Received: 13 May 2019 | Revised: 29 June 2021 | Accepted: 1 July 2021

DOI: 10.1002/job.2547

RESEARCH ARTICLE

WILEY Journal of Organizational Behavior

Too much self-promotion! How self-promotion climate relates to employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion effectiveness and their work group's performance

Christian Gross[1] | Maike E. Debus[2] | Pia V. Ingold[1] | Martin Kleinmann[1]

[1]Department of Psychology, University of Zurich, Zürich, Switzerland

[2]Institute of Work and Organizational Psychology, University of Neuchâtel, Neuchâtel, Switzerland

Correspondence
Christian Gross, Department of Psychology, University of Zurich, Binzmühlestrasse 14/12, 8050 Zürich, Switzerland.
Email: c.gross@psychologie.uzh.ch

Summary

Self-promotion has largely been researched from an individual perspective. It is thus unclear if this behavior is functional or dysfunctional within a broader social context. The present study offers a contribution in this regard by examining self-promotion within work groups. In particular, we hypothesized that work group self-promotion climate—referring to the shared perception of the occurrence of self-promotion in the work group—moderates the relationships between individuals' supervisor-focused self-promotion and supervisor ratings of both job performance and promotability. More precisely, we expected these relationships to be positive only when self-promotion climate is low. With respect to the entire work group, we further hypothesized that self-promotion climate negatively relates to supervisor-rated work group performance via impaired work group cohesion. We tested these propositions with data from 195 work groups. Multivariate path analysis provided support for our hypothesized model. Taken together, our findings illustrate the important role of self-promotion as a climate construct. In particular, self-promotion climate helps us better understand the role of self-promotion for individuals and work groups.

KEYWORDS
job performance ratings, promotability ratings, self-promotion, self-promotion climate, work group performance ratings

1 | INTRODUCTION

One of the most prevalent forms of self-presentation in working life is self-promotion; that is, behaviors used to appear competent and capable, such as highlighting one's talents and making others aware of one's accomplishments (Jones & Pittman, 1982). A large body of research has focused on self-promotion and its relevance for ratings of interview performance, job performance, and career success (for reviews, see Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016; Ferris et al., 2017). Self-promotion is usually an effective strategy to obtain a job but can also have undesired outcomes for employees once hired (Bolino et al., 2016). Indeed, research has revealed mixed findings in terms of the relationship between employee self-promotion and job performance ratings, suggesting that self-promotion at work is not a universally effective behavior (e.g., Bolino et al., 2014; Harris et al., 2007; Higgins et al., 2003). Due to these mixed results, research has often drawn from social influence theory (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Ferris et al., 2002) to examine the conditions under which

Christian Gross and Maike E. Debus contributed equally to the paper.

self-promotion may be effective. In particular, social influence theory highlights that the effectiveness of self-promotion depends on various factors (Ferris et al., 2002). Thus far, research has mainly focused on person-related moderator variables, including individual characteristics of both self-promotion actors (e.g., self-monitoring and political skill; Harris et al., 2007; Turnley & Bolino, 2001) and key self-promotion targets such as supervisors (e.g., supervisor's narcissism; Den Hartog et al., 2018).

However, beyond this focus on individuals, social influence theory further stresses the importance of the social context in which self-promotion is enacted (Ferris et al., 2002; Goffman, 1959). To address this issue, we focus on the concept of organizational climate (Glick, 1985; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009), referring to the shared perceptions about how things are (done) in a given work environment (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). We further focus on the most direct environment in which employees are typically embedded at work—that is, in work groups (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). More precisely, we consider *work groups' self-promotion climate*, which we define as the shared perception among employees regarding the extent to which self-promotion occurs in their work group. When examining the outcome of self-promotion, self-promotion climate should be a particularly important variable to consider for at least two reasons. First, theory and research on work climates suggests that shared cognitions about organizational behavior are crucial to predict the impact of such behavior for individuals (Schneider, 1978; Smith-Crowe et al., 2003). Second, shared climate perceptions of organizational behavior can further affect work group outcomes such as work group performance (e.g., Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Priesemuth et al., 2014). Hence, studying self-promotion climate can help us understand the role that this behavior plays for work groups—a particularly important topic given that the effective functioning of work groups has received growing attention among organizations beyond the work outcomes of individuals (e.g., Bolino et al., 2008; Ferris et al., 2017).

In the present study, based on social influence theory (Ferris et al., 2002) and social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), we develop and test a conceptual model that depicts the role of self-promotion climate both as an environmental moderator of individuals' supervisor-focused self-promotion effectiveness and as a predictor of work group processes and outcomes. In particular, we propose that self-promotion climate moderates the relationships between individual supervisor-focused self-promotion and both supervisor-rated job performance and promotability, such that these relationships are positive only when self-promotion climate is low; this is because individual self-promotion attempts should be more salient to supervisors when there is a collective perception that self-promotion does not occur frequently within the work group (i.e., a low self-promotion climate; Bolino et al., 2008). Concerning self-promotion climate's implications for the entire work group, we propose that a high self-promotion climate impairs work group cohesion due to its self-oriented nature, which, in turn, would be associated with lower supervisor-rated work group performance. Figure 1 presents our hypothesized model.

Our study offers several contributions. First, by studying the shared climate perceptions of self-promotion in work groups, we expand on the conceptualization of self-promotion as an individual behavior. In doing so, we extend and test theory on self-promotion as a climate-based construct. More precisely, while existing theory has mainly focused on self-promotion as an influence process within single actor-target dyads (Bolino et al., 2016; Jones & Pittman, 1982), our climate-based view accounts for the sum of influences between various self-promotion actors and targets in a given work environment. In doing so, a climate-based view also acknowledges the fact that self-promotion is neither enacted nor interpreted in a social vacuum at work (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), thus likewise contributing to the literature on self-promotion more generally. Second, we address theoretical arguments that emphasize the relevance of the social context in which self-promotion is enacted at work (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016; Gardner & Martinko, 1988) by examining self-promotion climate as an environmental moderator of individual supervisor-focused self-promotion behavior and its outcomes. Indeed, as already noted by Bolino et al. (2008), self-presentation behaviors may be interpreted very differently by supervisors depending on the extent to which the work group as a whole uses such behaviors. Thus, by elucidating whether

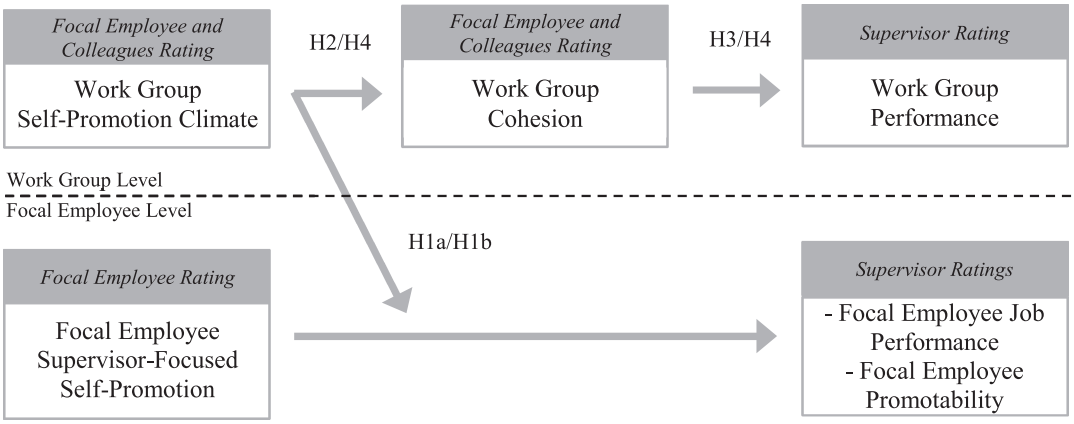


FIGURE 1 Hypothesized model. H = hypothesis. H4 represents a mediation effect

supervisor-focused self-promotion is more effective at low levels of self-promotion climate in work groups, our study provides empirical evidence to support this line of reasoning.

Finally, by investigating how self-promotion climate relates to work group cohesion and supervisor-rated work group performance, we provide relevant knowledge on the consequences that self-promotion may have beyond individual work outcomes. Based on extant individual-focused perspectives on self-promotion, it is still unclear how self-promotion may relate to broader organizational outcomes (Bolino et al., 2016). Our study raises caution in this respect, suggesting that self-promotion utility may differ for individuals and work groups. Moreover, we not only examine the proximal drawback of self-promotion climate (i.e., a declined work group cohesion) but also investigate whether a high self-promotion climate is indirectly linked to lower supervisor-rated work group performance. Taken together, our approach thus highlights a previously unexplored link with work group cohesion (Lvina et al., 2015; Stoverink et al., 2014) and contributes to our understanding of work group effectiveness (Mathieu et al., 2008).

