SOCIAL MEDIA BLUEPRINTS: A STUDY OF SELF-REPRESENTATION
AND IDENTITY MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

The landscape of social dimensions has tremendously changed with the existence of social media as a powerful means to facilitate the process of creating and sharing information. The navigation, constructions and features of mediated communication fashion on social media have led to the forming of identity blueprints, consisting of narrative strategies in deploying and managing online identity. As a result, fascinating digital stories are formed wherein the content is curated to portray the desired identity. With the aim to examine the extent of gender-based perspective and tendencies in managing mediated identities through social media, this study employed a Mann-Whitney test to measure the variance between male and female responses. The results obtained indicate that statistically, there is a significant difference for both genders in the ways they manage their mediated selves and identities. This study also provides an insight on how social media platforms and specific interfaces like emojis are used as a tool to manage and shape mediated identity, reinforcing the concepts of online self-representation and identity management.

Contribution/Originality: This study documents gender-based perspective on online self-representation and identity management fashioned through social media interfaces. The results reveal that there is a significant difference at 5% level for both males and females in the examined dimensions of self-representation and online identity management.

1. INTRODUCTION

The internet connects people. Since its inception, it has created a borderless world, fashioning a simulated nexus. The evolution of social media has been powered by the human instinct to connect, and by advances of technology. Within 20 years, social media has progressed from electronic platform of information exchange, to virtual gathering place, to retail platform, to vital 21st century social instrument. The innovation of the smartphone freed social media from being limited to physical devices like desktop and laptop, specifically the availability of phone cameras has enabled the focus of mobile apps to video and images. Consequently, online community building grew rapidly, transforming the world of wide web into a unique social experience. To an extent, the online communities can be considered as allies; curating, rearranging, and recirculating what is deemed to be the best photos, videos, and status updates, deliberately cultivating a concerted audience-segmentation strategy (Senft, 2013). Gottman’s theory of self-presentation is hauled by recent studies that online “space” used by social media users is metaphorically defined as a “stage”, influencing the status quo of existing online social rituals (Goffman,
1959). Often times, communicators use social media to maneuver one part of their real-life selves, sharing and manufacturing a desired impression to the intended audience. In this context, the virtual world is a space of identity performance, showcasing and concerting the manifestation of identity organization in which the users negotiate the notion of offline and online identity management.

Historically, researches investigating factors associated with self-representation and identity management had only focused on the face to face communication. Identity theorist claims that conceptualization of identities is constructed and shaped through communication. For instance, Gottman’s work centers around the key premise that communicators maintain a “face” as the socially accredited identity wherein the term “facework” is operationally utilised to illustrate both verbal and non-verbal behaviours in which communicators engage in face to face interactions (Goffman, 1959; Goffman, 1971). However, the paradigm has shifted, allowing for more similar inquiries to be explored. With various features available on social media platforms such as edited profile pictures and emojis, there is a tendency for users of social media to engage in an on-going, selective self-presentation, which is aimed to either embellish or conceal online behaviors. This is exemplified in the work undertaken by Guadagno, Okdie, and Kruse (2012) that indicates both male and females are involved in visual deception, but males tend to deceive in other aspects such as personality and characteristics. To expound further, online users tend to fabricate personal information such as lists of interests (Liu, 2007) and number of friends (Dynel, 2016; Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007). They seek for self-confidence and validation by engaging in deceptive behavior on social media, which in turns reinforces the perception of a “better” notion of selves. In addition, several lines of evidence suggest that there is a newly adopted means of navigating social norms and conventions on social media amongst millennials (Boyd, 2014; Doster, 2018; Malvini Redden & Way, 2017). Therefore, it be assumed that social media has inevitably shaped our ability to function in the general social world. Indeed, this also has led to impression management which creates a unique communication dynamic amongst social media users of different genders, who are the members of mass consumer culture.

