3.1.1 Focus Group Interviews

The purpose of the interviews was to get an understanding of the construct of IM in job interviews, to find out its different dimensions and the commonimpression management behaviors used in job interviews. Participants were askedthe following main questions:

- What comes into your mind when I say "impression management in job interviews"?
- What do you think are the behaviors that a job applicant can engage in to make a positive impression on the interviewer?
- Can you please describe different ways in which you have tried to impress your interviewer in a job interview?

The first focus group consisted of six individuals, who are working as professionals in different sectors, their age ranging from 27 to 33. The second focus group consisted of five new-graduates and senior students with ages ranging from 22 to 24. Before the focus groups, participants were asked whether they have had an experience of participating in job interviews. Each participant in both focus groups has stated to havehad such an experience.Gathering this information was important with respect to the quality and richness of data obtained from participants.Both interviews were sound-recorded and transcribed by the researcher. Common themes were identified, similar statements were grouped under common themes and their frequencies were calculated by counting the numberof sentences on each of the common themes.

3.1.2 In-Depth Interviews

In order to get a different perspective on IM behavior in job interviews and to reach in-depth information, two HR professionals, both women, working in a HR consultancy firm were contacted. Both of them had about two years of experience in selection and recruitment and conducted job interviews regularly. The main questions asked to the professionals were similar to that of focus groups:

- What comes into your mind when I say "impression management in job interviews"?
- What do you think are the behaviors that a job applicant can engage in to make a positive impression on the interviewer?
- Can you please describe different ways in which participants have tried to impress you in a job interview?

Each interviewlasted about one hour, evolved around these questions and provided rich examples about candidates' impression management behavior in job interviews. The same content analysis procedure as in focus group interviews was applied to in-depth interviews.

3.1.3 Critical Incident Technique

At the end of both focus group interviews, each participant was asked to complete a formand describe a critical incident in which they used impression managementtactics in a job interview. The critical incident technique is developed by Flanagan (1954) and it may be used in interviews as a way of obtaining detailed descriptions from respondents of events in defined situations (Hussey & Hussey 1998). The use of critical incident technique was preferred considering that participants might be uncomfortable in sharing private experiences in a group situation. In addition to the data obtained from interviews, a total of eight critical incidents were collected in the focus groups. Three of the participants did not provide critical incidents.In addition, a group of people were reached online and asked to complete the critical incident form. Eight people completed the form; a total of 16 critical incidents were collected.Critical incidents were also grouped under common themes.

3.2 Item Generation and Initial Item Purification

A first set of items was generated through the literature review. Some items gathered from existing scales were related to impression management in organizational context in general(e.g. Bolino&Turnley 1999; Drory&Zaidman 2007; Kumar &Beyerlein 1991; Wayne & Ferris 1990). These were adapted to the job interview situation. Some other items were merged or re-stated to match the general format of items. Also, some itemswhich were not included in any of the existing scaleswere generated from descriptions of IM behavior in literature (e.g. Tsai et al. 2010).

Another set of items was generated through qualitative studies. A number of new itemswere generated from common themes;nevertheless items from the literature review generally captured the essence of behavior described in qualitative studies.Items generated from literature review and qualitative studies were combined and an initial item pool of 55 items describing specific behaviors intended to positively impress the interviewer in a job interview situation were generated.

For the purpose of item purification; similar items were combined, ambiguous items were eliminated or restated by the researcher. Remaining 39 items were then presented to two judges -both graduate students in Management- who were asked to categorize the statements into six different categories which were labeled by the researcher in accordance with the impression management literature, as well as with the patterns emerged from qualitative studies. Non-verbal, self-promotion, defensive and other-focused categories were borrowed from literature. In addition, two new categorieswere added considering the patterns emerged from qualitative studies. The first one, labeled as deception, captured the common themes "lie/deceive", "overrate yourself", "hide negative experiences/characteristics", and "underrate negative experiences/characteristics".The second category which emerged from qualitative studies was labeled as modeling. Literature review and qualitative studies both indicated that self-promotion concentrates on the demonstration of qualities which the candidate actually possesses, whereas some IM behaviors involve the presentation of an image of a "model employee". The modeling category was added to capture these behaviors associated with mimicking the personality attributes expected from a model employee. The following short category descriptions were given to the judges:

1) Non-verbal: All non-verbal behaviors used to impress the interviewer.
2) Self-promotion: Demonstration of possessed desirable qualities.
3) Defensive: Attempts to protect or repair one's image.
4) Modeling: Creating an image of a model employee
5) Other-focused: Attempts to increase interpersonal attraction to or liking between the interviewer and the candidate
6) Deception: Attempts to deceive or mislead the interviewer

The percentage of agreement between judges was 79.5%. The use of simple percentage agreement between judges is criticized since percentages do not take into account the likelihood of chance agreement between raters (Hughes & Garrett 1990). Thus, the reliability of inter-judge agreement was calculated using both Cohen's Kappa and Reliability Index.Cohen's Kappa was calculated to be 0.749 and Reliability Index was calculated to be 0.868.Both valuesshow that there is a satisfactory level of inter-judge agreement in categorizing the observations.