2 | THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 | Self-promotion through the lens of social influence theory

Social influence theory posits that individuals strive to influence others in a manner that maximizes influencers' desired outcomes (Ferris et al., 2002). From this theoretical perspective, self-promotion is regarded as an attempt to gain personal benefits by affecting how one is seen by relevant targets of influence (e.g., supervisors) (Barrick et al., 2009; Ferris et al., 2017); and indeed, experimental studies have demonstrated that manipulating low versus high levels of self-promotion usage affects others' views and behaviors (e.g., Bolino et al., 2014; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Yet, in line with social influence theory, various scholars have theoretically argued that self-promotion in the workplace can be a tricky business (Bolino et al., 2016; Jones & Pittman, 1982). More precisely, social influence theory suggests that self-promotion may lead to desired outcomes only under certain circumstances, instead of being a universally effective strategy (Ferris et al., 2002). Accordingly, research over the last decades has typically neither assumed nor found a generic positive effect of self-promotion on work outcomes but rather has focused on what makes such behavior at work more versus less effective (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016). For example, Harris et al. (2007) found that only when employees are politically skilled, their self-promotion positively relates to job performance ratings by supervisors. Similarly, Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that being high in self-monitoring can also help individuals to use self-promotion more successfully. In addition, there is evidence that self-promotion may be particularly effective for individuals who are relatively new to the workplace to elicit positive outcomes such as supervisor-rated job performance (Bolino et al., 2014; Gross et al., 2020) and the likelihood of receiving a job after an internship (Zhao & Liden, 2011). These findings are also in line with the meta-analysis by Higgins et al. (2003), which reveals a nonsignificant relationship between self-promotion and job performance ratings. While this stream of research has remained focused on self-promotion as individual behavior (e.g., Harris et al., 2007), we argue that self-promotion has additional importance that arises from the collectively held climate perception of self-promotion in work groups.

2.2 | The construct of self-promotion climate

Organizational climate generally refers to the shared perceptions or beliefs of practices, behaviors, and policies that employees experience in a given work environment (James et al., 2008; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Mawritz et al., 2014; Schneider et al., 2013). In accordance with Schneider's (1975, 1990) call to study climates *for something*, research over the past decades has focused on various facet-specific organizational climates. More precisely, this research has studied the shared perceptions of particular aspects of the work environment such as, for example, safety climate (e.g., Zohar, 2000), voice climate (e.g., Morrison et al., 2011), and abusive supervision climate (Priesemuth et al., 2014). These facet-specific climates reflect norms regarding specific organizational behaviors or practices (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009), which Cialdini et al. (1990) specified can be either *descriptive norms* (i.e., what is done in a social group) or *injunctive norms* (i.e., what ought to be done or is approved in a social group) (see also Schein, 1996). Given that self-promotion is self-serving by definition, this organizational behavior is typically not approved or rewarded in a formal sense by supervisors and the organization (Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016). We therefore conceptualize self-promotion climate in a descriptive way—that is, as shared perceptions about what is done in terms of self-promotion behavior and practices in the work group. This includes self-promotion behavior from any actor directed at any target within the work group. As such, this study examines shared perceptions of the extent to which self-promotion occurs, rather than the extent to which self-promotion may be viewed as accepted or approved. This is consistent with other established facet-specific organizational climates that focus on potentially disputable organizational behavior or practices (e.g., hostile climate or abusive supervision climate; Mawritz et al., 2014; Priesemuth et al., 2014).

Social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) helps explain why collective climate perceptions of self-promotion are likely to exist in work groups. According to this theory, employees look to those around them to understand how things are (done) in their work environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Through such social cues and interactions in the work group, employees tend to share similar experiences and create collective perceptions of the extent to which specific organizational behaviors prevail (e.g., Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Accordingly, research on self-promotion shows that both dispositional and situational factors determine whether individuals engage in such

behavior (e.g., Kacmar et al., 2004). This suggests that climate formation likely occurs through social information processing, while not all employees will necessarily adapt their individual self-promotion behavior to align with the prevailing climate.

2.3 | The moderating role of self-promotion climate

Based on social influence theory (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Ferris et al., 2002) and the climate literature (Schneider, 1978), we expect that self-promotion climate in work groups is critical for how effective an individual employee's self-promotion toward their supervisor is in achieving positive individual work outcomes assessed by their supervisor. In this respect, supervisor-rated *individual performance* and *promotability* (i.e., the ascribed potential to perform in a higher-level position; De Pater et al., 2009) reflect central indicators of the success that employees have in striving to promote themselves in an organization (Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016). According to social influence theory, employee self-promotion should therefore be aimed mostly at supervisors because supervisors are the ones who usually evaluate their employees along these outcomes and also exert a great amount of control over HR decisions (e.g., rewards, pay raise, and promotion) (Bolino et al., 2006; Harris et al., 2007). We thus specifically focus on supervisors as targets of individual employees' self-promotion behavior.

Social influence theory further helps us understand why individual employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion is likely to be more effective under low levels of self-promotion climate, reflecting descriptive norms (i.e., what is done with regard to self-promotion in the group). In particular, based on social influence theory, a low self-promotion climate likely increases an individual's chances of attracting their supervisor's attention with their own self-promotion behavior. This is because when self-promotion climate within a work group is low, supervisors less frequently experience self-promotion directed at them within their work group (Bolino et al., 2016; Ferris et al., 2002), thus making individual supervisor-focused self-promotion efforts more salient. As a result, under low levels of self-promotion climate, supervisors would be more susceptible to an individual employee's efforts to make them aware of the employee's own talents and strengths, thus increasing the likelihood that individuals can use self-promotion to positively influence how they are seen by their supervisor. In contrast, under high levels of self-promotion climate, supervisors would be less influenced by an individual employee's self-promotion directed at them when rating that employee's performance and promotability. Hence, we expect that:

> **Hypothesis 1.** Self-promotion climate moderates the relationships between focal employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion and their (a) supervisor-rated job performance and (b) supervisor-rated promotability, such that the relationships will be positive only when self-promotion climate is low.

2.4 | Self-promotion climate, work group cohesion, and work group performance

Based on social information processing theory's tenet that cues from the social context shape the attitudes and behavioral responses in work groups (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), various scholars have linked work group climate to work group outcomes (e.g., Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Stoverink et al., 2014). Thereby, work group cohesion has been identified as a central construct to explain how specific work group climates translate into work group functioning or malfunctioning (e.g., Stoverink et al., 2014). Drawing from this literature, we propose that self-promotion climate negatively relates to work group cohesion, which, in turn, positively relates to supervisor-rated work group performance.

In the first step, we theorize that self-promotion climate is negatively related to work group cohesion for two reasons. First, self-promotion climate reflects the self-serving nature of self-promotion, which stands in contrast to work group cohesiveness. More specifically, self-promotion at work is typically self-focused and self-serving: individuals engage in self-promotion to highlight their positive attributes and gain personal benefits such as recognitions, pay raises, or promotions (Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2013). As such, from a climate-based view, when a high self-promotion climate prevails in a work group, employees would likely act in a more self-serving way, striving to maximize their self-interest (e.g., following self-interested, competitive norms rather than cooperative, and collaborative ones; Grant & Patil, 2012). Due to employees' focus on their own interests and benefits in work groups with a high self-promotion climate, cohesion should be lower.

Second, some researchers have suggested that self-promotion behaviors can lead to lower affect and more rejection, presumably because individuals tend to feel threatened by those who promote themselves and their image (Ferris et al., 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1994). Indeed, this tendency may be particularly accentuated among members of the same work group, given that they are usually judged and rewarded by a common supervisor with substantial control over decisions and desired outcomes (Bolino et al., 2008) and exposed to a certain degree of intra-group comparisons (Brown et al., 1998). Hence, a high self-promotion climate in work groups may lead work group members to view each other as a threat, which may further undermine the cohesiveness among work group members. Taken together, we thus propose:

> **Hypothesis 2.** Self-promotion climate is negatively related to work group cohesion.

Furthermore, we expect that work group cohesion positively relates to supervisor-rated work group performance. Following extant literature on work group performance (e.g., Beal et al., 2003; Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001; Jehn et al., 1999), we focus on *supervisor-rated work group performance* as a work group outcome, capturing both the effectiveness and efficiency of the work performed by the work group as a whole. Effectiveness refers to the degree to which the work

group meets expectations for the quality and accuracy of the outcome produced, whereas efficiency describes the adherence to schedules and budgets (Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). According to theorizing on work group cohesion (e.g., Evans & Dion, 1991; Mullen & Copper, 1994), the primary theoretical rationale for why work group cohesion leads to an increased work group performance is that cohesion reflects individuals' desire to stay in the group. Thus, group members become more willing to advance the group's goals, participate in its activities, and contribute to the group's success (e.g., Evans & Dion, 1991; Mullen & Copper, 1994). In fact, there is meta-analytical evidence for the positive link between work group cohesion and work group performance (Beal et al., 2003; Evans & Dion, 1991; Mullen & Copper, 1994). We thus hypothesize:

> **Hypothesis 3.** Work group cohesion is positively related to supervisor-rated work group performance.

Following from the above arguments, a work group's self-promotion climate would thus be negatively and indirectly related to the work group's performance via the work group's cohesion. Indeed, the proposed mediation process is consistent with the existing conceptualization of work group cohesion as a key mediating variable that shapes work group functioning (e.g., Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Mathieu et al., 2008; Raver & Gelfand, 2005).

> **Hypothesis 4.** Work group cohesion mediates the relationship between self-promotion climate and supervisor-rated work group performance.