Considering the preceding relevance, the aim of the study is to examine the extent of which specific gender possess higher tendencies to manage identity formed using the social media interfaces.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Internet has revolutionized the way people communicate. With the prevalent use of social media, a huge part of its users’ social life becomes online, unravelling and staging different parts of their routine almost on a daily basis. Such claims ensue numerous inquiries and concerns that online social interactions and values are mere computed data, drawn from synthetic social contexts (Alaimo & Kallinikos, 2017). In addition, Fuchs and Trottier (2015) stated that the internet has permitted for our lives to be available and traceable synchronously. The remnants of what is shared online becomes an imprinted version of individuals’ virtual or online identity. Typically, the projection of information to encapsulate and associate online identity is equated to the face to face identity, manifesting a unique digital reality, laden with imperative correlations with the online self-representation and identity management. Social comparison theorizes against the notion of how we compare ourselves alongside the selected referent group to determine if we are more inferior or superior (Adler & Adler, 2015). Visual content created and shares on social media is a key means for creating an online impression and the millennials are known as one of the most avid users of social media. With the utilization of social media as a ubiquitous means to communicate, social media has defined the ideal standard of self-representation (Mascheroni, Vincent, & Jimenez, 2015). Also, millennial students feel that social media creates an avenue for different portrayal of self; thus, they feel more confident and less cautious (Mahmud, Ramachandiran, & Ismail, 2018). A broader perspective has been adopted by Wu (2017) who argues that dimensions of mediated trust, facework, power and agreement between teacher and student inhibit synchronous communication. In this context, the presence of individuals with higher social status affect mediated behaviors, which is enabled with state-of-the-art technologies. This is realized through
the application of features; sharing and editing images on social media; for instance, users of Instagram and Facebook create an avenue for self-expressions and myriad depiction of selves by posting content and images to convey meanings, and it is used as a building blocks of identity management, wherein these digitized images are the backbones and fortitudes of online identity (Mascheroni et al., 2015). These images are deliberately chosen to project the co-construction of what is deemed as “ideal” or “beautiful”. In addition, with the easy access of Internet, it has resulted in a dynamic function of communication on social media using these images to negotiate for meanings or as a form of “preferred idiom in mediated communication practices” (Van Dijk, 2008).

Similar to the offline contexts, the occurrence of online communication to a certain extent, ought to comply to the necessitated social conventions, which governs the identity management decorum, conforming to the socially shared rules of self-presentation and social expectations. In this instance, the incorporation of an “an elaborate, highly stylized statement of identity as displayed” (Livingstone, 2009) to exemplify varieties of cultural lifestyles as part of the mediated self-expression and representation. In another study, a representation of identity to demonstrate social connection is done by granting a clear voice to relational self (Peter, Valkenburg, & Fluckiger, 2009). Both of these patterns are socially constructed through online means. Livingstone further indicated that the construction of online profiles amongst teenagers is done in two different means; first, “the norms and practices of their peer group and, second, by the affordances of the technological interface” (Livingstone, 2008). The structured and built-in interfaces allow for “public peer-to-peer sharing of information, evaluation of content amongst peers, the “push” nature of these technologies, platforms that are extensible to support a wide range of information types and self-organizing information dissemination networks” (Dumbrell & Steele, 2014). An interesting take on the exhibition of teens’ online behaviour that reveals a more capricious manner as compared to the adults, which is also deemed as inappropriate; however, the displays of behaviour are intentionally done to manage their identity online within the social online context (Boyd, 2014).

Mazman and Usluel (2011) reiterated that females use Facebook to maintain existing relationships while males use Facebook to forge new relationships (Mazman & Usluel, 2010). This study attributed this finding to females’ preference to manage their identities and be selective about their personal information to manage their privacy (Fallows, 2005). Lenhart and Madden reinforced these findings by highlighting that men utilize social media platforms to create new relationships and possess enhanced communication skills online in order to establish a positive online presence (Lenhart & Madden, 2007). Muscanell and Guadagno (2012) elaborated that women were inclined toward activities that facilitate relationship maintenance compared to men (Lin, Featherman, & Sarker, 2017). It was also identified that men were more likely to utilize social networking sites for networking, making new friends, and finding potential dates that support findings from previous studies that men use social networking sites to create new relationships compared to women (Muscanell & Guadagno, 2012). These findings are consistent with the results of a recent study which illustrated that men use Facebook to make new contacts more frequently than do women (Mazman & Usluel, 2011).

