

**Impression Management Tactics and Job Performance of Academics in Selected
Universities in Edo State: The Moderating Role of Demographic Variables**

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**BEING A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS
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BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY, EDO
STATE, NIGERIA.**

FEBUARY 2024

DECLARATION

I, Amenze Erica **AKENZUA** hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis work is a genuine work done originally by me, and has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree. All sources of information referred in this work are acknowledged with reference to the respective authors.

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ATTESTATION OF CORRECTED THESIS

We under listed hereby attest that Amenze Erica AKENZUA, PG/MGS0301096 has effected all the required corrections as recommended by the external examiner and internal examiner in this thesis titled “Impression Management Tactics and Job Performance of Academics in Selected Universities in Edo State: The Moderating Role of Demographic Variables”.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this thesis titled “Impression Management Tactics and Job Performance of Academics in Selected Universities in Edo State: The Moderating Role of Demographic Variables” was carried out by Amenze Erica **AKENZUA** in the Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God Almighty, the giver of knowledge, to my parents Pa Osazee Patrick Eboigbe and Madam Dora Eboigbe, my husband Prince Osaretin Akenzua for their unwavering support, encouragement and inspiration throughout this academic journey. I also dedicate this work to my children Prince Osarenghemwen, Prince Osamagbe and Prince Osamase Akenzua.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between impression management and the job performance of academics in selected Universities in Edo State, using demographic characteristics as moderating variables. Specifically, it sought to examine the relationship between self-promotion and job performance; effect of ingratiation on the job performance of academics; the relationship between exemplification and the job performance of academics; the effect of supplication on the job performance of academics; influence of intimidation on the job performance of academics; and determine the mediating effect of demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, and personality) on the relationship between impression management and the job performance of lecturers in Universities in Edo State

The study employed a correlational survey research design and structural equation modelling (SEM). Its population comprised 3,002 academic staff in the selected Universities. Questionnaire was the main research instrument. Data collected from the online questionnaire were analyzed by descriptive statistics (such as mean, standard deviation and percentages) and inferential statistics through Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and SEM.

It revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between self-promotion and job performance of the academics; there was a negative and non-significant relationship between ingratiation and job performance of the academics; there was a positive and significant relationship between exemplification, supplication and job performance of the academics. There was a negative and non-significant relationship between intimidation and job performance of the academics. Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and qualification were found to be non-significant mediators of impression management tactics and job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State. Also, there was no significant differences in impression management tactics among the academics in public and private universities, but there was a significant difference in their job performance. It concluded that there was need for the university to put emphasis on the issues that significantly affect the job performance of the academics. Recommendations such as professional development programmes, ethical and constructive impression management behaviours, regular feedback mechanisms among others were provided

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

University lecturers are charged with multiple responsibilities that include educating students, contributing to the realms of academic research and scholarship, and improving the society (Rabo, 2022; Wahyudi, 2022; Edobor & Akenzua, 2023). Their effectiveness in fulfilling these responsibilities is paramount, as it directly reverberates across the educational landscape, affecting the students, the progression of knowledge, and the overall development of the society (Wahyudi, 2022). The job performance of a lecturer is fundamentally defined by the extent to which they execute their pedagogic duties, which encompass not only the dissemination of knowledge but also the transformation of their students into individuals who hold the potential to contribute significantly to both their communities and society at large (Owan, 2019). To excel in their roles, the lecturers have to develop effective relationship with the students and their colleagues (Egbokhan, 2016; Rabo, 2022). This relationship is embedded in the impression they create within the institution (Lind, 2022). Scholars contend that the impressions which individuals create can wield considerable influence over their engagement in organisational activities, underscoring the pivotal role of impression management in organisational setting (Dziedzic & Jastrzębowska, 2022; Saripek, Fisekcioglu, & Caglayan, 2023).

Impression management revolves around the purposeful actions taken by individuals to direct or shape the perceptions others hold of them (Vanhaltren & Peter, 2019; Dziedzic & Jastrzębowska, 2022).

Within the academic sphere, university lecturers demonstrate a repertoire of impression management behaviours to navigate their professional interactions. The behaviours

include self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation (Chaubey & Kandpal 2017; Vanhaltren, & Peter, 2019). Self-promotion is a deliberate act to accentuate one's strengths, accomplishments, and competencies, thereby fostering a positive image (Gross, Debus, Ingold, & Kleinmann, 2021; Dziedzic & Jastrzębowska, 2022). Ingratiation involves the art of seeking favour and approval through affability, support, and an affiliative approach. Exemplification unfolds when individuals exemplify values and behaviours associated with unwavering commitment, dedication, and self-sacrifice to project a laudable image. Supplication materialises when individuals present themselves as vulnerable or in need of assistance, with the aim of garnering support or aid from others, while intimidation entails the utilisation of fear or the specter of threats to manage or manipulate the actions of others.

These behaviours can collectively influence the dynamics of lecturer interactions and their effectiveness within the academic institution. Impression management thus holds the potential to exert a notable impact on the job performance of lecturers (Khisar, Iqbal, Khalid, Rasheed, & Akhtar, 2021; Tunio, Agha, Salman, Ullah, & Nisar, 2021). Nevertheless, the effect that impression management tactics has on job performance of university lecturers in developing countries remains a significantly uncharted territory in academic research.

The contention also arises that the interplay between the impression management behaviours and job performance exhibits variability contingent upon demographic attributes, including age, gender, and individual characteristics (Saripek, *et al.*, 2023). For instance, it is posited that both younger and older individuals may adopt distinct impression management strategies. Younger individuals might lean toward self-promotion and exemplification as means to establish their professional identities, while older individuals may draw upon their wealth of experience and wisdom to shape

perceptions. These age-related disparities are likely to have discernible impacts on job performance. Moreover, gender roles and societal expectations can mold the choice of impression management behaviours. Men and women may gravitate toward different behaviours. For instance, women may emphasis ingratiation, while men may place greater emphasis on self-promotion. These gender-based differentials can influence evaluations of job performance (Renström, Gustafsson Sendén, & Lindqvist, 2021). For instance, it is argued that women lecturers provide more interaction with students and colleagues than male lecturers (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Boring, 2016; Renström, *et al.*, 2021). Such disparity in interaction due to gender may affect the lecturers' performance (Diso, 2020). In addition, individual attributes encompassing extroversion, and introversion can demonstrate the efficacy of impression management behaviours (Bourdage, Schmidt, Wiltshire, Nguyen, & Lee, 2020). For instance, highly introverted lecturers may opt for different impression behaviour when compared to their extroverted counterparts, thereby yielding disparate outcomes in their job performance. Understanding these intricacies in the interaction of demographic attributes with impression management provides insightful thoughts regarding lecturer performance, guiding customisable support and training to cater to the diverse needs of educators.

The study aimed at examining this intricate relationship, with a particular focus on the distinct behaviours of the various impression management tactics, encompassing how academics promote themselves in their own accord, ingratiating others, working by showing examples, seeking for favour, and intimidating people. Hence this study examined how the tactics used in managing impression affect the academics' job performance across Universities in Edo State.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

In the academic landscape, university lecturers frequently display various forms of behaviour that depict their impression. These behaviours often affect how they interact with their colleagues, students, and other aspects of the job (Dziedzic & Jastrzębowska, 2022). Some lecturers assume an air of superiority, proudly showcasing their abilities and accomplishments to bolster their professional image. In contrast, others adopt a more amiable and supportive demeanor, striving to build positive relationships with their peers and students. There are also those who present themselves as highly committed and dedicated professionals, while another category tends to portray vulnerability and dependence, seeking support, and assistance from their colleagues or the institution's management (Moe & Katz, 2020; Khisar, *et al.*, 2021).

Perhaps, a more worrisome concern is the use of intimidation, bullying and fear to manipulate colleagues and students, often with the intent of influencing their perceptions (Courtney-Pratt, Pich, Levett-Jones, & Moxey, 2018; Repaja, Miranda, Balansag, & Moneva, 2018). For instance, some lecturers yell at the students and intimidate them during teaching (Barrett, & Scott, 2018). While there is perceived prevalence of impression management experiences within the university environment, their impact on the performance of lecturers is not known. Hence it is essential to determine if lecturers depend on consistent behaviours while fulfilling their duties.