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Procedure

We gathered data from work groups employed at a diverse set of companies in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. A work group was defined as a permanent group with at least three members working together under the same supervisor (George, 1990; Liao & Rupp, 2005). In each work group, we surveyed a focal employee, two work group colleagues, and their supervisor (see below for further details). Doing so enabled us to obtain at least three responses from each group (without supervisors), which is often used as a criterion for aggregating group-based variables in team research (e.g., Kostopoulos et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017). To recruit participants, we contacted organizations and informed them about the study. Companies and their contact information were derived from the Swissfirms database (http://www.swissfirms.com), an official, publicly accessible database that lists all companies within Switzerland. We sorted companies across all industry types, which allowed us to approach companies from diverse industries. After an organization had given consent, we contacted supervisors via company mail and invited them to participate with three of their subordinate work group members. When recruiting our sample, we aimed for 250 registrations of work groups. By the time we reached this number of registrations, we had contacted nearly 1000 organizations. As an incentive for their participation, we offered supervisors and the three work group members a summary of the study results. This report contained no individual- or group-specific results, nor any identifiers that could be used to trace back to individuals or groups within organizations. To be eligible for study participation, work groups had to fulfill the abovementioned definition criteria; that is, it had to be a permanent group with at least three members working together under the same supervisor. In addition, "working together" was defined as "sharing common working goals and a common workplace" to ensure that group members worked relatively interdependently at the same location (i.e., not remotely). When these study criteria were fulfilled, we asked supervisors to register the subordinate work group member whose surname appeared first alphabetically as the *focal employee* and those subordinate members whose surnames appeared second and third alphabetically as work group *colleagues*. To alleviate potential selection effects, we stressed the importance of adhering to this selection rule (Shadish et al., 2002). In particular, we reassured supervisors that no individual- or group-based information would be shared (so that no advantage could be drawn from selecting particular group members) and declared that using any other selection criteria (e.g., group members' tenure) may bias the study findings. After supervisors had registered the focal employee and the two work group colleagues for study participation, we sent each of them an individualized link to an online questionnaire. This individualized link contained a code number which later allowed us to match the respective work group units.[1]

Focal employees responded to questions assessing their use of self-promotion, their self-promotion climate perception within the work group, perceived work group atmosphere, and several control variables (see below). The two work group *colleagues* were likewise asked to report their self-promotion climate perceptions within the work group, their perceived work group atmosphere, and a number of demographics (see below). Finally, supervisors rated their focal employee's job performance and promotability, the performance of the entire work group, and several demographics (see below).

3.2 | Sample

In total, 254 work group units (i.e., 1,016 individuals) registered for study participation. Of these, 220 work group units completed study participation (i.e., 34 work group units were removed due to incomplete data). In addition, 25 work group units were excluded after we ran plausibility checks to ensure the quality of the data. More precisely, we asked focal employees and their supervisors to report focal employees' gender and group size to ensure a match of the reported information. If the information regarding gender and group size as reported by focal employees and supervisors did not match, we deleted the entire work group from the dataset. Thus, the final sample consisted of 195 work group units (i.e., 780 individuals) who provided usable data, yielding an overall response rate of 76.8%. This response

rate is comparable to other studies in the field of work group climates (e.g., Myer et al., 2016; Ozcelik, 2017; Wallace et al., 2016).

The work groups in the final sample covered various industries, with the majority operating in services (33.3%), finance and assurance (17.4%), and health care and social assistance (16.4%). The majority of work groups (37.5%) were from companies with less than 50 employees or between 50 and 249 employees (29.2%); the remainder were from companies with employee counts of 1000–4999 (11.5%), 500–999 (7.8%), >5000 (7.3%), and 250–499 (6.8%). Focal employees (55.4% female) were on average 36.85 years old ($SD = 12.04$) and had been working in their work group position for 4.78 years (ranging from 1 to 27 years, $SD = 4.61$). With regard to their highest educational degree, three focal employees (1.5%) had a doctorate degree, 89 (45.6%) had a university degree, 41 (21.0%) had a higher vocational training, 12 (6.2%) had a high school degree, and 50 (25.6%) had vocational training. Work group colleagues (61.0% female) were on average 39.01 years old ($SD = 11.32$) and had been working in their work group position for 5.47 years (ranging from 1 to 35 years, $SD = 5.50$). Supervisors (34.4% female) were on average 45.92 years old ($SD = 9.95$) and had been working in their work group position for 5.59 years (ranging from 1 to 27 years, $SD = 4.95$).

3.3 | Measures

All measures were administered in German. We followed Brislin's (1980) translation/back-translation procedure to translate the measures from English to German.

3.3.1 | Focal employee's supervisor-focused self-promotion

We assessed focal employees' self-promotion directed at supervisors with the measure developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999). All four items followed the instruction phrase "Please indicate how often *you* engage in these behaviors towards your supervisor." Anchors for all items were 1 (*never*) to 5 (*often*). Because the original item wording included "people" or "others" as nonspecific self-promotion targets, we replaced these terms in all items with "supervisor" to properly capture focal employees' self-promotion directed at their supervisors. Doing so allowed us to rule out that effects of self-promotion on supervisor-rated job performance and promotability might have been biased by self-promotion carried out in the absence of supervisors (e.g., self-promotion to impress colleagues). A sample item was "Make your supervisor aware of your accomplishments". Cronbach's alpha was .80.

3.3.2 | Work group self-promotion climate

We assessed focal employees' and their colleagues' individual self-promotion climate perceptions by adapting the four self-promotion items from Bolino and Turnley (1999). Specifically, the instruction and items were worded such that the work group was the referent. In addition, given adequate within-group agreement (see aggregation of group-based constructs below), individual ratings were aggregated to form a measure of the shared self-promotion climate perception within groups. This referent shift consensus composition approach (Chan, 1998) is consistent with our definition of self-promotion as a type of organizational climate and the group-based nature of this construct. Participants were therefore instructed to indicate the extent to which self-promotion occurs in their work group as a whole using a 5-point scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *often*). A sample item was "In this work group, one makes others aware of one's own accomplishments". Cronbach's alpha for these individual ratings was .80.

3.3.3 | Work group cohesion

We assessed focal employees' and their colleagues' individual work group cohesion perceptions with three items by Jehn and Mannix (2001). Participants responded to all items on a 7-point rating scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. The items were "My work group is cohesive," "I feel like my work group has a team spirit," and "I would talk up my work group to my friends as a great group to work in." Cronbach's alpha was .85.

3.3.4 | Supervisor-rated job performance of the focal employee

Supervisor ratings of focal employees' overall work performance were assessed with five items based on the measure by Wayne and Liden (1995). Responses were made on a 7-point scale. Sample items were "How is the overall level of performance that you observe for this employee?" (1 = *unacceptable*; 7 = *outstanding*), "What is your personal view of this employee in terms of her or his overall effectiveness?" (1 = *very ineffective*; 7 = *very effective*), and "Overall, to what extent do you feel this employee has been effectively fulfilling her or his roles and responsibilities?" (1 = *not effectively at all*; 7 = *very effectively*). Cronbach's alpha was .92.

3.3.5 | Supervisor-rated promotability of the focal employee

Supervisor ratings of promotability were assessed with the two-item scale developed by De Pater et al. (2009), reflecting focal employees' potential for attaining a higher position in the future. Both items were rated on a 7-point rating scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. A sample item was "This employee has the capabilities to successfully perform in higher-level jobs". Cronbach's alpha was .77.

3.3.6 | Supervisor-rated work group performance

Supervisor ratings of work group performance were assessed with a five-item scale by Jehn et al. (1999), tapping work groups' effectiveness and efficiency. Responses were made on a 5-point scale. Sample items were "How effective is your work group?" (1 = *not effective at all*; 5 = *very effective*), "How well do you think your work group performs?" (1 = *very bad*; 5 = *very well*), and "How efficient is this work unit?" (1 = *not efficient at all*; 5 = *very efficient*). Cronbach's alpha was .82.

3.3.7 | Control variables

In line with prior research in the field of self-presentation behavior and organizational group climate (e.g., Harris et al., 2007), we controlled for focal employees' *age*, *gender*, *education*, and *group size*. In addition, we controlled for focal employees', work group colleagues', and supervisors' *group membership duration* in order to rule out the possibility that our findings can be attributed to how long a work group had been working together. More precisely, it is conceivable that supervisors, as typical targets of self-promotion attempts, might be more or less used to such behavior directed at them as a function of how long they have been supervising their work group. Moreover, given that interdependence and interaction frequency may impact influence processes within work groups (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), we additionally controlled for the *opportunity to interact in the work group* (rated by focal employees and assessed with a two-item scale by Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Cronbach's alpha = .77).

3.4 | Aggregation of group-based constructs

We aggregated focal employees' and work group colleagues' perceptions of both self-promotion climate and work group cohesion. To demonstrate the viability of our group-based measures of *self-promotion climate* and *work group cohesion*, we calculated within-group agreement ($r_{wg(j)}$) and reliability (ICC(1), ICC(2)) indices (Bliese, 2000; James et al., 1984). The median $r_{wg(j)}$ was .87 for self-promotion climate and .94 for work group cohesion.[2] These $r_{wg(j)}$ values suggest sufficient within-group agreement to justify aggregation (LeBreton & Senter, 2007). Further, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) demonstrated significantly more variance across versus within groups for both self-promotion climate ($F(194, 390) = 1.62$, $p < .001$) and work group cohesion ($F(194, 390) = 2.36$, $p < .001$). ICC(1) values were .17 for self-promotion climate and .31 for work group cohesion. Both ICC (1) values represent moderate to moderately high values (Bliese & Hanges, 2004); they were higher than the median value of .12 reported in the organizational literature (Bliese, 2000). ICC(2) values for these variables were .38 and .58. These values were comparable with those recommended for group-based constructs in the climate literature (e.g., Liao & Rupp, 2005; Salvaggio et al., 2007; Schneider et al., 1998). In sum, these analyses suggested that aggregation of both self-promotion climate and work group cohesion were justified. We therefore formed group-based measures of these variables by averaging individual scores within each work group.

3.5 | Analytic strategy

We applied multivariate path modeling to estimate the hypothesized model using Mplus 7 software (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). Specifically, supervisor-rated focal employee's job performance and promotability were regressed onto focal employee's supervisor-focused self-promotion and work group self-promotion climate. Focal employee's supervisor-focused self-promotion and work group self-promotion climate were both centered (Cohen et al., 2003), the product of which was used as the interaction term to test the moderation effect (Hypothesis 1). To test Hypotheses 2 and 3, work group cohesion was regressed on work group self-promotion climate; supervisor-rated work group performance was regressed on work group cohesion and work group self-promotion climate. In addition, we specified effects of the control variables (i.e., focal employee gender, age, education, group membership duration, supervisor group membership duration, colleague group membership duration, group size, and opportunity to interact in the work group) on work group cohesion and the three outcome variables. To examine the postulated indirect effect (Hypothesis 4), we conducted a 20 000-replication bias-corrected bootstrap procedure to obtain a 95% confidence interval (CI) of the estimated parameter, which accurately reflects the asymmetric nature of the sampling distribution of the mediation effects (Liu et al., 2012). In line with the literature on statistical mediation analysis, testing indirect effects does not require a significant predictor–outcome correlation (Hayes, 2009).