As a result of inter-judge reliability analysis, eightmore items which did not fit clearly into one category were eliminated. The final list consisted of 31 items;17 of them derived from literature review and 14 of them obtained from qualitative studies. The final list of items, their sources, and belonging categories are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The Final List of Items

Category	Items	Source
Non-verbal	Give frequent smiles	Stevens &Kristof (1995), Kumar &Beyerlein (1991)
	Maintain eye-contact	Stevens &Kristof (1995)
	Dress chic and appropriately	Qualitative
	Shake hands firmly and confidently	Qualitative
	Arrive just in time for the interview	Qualitative
Other-focused	Compliment the interviewer	Bolino&Turnley (1999), Stevens &Kristof (1995), Wayne & Ferris (1990)
	Find and discuss interests you shared in common with the interviewer	Stevens &Kristof (1995)
	Make prior research about the interviewer	Qualitative
	Indicate your love and respect for the organization	Qualitative
	Praise the organization	Stevens &Kristof (1995)
	Make prior research about the organization	Qualitative
Self-promotion	Make the interviewer aware of your talents or qualifications	Bolino&Turnley (1999)
	Make the interviewer aware of your accomplishments	Bolino&Turnley (1999)
	Demonstrate your experience	Drory&Zaidman (2007)
	Demonstrate your knowledge and expertise	Stevens &Kristof (1995)
	Show your enthusiasm for the job	Stevens &Kristof (1995)
	Demonstrate your fit with the job	Qualitative
	Prepare before the interview to express yourself more clearly	Qualitative
	Convince the interviewer that you will be successful at the job	Qualitative
Modeling	Create the impression that you are a "good" person	Wayne & Ferris (1990)
	Create the impression that you are self-confident	Drory&Zaidman (2007)
	Present yourself as a hard-working and conscientious person	Qualitative
	Present yourself as a friendly and polite person	Wayne & Ferris (1990)
Deception	Avoid talking about negative experiences	Qualitative
	Avoid talking about your negative characteristics	Qualitative
	Overrate your strengths and accomplishments	Qualitative
	Underrate your weaknesses and failures	Qualitative
Defensive	Provide justifications for negative experiences	Tsai et al. (2010)
	Provide apologies for failures	Tsai et al. (2010)
	Give excuses for negative events	Tsai et al. (2010)
	Defend yourself for negative experiences	Tsai et al. (2010)

3.3 Survey

Final 31 items were randomly mixed and arranged in the form of a questionnaire. The question for each item was "How often do you behave as described in the statements below to impress your interviewer in a job interview situation?" All items were rated on a 5-point likert scale ranging from "always" to "never", as well as on a percentage scale. Demographic questions about participants' age, gender and education level were also asked. The final questionnaire was published at an online website. Given a

criterion of maximum information with minimum cost, it is suggested that 30 representative participants from the population of interest is a reasonable minimum recommendation for a pilot study where the purpose is preliminary survey or scale development (Johanson& Brooks 2010). Population of interest of the study consists of professionals living in Turkey who recently had a job interview experience. In order to find a representative sample, major college networks consisting of professionals from various fields were contacted.Through these networks, e-mail addresses of a total of 241 individuals were reached. This number was found to be adequate even when allowing for eliminations due to lower response rates associated with online surveys (Cook, Heath & Thompson 2000). The survey link was sent to e-mail addresses ofindividuals.In total, 83 people participated in the survey with a response rate of 34%. All participants had at least one job interview experience in the last two years. The vast majority of participants were from Istanbul, the largest and most industrialized city of Turkey. The sample consisted of 65% females and 35% males. Mostof themwere24-30 years old and about half of them were either graduate students or holding a graduate degree.

4.Results / Analysis

Data collected from 83 respondents was coded and exported to the data analysis software SPSS 16.0. Descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were conducted with the data.

4.1Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis provided evidence that distribution of observations is close to a normal distribution. Highest mean values belonged to items from the nonverbal IM: "Arrive just in time for the interview" (4.78) and "Dress chic and appropriately" (4.71). Lowest mean values belonged to items "Compliment the interviewer"(1.77) and "Give excuses for negative events"(1.93).