The study's focus is to explore whether they possess individual subjective impression management experiences or if it is feasible to define a core impression management experience in their roles within the institution. It is also pertinent to explore whether the influence of the impression management behaviours on job performance is as a

result of differences in demographic attributes of lecturers based on their age, gender, and personality (Aruoren, 2020; Bourdage, Schmidt, Wiltshire, Nguyen, & Lee, 2020; Renstrom, Gustafsson Senden, & Lindqvist, 2021). Such an examination can provide crucial insights into the various ways in which impression management behaviours differ across different subsets of lecturers.

Although existing research indicates that these impression management actions can produce both positive and negative outcomes (Bolino, *et al.*, 2016; De Silva, 2022; Li, Brown, & Hawe, 2023; Saripek, *et al.*, 2023), the majority of these studies have been conducted in countries other than Nigeria. The researcher is not aware of any study that has been done on what kind of connection exists between the various impressions that academics display and their performance within Nigeria, with specific emphasis on Edo State. This study aimed to address this research gap by exploring how impression management influences the job performance of academics in chosen universities in Edo State, considering the potential mediating role of demographic characteristics in this relationship.

1.3 Research Questions

The study is guided by the following question:

1. How does self-promotion relate to the job performance of academics in universities located in Edo State, Nigeria?
2. What is the impact of Ingratiation on the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State, Nigeria?
3. How does exemplification impact the job performance of academics in universities situated in Edo State, Nigeria?

4. What effect does supplication exert on the job performance of academics in universities located in Edo State, Nigeria?
5. What is the connection between the utilization of intimidation tactics and the job performance of academics in a university setting in Edo State, Nigeria?
6. What is the mediating role of demographic attributes (such as gender, age, and qualification) on the link existing between impression management tactic and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main aim of the research was to establish the connection that existed between impression management tactics and the job performance of academics in chosen universities within Edo State.

The specific objectives are to:

1. Investigate the correlation between self-promotion and the job performance of academics in Edo State universities.
2. examine the influence of ingratiation on the job performance of academics in Edo State universities.
3. assess the relationship between exemplification and the job performance of academics in Edo State universities.
4. assess the effect of supplication on the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State;
5. evaluate the influence of intimidation on the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State; and
6. determine the mediating effect of demographic characteristics (such as gender, age and qualification) on the relationship between impression management and the job performance of lecturers in Universities in Edo State

1.5 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses will guide the study:

1. There is no significant relationship between self-promotion and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State;
2. There is no significant relationship between ingratiation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State;
3. There is no significant relationship between exemplification and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State
4. There is no significant relationship between supplication and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State;
5. There is no significant relationship between intimidation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State
6. Demographic characteristics (such as gender, age, and qualification) do not significantly mediate the relationship between impression management and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This research sought to explore the connection between impression management and job performance of academics in selected universities within Edo State. The exploration of impression management encompasses its various dimensions. Additionally, the assessment of lecturers' job performance encompasses their teaching contributions, research activities, and community involvement. Furthermore, the study investigated whether these behaviours exerted varying influences on job performance depending on the demographic characteristics of the academics. The study was slated for

implementation between July 2023 and January 2024, as it followed a cross-sectional research design.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The research was to provide benefits to various stakeholders in universities, particularly academic institutions, lecturers, students, administrators, and researchers. Below is how they will benefit.

Academic Institutions: By exploring how impression management behaviours intersect with lecturer job performance, these institutions can gain invaluable insights. This understanding equips them to make well-informed decisions pertaining to faculty development and support. They can design tailored programmes to enhance lecturers' interpersonal and communication skills, ensuring that they not only possess academic expertise but also the ability to engage and inspire students effectively. This, invariably promotes productive learning conditions, ultimately benefiting students and the institution's reputation.

Lecturers: The study's potential benefits for lecturers serves as an illuminating guide, allowing them to explore into the intricacies of their professional role. Armed with this newfound awareness, lecturers can consciously adapt their behaviours and strategies in ways that align with their career aspirations. They can identify and strengthen areas of strength, and work on mitigating potential weaknesses. Additionally, this knowledge empowers lecturers to foster more positive and productive relationships with colleagues, students, and administrators. Hence the study provides lecturers with the ideas to navigate the complex terrain of academia and excel in their roles.

Students: Students stand to gain significant advantages from the implications of this study, albeit indirectly. As lecturers refine their professional behaviours and strategies through a better understanding of impression management, students can expect a more

enriched learning experience. These improvements can contribute to students' comprehension and retention of course materials. In this way, students are set to benefit from the ripple effect of lecturers' enhanced job performance through the lens of impression management.

Administrators: This study provides valuable insights for university administrators and department heads. It enables them to make informed decisions in faculty recruitment, training, and evaluation. Administrators can identify candidates with both academic expertise and effective impression management skills, enhancing their ability to engage students and boost the institution's reputation. The results inform the design of customised training programmes aimed at enhancing impression management and teaching practices. Additionally, they contribute to the formulation of equitable evaluation criteria that take into account the influence of impression management on job performance. Hence this study provide the academic leaders the tools for fostering a more productive and effective academic environment.

Researchers: The study's findings hold significance not only for the immediate stakeholders but also resonate within the broader academic community. Other researchers and academics specialising in the domains of organisational behavior would find this study particularly relevant can leverage the insights gleaned from this research as a foundational framework for their own investigations. These insights can serve as a launching point for deeper exploration into the intricate dynamics of impression management and its multifaceted influence on job performance.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The chapter provides a literature review focusing on impression management and its relationship with job performance. It begins with the conceptual review, through the theoretical review and ends with the empirical and research gaps. The conceptual review discusses the dependent and independent variables; the theoretical review discusses relevant theories to the study and the adoption of the most applicable theory. The empirical review discusses previous studies on the discourse. The research gaps are identified which mark the closing section of this chapter.

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Impression Management

The concept of impression management, also known as self-presentation or identity management, is a complex and crucial aspect of organisational psychology (Vanhaltren & Peter, 2019; Saripek et al., 2023). It pertains to the conscious or subconscious processes through which individuals aim to control, influence, or shape the perceptions and opinions that others form of them in various social and professional contexts (Bolino, et al., 2016; Vanhaltren & Peter, 2019). Vanhaltren and Peter, (2019) defines impression management as a conscious or subconscious process in which people attempt to influence the perceptions of other people about a person, object, or event by regulating and controlling information in social interaction. This definition highlights

the intentionality of managing impressions and the role of information control in shaping how one is perceived.

Saripek et al (2023) defines impression management as a deliberate, planned, and ever-evolving process that has a profound impact on the way people experience and navigate their lives. The definition highlights that it is when people are aware and strategic in undertaking actions for the purpose of shaping the way they are perceived by others. It also suggests that impression management is not a static or one-time action but an ongoing and adaptable process. Bolino et al (2016) also note that people engage in impression management to influence the opinions and attitudes of those around them, and this practice has a significant impact on various aspects of their lives. People constantly modify their behavior, looks, and speech in social situations, work environments, as well as their own relationships in order to make particular impressions that support their aims and objectives. Essentially, impression management plays a vital role when it comes to interactions with others by shaping people's perceptions, which in turn affects how they move through and interact with their environment.

Goffman (1957) is credited to have originated the concept of impression management. He describes impression management as involving individuals deliberately crafting specific behaviours during initial face-to-face encounters to leave a meaningful impression on others. These behaviours are crucial for others to form a coherent understanding of the person they are meeting. In essence, impression management is a self-presentation strategy aimed at enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of the image that people project to others. As explained by Goffman (1957), when people share information about themselves, they do not only reveal their inner emotions but also convey information. To establish a genuine portrayal of a specific personality type, the messages they convey must align with their actions (Saripek, *et al.*, 2023). This dual

alignment of behaviour and messaging allows us to discern not only the character they project but also how they behave in practice. It follows that impression management is crucial in the process of relating with people.

Researchers generally agree that impression management involves an individual's actions with the intention of shaping how others perceive them (Anand, 2013; De Silva, 2022; Bolino, *et al.*, 2016; Saripek *et al.*, 2023). They demonstrate that impression management is usually involves carefully managing one's behaviour, appearance, and communication to create a specific image or impression in the minds of those they interact with (Anand, 2013). The primary goal of impression management is thus to influence how others perceive and evaluate the individual, often with the intention of gaining social acceptance, approval, trust, or other desired outcomes (De Silva, 2022). Saripek *et al* (2023) highlights the purpose of impression management by stating that individuals aim to foster positive and harmonious social connections with those they interact with by taking into consideration how others perceive them. This is particularly crucial for individuals aspiring to succeed in both their personal and professional interactions, seeking approval and acceptance from their peers. To achieve these objectives, people engage in a range of deliberate and subconscious actions to craft a specific image or impression that aligns with their desired social or professional identity. Their overarching purpose is to carefully construct a distinct image or impression that closely aligns with the particular social or professional identity they aspire to embody (De Silva, 2022). This process reflects the complex nature of human social dynamics, where individuals navigate the intricacies of interpersonal relationships in their pursuit of recognition, belonging, and success (Vanhaltren & Peter, 2019; De Silva, 2022).