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Preliminary analyses

We conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the construct validity of all measures (i.e., focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion, work group self-promotion climate, supervisor-rated job performance, supervisor-rated promotability, work group cohesion, and supervisor-rated work group performance). A six-factor model was specified by loading items on their respective latent variables. Results showed that this six-factor model fits the data well, $\chi^2(216, N = 195) = 409.18$, $p < .01$, confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .93, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = .92, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .07, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .06. The correlations between latent factors ranged from −.19 to .53 (*Median* = .10; seven out of the 15 correlations were significant at the .05 level), thus supporting the discriminant validity of the measures. Moreover, all items significantly loaded on their respective latent factors (standardized factor loadings ranged from .59 to 1.00). We further fitted *three alternative five-factor models* and compared

TABLE 1 Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations

Variables		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1.	Focal employee gender	0.55	0.50	—														
2.	Focal employee age	36.85	12.04	−.03	—													
3.	Focal employee education	7.91	1.27	−.17*	.00	—												
4.	Focal employee group membership duration	4.78	4.61	−.07	.49**	−.08	—											
5.	Colleague 1 group membership duration	5.07	5.22	.07	.04	−.07	.12	—										
6.	Colleague 2 group membership duration	5.87	5.75	−.06	.14	.03	.27**	.08										
7.	Supervisor group membership duration	5.59	4.95	.04	.17*	−.09	.35**	.39**	.09	—								
8.	Group size	7.56	5.11	−.08	−.03	.05	.10	.01	.00	.03	—							
9.	Interaction opportunity in work group	4.76	0.49	−.12	−.02	.07	.04	−.07	−.02	−.04	−.07	(.77)						
10.	Focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion	2.61	0.95	−.09	−.23**	.10	−.10	.00	−.09	−.17*	.09	.00	(.89)					
11.	Work group self-promotion climate	2.52	0.54	−.05	−.17*	.05	−.10	−.08	−.03	−.17*	.05	−.03	.46**	(.80)				
12.	Work group cohesion	5.42	0.85	.04	.10	.03	.05	−.13	−.09	−.12	−.09	−.32**	−.04	−.16*	(.85)			
13.	Supervisor-rated focal employee job performance	6.05	0.68	.14	−.01	.01	.03	.06	−.01	−.07	.03	.14*	.09	−.10	.28**	(.92)		
14.	Supervisor-rated focal employee promotability	5.05	1.38	−.13	−.53**	.12	−.32**	−.11	−.09	−.15*	.02	.02	.23**	.13	.07	.38**	(.77)	
15.	Supervisor-rated work group performance	4.26	0.47	.12	.11	−.04	.06	.01	−.18*	.06	−.09	.12	−.08	−.11	.35**	.42**	.06	(.82)

Note: $N = 195$. Alpha reliabilities appear in the parentheses along diagonal. For gender, male = 0, female = 1.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

them with the six-factor model. The *first five-factor model* was specified by loading items of employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and work group self-promotion climate (i.e., all self-promotion-related items) onto the same latent factor. This five-factor model, $\chi^2(221, N = 195) = 720.05$, $p < .01$, CFI = .83, TLI = .81, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .09, fitted the data significantly worse than the six-factor model $\Delta\chi^2(5, N = 195) = 310.87$, $p < .01$. The *second five-factor model* was specified by loading items of work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion (i.e., all group-related items) onto the same factor. This five-factor model, $\chi^2(221, N = 195) = 967.75$, $p < .01$, CFI = .74, TLI = .71, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .12, also yielded a significantly worse fit than the six-factor model, $\Delta\chi^2(5, N = 195) = 558.57$, $p < .01$. *The third five-factor model* was specified by loading items of supervisor-rated job performance and promotability (i.e., all supervisor-rated items of focal employees) onto the same latent factor. This five-factor model, $\chi^2(221, N = 195) = 974.04$, $p < .01$, CFI = .74, TLI = .70, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .14, also yielded a significantly worse fit than the six-factor model, $\Delta\chi^2(5, N = 195) = 564.86$, $p < .01$. In sum, model comparison results showed that the measures used in the current study did indeed capture distinct constructs. Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of the study variables and the control variables are displayed in Table 1.

4.2 | Hypothesis testing

Unstandardized coefficient estimates for the estimated path model are displayed in Table 2. The key findings are also summarized in Figure 2. Table 2 shows the R^2 of the mediators and outcomes: predictors included in our model explained 11.2% of the variance in supervisor-rated focal employee job performance, 34.4% of the variance in supervisor-rated focal employee promotability, 16.1% of the variance in work group cohesion, and 15.3% of the variance in supervisor-rated work group performance. Thus, our results demonstrated that a sizable portion of variance was explained in supervisor-rated promotability. The variances explained in work group cohesion and the performance-based outcomes (i.e., supervisor-rated individual job performance and work group performance) appeared somewhat more modest, ranging from 11% to 16%. Yet these numbers translate

TABLE 2 Unstandardized coefficients of the moderated path model

	Supervisor-rated focal employee job performance		Supervisor-rated focal employee promotability		Work group cohesion		Supervisor-rated work group performance	
Variables	**Estimate**	***SE***	**Estimate**	***SE***	**Estimate**	***SE***	**Estimate**	***SE***
Intercept	6.09**	.05	5.12**	.09	5.43**	.06	3.58**	.21
Control variables								
Focal employee gender	0.19*	.09	−0.37*	.17				
Focal employee age	0.00	.00	−0.06**	.01				
Focal employee education	0.01	.04	0.08	.07				
Focal employee group membership duration	0.01	.01	−0.02	.02	0.02	.01	0.01	.01
Colleague 1 group membership duration	0.01	.01	−0.02	.02	−0.01	.01	0.00	.01
Colleague 2 group membership duration	0.00	.01	0.00	.02	−0.02	.01	−0.02**	.01
Supervisor group membership duration	−0.01	.01	0.01	.02	−0.03*	.01	0.01	.01
Group size	0.01	.01	0.00	.02	−0.01	.01	−0.01	.01
Interaction opportunity in work group	0.23*	.10	0.01	.17	0.51**	.12	0.03	.07
Independent variables								
Focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion	0.13*	.05	0.19	.10				
Work group self-promotion climate	−0.21*	.10	−0.04	.17	−0.27*	.11	−0.04	.06
Interaction								
Focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion × work group self-promotion climate	−0.17*	.08	−0.32*	.14				
Mediator								
Work group cohesion							0.13**	.04
Residual variances	0.41**	.04	1.24**	.13	0.60**	.06	0.19**	.02
R^2	11.2%		34.4%		16.1%		15.3%	

Note: $N = 195$.
Abbreviation: *SE*, standard error.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

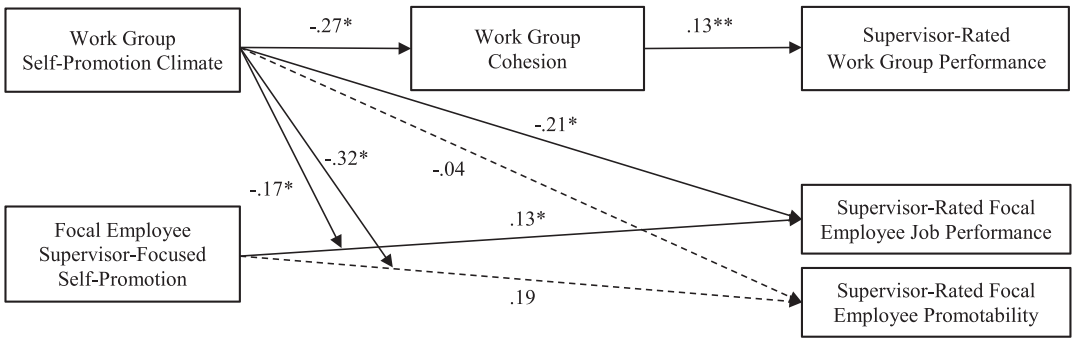
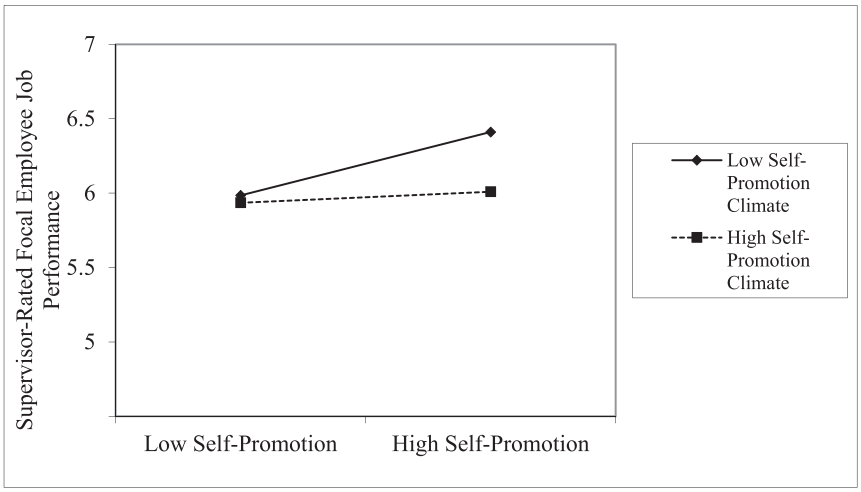


FIGURE 2 Unstandardized estimates of path coefficients. Effects of the control variables (i.e., focal employee gender, age, education, group membership duration, supervisor group membership duration, colleague group membership duration, group size, and opportunity to interact in the work group) and the direct effect between self-promotion climate and supervisor-rated work group performance are not included for the purpose of clarity (for estimates of these variables, please see Table 2). Solid lines are statistically significant, whereas dashed lines are not.
*p < .05; **p < .01

FIGURE 3 Work group self-promotion climate moderates the relationship between focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and supervisor-rated focal employee job performance



into medium effect sizes according to Cohen (1988; i.e., Cohen's f^2 of .12–.19), thus suggesting that our performance-based findings are not only statistically significant, but also practically meaningful (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). Moreover, the sizes of explained variance further correspond to earlier studies in the field of self-promotion and specific work group climates (e.g., Den Hartog et al., 2018; Frazier & Bowler, 2015).