Probing into the gendered self-representation on social media, a study revealed that men are more likely to deceive about their personalities, characteristics, and self-presentations (Guadagno et al., 2012). For instance, they might appear to be “more dominant, more resourceful, and kinder than they were” (Guadagno et al., 2012). Likewise, research from Herring and Kapidzic (2015) also suggested that men are more prone to present their dominance through their selection of online profile pictures as one of the main criteria to appear and be perceived as more dominant. Haferkamp, Emiler, Papadakis, and Kruck (2012) and Seidman and Miller (2013) have emphasized that there are significant gender differences in males and females’ self-presentation concerning physical appearance on social media. Also, through a survey that was conducted for 300 Dutch adolescents, it indicated that different genders have different misrepresentation in online interactions and the result proved that boys pretended to be more macho which is another evidence of male users manage their identity online. According to Fox and Rooney (2015) a dark triad of personality is one of the factors that influences male users to be engaged in misleading their
self-presentation online. An instance of dark triad personality would be Machiavellianism (Machs). This is when the manipulation of their self-presentation emerges, in which the act of using “enhanced” pictures to satisfy their needs to attract more online friends (Fox & Rooney, 2015). Machs are more prone to self-promoting and self-monitoring in the channel of online networking sites which resulting them to fabricate their personal information (Fox & Rooney, 2015). Some would argue that such behaviors do not seem to fit into the majority of social convention, leading to the unnecessary act of manufacturing a desired impression online or to put it crudely, deceiving. Interestingly, there is a clear correlation between Machiavellian and deception, in which was proven in the number of deceptions being significantly dependent on the percentage of Machs scale (Dussault, Hojjat, & Boone, 2013). These findings have shown that males with Machs are more likely to engage in deceptive behaviors; thus, illustrate their higher inclination of managing their self-representation online.

The richness of social presence via social media crafts a reality, which can be deemed apt and conducive for the act of limiting the truth or in another word the act of deceiving. Users of social media can choose the amount of information disclosed online to create the coveted identity. For instance, besides distorting the truth about their appearances, male users also tend to “misrepresent information on marital status, intended relationship, and height” (Schmitz, Zillmann, & Blossfeld, 2013). About 45% of male users often lied about their motivations of using online Tinder, such as what kind of the desired relationship they were into with their online partners (Schmitz et al., 2013). Moreover, female users are more attracted to men who have higher social status and occupation status. Hence, male users would misinform about their income level, occupations and level of education to draw the female users’ attention which evidently shows that other aspects of online deception have been employed through computer-mediated communication (CMC). The study also stated that 32% of male users and 43% of female users had experienced deception about profile presentations (Schmitz et al., 2013). This evidence has proven that men have higher propensity to engage in deception online as the percentage of female users getting deceived higher than male users. It is noteworthy to mention that similar to male users, female users also participate at deceiving male users through self-presentation. Tyson, Perta, Haddadi, and Seto (2016) observed that female users manifest a higher level of deception compared to men in order to satisfy the male users’ expectations since they draw more attention to their physical appearances. Study by Lo, Hsieh, and Chiu (2013) also discussed that male users only prefer good looking women who are young and have a slim figure in which results in the female users to lie regarding their height, weight, or age (Lo et al., 2013). Another reason that female users emphasized their physical appearance and attraction was due to their strong sensitivity towards online criticism and also their self-consciousness in an online environment (Rui & Stefanone, 2013). Three characteristics of social media platforms which are (1) availability, (2) publicness, and (3) permanence enable individuals to create and modify a new reality, where social media users can view and access their own and others’ images at all times from anywhere, contributing to users’ increased apprehension about their online images (Nesi, Choukas-Bradley, & Prinstein, 2018).