It therefore follows that impression management is the purposeful or subconscious enactment of behaviours, communication strategies, and information control to influence the perceptions, opinions, and judgments of others, aiming to project a specific image, whether in social, professional, or personal contexts.

Within the University, impression management behaviour can be observed in lecturer-student relationship. As noted by Vanhaltren and Peter, (2019), lecturers may adjust their teaching style and methods to create a particular impression. They may adopt a more formal or informal approach, depending on their goals and the type of students they are teaching. By keeping up with the most recent findings in the field and exhibiting a thorough comprehension of the material, lecturers can further control the perception of their knowledge. In the eyes of their students, this can increase their trustworthiness. It is a common goal of lecturers to be personable and available to their students. They might keep office hours, reply to emails right away, and try to interact with students personally, all of which might leave a good impression.

2.1.1.1 Reason for Impression Management

Impression management plays a pivotal role in everyday life, influencing how individuals are perceived by peers, colleagues, superiors, and society at large. Understanding these various behaviours of impression management can shed light on the intricacies of human interaction and social influence (Vanhaltren, & Peter, 2019).

Impression management is necessary for creating the right view about people. Anand (2013) explains that the creation of first impression can translate as the last impression. He argues that initial encounter is significant in shaping how individuals perceive and evaluate others. In various personal and professional contexts, the first impression often sets the tone for future interactions, and it can be challenging to alter or override the

judgments formed during that initial meeting. This phenomenon is rooted in psychological biases and the human tendency to rely on heuristics for quick judgments. Even if first impressions do not always accurately represent someone's qualities or talents, they do emphasize how crucial it is to leave a lasting impression on others because it can have a significant impact on opportunities, relationships, and perceptions down the road. It is a reminder that the way we present ourselves and engage with others in the beginning can have lasting effects.

De Silva (2022) explains that impression management serves the purpose of achieving favourable results while minimizing unfavourable consequences. These results can pertain to various aspects, including social or personal ones such as authority, relationships, support, and approval. Conversely, they may also encompass material outcomes such as promotions and salary increases.

Impression management is used by different people in the organisation continuously. As noted by Vanhaltren and Peter (2019) impression management is an ongoing process. Newcomers employ it to gain acceptance within the organisation, while veteran employees utilise it to wield influence. The impressions are created from the way people convey messages to others about their identity, whether through their performance, appearance, or behaviour. This prompts the audience to form perceptions about the individual's identity, which the individual subsequently works to uphold and make convincing to the audience.

2.1.1.2. Classification of Impression Management

Different categories have been applied to handling impressions. Who the initial reaction is meant for determines one type. This viewpoint divides impression handling into two categories: direct and indirect handling of impressions. Tal-Or and Drukman, (2010)

explain direct impression management as involving individuals taking an active role in promoting their own accomplishments and successes. In essence, it is a straightforward approach where individuals showcase their strengths, achievements, and competencies to create a favourable image (Al-Shatti, & Ohana, 2021). In other words, direct impression management is about individuals directly and assertively presenting their best attributes to shape how others perceive them.

On the other hand, indirect impression management, also referred to as impression management by association, is a more subtle strategy (Al-Shatti, & Ohana, 2021). In this approach, individuals utilise their interactions with colleagues or associates to indirectly craft positive impressions of themselves. It involves forming favourable perceptions by association with other people or groups who have positive qualities. Indirect impression management relies on the principle that people tend to be influenced by the company one keeps, and individuals strategically leverage this phenomenon to enhance their own image.

Melchers, et al (2020) further classify impression management in terms of how impressions are demonstrated. As explained by them, impressions are portrayed through verbal and non-verbal means. The term "nonverbal impression management" refers to a broad category of behaviors and movements that people use to communicate ideas without speaking (Melchers, et al., 2020). They recognise typical methods of expressing perceptions as laughing, using gestures with their hands, keeping gazes fixed, and nods in agreement. They argue that the nonverbal cues are powerful tools for individuals to shape the way others perceive them. For instance, a warm smile during a conversation can indicate friendliness and approachability, while steady eye contact can signify confidence and sincerity. Also nodding in agreement reinforces the impression of active listening and agreement with the speaker's points. Additionally, Merchers et al

(2020) distinguished two forms of verbal impression management namely assertive and defensive tactics. Assertive tactics is used to create a favourable impression or actively promote a positive image of themselves. This often involve showcasing strengths and competencies to make a strong case for suitability. In contrast to assertive tactics, defensive tactics are used to protect or enhance oneself by downplaying or mitigating negative information (Merchers *et al.*, 2020). Defensive tactics are often employed to manage potential weaknesses or unfavourable aspects of one's background, while still trying to maintain a positive overall impression.

From the above it can be deduced that impression management can take both direct and indirect ways. It can also be expressed verbally or non-verbally. These impressions allow individuals to shape how they are perceived by others, influence opinions, and achieve their personal and professional goals by effectively managing the impressions they convey.

2.1.1.3 Dimensions of Impression Management

People choose to use different impression strategies. Recent research suggests that lecturers often utilise tactics such as self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation (Chaubey, & Kandpal, 2017; Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020; Lind, 2022). These dimensions are discussed below.

Self-Promotion

Self-promotion focuses on highlighting one's own achievements, skills, and positive qualities to establish credibility and competence (Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020; Merchers *et al.*, 2020). Put another way, creating a favorable and pleasant impression of oneself in the viewpoint of other people is the main objective of self-promotion. Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, and Campion, (2014) provide a comprehensive description of self-

promotion as a deliberate and purposeful behaviour that involves the active presentation of one's accomplishments, expertise, knowledge, and other positive qualities. This view of self-promotion underscores the intentionality and purpose behind self-promotion and its role in personal and professional contexts where creating a positive image is crucial for success. It implies that people who promote themselves are in essence making a deliberate attempt to draw attention to their accomplishments and skills, so advertising their advantages to others in their immediate vicinity. It is akin to creating a carefully curated image that portrays them in the best possible light. Self-promotion may manifest in various ways, such as confidently discussing one's achievements, emphasising relevant skills, or showcasing past successes.

Essentially, self-promotion is a deliberate impression handling approach employed to influence others' opinions about the individual, with the intention of leaving a positive and memorable impression. Kleinmann and Klehe (2011) have also suggested that self-promotion holds particular significance in predicting how an individual will gain acceptance by others. They imply that when individuals effectively communicate their strengths, experiences, and competencies in social interaction, they are more likely to carry those qualities forward and perform well in actual job roles or tasks.

Ingratiation

Ingratiation involves efforts to make oneself more likable and gain favour with others. Cialdini and Cialdini, (2007) describe ingratiation as the act of people trying to get others to like them by complimenting them, expressing admiration, or engaging in behaviours that enhance their perceived similarity to the target person. They suggest that when people engage in ingratiation, they create a sense of connection and goodwill, making it more likely that the target person will respond positively in return.

Also, “ingratiation refers to a behaviour by an individual seeking to increase his or her attractiveness in the eyes of others” (Wu, Kwan, Wei, and Liu, 2013, p.992). The purpose is to manipulate or shape someone else's perception of that person. Ingratiation can involve offering compliments, displaying agreeable behaviour, or demonstrating genuine interest in the opinions and concerns of others. It can be achieved through compliments, flattery, agreeableness, and expressions of warmth and friendliness (Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020; Yan, Xie, Zhao, Zhang, Bashir, & Liu, 2020). Ortbach and Recker, (2014) argue that greetings and praising people are the most common ways of demonstrating ingratiation. This is because when using ingratiation tactics, the individual seeks to win favour, gain approval, or build rapport with others by using various tactics and behaviours (Yan *et al.*, 2020).