Regarding Hypotheses 1a and 1b, as shown in Table 2 and Figure 2, the interaction of focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion × work group self-promotion climate was significant for both supervisor-rated focal employee job performance ($\gamma = -.17$, p < .05) and focal employee promotability ($\gamma = -.32$, p < .05). Following Cohen et al.'s (2003) recommendations, we plotted both interactions at conditional values of work group self-promotion climate (1 *SD* above and below the mean). These interactions are shown in Figure 3 (for supervisor-rated focal employee job performance) and Figure 4 (for supervisor-rated focal employee promotability). Simple slopes analyses revealed that the relationships between focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and both outcomes were positive when work group self-promotion climate was low (for supervisor-rated focal employee job performance: $\gamma = .23$, p < .01; for supervisor-rated focal employee promotability: $\gamma = .36$, p < .01) and nonsignificant when work group self-promotion climate was high (for supervisor-rated focal employee job performance: $\gamma = .04$, *ns*; for supervisor-rated focal employee promotability: $\gamma = .01$, *ns*). The difference between the simple slopes at high and low self-promotion climate was significant for both supervisor-rated focal employee job performance ($\gamma = -.19$, p < .05) and focal employee promotability ($\gamma = -.35$, p < .05). Given that the relationships between focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and both outcomes were positive only when self-promotion climate was low (vs. nonsignificant when self-promotion climate was high), Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported.

Regarding the relationships among work group self-promotion climate, work group cohesion, and supervisor-rated work group performance (Hypotheses 2–4), results showed that work group self-promotion climate was negatively related to work group cohesion ($\gamma = -.27$, p < .05), thus supporting Hypothesis 2.[3] In turn, work group

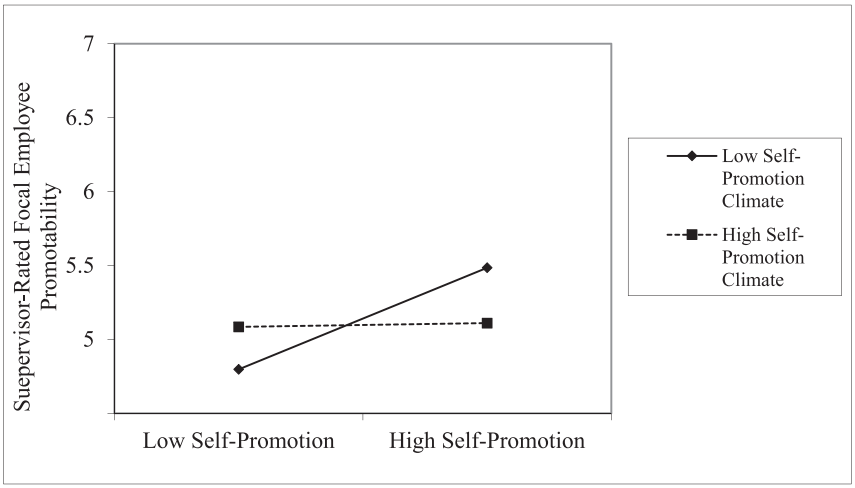


FIGURE 4 Work group self-promotion climate moderates the relationship between focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and supervisor-rated focal employee promotability

cohesion was positively related to supervisor-rated work group performance ($\gamma = .13$, $p < .01$), thus supporting Hypothesis 3. Furthermore, the results showed a significant indirect effect of work group self-promotion climate on supervisor-rated work group performance via work group cohesion (95% CI = [−.074, −.009]); thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.[4,5,6]

5 | DISCUSSION

In working life, individuals often engage in self-promotion to assert themselves and to achieve desired individual work outcomes. At the same time, organizations increasingly rely on the use and effective functioning of work groups (Bolino et al., 2016; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Supporting our predictions, this study demonstrates that self-promotion climate in work groups not only moderates an individual's supervisor-focused self-promotion effectiveness but also negatively relates to work group outcomes. In particular, we found that an individual employee's use of self-promotion toward their supervisor was positively related to supervisor ratings of job performance and promotability when the self-promotion climate in the work group was low and unrelated to the outcomes when the self-promotion climate was high. Furthermore, a high self-promotion climate in work groups was associated with a lower work group cohesion and, in turn, with a lower supervisor-rated work group performance.

As mentioned above, we found support for the proposed interaction effects of focal employee supervisor-focused self-promotion × work group self-promotion climate on both supervisor-rated job performance and promotability. Yet the plots looked slightly different for the two outcomes. Whereas self-promotion climate exhibited an additional negative main effect on supervisor-rated job performance, there was no main effect of self-promotion climate on supervisor-rated promotability (see Table 2 and Figures 3 and 4). That is, supervisors rated individuals' job performance, but not individuals' promotability, to be higher on average in low (vs. high) self-promotion climate groups. This might be because supervisor ratings of individual job performance are typically less allocative than supervisor ratings of individual promotability (Higgins et al., 2003). As such, on the one hand, supervisor-rated individual job performance may be higher in low (vs. high) self-promotion climate groups (e.g., because experiencing a high self-promotion climate may be emotionally exhausting for individuals, such that they are less motivated at work; Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Vohs et al., 2005; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). On the other hand, supervisor promotability ratings may have been on average at the same level in low versus high self-promotion climate groups because promotion opportunities, in contrast to job performance ratings, are typically limited (e.g., a limited number of open positions at a higher hierarchical level) (Higgins et al., 2003). Indeed, in line with this reasoning, research suggests that supervisors who rate their employees' promotability tend to account for employees' actual chances of qualifying for a higher position in the organizational hierarchy (e.g., Breaugh, 2011; Higgins et al., 2003). Future research may further examine the above explanation and the differing main effects of self-promotion climate on the two individual work outcomes that we found.

5.1 | Theoretical implications

The present findings offer several theoretical implications. First, the present study links the literatures on self-promotion and climate by introducing the construct of self-promotion climate. In particular, while past research has mainly focused on self-promotion at work from an individual perspective (Bolino et al., 2008; Ferris et al., 2017), we offer insights from a climate-based view on self-promotion by theorizing and demonstrating that shared climate perceptions for self-promotion have a relevant meaning and function in work groups. As such, our findings show that it is important to recognize the relationships that exist between focal individuals using self-promotion and the social environment at work. Thus, a climate-based view on self-promotion enables a more inclusive view of the ways that self-promotion can be perceived and experienced at work, which

complements existing theory on self-promotion as a process that primarily unfolds between individual self-promotion actors and targets (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

Second, by identifying self-promotion climate as a critical environmental moderator of self-promotion effectiveness, this study addresses repeated claims that the social context matters for how employee self-promotion relates to others' reactions (Ferris et al., 2002; Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Goffman, 1959). Given that prior research has typically focused on person-related moderators, this study adds to a more comprehensive understanding of the multiple factors that interact with employee self-promotion (e.g., Harris et al., 2007; Klotz et al., 2018; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Moreover, while moderator studies (including ours) have typically refrained from positing a generally positive main effect of self-promotion on work outcomes, we found in our sample of individuals employed in heterogeneous jobs and industries that the use of self-promotion has a positive main effect on supervisor-rated job performance. Thus, our findings somewhat challenge the existing view on self-promotion as a tricky business (Bolino et al., 2016). In addition, these results stress the importance of clearly differentiating the different work outcomes of self-promotion. In particular, our findings suggest that self-promotion, per se used to be seen as capable (Jones & Pittman, 1982), may be conceptually closer to performance ratings—as compared to promotability ratings that depend on a number of factors apart from being viewed as capable in the current position (e.g., actual promotion opportunities in the organization, personal fit to actual promotion opportunities, and age) (Higgins et al., 2003). Relatedly, our findings suggest that a high self-promotion climate makes specifically supervisors, as key targets of self-promotion, less susceptible to self-promotion attempts because of the high frequency of such attempts specifically directed at them. Thus, our findings contribute to the literature on self-promotion more broadly (Bolino et al., 2008) by likewise highlighting how important it is to differentiate targets of self-promotion when predicting their reactions to such behavior.