A study from Whitty (2015) is consistent with the previous research by Lo et al. (2013) demonstrated that male profiles are not as extensive as female profiles, whereas female users often use a model like picture as their profile pictures to represent themselves. Adopting pictures from models would help them to enhance their physical attractiveness and youthfulness (Toma, Hancock, & Ellison, 2008) which enables them to attract more online matches with their eye-catching online profiles. In addition, opportunities to design an attractive online presence are provided by social media as these platforms enable users to select and edit photos until the photos are deemed perfect or in line with societal and beauty standards to enhance the appeal of users’ online presence such as the use of a photo filter to create blemish-free skin (Fox & Vendemia, 2016). Choukas-Bradley, Nesi, Widman, and Galla (2020) reported that young women are more influenced by the standardized body ideals that are often projected in social media compared to men. Although men were reported to be less influenced by the body ideals, their study highlighted that young men often experience dissatisfaction with their appearance online after having appearance-related conversations with their peers (Choukas-Bradley et al., 2020).
In order to ensure an appealing self-presentation, users curate an idealized persona for an imaginary or actual audience, where self-presentation strategies that were used are aimed at impressing the audience in terms of their physical appearance (Mills, Musto, Williams, & Tiggemann, 2018). Social media platforms such as Instagram encourages users to participate in self-presentation which concentrates on physical appearance by consistently posting attractive photos of themselves to capture the attention of others (Fox & Vendemia, 2016). A relevant example of self-presentation is that young women are pressured to follow the current beauty standards such as having a toned body in order to gain followers and likes (Deighton-Smith & Bell, 2018) while young men tend to demonstrate masculinity in establishing a positive self-presentation on online platforms (Edwards, Tod, Molnar, & Markland, 2016). McGloin and Denes (2016) stated that female users are more likely to engage in deceptive self-presentation to impress their dates as male users usually think highly of physical attraction in which results in female users using filtered pictures to enhance their attractiveness. The finding also suggested that usually, female users’ online pictures are different compared to how they present themselves in real life. For instance, they might not be as attractive as they are in their profile pictures (McGloin & Denes, 2016). Hence, these studies have evidently demonstrated that women were more engaging in deceiving their online partners about their physical appearance and attractiveness. In similar vein, Lim and Kwon (2010) pointed out that women practice more caution online and are more cautious about their online presence, however, Chen, Sin, Theng, and Lee (2015) argued that women tend to unintentionally share incorrect information to boost their online presence, which can be attributed to women finding the social aspect of social media more important as it can act as a conversation starter. Women were identified to behave in accordance with the gender expectations in order to ensure a credible self-presentation and to ensure relationships formed and maintained online are well-established (Sun, Wang, Shen, & Zhang, 2015).

In the context of online dating application users, the notion of self-presentation is more apparent wherein both male and female are involved in visual deception. It is usually derived from the users’ expectations of finding opposite sex attractive, as both genders have different expectations when searching for attractive users (Ellison, Hancock, & Toma, 2012). Online users are heavily focused on the “appearance culture” and are consistently aiming to improve their appearance as they associate physical appearance to self-worth, especially among younger women (Jones, 2004; Jones, Vigfusdottir, & Lee, 2004). Many social media users are highly aware of their own and their peers’ physical appearance and participate in appearance-focused social comparisons of social media (Manago, Ward, Lemm, Reed, & Seabrook, 2015). This consciousness is further heightened by the ubiquitous nature of social media, as these platforms consistently accentuate on physical attractiveness and enables social comparison and comments on appearance (Yang, Holden, Carter, & Webb, 2018).

Additionally, most online dating users choose their desired romantic partners based on perceived physical attractiveness. This in one way proves that the role of self-presentation in online dating applications is immensely consequential for online users, as what constitute attractiveness can only be inferred from shared pictures (Masden & Edwards, 2015). However, Zhao, Grasmuck, and Martin (2008) mentioned that social media users often project a different online identity in comparison with their real-life identities. Findings from Abramova, Baumann, Krasnova, and Buxmann (2016) discovered that both genders tend to manufacture desired impressions by exaggerating their profile information, specifically, males fib about their relationship status, whereas females are more disposed to beguile potential dates by amplifying physical appeal in their profile pictures. Strano (2008) discussed that profile pictures are selected based on the perceived fun or their level of attractiveness expressed from the profile pictures. Women employ a different approach compared with men when selecting their online images since they prefer to show more skin in their online images (Lomanowska & Guittton, 2012). Yang and Li (2014) supported this by articulating that women often express and stress their emotional needs when sharing their pictures. Zheng, Yuan, Chang, and Wu (2016) demonstrated that gender plays a role in determining the choice of profile picture by investigating Taiwanese preference for online profile pictures and identified that both genders like to use profile
pictures where they are alone in the picture. However, the motives are different as women in the study prefer to use online pictures that demonstrate that they are experiencing a special moment such as graduation or birthday while men prefer using online pictures that show they are having fun such as during sport activities. An interesting finding pointed out by Zheng et al. (2016) is that Asian online users prefer to use stand-alone pictures while online users from Western countries prefer selecting photos of them in a group. This may be attributed to the difference in culture whereby Asian employs a collectivism culture and Western countries promote individualism (Hofstede, 2001). Based on a review of the related literature, the criticality of this study is established as Cohen, Newton-John, and Slater (2017) reported that continuous use of social media might worsen appearance concerns and increase self-consciousness. Thus, this study aims to examine the extent of gender-based perspective which possess higher tendencies to manage identity which is formed through social media interfaces.