4.2Factor Analysis

To determine whether the data set can be put to factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sample adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity have been applied. Results of the tests were above acceptable levels (KMO=0.616; Bartlett significance=0.000). Factor analysis with principal components method and varimaxrotation with Kaiser normalizationis conducted to determine the factors. As a result of the initial factor analysis 10 factors emerged, which explained 68.656% of the total variance.Some of the items were eliminated either because their factor loadings were too low, they loaded under more than one factor or they emerged as a single item factor. As a result of a series of factor analyses, nine items were deleted.Final factor analysis revealed six factors explaining 60.832% of the total variance. Although total variance explained has decreased, further analysis is decided to be carried on withthese six factors since they each represented a meaningful categorization.Items were generally placed in predicted categories with some exceptions. For instance, "Dress chic and appropriately" loaded under the modeling factor instead of the predicted non-verbal factor. Apparently, dressing for the interview is used as a tactic to create an image of a model employee. The items "Underrate your weaknesses and failures" and "Overrate your strengths and accomplishments" were both loaded under the defensive factor instead of the

predicted deception factor. It appears that these tactics are used as a means of protecting or repairing one's imageafter it has been damaged or questioned, rather than deceiving the interviewer a priori.Also, items predicted to belong to deception factor "Avoid talking about your negative characteristics" and "Avoid talking about negative experiences" appearedunder a separate factor which was named avoidance. The fact that deception didn't emerge as a factor suggests that it falls outside the scope of IM as an unethical behavior.

4.3Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis of the remaining22 items resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of 0.731. Reliability analyses were also conducted separately for each factor. Table 2presents a summary of the results of the reliability and factor analyses.

Table 2: Results of the Factor and Reliability Analyses

	Factor Loading
Self-promotion (Cronbach's Alpha=0,766)	
Make the interviewer aware of your talents or qualifications	0,825
Make the interviewer aware of your accomplishments	0,715
Demonstrate your knowledge and expertise	0,646
Demonstrate your fit with the job	0,642
Convince the interviewer that you will be successful at the job	0,580
Defensive (Cronbach's Alpha=0,764)	
Provide justifications for negative experiences	0,804
Defend yourself for negative experiences	0,784
Give excuses for negative events	0,635
Overrate your strengths and accomplishments	0,598
Underrate your weaknesses and failures	0,592
Modeling (Cronbach's Alpha=0,674)	
Present yourself as a friendly and polite person	0,795
Dress chic and appropriately	0,636
Present yourself as a hard-working and conscientious person	0,636
Create the impression that you are self-confident	0,557
Other-focused (Cronbach's Alpha=0,586)	
Praise the organization	0,849
Compliment the interviewer	0,679
Find and discuss interests you shared in common with the interviewer	0,470
Avoidance (Cronbach's Alpha=0,732)	
Avoid talking about negative experiences	0,843
Avoid talking about your negative characteristics	0,843
Non-verbal (Cronbach's Alpha=0,535)	
Shake hands firmly and confidently	0,663
Maintain eye-contact	0,642
Give frequent smiles	0,626

Cronbach's alpha values for self-promotion, defensive, modeling, other-focused, avoidance, and non-verbal factors were 0.766; 0.764; 0.674; 0.586; 0.732 and 0.535, respectively. Reliability values of other-focused and nonverbal factors were considerably lower than other factors. Nevertheless, they were acceptable given that in early stages of research, a modest reliability in the range of 0.5 and 0.6 will suffice(Peter1979).

4.4 Multitrait-Multimethod Analysis

To analyze reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the developed scale, a Multitrait-Multimethod(MTMM) analysis has been conducted. The MTMM matrix was developed by Campbell and Fiske (1959) and offers a technique for assessing construct validity and discriminant validity of a set of measures. The use of different methods is necessary for the construction of the MTMM matrix. Accordingly, in this study, items were rated with two different methods;first with an interval 5-point likert scale and second with a ratio scale (percentage ratings).

The MTMM matrix basically consists of correlations between several traits measured by each of several methods. The MTMM matrix for the present study has been constructed by calculating Pearson correlations between six traits (self-promotion, defensive, modeling, other-focused, avoidance, and non-verbal) measured byeach of the two methods (interval scale and ratio scale). The MTMM matrix is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: MTMM