Exemplification

Exemplification is a facet of impression management that involves portraying oneself as a virtuous, dedicated, or morally upright individual, often through self-sacrifice or going above and beyond what is expected. According to Long (2017, p.2), “the dimension that would include employees managing appearances by showing up to work early and leaving late, or limiting vacations and then being accessible when actually taking one, has been labeled exemplification”. This suggests that exemplification involves demonstrating moral values, dedication, and a strong work ethic to create a positive image. This can include setting high standards for oneself and adhering to them as a way of earning respect and admiration.

Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, and Gilstrap (2008) characterize exemplification as a strategic form of impression management in which employees, referred to as exemplifiers, aim to exemplify and showcase to others, termed audiences, their willingness to surpass what is required, intending to influence how they are perceived.

The motivation behind exemplification often stems from an individual's identity—either an understanding of their current self or an aspiration for their future self (Long, 2017). Cuddy, Glick, and Beninger (2011) additionally highlight that exemplifiers seek respect and admiration, with their identity and assessments of how they are perceived in relation to this identity driving employees to adopt specific strategies to manage others' perceptions.

While employees may adopt various reasons and methods to go above and beyond expectations, exemplification is distinctive in that it is a deliberate tactic employed to control how one is specifically evaluated by others within a workplace (Bolino & Turnley, 2012). A critical examination of exemplification highlights both its advantages and potential drawbacks. On the positive side, exemplification can enhance an individual's perceived moral character and commitment to specific values or goals. It can be a genuine and effective way to inspire and motivate others by setting a high moral standard or illustrating dedication through personal sacrifice. For example, someone who exemplifies hard work and dedication in their job may be viewed as a role model by their colleagues, encouraging similar behaviour. As outlined by Aguinis and O'Boyle (2014), exemplification can provide distinct advantages to employees. Beyond the implicit expectations of workplace norms encouraging employees to act as exemplars, individuals who exceed expectations for their organisation are frequently recognized as playing a pivotal role in the success of the organisation (Long, 2017). Furthermore, Saad (2014) notes that exemplification as self-sacrifice can potentially lead to important workplace outcomes. For instance Yam, Fehr, and Barnes, (2014) agree that exemplification can promote performance ratings, pay, and promotions.

Researchers have also attributed exemplification to organisational citizenship behaviour. They argue that exemplifiers often demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviour by

playing The function of organisational citizens involves individuals who are supportive, engage in regular volunteering, express their opinions, and exceed the typical expectations set by their organisations (Bolino & Turnley, 2012; Long, 2017).

A critical drawback of exemplification is the possibility of being perceived as insincere or pretentious if individuals use this strategy excessively or inauthentically (Ham & Vonk, 2011). When exemplification is seen as a calculated impression management tactic rather than a reflection of genuine values and character, it may undermine trust and credibility. People may become skeptical if they believe that exemplification is merely a means to gain approval or social benefits. As noted by Long (2017), when an individual who usually goes above and beyond unexpectedly seeks feedback from a supervisor just before a performance review, the supervisor may perceive that the feedback is influenced more by the impending review rather than the genuine dedication of the employee, leading to an inference of seduction rather than true dedication. Secondly, exemplification can lead to feelings of inadequacy or pressure in others. When someone consistently sets a very high moral or ethical standard, it may inadvertently create an environment where others feel pressured to meet those standards, leading to stress and reduced well-being (Brooks, Gino, & Schweitzer, 2015). This can be particularly problematic in work or social contexts where individuals feel compelled to emulate the exemplifier's behaviour. Exemplification can be a powerful way for lecturers to influence their students and colleagues positively. By embodying the values and behaviours they wish to promote, they lead by example and encourage others to follow suit. This approach can be instrumental in fostering a positive learning environment and a collaborative, supportive academic community.

Supplication

Supplication involves conveying a sense of vulnerability or helplessness to elicit assistance or sympathy from others (Risvi, Abbas, Akhtar, & Imran, 2011; Wang & Highhouse, 2016). In the view of Wang and Highhouse (2016), supplication involves individuals exaggerating their weaknesses, while modesty entails individuals concealing their strengths. Therefore, individuals publicize their weaknesses or deficiencies to elicit assistance or sympathy from others. This dimension is often used in situations where individuals seek support or leniency, such as when admitting mistakes or seeking help. It involves presenting oneself as helpless, dependent, or in need of assistance. This impression management tactic is often employed to elicit sympathy, support, or assistance from others. As highlighted by Blickle, Diekmann, Schneider, Kalthofer, and Summers (2012), the purpose of supplication is to portray oneself as incompetent and in need, while modesty aims to present oneself as less successful and more approachable. This strategy is employed when individuals seek assistance or wish to be relieved from undesirable work assignments (Turnley & Bolino, 2019). Therefore, supplication goes beyond merely concealing strengths; it involves an exaggeration of one's weaknesses. It can manifest in various forms, such as seeking help with tasks, displaying vulnerability, or expressing an inability to cope with certain situations.

A closer examination of supplication reveals its dynamics, implications, and the motivations behind this behaviour. Firstly, supplication can be an effective way to gain sympathy and support from others, especially in situations where individuals genuinely need assistance (Lim, Chidambaram, & Carte, 2018). When someone presents themselves as helpless or in need, it often triggers a natural response in others to provide aid or comfort. This is a fundamental aspect of social cooperation and empathy. However, there is a fine line between genuine supplication and manipulative behaviour.

Some individuals may employ supplication as a strategic tactic to exploit others for personal gain (Arif, et al., 2011). They might exaggerate their helplessness or dependency to elicit sympathy and, ultimately, take advantage of the situation. This manipulation can erode trust and lead to skepticism in social interactions (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007).

Moreover, excessive or insincere supplication can lead to dependency issues (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007). When individuals repeatedly present themselves as incapable or in constant need of help, they risk becoming reliant on others and neglecting their personal growth and self-sufficiency. In the long run, this can hinder their ability to face challenges and develop resilience.

From the above, it can be deduced that while supplication can be a genuine and effective way to receive help in times of need, it also has the potential for manipulation and can lead to dependency issues or feelings of powerlessness. In the context of university lecturers, supplication can have varying effects on the way they teach their students and interact with their colleagues:

Intimidation

Intimidation as an impression management strategy involves deliberately using tactics or behaviours to create fear, dominance, or a sense of power over others in order to shape the way one is perceived (Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020). According to Arif et al (2011, p.713),

“intimidation is an impression management tactic in which individuals try to make an impression that they can make the things difficult for them if they are tried to be pushed too far. They deal toughly with the individuals who interfere in their matters, or use forceful behaviour to get colleagues to behave properly... individual using intimidation try to look stubborn and obstinate”.

The above statement suggests that a key aspect of intimidation is the use of aggressive or threatening behaviours, both overt and subtle, to establish dominance and control over others. This includes raising one's voice, using body language to appear physically imposing, or making veiled threats and bullying (Ariff, et al., 2011; Banzon-Librojo, Garabiles, & Alampay, 2017; De Silver, 2022). The goal is to make others perceive the intimidator as strong and in control.

Intimidation is not limited to physical actions; it can also extend to the use of language and communication. Verbal intimidation includes using derogatory language, insults, or demeaning comments to belittle or humiliate others (Banzon-Librojo, et al., 2017). This tactic is employed to establish power and assert dominance over others by making them feel inferior.

From an ethical standpoint, intimidation is generally considered unacceptable (Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020). This is because it goes against the principles of respect, collaboration, and ethical behaviour (Takpor & Ogoanah, 2020). It thus implies that intimidation can lead to harm, fear, and emotional distress in others.

It follows that intimidation as an impression management strategy involves the use of aggressive, threatening, or demeaning behaviours to establish dominance and control over others. While it may achieve short-term objectives, it often has negative consequences in the form of strained relationships, fear, and ethical concerns. Promoting respectful, collaborative, and ethical approaches to impression management is crucial for maintaining healthy and productive social interactions. Intimidation is not an appropriate or ethical tactic for lecturers, or anyone, to use in teaching their students or relating to their colleagues. In the academic setting, intimidation is counterproductive, damaging to relationships, and inconsistent with the principles of

respect, fairness, and professionalism. University lecturers are expected to foster a positive and inclusive learning environment and maintain respectful and collegial relationships with their colleagues.

2.1.2 Job Performance

Job performance deals with the degree to which an individual fulfills the expectations set by an organisation. There are various ways in which job performance has been described. Kamanga and Ismail (2016) define performance as the degree to which an organisation is able to accomplish its set goals that align with its mission. This definition focuses on the capacity of the organisation in the attainment of their goals as aligned with its mission, is straightforward and goal-oriented. It emphasises the importance of goal accomplishment as a measure of performance, which is certainly a crucial aspect of assessing organisational success. However, the definition may be considered somewhat narrow as it primarily centers on the outcome and might not capture other essential elements of performance, such as the processes, and efficiency that an organisation exhibits in reaching its goals.