3. METHODOLOGY, RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The data was collected by employing convenience sampling method, stratified by gender. A set of questionnaires was distributed to 60 students, comprising of 30 males and 30 females from a private university in Malaysia. The students’ age varies between 16 to 21 years old, except for one student, who is above 25 years old. Table 1 below shows the distribution of age and gender of the participants. To measure and understand gender-based perspective on online self-representation and identity management, a five-item questionnaire was designed and adapted primarily from the one developed by Ellison, Heino, and Gibbs (2006) and Gibbs, Ellison, and Heino (2006) consisting of five Likert-scale questions score from lowest, 1 = strongly disagree, to highest, 5 = strongly agree. The total number of “Strongly Disagree” and “Disagree” are combined and denoted as “Disagree”, while the total number of “Strongly Agree” and “Disagree” are combined and denoted as “Agree”, assembling the dispersal of scale to “Disagree”, “Neutral” and “Agree”.

Table 1. Participants’ Age and Gender.

| Age     | Male | Female |
|---------|------|--------|
| 16 – 18 | 18   | 12     |
| 19 – 21 | 12   | 17     |
| Above 25| 0    | 1      |
| Total   | 30   | 30     |

3.1. Descriptive Analysis

Table 2. Participants’ Responses.

| Statement                                                                 | Male          | Female        | Total |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|-------|
| 1. I feel that editing my profile picture is important because it creates | Disagree 4    | Disagree 5    | 9     |
| good first impression                                                    | Neutral 8     | Neutral 9     | 17    |
|                                                                          | Agree 18      | Agree 16      | 34    |
| 2. I have never exaggerated my personality in my online profile          | Disagree 10   | Disagree 5    | 15    |
|                                                                          | Neutral 5     | Neutral 3     | 8     |
|                                                                          | Agree 15      | Agree 22      | 37    |
| 3. I insert emojis to amplify my personality                             | Disagree 4    | Disagree 4    | 10    |
|                                                                          | Neutral 5     | Neutral 4     | 9     |
|                                                                          | Agree 21      | Agree 20      | 41    |
| 4. I have a reasonably honest online biography                           | Disagree 1    | Disagree 2    | 3     |
|                                                                          | Neutral 4     | Neutral 6     | 10    |
|                                                                          | Agree 25      | Agree 22      | 47    |
| 5. I tend to edit my online profile if it is not up to the societal standard | Disagree 13   | Disagree 21   | 34    |
|                                                                          | Neutral 6     | Neutral 6     | 12    |
|                                                                          | Agree 11      | Agree 3       | 14    |
Table 2 shows distribution of the responses for each statement. Majority of both male and female (34, 56.7%) feels that editing their profile picture is important because it formulates good first impression, whereas only 9 (15%) of the participants disagree with this statement. Previous studies evaluating adolescents’ self-presentation on Facebook found that there is a correlation between the choice of profile pictures and perceived physical attractiveness (Siibak, 2009; Strano, 2008). The outcome could also be attributed to peer approval, commonly observed among adolescents (Livingstone, 2008; Sherman, Greenfield, Hernandez, & Dapretto, 2018). The present study raises the possibility that edited profile picture is linked to positive impression management. This result may be explained by the constant adolescents’ needs to create an online presence, fashion creative and likeable content, so that they are deemed “acceptable” (Throuvala, Griffiths, Rennoldson, & Kuss, 2019). In the context of gender-oriented stance, a study done by Lo et al. (2013) found that male users pay more attention to attractive female users, which expound the higher agreement of responses yielded from the survey, placing physical appearance as an importance. In addition, female users are more concerned with online