Third, our study extends theory on self-promotion regarding whether and how such behavior is relevant for work groups as a whole. As noted by Bolino et al. (2016), it has thus far been unclear whether the use of self-promotion is functional, dysfunctional, or largely irrelevant with regard to broader organizational outcomes, beyond individual work outcomes. Accordingly, our theorizing and findings offer important insights suggesting that a prevailing self-promotion climate has critical group-based implications for at least two reasons. First, the negative relationship between self-promotion climate and work group cohesion suggests that self-promotion does matter for groups as a whole, not only because cohesion is a key proxy for work group performance (e.g., Beal et al., 2003) but also because cohesion is a core affective component of group functioning that reflects the degree to which a group sticks together and operates in synergistic ways (Barrick et al., 1998; Harrison et al., 1998). As such, a high work group cohesion is desirable for individuals and organizations alike and has also been treated as a primary outcome in previous research (e.g., Harrison et al., 1998; Stoverink et al., 2014). Second, the indirect self-promotion climate–work group performance link aligns with both our theorizing and prior research in the context of individual self-promotion that has often revealed a nonsignificant correlation between individual self-promotion and job performance ratings (Den Hartog et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2007). Thus, our group-based findings add to existing individual-based perspectives on self-promotion, which likewise suggest a link between self-promotion and performance ratings that is rather complex in nature and likely characterized by various mediator and/or moderator variables (Bolino et al., 2016). More specifically, our finding regarding the mediating role of work group cohesion helps explain part of this complexity, such that the link between self-promotion climate and supervisor-rated work group performance becomes evident.

5.2 | Practical implications

There are at least two practical implications that follow from our research. First, work group members may benefit from knowing that self-promotion attempts, such as making supervisors aware of one's own capabilities and accomplishments, may have better odds of success in a work environment characterized by a lower self-promotion climate. In particular, when group members perceive a high self-promotion climate, it may be useful for them to take these climate-based cues into consideration and realize that the use of self-promotion toward their supervisor may be largely ineffective (at least in improving supervisor ratings of their performance and promotability). Likewise, supervisors should be aware of the possibility that they may respond to self-promotion attempts differently depending on the prevailing self-promotion climate. More specifically, supervisors may benefit from knowing that they may be more susceptible to self-promotion attempts when the self-promotion climate is low (rather than high). This may then impact how they judge their employees' performance and promotability.

Second, organizations and supervisors should be aware of the potentially negative consequences that a high self-promotion climate may have for work groups (in terms of cohesiveness and performance). In addition, the insights resulting from our study would also be relevant for HR specialists. More specifically, because organizational climates result in part from HR practices (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Schneider et al., 2017), HR specialists may contribute to a lower self-promotion climate by promoting a reward structure that is objective and results oriented, instead of subjective and behavior-oriented (see e.g., Delery & Doty, 1996). Such a reward structure may potentially limit (at least to some extent) self-promotion instrumentality and usage in work groups.

5.3 | Limitations and directions for future research

First, our measures of work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion stemmed from the same sources, thus rendering some findings prone to common method bias. However, in our design, we aggregated multiple ratings of the self-promotion climate and

cohesion in work groups and incorporated supervisor ratings of individual job performance, promotability, and work group performance, all of which aimed to alleviate this risk to some extent (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition, the presence of a significant interaction effect between focal employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion and work group self-promotion climate further suggests that common method bias is less likely to be a concern for the current research (Holland, 1986). However, we still encourage future research to cross-validate our findings with additional other-rated measures of self-promotion climate or cohesion in work groups (e.g., additional supervisor ratings).

Second, the present study design limits causal inferences. However, as mentioned in the theory section, previous results from experimental research on the effects of individual self-promotion behavior on others' ratings provide support for the proposed direction of causality (e.g., Bolino et al., 2014; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Moreover, we were able to further support the proposed causal direction between work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion in an additional experimental study (see Appendix A for details). Further, there are also longstanding theoretical arguments that position work group cohesion as a key group process variable in shaping work group performance (e.g., Evans & Dion, 1991). Yet we encourage future research to further examine these relationships on a longitudinal basis.

This study offers several avenues for future research. First, future research may consider additional factors that interact with self-promotion at work. In particular, it may be fruitful to jointly study environmental and person-related moderator variables. Such an approach may help us better understand the relative importance and interplay of different moderator variables. For example, given that prior research shows that employees with certain interpersonal abilities such as political skill (Harris et al., 2007) and self-monitoring (Turnley & Bolino, 2001) use self-promotion more successfully, it is conceivable that the self-promotion attempts of employees low in such interpersonal abilities might not provoke a positive reaction from supervisors even when self-promotion climate is low. Second, while we focused on supervisors as key targets of self-promotion attempts, future research may also consider coworkers' reactions to individual self-promotion attempts. To better understand coworkers' reactions, it appears worthwhile to further differentiate the specific target of self-promotion (Maher et al., 2018). In particular, coworkers might react very differently depending on whether an individual's self-promotion is specifically directed toward them (i.e., coworkers as targets of self-promotion) versus toward relevant others such as supervisors (i.e., coworkers as bystanders in the presence of relevant others) (Bolino et al., 2008). For example, assuming a certain level of competition among employees to get ahead, coworkers might react more negatively in the latter bystander role in which an individual's self-promotion behavior aims to impress the supervisor.

Third, future research may examine antecedents of self-promotion climate in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of this construct. For example, as previously mentioned, supervisors are often preferred self-promotion targets (Bolino et al., 2008). Yet supervisors are likely to also play a key role as "climate engineers" (e.g., Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Mayer et al., 2007), such that they shape the self-promotion climate within their work groups through their own enactment of self-promotion. More precisely, it is likely that by engaging in self-promotion, supervisors act as role models (Bandura & Walters, 1977) and set a certain standard within their work groups in terms of the level of self-promotion that is common practice (Mawritz et al., 2012). Moreover, it is also likely that supervisors' self-promotion alters how they perceive and evaluate focal employees' self-promotion. In addition, a work group's self-promotion climate might also be influenced by organizational characteristics. For example, it is conceivable that the extent to which a clan culture (characterized by a fraternal relationship between the individual and the organization that rests on mutual interests) versus a market culture (characterized by a contractual relationship that rests on self-interest) (Kerr & Slocum, 2005) prevails within an organization affects the prevalence of self-promotion climate. More precisely, based on self-promotion's self-serving nature (Jones & Pittman, 1982), one may speculate that a culture in which self-interest and contractual relationships are valued (i.e., a market culture) leads to a higher self-promotion climate, compared to a culture in which mutual interest and loyalty is valued (i.e., a clan culture).

Fourth, future research may explore the possibility that self-promotion climate might also be perceived as an injunctive norm. Although we examined self-promotion climate as a descriptive norm due to theoretical reasons and to be consistent with the existing climate literature that focuses on questionable organizational behaviors (e.g., Mawritz et al., 2014; Priesemuth et al., 2014), future research may explore whether employees also hold shared perceptions of the extent to which self-promotion is at least *informally* accepted or encouraged by supervisors and the organization. Future research may also examine whether shared climate perceptions of descriptive and (implicit) injunctive norms regarding self-promotion may coexist and perhaps even positively correlate. Indeed, one might speculate that when self-promotion occurs often (denoting descriptive norms), it might also be perceived as seemingly accepted (denoting injunctive norms). As such, future research may further explore whether our moderator findings can be generalized to injunctive norms regarding self-promotion—that is, whether self-promotion that is collectively viewed as highly accepted in certain work contexts would in fact be ineffective in those contexts.

Fifth, future research may also delve more deeply into the potential differential effects of self-promotion climate in work groups. For example, whereas the present study indicates that a high self-promotion climate lowers work group cohesion, it is conceivable that shared climate perceptions affect individuals' work-related attitudes and behaviors as well (e.g., Lin & Leung, 2014; Morrison et al., 2011). Thus, examining how self-promotion climate may shape relevant attitudes and behaviors of employees (e.g., job satisfaction, intention to leave, or actual turnover) could be critical to further our understanding of self-promotion climate.

Moreover, in light of the negative relationship between self-promotion climate and work group outcomes, it is also important to

identify moderators that can help to buffer this relationship. In particular, given that multiple specific climates can occur at the same time and can interactively affect work outcomes (e.g., Myer et al., 2016), there might be situations in which a high self-promotion climate is less of a concern. For example, it is conceivable that a high interpersonal and/or procedural justice climate (i.e., the shared perception of how fairly the work group is treated interpersonally and in terms of decision-making procedures; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Naumann & Bennett, 2000) alleviates the negative outcomes of self-promotion climate. As such, when interpersonal and/or procedural justice climate are high, group members collectively perceive their group to be treated fairly. In this case, the shared perception of people being concerned with promoting themselves may be less threatening to group members, thus making negative consequences for work group functioning less likely.

6 | CONCLUSION

The present study illustrates how self-promotion climate within work groups can not only lower the effectiveness of employees' self-promotive behaviors toward their supervisors but also diminish work group cohesion and supervisor-rated work group performance. In doing so, this research unites the literatures on self-promotion and climate, thus arriving at a more integrated understanding of self-promotion in work groups for both individuals and the work group as a whole.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Vicente González-Romá for his valuable comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. We would also like to thank Associate Editor Violet Ho and three anonymous reviewers for their insightful and constructive comments through the review process. Open Access Funding provided by Universitat Zurich.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data available on request from the authors.

ORCID

Christian Gross https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3666-412X
Maike E. Debus https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1040-540X
Pia V. Ingold https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6121-4227
Martin Kleinmann https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0939-1349

ENDNOTES

[1] We followed various recommendations to ensure data quality (e.g., Porter et al., 2018). More precisely, (a) we informed participants that study participation was voluntary, (b) we assured participants that all surveys would be anonymized, (c) we clarified that the summary of study findings would contain no individual- or group-specific information nor other identifiers, (d) we encouraged supervisors to allow their subordinates to fill out the survey during working hours, and (e) we gave participants the option to have their data removed upon questionnaire completion.

[2] To compute $r_{wg(j)}$, we used a rectangular null distribution (James et al., 1984). For the 15 groups with out-of-range values (<0 or >1), we set $r_{wg(j)}$ to zero before computing an average (LeBreton & Senter, 2007; Lindell & Brandt, 2000).