Dunggio (2021) defines performance as the fulfillment of obligations, specifically the completion of basic tasks in accordance with prescribed responsibilities and authorities outlined in work standards. The definition aligns with Nwadiokwu's, (2023) who posits that job performance is concerned with how a particular individual carries out the task assigned to him. It is also similar to Imasuen (2023) that job performance refers to the results of an employee's efforts in terms of both the quality and quantity of their work, as they fulfill their assigned duties and responsibilities in accordance with their designated obligations. These views appear succinct and straightforward because they emphasis the direct link between task fulfillment and observable outcomes and they

capture the essence of performance by highlighting the fundamental idea that performance is about achieving predefined criteria and generating tangible results.

However, they overlook the broader concept of performance, which can encompass not only meeting expectations but also exceeding them, fostering innovation, collaboration, and adaptability. In today's dynamic work environments, the definition should encompass not just task completion but also the ability to contribute to the organisation's overall goals, adapt to changing circumstances, and actively seek opportunities for improvement.

Otoku (2019) is of the view that job performance is the proficient completion of assigned tasks and the valuable contributions made by an employee to the overall social work environment. This definition suggests that job performance is a comprehensive concept that combines task-oriented competence with the employee's capacity to enhance the social and collaborative aspects of the work environment. It acknowledges that successful job performance is not solely about completing tasks but also about contributing positively to the overall workplace culture and dynamics.

The description of job performance by Otoku (2019) aligns with two categorisation of job performance such as actions that are specific to a given job, known as task performance, and actions that apply universally across positions within the organisation, termed contextual performance (Dania & Oshodin, 2015; Koopman, Bernaards, Hiderbrandt, Buuren, Beek & Vet, 2014; Edigbonya, 2023). Task performance involves meeting the job's in-role requirements as outlined in the employee's job description (Dania & Oshodin, 2015). Undertaking additional roles that are not explicitly outlined in job descriptions but are integral to achieving the institution's broader goals is regarded as contextual performance (Edigbonya & Ezeani, 2021). Contextual performance is less rigidly defined by specific roles and tends to be more

ambiguous in nature as it is not explicitly detailed in an individual's job description (Ediagbonya, 2023). It contributes to the organisational, social, and psychological framework required to support task performance. These performance categories find application in elucidating the job performance of lecturers, as elaborated below.

2.1.2.1 Job Performance of Academics

The concept of job performance for university academics or lecturers deals with the effectiveness in fulfilling their job responsibilities and meeting the expectations of their role within the academic institution. Nwadiokwu (2023) defines the job performance of lecturers as the ability of lecturers to perform their assigned tasks. This definition merely explains one aspect of the task performance of academics. It thus lacks the necessary depth required to adequately capture the diverse responsibilities and expectations placed upon the lecturers. Job performance of lecturers involves more than just meeting the minimum requirements of the job. Effective teaching, for example, goes beyond delivering lectures and grading assignments; it also encompasses the ability to engage students, foster critical thinking, and adapt to diverse learning styles (Elfindri, Rustad, Nisam, & Dahrulsyah, 2015). Additionally, lecturers are often expected to engage in research and contribute to their field through publications and academic service (Rabo, 2022). Hence a more comprehensive definition of job performance for lecturers should consider various aspects that includes Competence of instruction, output of research, contentment of students, and support to the mission of the university thus reflecting the task and contextual performance of the lecturers.

Edobor and Akenzua (2023) define the job performance of lecturers as encompassing effective pedagogy, transformation of students into well-rounded individuals, and the

cultivation of future contributors to their communities and society. The definition underscores the transformative role of lecturers in shaping students' intellectual and personal development, inspiring them, and instilling values and social responsibility. This transformation extends beyond the classroom and aims to produce individuals who can contribute to their communities and society by nurturing essential skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and effective communication for societal progress (Rabo, 2022).

Furthermore, the definition reflects the task and contextual performance of the lecturers. For instance, effective pedagogy typically refers to the lecturer's ability to deliver course content, facilitate learning, and engage students in the educational process. This can be considered a key aspect of task performance, as it directly relates to the core responsibilities and duties of a lecturer. Also, the transformation of students into well-rounded individuals suggests a broader and more holistic role for lecturers. It involves not only teaching subject matter but also contributing to students' personal development and character (Ogbonna, 2020; Okolocha, Akam, & Uchehara, 2021). This aspect is related to both task and contextual performance, as it goes beyond the basic curriculum and can involve mentoring, guidance, and support. Additionally, the cultivation of future contributors to their communities and society extends the lecturer's impact beyond the classroom. This aspect is more aligned with contextual performance, as it relates to the lecturer's ability to influence students' future contributions to society, which may not be directly tied to their daily teaching tasks.

Thus, it follows that task and contextual elements can both be used to evaluate how well lecturers perform on the job. In this sense, the task performance involves their ability to effectively convey complex concepts, engage students in active learning, and foster critical thinking within the classroom, ensuring the successful delivery of subject

matter (Wahyudi, 2022). Contextual performance, on the other hand, goes beyond the classroom, as lecturers play a transformative role in shaping students' intellectual and personal development. By fostering vital skills such as analytical thinking, and strong interpersonal interaction, they hope to develop people who can actively participate in societal progress and inspire, mentor, and instill values and social responsibility in their students.

2.1.2.2 Demographic Characteristics

Demographics, including age, gender, and personality (such as introversion and extroversion) are common features among lecturers. They are discussed below.

Age

Age demographics among lecturers in academic institutions can vary widely. Younger lecturers, often in their late 20s to early 40s, may bring fresh perspectives, technological proficiency, and recent academic insights. They might be more inclined to adapt to innovative teaching methods. In contrast, older lecturers, typically in their 40s and above, may possess extensive teaching experience, subject expertise, and institutional knowledge. They can provide valuable mentorship and stability. However, age diversity among lecturers can sometimes lead to differences in teaching styles, communication preferences, and attitudes toward change, which institutions must navigate effectively to ensure a harmonious work environment and the best educational outcomes for students. For instance, Arif et al. (2011) notes that among young individuals, there is an inclination to project a favourable image by employing tactics such as ingratiation and exemplification. However, as individuals age, there is a shift away from the use of positive strategies, and they tend to adopt negative ones like intimidation and supplication.

Age demographics among lecturers can significantly impact the academic environment and the dynamics within educational institutions. Younger lecturers often bring a fresh perspective to teaching and learning. They are typically more technologically savvy, which is increasingly important in today's digitally driven education landscape. Younger lecturers may be more open to adopting innovative teaching methods, incorporating multimedia, and engaging with students through online platforms and social media. Their recent academic experiences and research may also reflect current trends and developments in their respective fields. However, they may have limited teaching experience and face challenges in managing large classes and establishing authority.

On the other hand, older lecturers, who have accumulated years of teaching and academic experience, can offer stability and a wealth of knowledge. They often serve as mentors to younger colleagues, providing guidance and institutional wisdom. Their extensive experience may enable them to navigate administrative processes more effectively. However, older lecturers may be less inclined to embrace newer teaching technologies and methodologies, potentially leading to a generation gap in teaching approaches. Balancing the strengths of both younger and older lecturers is essential for creating a well-rounded and dynamic educational environment that benefits students and fosters professional growth among faculty members. It's also important for institutions to support ongoing professional development to help lecturers adapt to changing educational landscapes while preserving the valuable traditions of academia.

Gender

Men and women exhibit varying inclinations in employing distinct impression management tactics. Certain tactics, often classified as masculine, result in more favourable performance evaluations and higher salaries, while others, characterized as

feminine, lead to less favourable outcomes (Arif, et al., 2011). The contention is that impression management tactics are usually directed at one gender group than the others. For instance, Arif et al (2011) and Laura (2016) reveal that Men and women exhibit varying inclinations in employing distinct impression management tactics. Certain tactics, often classified as masculine, result in more favourable performance evaluations and higher salaries, while others, characterized as feminine, lead to less favourable outcomes.