criticism, and as a result, they are more inclined to engage in faring online selves to prompt and induce appeal (Hong, Jahng, Lee, & Wise, 2020; Rui & Stefanone, 2013). For statement 2, a total of 37 (61.7%) participants, where majority of them are females (22, 36.7%) responded that they do not overstate their online profile bio, while 15 (25%) is of the male participants. It is noteworthy to mention that (10, 16.7%) male participants disagree with the statement although stereotypically, male users are expected to score lower. This could be illustrated in a study conducted by Guadagno et al. (2012) that men are more likely to manage online their personalities, allowing them to be perceived as more sociable. Forty-one (68.3%) of the participants agree that they insert emojis to amplify their personality, while 10 (16.7%) disagree with the statement. Stark and Crawford (2015) stated that emojis are used to control and manipulate affection, and can potentially deceive online dating applications users; thus, suggests that both genders use emoji to further implicate and to an extent, fabricate their actual motives. Another research shares similar sentiment that individuals are inclined to be deceptive due to the perceived notion of presenting selves in creating desired online impressions by inserting and utilizing emoji (Sharabi, 2015). Of the participants, 47 (78.4%) claim that they have a reasonably honest online bio and 3 (5%) disagree with the statement. In this context, impressions are formed and built not only based on individuals’ social connections, but most importantly is the quality of discourses exchanged. To exemplify, individuals who tend to share cheerful posts, and extend pleasant responses are prone to be identified as optimistic, in comparison to individuals who post, update or share negative content. This finding verifies a study done by Hall and Pennington (2013) that people tend to be perceived as more honest when positive intent is assumed from the shared content. Next, 34 (56.7%) of the participants disagree with the final statement, “I tend to edit my online profile if it is not up to the societal standard”. The fact that there is a strong desire in pleasing and attracting someone, individuals tend to edit/ modify their identities, reflecting their ideal self. Profile editing acts allow people to present their faultless aspects. A study suggests that online profile modifications have a positive correlation with well-being (Oberst, Renau, Chamarro, & Carbonell, 2016). Attempts to regulate the veracity of online identity claims often times are experienced simultaneously with the need to present one's true self to others. In this instance, being more careful in selecting photographs for their online profile (Salimkhan, Manago, & Greenfield, 2010) perhaps should not be deemed as an act of deception; instead is motivated by common tactics in presenting self.

3.2. Statistical Analysis

Mann-Whitney test was employed to probe the gender-based perspective on online self-representation and identity management. Specifically, this statistical technique examines the differences between two independent groups; male and female on a continuous scale.
Table 3 shows the ranks of each statement for both genders. Males are more agreeable with statement 1, 3, 4 and 5 compared to females, with the mean ranks of each of 31.57, 31.23, 32.03 and 35.30 respectively. While for females, the mean ranks for statements 1, 3, 4 and 5 are 29.43, 29.77, 28.97, and 25.70 correspondingly. On the other hand, males are less agreeable with statement 2, which yielded the mean rank of 26.92, as compared to females’ mean rank of 34.08.

Table 4 displays the test statistics for all the five statements. To infer the data set further, one-tailed probability for statement 1, 3 and 4 was computed. A p-value of 0.328, 0.375 and 0.215 were produced respectively; while statement 2 and statement 5 produced a p-value of 0.041 and 0.009. It indicates that there is no significant difference at 5% level between the responses between male and female for statements 1, 3, and 4. What is striking about the findings is the notable difference at 5% level for statement 2. Besides, the result also shows the 5% level of significance with more males agreeable to the statement that they “tend to edit their online profile if it is not up to the societal standard”. The finding reinforces the fact that digital or social media literacy and competence has gained its importance among the millennials, making them more prudent of what to express and disclose on their profiles (Solmaz, 2017; Zilka, 2017).