[3] We conducted an experimental study that further supported the proposed causal direction between work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion (see Appendix A for more details). We thank an anonymous reviewer for this valuable suggestion.

[4] To test the robustness of our findings, we reran the model without any control variables. The results did not change and can be obtained from the authors.

[5] To demonstrate that self-promotion climate explains incremental variance over and above *perceived organizational politics* as another contextual perception construct that has been shown to moderate the self-promotion–outcome link (Zivnuska et al., 2004), we reran the model including perceived organizational politics (measured with the six-item scale from Hochwarter et al., 2003) as an additional moderator of the relationship between individual employee supervisor-focused self-promotion and supervisor-rated employee job performance and promotability. Results did not change and can be requested from the authors.

[6] While the relationships between all our study variables regarding the focal employee and the entire work group performance occur at a single level (i.e., between groups and focal employees, respectively), the effect of work group self-promotion climate on work group cohesion can occur at two levels: between groups (i.e., our hypothesized effect) and within groups (due to the multiple ratings from the focal employee and the work group colleagues that are available for these work group constructs). Thus, to account for the effects on both levels in predicting work group cohesion (Antonakis et al., 2021; Preacher et al., 2010), we reran our model by applying multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM; Lüdtke et al., 2008). In contrast to traditional multilevel modeling, MSEM enables a simultaneous testing of a multivariate model including between-level outcomes such as in the case of all our supervisor-rated outcome variables (e.g., Preacher et al., 2010). When testing our model with this multilevel approach, the results did not change and can be obtained from the authors.

REFERENCES

Antonakis, J., Bastardoz, N., & Rönkkö, M. (2021). On ignoring the random effects assumption in multilevel models: Review, critique, and recommendations. *Organizational Research Methods*, *24*, 443–483. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428119877457

Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Barrick, M. R., Shaffer, J. A., & DeGrassi, S. W. (2009). What you see may not be what you get: Relationships among self-presentation tactics and ratings of interview and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 1394–1411. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016532

Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., Neubert, M. J., & Mount, M. K. (1998). Relating member ability and personality to work-team processes and team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*, 377–391. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.377

Beal, D. J., Cohen, R. R., Burke, M. J., & McLendon, C. L. (2003). Cohesion and performance in groups: A meta-analytic clarification of construct relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 989–1004. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.6.989

Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349–381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bliese, P. D., & Hanges, P. J. (2004). Being both too liberal and too conservative: The perils of treating grouped data as though they were

independent. *Organizational Research Methods*, *7*, 400–417. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428104268542

Bolino, M. C., Kacmar, K. M., Turnley, W. H., & Gilstrap, J. B. (2008). A multi-level review of impression management motives and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *34*, 1080–1109. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308324325

Bolino, M. C., Klotz, A. C., & Daniels, D. (2014). The impact of impression management over time. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *29*, 266–284. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-10-2012-0290

Bolino, M. C., Long, D., & Turnley, W. H. (2016). Impression management in organizations: Critical questions, answers, and areas for future research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *3*, 377–406. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062337

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: A scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. *Organizational Research Methods*, *2*, 187–206. https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819922005

Bolino, M. C., Varela, J. A., Bande, B., & Turnley, W. H. (2006). The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*, 281–297. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.379

Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, *29*, 203–221. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2004.12736076

Breaugh, J. A. (2011). Modeling the managerial promotion process. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *26*, 264–277. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941111124818

Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology* (Vol. 2) (pp. 349–444). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Brown, S. P., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. W. Jr. (1998). Effects of trait competitiveness and perceived intraorganizational competition on salesperson goal setting and performance. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*, 88–98. https://doi.org/10.2307/1252289

Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*, 234–246. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.234

Cialdini, R. B., Reno, R. R., & Kallgren, C. A. (1990). A focus theory of normative conduct: Recycling the concept of norms to reduce littering in public places. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *58*, 1015–1026. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.58.6.1015

Cialdini, R. B., & Trost, M. R. (1998). Social influence: Social norms, conformity and compliance. In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 151–192). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

De Pater, I. E., Van Vianen, A. E., Bechtoldt, M. N., & Klehe, U. C. (2009). Employees' challenging job experiences and supervisors' evaluations of promotability. *Personnel Psychology*, *62*, 297–325. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2009.01139.x

Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*, 802–835. https://doi.org/10.2307/256713

Den Hartog, D. N., De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Belschak, F. D. (2018). Toot your own horn? Leader narcissism and the effectiveness of employee self-promotion. *Journal of Management*, *46*, 261–286. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318785240

Evans, C. R., & Dion, K. L. (1991). Group cohesion and performance: A meta-analysis. *Small Group Research*, *22*, 175–186. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496491222002

Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Douglas, C., Blass, F. R., Kolodinsky, R. W., & Treadway, D. C. (2002). Social influence processes in organizations and human resources systems. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *21*, 65–127. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(02)21002-6

Ferris, G. R., Judge, T. A., Rowland, K. M., & Fitzgibbons, D. E. (1994). Subordinate influence and the performance evaluation process: Test of a model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *58*, 101–135. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1994.1030

Ferris, G. R., Perrewé, P. L., Daniels, S. R., Lawong, D., & Holmes, J. J. (2017). Social influence and politics in organizational research: What we know and what we need to know. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *24*, 5–19. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051816656003

Frazier, M. L., & Bowler, W. M. (2015). Voice climate, supervisor undermining, and work outcomes: A group-level examination. *Journal of Management*, *41*, 841–863. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311434533

Gardner, W. L., & Martinko, M. J. (1988). Impression management in organizations. *Journal of Management*, *14*, 321–338. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920638801400210

George, J. M. (1990). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*, 107–116. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.2.107

Glick, W. H. (1985). Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*, 601–616. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4279045

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Doubleday.

Grant, A. M., & Patil, S. V. (2012). Challenging the norm of self-interest: Minority influence and transitions to helping norms in work units. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*, 547–568. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0437

Gross, C., Debus, M. E., Liu, Y., Wang, M., & Kleinmann, M. (2020). I am nice and capable! How and when newcomers' self-presentation to their supervisors affects socialization outcomes *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000817

Halbesleben, J. R., & Bowler, W. M. (2007). Emotional exhaustion and job performance: The mediating role of motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 93–106. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.93

Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., Zivnuska, S., & Shaw, J. D. (2007). The impact of political skill on impression management effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 278–285. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.278

Harrison, D. A., Price, K. H., & Bell, M. P. (1998). Beyond relational demography: Time and the effects of surface- and deep-level diversity on work group cohesion. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*, 96–107. https://doi.org/10.2307/256901

Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs*, *76*, 408–420. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637750903310360

Higgins, C. A., Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2003). Influence tactics and work outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*, 89–106. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.181

Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C., Perrewé, P. L., & Johnson, D. (2003). Perceived organizational support as a mediator of the relationship between politics perceptions and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*, 438–456. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00048-9

Hoegl, M., & Gemuenden, H. G. (2001). Teamwork quality and the success of innovative projects: A theoretical concept and empirical evidence. *Organization Science*, *12*, 435–449. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.12.4.435.10635

Holland, P. W. (1986). Statistics and causal inference. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *81*, 945–960. https://doi.org/10.2307/2289064

James, L. R., Choi, C. C., Ko, C.-H. E., McNeil, P. K., Minton, M. K., Wright, M. A., & Kim, K.-I. (2008). Organizational and psychological climate: A review of theory and research. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *17*, 5–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320701662550

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*, 85–98. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.1.85

Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 238–251. https://doi.org/10.5465/3069453

Jehn, K. A., Northcraft, G. B., & Neale, M. A. (1999). Why differences make a difference: A field study of diversity, conflict and performance in workgroups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*, 741–763. https://doi.org/10.2307/2667054

Jones, E. E., & Pittman, T. S. (1982). Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (Vol. 1) (pp. 231–262). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1994). Political influence behavior and career success. *Journal of Management*, *20*, 43–65. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639402000103

Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D. S., & Bratton, V. K. (2004). Situational and dispositional factors as antecedents of ingratiatory behaviors in organizational settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*, 309–331. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2003.09.002

Kerr, J., & Slocum, J. W. (2005). Managing corporate culture through reward systems. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *19*, 130–138. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2005.19417915

Klotz, A. C., He, W., Yam, K. C., Bolino, M. C., Wei, W., & Houston, L. III (2018). Good actors but bad apples: Deviant consequences of daily impression management at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *103*, 1145–1154. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000335

Kostopoulos, K. C., Spanos, Y. E., & Prastacos, G. P. (2013). Structure and function of team learning emergence: A multilevel empirical validation. *Journal of Management*, *39*, 1430–1461. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311419366

Kozlowski, S. W., & Bell, B. S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology* (Vol. 12). Industrial and Organizational Psychology. (pp. 333–375). New York: Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/0471264385.wei1214

Kozlowski, S. W., & Ilgen, D. R. (2006). Enhancing the effectiveness of work groups and teams. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *7*, 77–124. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1529-1006.2006.00030.x

Kuenzi, M., & Schminke, M. (2009). Assembling fragments into a lens: A review, critique, and proposed research agenda for the organizational work climate literature. *Journal of Management*, *35*, 634–717. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308330559

Leary, M. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. *Psychological Bulletin*, *107*, 34–47. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.107.1.34

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. (2007). Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods*, *11*, 815–852. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106296642

Li, N., Chiaburu, D. S., & Kirkman, B. L. (2017). Cross-level influences of empowering leadership on citizenship behavior: Organizational support climate as a double-edged sword. *Journal of Management*, *43*, 1076–1102. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314546193

Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. (2005). The impact of justice climate and justice orientation on work outcomes: A cross-level multifoci framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*, 242–256. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.242

Lin, X., & Leung, K. (2014). What signals does procedural justice climate convey? The roles of group status, and organizational benevolence and integrity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*, 464–488. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1899

Lindell, M. K., & Brandt, C. J. (2000). Climate quality and climate consensus as mediators of the relationship between organizational antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 331–348. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.3.331

Liu, D., Zhang, Z., & Wang, M. (2012). Mono-level and multilevel mediated moderation and moderated mediation: Theorizing and test. In X. Chen, A. Tsui, & L. Farh (Eds.), *Empirical methods in organization and management research* (2nd ed.). Beijing, China: Peking University Press.