Personality

Personality refers to the unique and enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that characterize an individual (Kreitler, 2019). It encompasses a person's distinctive way of interacting with the world, reacting to situations, and relating to others (Shoda, & Mischel, 2014). Researchers argue on various forms of personality inventory. Two common personality inventories that are used to explain academic actors' behaviour include Jungian introvert and extrovert personality inventories (Toma, 2015; Allouane, & Boulmaiz, 2017). It is argued that individuals have a fundamental orientation either toward the external world (extraversion) or the internal world (introversion) (Rosemarino, 2018; Kreitler, 2019). Extraverts are outgoing and focused on external stimuli, while introverts are more reflective and directed inward (Rosemarino, 2018).

It follows that introverted lecturers, who are often characterised by their more reserved and reflective nature, bring a unique set of strengths to the academic environment (Laney, 2012; Cain, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 2022). Their teaching style may emphasise thought-provoking lectures, thorough explanations, and an emphasis on critical thinking. In smaller, more intimate classroom settings, introverted lecturers can foster deep discussions, encourage quieter students to participate, and create an environment

that values depth over breadth (Walsh & Sattes, 2015). However, they may find large classroom teaching more challenging, as it may require more energy and adaptability to engage a broader audience.

Extroverted lecturers bring a dynamic and engaging energy to the academic environment (Shaari, Yusoff, Ghasali, Osman, & Dsahir, 2014). They are often characterised by their outgoing nature, enthusiasm, and comfort in social interactions. In the classroom, they can excel at engaging and captivating students through interactive lectures, group activities, and vibrant discussions (Medaille, & Usinger, 2019).

Their teaching style is typically well-suited for large classroom settings where they can project enthusiasm and create an atmosphere of active participation. Extroverted lecturers often have a talent for connecting with students and fostering a sense of belonging in the academic community (Shaari et al., 2014). Their sociable nature can be beneficial for networking, collaborating on research projects, and representing their institution in public engagements and outreach activities. Therefore, by recognising the strengths of both introverted and extroverted lecturers and encouraging collaboration between them can contribute to a richer and more diverse educational experience for students.

2.1.3 Overview of Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria

Nigerian tertiary institutions have been grouped in different ways. They can be grouped in terms of ownership. In this sense, the tertiary institutions include Federal, State, and privately-owned universities (Odigiri, Watson, Hayes, & Tekelas, 2020). This can also be regarded as public and privately-owned Universities (Ahunanya, 2012; Nwokocha, Kennedy-Nkwocha, & Onyekwere, 2020; Olaleye, Ukpabi, & Mogaji, 2020). Another

way of classifying the tertiary institutions is in terms of the period they were established. Hence the first generation universities were founded before the 1970s, the second generation emerged in the 1970s, and the third generation universities were established by either Federal or State governments in the 1980s and 1990s (Odigiri, et al., 2020). Additionally, the fourth generation universities, established in the late 1990s and 2000s, are primarily initiated by private individuals or organizations (Odigiri et al., 2020). In terms of funding, the Nigerian University Commission (NUC) supports federal institutions, while state-owned universities receive financial support from the state ministries of education or the office of the governors (Okebukola, 2015). This study adopts the public and privately-owned grouping of tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The public and private tertiary institutions such as the University of Benin, Ambrose Ali University, Ekpoma, Igbinedion University and Benson Idahosa University respectively.

2.1.3 Conceptual Framework

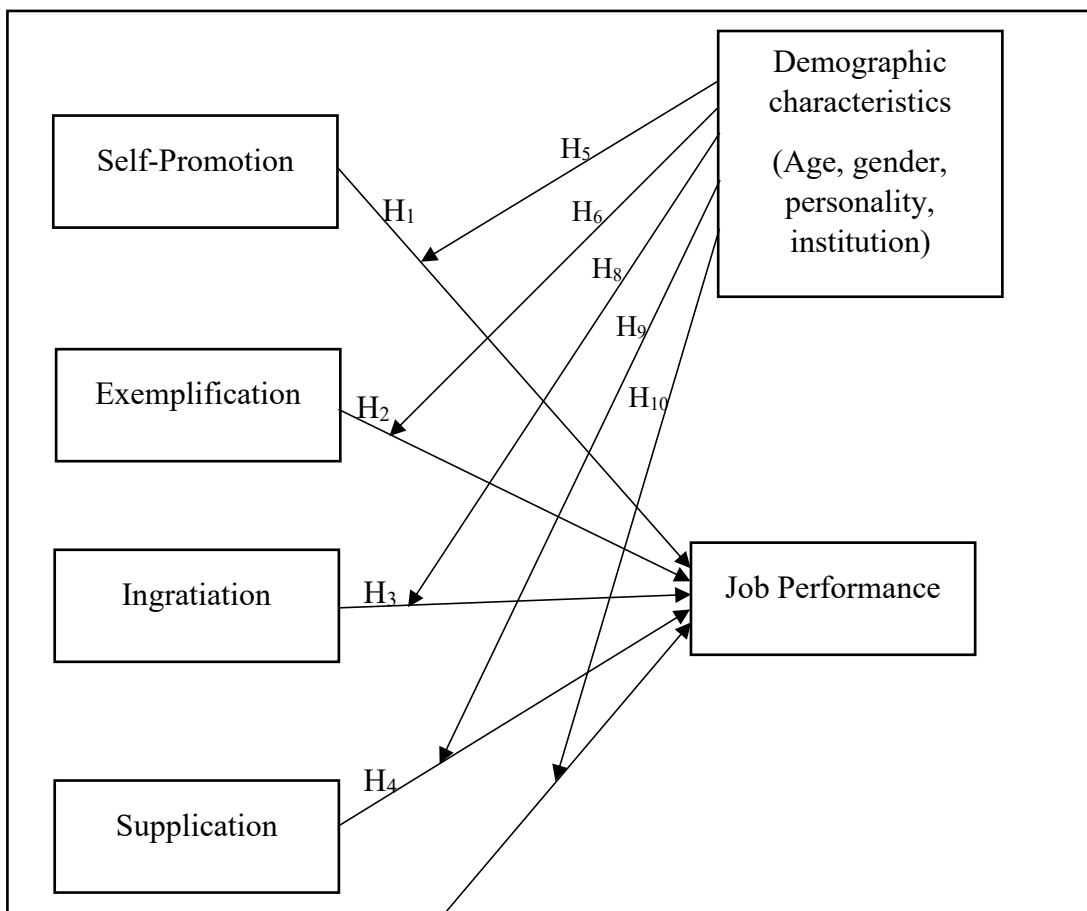
The conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 1 delineates the interrelationships among the study variables. The independent variable, impression management, is operationalized through self-promotion, exemplification, ingratiation, supplication, and intimidation. Job performance serves as the dependent variable, reflecting the outcome under investigation. Introducing demographic characteristics as a mediating variable suggests that these personal attributes play a role in the relationship between impression management and job performance.

Hypotheses 1 to 5 propose that various facets of impression management significantly impact job performance. This implies that how individuals strategically present themselves through self-promotion, exemplification, ingratiation, supplication, or

intimidation has a direct influence on their overall job performance. Hypothesis 6 introduces the idea that demographic characteristics mediate the relationship between impression management and job performance. In other words, the impact of impression management on job performance may be influenced or moderated by demographic factors such as age, gender, education, or other relevant variables. This suggests a more understanding of how the effectiveness of impression management might differ across diverse demographic profiles.

The overall model provides a comprehensive view of the dynamics between impression management, demographic characteristics, and job performance. It not only examines the direct impact of impression management on job performance but also considers the mediating influence of demographic factors, adding depth to the understanding of these complex relationships. The hypotheses provide a framework for empirical testing, allowing researchers to explore and validate these relationships in the specific context of the study.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework



Source: Researcher's construction (2023)

2.2 Theoretical Review

In this section the theories that are related to impression management and job performance are reviewed. It is divided into two sub-parts such as theories related to impression management and theories related to job performance. The section concludes with the presentation of theoretical framework.

2.2.1 Theories Related to Impression Management

The theories that are related to impression management include Goffman's dramaturgical, self-monitoring, social exchange theory, self-verification, and face negotiation theories. They are discussed below.

2.2.1.1 Goffman's Dramaturgical Theory

Goffman (1959) introduced the Dramaturgical Theory. Goffman's Dramaturgical Theory is based on several key assumptions: Goffman (1959) analogises social interactions to a theatrical performance. He suggests that people assume diverse roles in different social contexts and employ impression management to portray a specific image to those around them. Goffman (1959) divides an individual's life into "front stage" (public self) and "back stage" (private self). The front stage represents the setting where an individual interacts with others, while the back stage is where they can relax

and be themselves, free from the scrutiny of others. Central to the theory is the concept of impression management. People actively manipulate their appearance, behaviour, and communication to influence the impressions others form of them (Brems, Temmerman, Graham, & Broersma, 2017). They present a carefully curated version of themselves in social situations.