		Method 1 (interval)						Method 2 (ratio)					
		SP	DEF	MOD	OF	AVD	NV	SP	DEF	MOD	OF	AVD	NV
Method 1 (interval)	SP	0,766											
	DEF	-0,024	0,764										
	MOD	0,425	-0,115	0,674									
	OF	0,269	0,293	0,197	0,586								
	AVD	0,062	0,258	-0,154	0,116	0,732							
	NV	0,262	-0,096	0,438	0,117	-0,083	0,535						
Method 2 (ratio)	SP	0,877	-0,002	0,308	0,307	0,094	0,122	0,797					
	DEF	0,002	0,706	-0,149	0,114	0,084	-0,044	0,169	0,865				
	MOD	0,565	-0,058	0,809	0,228	-0,052	0,428	0,586	-0,036	0,690			
	OF	0,260	0,243	0,050	0,532	-0,026	0,086	0,430	0,618	0,198	0,649		
	AVD	0,029	0,254	-0,096	-0,002	0,701	-0,034	0,147	0,461	-0,010	0,300	0,713	
	NV	0,272	-0,049	0,316	0,163	-0,030	0,878	0,272	0,119	0,450	0,305	0,078	0,578

(SP: Self-promotion, DEF: Defensive, MOD: Modeling, OF: Other-focused, AVD: Avoidance, NV: Nonverbal)

Contrary to the rest of the matrix, coefficients in the reliability diagonal are not Pearson correlations, but Cronbach's alpha values of each trait measured by two methods. For the construction of the MTMM matrix, reliability analysis for each IM factor has also been conducted with the data obtained from ratio scales. Cronbach's alpha values for self-promotion, defensive, modeling, other-focused, avoidance, and non-verbal factors were 0.797, 0.865, 0.690, 0.649, 0.713, and 0.578; respectively.

The condition for reliability is that coefficients in the reliability diagonal should consistently be the highest in the matrix (Campbell & Fiske 1959). In this case, although reliability coefficients are generally high except for OF-Method1/OF-Method1 (0.586), NV-Method1/NV-Method1 (0.535) and NV-Method2/NV-Method2 (0.578), some of the values in the validity diagonal are higher than reliability values.

The validity diagonal shows correlations between same traits measured by different methods. In this case, values belonging to the validity diagonal are 0.877, 0.706, 0.809, 0.532, 0.701, and 0.878. This situation is undesirable, since logically a trait should be more highly correlated with itself than with anything else. Higher correlations in the validity diagonal indicate thatthere isn't enough method variance between two methods. The fact that both methods have been applied in the same questionnaire, at the same time and using the same items may explain the high correlations between same traits measured by different methods. If maximally different methods could be used, the coefficients in the validity diagonal would be significantly lower.

The observation that coefficients in the validity diagonal are significantly different from zero and highenough to warrant further investigation provide evidence for convergent validity.As mentioned before, high correlations may be partly due to the bias created in the administration procedure. Nevertheless, when the effect of method factor is controlled, coefficients will still be different from zero and high enough to provide evidence for convergent validity.

The conditions for discriminant validity are satisfied as well. Coefficients in the validity diagonal are higher than values lying in their column and row in the same heteromethod block. Moreover, validity coefficients are higher than all coefficients in the heterotrait-monomethod triangles with only one exception (OF-method1/OF-method2). The latter observation also provides evidence that trait factors are stronger than methods factors. A last condition for discriminant validity is that the same pattern of trait interrelationship should be seen in all triangles. A careful investigation of the matrix points to a similar pattern of correlations in the triangles. It can be concluded that there are strong evidences for discriminant validity.

5. Conclusion

Aims of the study were to thoroughly analyze and understand IM in job interviews, explore its dimensions,and develop a scale for the measurement of the construct. The developed final scale is an initial step in filling the gap in common measurement methods in the literature of IM in job interviews.

The study has some limitations which should be noted, as well as some implications for future studies. First of all, the relatively low reliability scores of "other-focused" and "non-verbal" IM factors suggest that these factors require further investigation. Subsequent qualitative research can be directed to these factors to better understand and develop them.Second, although the scale was validated with the MTMM matrix, there have been some biases due to the application of both methods at the same time and using the same questions. In following studies the scale needs to be validated with a larger sample by using maximally different methods. Lastly, the study was conducted in Turkey, a country which is classified as having a collectivistic culture. Yet, individuals from different cultures might be using different impression management strategies which could not be captured in the present study. Therefore, the scale has to be further developed and validated with samples from other cultures.

The study has important contributions to organizational literature, as well as to HR practice which are worth mentioning. First of all, the emergence of "avoidance" as a new factor is a significant contribution of the study to the literature of IM in job

interviews, and possibly to that of IM in general, as well. This new factor indicates the presence of untapped areas in the construct and needs to be further examined in future studies. Second, as a common measurement tool, the developed scale may help organizational researchers who are interested in conducting research on IM in job interviews by facilitating measurement and eliminating coding processes specific to each study. Regarding its practical use, the developed scale may serve HR practitioners as a tool to be included in their selection process. It may help them evaluate and enhance the validity of their selectionproceduresand enjoy the benefits of a valid selection tool.

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