Lüdtke, O., Marsh, H. W., Robitzsch, A., Trautwein, U., Asparouhov, T., & Muthén, B. (2008). The multilevel latent covariate model: A new, more reliable approach to group-level effects in contextual studies. *Psychological Methods*, *13*, 203–229. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012869

Lvina, E., Johns, G., & Vandenberghe, C. (2015). Team political skill composition as a determinant of team cohesiveness and performance. *Journal of Management*, *44*, 1001–1028. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315598371

Maher, L. P., Gallagher, V. C., Rossi, A. M., Ferris, G. R., & Perrewé, P. L. (2018). Political skill and will as predictors of impression management frequency and style: A three-study investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *107*, 276–294. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.05.004

Mathieu, J., Maynard, M. T., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997-2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, *34*, 410–476. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308316061

Mawritz, M. B., Dust, S. B., & Resick, C. J. (2014). Hostile climate, abusive supervision, and employee coping: Does conscientiousness matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*, 737–747. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035863

Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Marinova, S. V. (2012). A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, *65*, 325–357. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2012.01246.x

Mayer, D. M., Nishii, L., Schneider, B., & Goldstein, H. (2007). The precursors and products of justice climates: Group leader antecedents and employee attitudinal consequences. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*, 929–963. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00096.x

Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: A cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*, 183–191. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020744

Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, *115*, 210–227. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.115.2.210

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (1998–2015). *Mplus user's guide* (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.

Myer, A. T., Thoroughgood, C. N., & Mohammed, S. (2016). Complementary or competing climates? Examining the interactive effect of service and ethical climates on company-level financial performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*, 1178–1190. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000119

Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2000). A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*, 881–889. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556416

Ozcelik, H. (2017). Exploring the activation dimension of affect in organizations: A focus on trait-level activation, climate-level activation, and

work-related outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*, 351–371. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2127

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Porter, C. O. L. H., Outlaw, R., Gale, J. P., & Cho, T. S. (2018). The use of online panel data in management research: A review and recommendations. *Journal of Management*, *45*, 319–344. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318811569

Preacher, K. J., & Kelley, K. (2011). Effect size measures for mediation models: Quantitative strategies for communicating indirect effects. *Psychological Methods*, *16*, 93–115. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022658

Preacher, K. J., Zyphur, M. J., & Zhang, Z. (2010). A general multilevel SEM framework for assessing multilevel mediation. *Psychological Methods*, *15*, 209–233. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020141

Priesemuth, M., Schminke, M., Ambrose, M. L., & Folger, R. (2014). Abusive supervision climate: A multiple-mediation model of its impact on group outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*, 1513–1534. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0237

Raver, J. L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2005). Beyond the individual victim: Linking sexual harassment, team processes, and team performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*, 387–400. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2005.17407904

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *23*, 224–253. https://doi.org/10.2307/2392563

Salvaggio, A. N., Schneider, B., Nishii, L. H., Mayer, D. M., Ramesh, A., & Lyon, J. S. (2007). Manager personality, manager service quality orientation, and service climate: Test of a model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 1741–1750. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1741

Schein, E. H. (1996). Culture: The missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *41*, 229–240. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393715

Schneider, B. (1975). Organizational climates: An essay. *Personnel Psychology*, *28*, 447–479. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1975.tb01386.x

Schneider, B. (1978). Person-situation selection: A review of some ability-situation interaction research. *Personnel Psychology*, *31*, 281–297. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1978.tb00447.x

Schneider, B. (1990). *Organizational climate and culture*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., & Macey, W. H. (2013). Organizational climate and culture. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *64*, 361–388. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-113011-143809

Schneider, B., González-Romá, V., Ostroff, C., & West, M. A. (2017). Organizational climate and culture: Reflections on the history of the constructs in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*, 468–482. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000090

Schneider, B., White, S. S., & Paul, M. C. (1998). Linking service climate and customer perceptions of service quality: Tests of a causal model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*, 150–163. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.150

Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Smith, A. N., Watkins, M. B., Burke, M. J., Christian, M. S., Smith, C. E., Hall, A., & Simms, S. (2013). Gendered influence: A gender role perspective on the use and effectiveness of influence tactics. *Journal of Management*, *39*, 1156–1183. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313478183

Smith-Crowe, K., Burke, M. J., & Landis, R. S. (2003). Organizational climate as a moderator of safety knowledge-safety performance relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*, 861–876. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.217

Stoverink, A. C., Umphress, E. E., Gardner, R. G., & Miner, K. N. (2014). Misery loves company: Team dissonance and the influence of supervisor-focused interpersonal justice climate on team cohesiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*, 1059–1073. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037915

Turnley, W. H., & Bolino, M. C. (2001). Achieving desired images while avoiding undesired images: Exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 351–360. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.2.351

Vohs, K. D., Baumeister, R. F., & Ciarocco, N. J. (2005). Self-regulation and self-presentation: Regulatory resource depletion impairs impression management and effortful self-presentation depletes regulatory resources. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *88*, 632–657. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.88.4.632

Wallace, J. C., Butts, M. M., Johnson, P. D., Stevens, F. G., & Smith, M. B. (2016). A multilevel model of employee innovation: Understanding the effects of regulatory focus, thriving, and employee involvement climate. *Journal of Management*, *42*, 982–1004. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313506462

Wanberg, C. R., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of proactivity in the socialization process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 373–385. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.3.373

Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*, 487–499. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.5.487

Wayne, S. J., & Liden, R. C. (1995). Effects of impression management on performance ratings: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 232–260. https://doi.org/10.2307/256734

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*, 486–493. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.486

Zhao, H., & Liden, R. C. (2011). Internship: A recruitment and selection perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*, 221–229. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021295

Zivnuska, S., Kacmar, K. M., Witt, L., Carlson, D. S., & Bratton, V. K. (2004). Interactive effects of impression management and organizational politics on job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 627–640. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.262

Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: Testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 587–596. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.4.587

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Christian Gross is a postdoctoral researcher in the Work and Organizational Psychology group at the University of Zurich. His research interests include (workplace) impression management, proactive behavior, organizational socialization, and organizational climate.

Maike E. Debus is an assistant professor of Work and Organizational Psychology at the University of Neuchâtel. Her key research areas relate to the fields of economic stressors (specifically job insecurity and perceived overqualification), occupational health psychology, and impression management in the workplace.

Pia V. Ingold is a research associate and postdoctoral researcher in the Work and Organizational Psychology group at the University of Zurich. Her research covers topics of personnel selection, leadership, and social effectiveness (including impression management) in selection and work settings.

Martin Kleinmann is a professor of Work and Organizational Psychology at the University of Zurich. In his research program, he investigates selection, recruitment, organizational socialization, and impression management.

How to cite this article: Gross, C., Debus, M. E., Ingold, P. V., & Kleinmann, M. (2021). Too much self-promotion! How self-promotion climate relates to employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion effectiveness and their work group's performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *42*(8), 1042–1059. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2547

APPENDIX A.

A.1 | Description of the additional experimental study

We conducted an additional experimental study to substantiate the proposed direction of the effect between work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion. In particular, we tested whether employees working in teams differ in the extent to which they would perceive cohesion in their work group if their work group was characterized by either *low* versus *high* levels of self-promotion climate.

A.2 | Sample, materials, and procedures

We collected data from 100 individuals who indicated they were currently working on a team with the help of a market research company (Respondi; http://www.respondi.de). In total, 43.0% of participants were female and participant ages ranged from 22 to 65 years ($M = 44.77$, $SD = 11.47$). Average tenure was 11.20 years ($SD = 9.39$), and average work group membership duration was 7.17 years ($SD = 6.25$). In total, 4.0% had a certificate of secondary education, 52.0% had vocational training, 12.0% had a bachelor's degree, 27.0% had a master's degree, and 5.0% had a doctoral degree. Participants worked in a variety of industry types, the most prevalent being health and social affairs (17.0%), information technology (12.0%), public administration (12.0%), and trade and repair (8.0%).

Data were collected online using a between-subjects design. Participants were first instructed to imagine they were working in a team with a specific climate, after which they were randomly assigned to a scenario describing a work group with either a low self-promotion climate ($n = 50$) or a work group with a high self-promotion climate ($n = 50$). These vignettes were designed such that they (a) aligned with the definition of self-promotion climate in our main study and (b) presented the same self-promotion climate items of the adapted measure from Bolino and Turnley (1999) that we used in the main study. In particular, the vignettes were worded such that the participants had to imagine working in a team where "the following never/often occurs," followed by the self-promotion climate items. A sample item was "In this work group, one makes others aware of own accomplishments." Participants then reported the amount of work group cohesion they would perceive based on the respective self-promotion climate vignette (using the same three-item scale from Jehn & Mannix, 2001, as in the main study) and provided their answers to various demographics.

A.3 | Results

In line with our propositions, participants in the low self-promotion climate condition perceived significantly more work group cohesion compared to those in the high self-promotion climate condition ($t[98] = 2.46$, $p < .05$, Cohen's $d = .49$). Hence, the results of this additional experimental study lend further evidence for the proposed causal direction between work group self-promotion climate and work group cohesion.