Goffman (1959) theory provides a practical framework for understanding how people navigate social interactions and manage their public image. It has real-world applicability in various social settings, such as workplaces, relationships, and social gatherings. The theater metaphor used in the theory is a vivid and relatable way to conceptualise social behaviour and has been influential in the fields of sociology and communication. Some critics argue that Goffman's dramaturgical model oversimplifies the complexities of human behaviour and identity (Jacobsen, & Kristiansen, 2010; Dell, 2016). It may not fully capture the nuances of genuine, unscripted interactions. The theory focuses primarily on individual-level interaction and self-presentation. It does not address broader structural and societal factors that can also influence social behaviour and impression management (Adler-Nissen, 2016; Brems, et al., 2017).

In a contemporary study on impression management, Goffman's Dramaturgical Theory can provide valuable insights into how individuals strategically present themselves on social media platforms (Adler-Nissen, 2016). In the era of digital communication, people curate their online identities in a manner analogous to a theatrical performance on a virtual stage (Dell, 2016). They carefully choose what to display on their public profiles (front stage) to create specific impressions while reserving more personal aspects for private messages and interactions (back stage). This theory can help researchers understand the strategies people employ in online self-presentation, the impact of social media on identity management, and the roles of authenticity and

artifice in shaping virtual personas. Furthermore, Goffman's concept of impression management can shed light on the psychological and sociological aspects of online self-presentation, which has become increasingly relevant in the digital age.

2.2.1.2 Self-Monitoring Theory

The Self-Monitoring Theory, introduced by Snyder (1974), explores the concept of self-monitoring as a personality trait that influences how individuals manage their social interactions and self-presentation (Wilmot, Kostal, Stillwell, & Kosinski, 2017).

The underlying presumptions of this hypothesis are as follows:

First, it makes the assumption that various individuals monitor themselves to differing degrees, with certain individuals having considerable self-monitoring degrees and others having low ones (Wilmot et al., 2017). People with high self-monitors are skilled at modifying their behavior and outward appearance to fit various social contexts, often seeking social approval and adjusting their image to align with the expectations and norms of the situation (Oh, Charlier, Mount, & Berry, 2014). On the other hand, individuals with low self-monitoring tendencies tend to exhibit a greater degree of consistency in their actions, revealing their authentic selves in diverse situations and showing less susceptibility to external expectations (Oh et al., 2014). Additionally, the theory posits that self-monitoring behavior is shaped by a blend of personality traits, social surroundings, and cultural elements (Snyder, & Copeland, 2013). High self-monitors may thrive in social and professional settings where adaptability is valued, while low self-monitors may feel more authentic in situations that allow them to be themselves without the need for constant adjustment (Snyder, & Copeland, 2013; Oh et al., 2014).

The strengths of the Self-Monitoring Theory lie in its capacity to explain and predict how individuals adapt their behaviour to different social contexts (Oh et al., 2014). It has been valuable in understanding social influence, leadership effectiveness, and interpersonal relationships. However, it has its limitations (Wilmot et al., 2017). A limitation lies in its tendency to oversimplify human behavior, as individuals often fall on a spectrum between high and low self-monitoring, as well situation-specific conditions exerting substantial influence (Day, & Schleicher, 2006). Furthermore, the theory may neglect ethical considerations linked to excessive self-monitoring and the authenticity issues that may arise in interpersonal interactions.

In the context of a current study on impression management, the Self-Monitoring Theory can offer valuable insights into how individuals strategically present themselves in online and offline settings (Abell, & Brewer, 2014). High self-monitors may exhibit different behaviours and self-presentation styles depending on the platform, audience, or context, seeking to manage the impressions they make. On social media, for example, they might curate their online personas to align with perceived social norms and gain more followers or likes. Low self-monitors, on the other hand, may prioritise authenticity and consistency in their online self-presentation. Researchers can use this theory to explore the motivations and consequences of self-monitoring in the digital age, shedding light on how individuals navigate the complex terrain of impression management in various online and offline social contexts.

2.2.1.3 Social Exchange Theory

The “Social Exchange Theory” was developed by sociologist. Homans in the early 1960s as cited by Cropanzano, and Mitchell, (2005). Building on the work of

behavioural psychology and economic principles, the theory explains the social behaviour through the lens of rational choice and the exchange of resources.

As the theory explains, individuals participate in social interactions with the anticipation of receiving rewards or facing consequences (Cropanzano, & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). In the context of student-lecturer dyadic relationships, or lecturer-lecturer relationship. Students and lecturers may engage in a reciprocal exchange of resources. Students invest time and effort in learning, while lecturers provide knowledge, guidance, and evaluation. The interactions are driven by the perceived benefits and costs, shaping the dynamics of the relationship.

The Social Exchange Theory's strength lies in its capacity to elucidate relationship dynamics through the lens of rational decision-making, highlighting the significance of mutual advantage and shedding light on the reasons behind individuals' choices in interactions (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Nevertheless, critics contend that it oversimplifies intricate social relationships by portraying them as economic transactions (Mitchell, Cropanzano, & Quisenberry, 2012). Moreover, it may not comprehensively encompass the emotional or psychological dimensions inherent in relationships ((Mitchell, et al., 2012). Impression management, originating from social psychology, refers to the intentional or unintentional efforts to manipulate how others perceive oneself. In the realm of student-lecturer relationships, both students and lecturers may employ impression management to shape the impressions they create on each other. Students might project an image of attentiveness and diligence, hoping to garner positive feedback and grades. Lecturers, on the other hand, may strategically present themselves as knowledgeable and approachable, aiming to cultivate a positive and conducive learning atmosphere.

2.2.1.4 Self-Verification Theory

Self-Verification Theory, introduced by Swann (1980s) as cited by Swann (2012), is a psychological theory that focuses on individuals' preference for feedback that confirms their existing self-concept, whether positive or negative (Swann, 2012). The primary assumption is that individuals have a fundamental motivation to maintain a consistent and stable self-concept (Swann, 2012). This means that people tend to seek out and prefer information, feedback, and social interactions that align with their preexisting self-beliefs. As an illustration, individuals grappling with low self-esteem may have a tendency to seek out social circles that validate their self-doubts, even if the feedback received in such environments is detrimental. Additionally, the theory assumes that discrepancies between one's self-concept and external feedback can lead to discomfort and psychological tension (Talaifar, & Swann, 2020).

The strengths of Self-Verification Theory include its ability to explain how individuals actively shape their social environment to match their self-concept (Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Angulo, 2013; Talaifar, & Swann, 2020). It provides insights into why some people may be drawn to feedback or relationships that others might perceive as detrimental. The theory has practical applications in understanding self-esteem, self-concept, and interpersonal dynamics. However, it has certain limitations, including the potential reinforcement of negative self-concepts and the neglect of the benefits of positive feedback for personal growth and change.

In a contemporary study on impression management, Self-Verification Theory can offer insights into how individuals selectively manage their self-presentation to elicit feedback that aligns with their self-concept. For example, individuals may engage in behaviours or present themselves in ways that prompt others to provide validation and confirmation of their self-concept, even if it is negative. In the digital age, this theory

can help researchers understand how individuals curate their online personas to attract specific types of feedback and social interactions that are consistent with their self-views. It can clarify the underlying reasons why individuals actively pursue and strengthen specific self-perceptions through their strategies for impression management. This insight sheds light on the intricate dynamics of self-verification within the realm of online self-presentation.

2.2.1.5 Face Negotiation Theory

Face Negotiation Theory, developed by Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998), is a communication theory that explores how individuals from diverse cultures navigate their public image and preserve "face" in interpersonal interactions (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). The theory rests on several foundational assumptions, with a primary one being that individuals possess a fundamental desire to uphold their "face" (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998; Ting-Toomey, 2004). This concept encompasses their social identity, reputation, and the image they project in social interactions.

Face is a vital concept in many cultures and is closely tied to concepts of honor, respect, and dignity. The theory posits that individuals from different cultures adopt specific face-negotiation strategies to address potential face-threatening acts (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). These strategies include face-saving (efforts to maintain one's own face), face-restoration (efforts to restore the other person's face), and face-giving (efforts to enhance the other person's face).