Table 5. Participants’ responses on online identity management.

|                | Male | Female | Total |
|----------------|------|--------|-------|
| Disagree       | 21   | 32     | 53    |
| Neutral        | 19   | 19     | 38    |
| Agree          | 50   | 39     | 89    |
| Total          | 90   | 90     | 180   |

The phrases, for instance, ‘editing profile is important’, ‘insert emojis for profile amplification’ and ‘edit profile if it is not up to standard’ were employed to scrutinize the participants’ associations between perceived online self-
presentation and identity management. The results obtained for statements 1, 3 and 5 were combined in Table 5 to indicate the overall viewpoint of self-representation and online identity management. It is denoted that majority of the participants (89, 49.4%) agrees that they manipulate their online profile to exhibit the desired identity. Ma and Yang (2016) draw on an extensive range of sources to assess 420 selfies from both Twitter and Sina Weibo users, and they found a significant number of edited selfies using various filters. Therefore, based on the yielded findings, it is statistically evident that creating impressions is imperative to managing online identity, which is very much governed by what is socially accepted and deemed apt.

Table-6. Ranks of online identity management.

| Gender | N  | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|--------|----|-----------|--------------|
| Male   | 90 | 97.16     | 8744.50      |
| Female | 90 | 83.84     | 7645.50      |
| Total  | 180|           |              |

What stands out in Table 6 is that males are more concerned in managing their online selves, with the mean rank of 97.16, in comparison with female, which obtained the mean rank of 83.84. This finding may partly be explained by the different ways that male and female use social media. To expound further, a study to probe on social media patterns found that females post “cute” pictures, whereas males share and update self-endorsing content (Peluchette & Karl, 2008). Thus, self-presentation strategies are employed differently among the two genders.

Table-7. Test statistics of online identity management.

| Online Identity Management | Online Identity Management |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Mann-Whitney U            | 3450.500                  |
| Wilcoxon W                | 7545.500                  |
| Z                         | -1.867                    |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)    | 0.062                     |
| Exact Sig. (2-tailed)     | 0.065                     |
| Exact Sig. (1-tailed)     | 0.033                     |
| Point Probability         | 0.003                     |

Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 7 displays the test statistics for online identity management for both males and females. It yielded a p-value of 0.033 by using one-tailed probability. It shows the difference between the two genders in regards to online identity management, which is statistically significant at 5% level. Deliberately shared online information such as picture and bio signify a change in the way social media users craft what is considered as favorable impressions through various features (Salimkhan et al., 2010; Yus, 2018). Thus, it is posited males have higher tendency in managing self-representation and online profile identity to exhibit a better and desirable public-self through social media.

4. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCHES

This research was conducted with the objective to measure and understand gender-based perspective on online self-representation and identity management fashioned through social media interfaces. While this analysis is preliminary in nature, our research findings suggest that females do not just manage their identity in the matter of self-presentation, but also in the context of their personality to impress others. On the other hand, male respondents are less likely to manage their personality and characteristics. Through Mann-Whitney test, the results reveal that there is a significant difference at 5% level for both males and females in the examined dimensions of self-representation and online identity management. However, males are more likely to engage in self-representation and online identity to portray better selves to impress others.
The study offers a profound insight on how social media interfaces such as emojis and profile/bio are utilized as a tool to manage identity, reinforcing the notion of online self-representation. This study also complements the existing literature and theoretical ramifications by uncovering the use of different features on social media, which are attributed to online identity management, proffering interesting and useful insights into how we may collectively manage identities in the digital world, including a conceptualization of filter use, which is the latest features in numerous social media apps, arguably an excessive self-presentation act.

However, this research has few limitations. One of them is the diversity of the sampled population. Thus, the results yielded are rather unique to the population, and replication is perhaps limited; consequently, the results obtained from this study might be predisposed towards certain demographic. In addition, cultural dimensions were not accounted and measured. The missing dimensions could add to a more cogent understanding to homogeneity reasons; for example, the choice of profile edited may be influenced by cultural reasons specifically among young adults, wherein the prototypical images of women and men conform to gender stereotypes, which is very much constraint by culture and norm. Besides, future researches may look into the differences between teenagers, younger and adults wherein the correlation or comparative study can assist in discovering the relationship, and differences between age, gender, social media and identity formation, which are digitally constructed towards navigation of new online self-existence and self-representation philosophies.

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