The strengths of Face Negotiation theory include its cross-cultural applicability, as it helps explain how individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds approach face-threatening situations differently (Meares, & Bennett, 2020). It is a valuable framework for understanding intercultural communication, conflict resolution, and the dynamics of

managing interpersonal relationships across cultures (Moschou, 2020). However, the theory has certain limitations, such as the potential oversimplification of cultural differences and the lack of specific guidance on how to navigate complex, real-life interpersonal interactions (Sharma, Elfenbein, Sinha, & Bottom, 2020).

In a contemporary study on impression management, Face Negotiation Theory can be applied to explore how individuals adapt their self-presentation strategies in cross-cultural or intercultural settings. It can help researchers understand how individuals adjust their impression management tactics to align with the face-negotiation norms of different cultures. For example, individuals may modify their communication style and self-presentation to avoid face-threatening behaviours and to enhance the other person's face, especially in diverse online or multicultural environments. This theory can offer insights into the interplay between cultural factors, face-saving strategies, and impression management in today's globalised world, shedding light on how individuals navigate the complexities of maintaining face and managing impressions in diverse social and digital spaces.

2.2.2 Theories Related to Job Performance

The theories that are related to job performance include ability-motivation-opportunity, job characteristics, transformational leadership, goal setting, and resource-based view theories. They are discussed below.

2.2.2.1 Ability-Motivation-Opportunity Theory (AMO)

The (AMO) Theory, proposed by Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988), is a framework that revolves around three essential factors: ability, motivation, and opportunity (Tuuli, & Van Rhee, 2021). Skill and competence define an individual's

ability, influencing their effectiveness in carrying out a specific task (Yong, Yusliza, Jabbour, & Ahmad, 2020).

Motivation represents the psychological drivers that lead individuals to engage in specific behaviours (Yong, et al., 2020). Opportunity involves external circumstances and situational elements that either support or impede the completion of a particular task (Tuuli & Van-Rhee, 2020). Strengths of the AMO Theory include its comprehensive nature, as it takes into account the interplay of these three critical factors (ability, motivation, and opportunity) to offer a well-rounded understanding of why individuals engage in particular activities. Furthermore, its versatility allows for application in diverse contexts, such as organisational behaviour, interpersonal relationships, and knowledge transfer.

On the other hand, the theory's comprehensiveness can also be a drawback, potentially making it challenging to untangle the relative importance of each factor in different situations. Additionally, the AMO Theory is primarily descriptive and does not inherently provide prescriptive guidance on how to modify behaviour effectively, leaving the development of interventions or solutions to address specific behaviours as a separate challenge. In a contemporary study on performance, the AMO Theory can be employed to examine the reasons behind individuals' performance. It allows for an analysis of the interplay between ability, motivation, and opportunity in shaping how the individual carries out his/her job.

2.2.2.2 Job Characteristics Theory

Hackman and Oldham created the Job Characteristics Theory in the latter part of the 1970s (Ma, Du, Xu, Wang, & Lin, 2022). This theory concentrates on the way jobs are designed along with how particular job qualities might affect worker productivity,

enthusiasm, and fulfillment with work (Ma et al., 2022). It rests on a number of important presumptions. It initially makes the assumption that professions can be characterised by attributes like independence, suggestions, project identification, self-determination, and range of skills (Han, Sung, & Suh, 2021; Ma et al., 2022).

Strengths of the Job Characteristics Theory include its emphasis on the role of job design in enhancing motivation and performance (Wang, Liu, Qian, & Parker, 2021). By identifying specific job characteristics that can lead to positive outcomes, it provides a practical framework for organisations to improve job design and employee satisfaction (Wang et al., 2021). Additionally, the theory has been widely applied in fields such as organisational psychology and human resources, contributing to a better understanding of how to create engaging and fulfilling work environments.

However, the theory also has its limitations. One weakness is that it primarily focuses on individual-level job characteristics and may not fully address the complexities of team-based or collaborative work environments, which are increasingly prevalent in many organisations. In addition to that it may fail to provide adequate explanation on conditions such as leadership and organisational culture, on job performance and satisfaction.

The Job Characteristics Theory can be used in a contemporary study on impression management to comprehend whether a person's drive and performance are influenced by the layout of their job in relation to impression management. People who work in positions that offer a high degree of independence and opportunity for skill variation, for instance, could be more inclined to participate in strategic image management behaviors in order to progress their careers or build their personal brands. On the other hand, individuals in jobs with low autonomy and limited feedback may face challenges

in managing their impressions effectively. The theory can shed light on how specific job characteristics can either facilitate or hinder impression management strategies and guide organisations in designing jobs that promote effective self-presentation and employee satisfaction.

2.2.2.3 Transformational Leadership Theory

First presented by James MacGregor Burns in 1978, the Transformational Leadership Theory emphasizes how leaders may inspire and motivate their subordinates to accomplish extraordinary results (Kwan, 2020). The idea is based on a number of fundamental presumptions. According to this theory, charismatic and visionary leaders who appeal to higher-order needs and values can inspire their followers (Ladkin & Patrick, 2023). These leaders pique followers' intellectual curiosity, which fosters creativity and imaginative thinking. Additionally, they promote individualised consideration by recognising and dealing with the distinct requirements and possibilities of every follower (Asbari, Santoso, & Prasetya, 2020; Ladkin & Patrick, 2023).

One of the strengths of the transformational leadership theory is its practical relevance in leadership and organisational settings (Asbari, et al., 2020). It provides an outline for comprehending how leadership can have a major impact on the productivity and motivation of their followers, which eventually improves organizational results. The theory has been widely applied in leadership development and management practices, contributing to effective leadership strategies and improved organisational cultures (Saad, 2021).

However, the theory also has limitations. One weakness is that it may overemphasise the role of leaders and charisma, potentially neglecting the importance of other

organisational and contextual factors that influence leadership effectiveness. Additionally, the theory's focus on individualised consideration may be challenging to implement in large organisations with numerous followers, raising questions about its scalability.

In a contemporary study on impression management, the Transformational Leadership Theory can be applied to examine how leaders' behaviours and characteristics impact the impression management strategies of their followers. Transformational leaders, with their emphasis on charisma and inspiration, may influence their followers' self-presentation and impression management behaviours. Followers who are inspired by transformational leaders may be more motivated to project a positive image and align with the leader's vision. This theory can help researchers understand the dynamics of leadership and impression management in organisational contexts, shedding light on how transformational leadership can influence the strategies used by followers to manage their impressions effectively.

2.2.2.4 Goal Setting Theory

The Goal Setting Theory by Locke and Latham (1968) as cited by Weintraub, Cassell, and DePatie, (2021), is based on a number of fundamental presumptions. The proposition suggests that establishing clear, demanding, and attainable objectives can inspire people and enhance their output (Weintraub, et al., 2021; Leonardi, & Fheodoroff, 2021). The notion holds that people are more inclined to be inspired and dedicated to reaching their goals when they are clearly defined. Assessment on how well they are doing in achieving these objectives is also crucial for inspiration and ongoing development.

One of the strengths of the Goal Setting Theory is its practical applicability in various domains, including work settings (Weintraub, et al., 2021). It provides a clear and straightforward framework for enhancing motivation and performance by setting specific goals. The theory has been widely used in management and leadership practices to improve employee performance and productivity. Another strength is the emphasis on measurable outcomes, which allows for the assessment of goal achievement and provides a basis for feedback and performance evaluation (Asafova, & Vashetina, 2022).

However, the theory also has limitations. One weakness is that it assumes a linear relationship between goal setting and performance, which may not always hold true in complex real-world situations. Individuals may face obstacles and competing priorities that can affect their ability to achieve challenging goals. Additionally, not all tasks or roles are conducive to quantifiable goals, which can limit the applicability of the theory in certain contexts.

In a contemporary study on impression management, the Goal Setting Theory can be applied to understand how individuals set and pursue impression management goals. Impression management involves creating specific impressions and managing the perceptions others have of oneself. People might be more determined to show oneself a specific way and strive toward achieving their ideal image through establishing clear and difficult goals for handling their impressions. The theory can be used to analyze the manner in which goal-setting functions in handling impressions, giving academics insights into the reasons people use and the tactics they employ to shape others' perceptions of them in both online and offline settings.

2.2.2.5 Resource-Based View (RBV) Theory

The RBV Theory is a theory in the realm of managerial strategy that was first presented by Birger Wernerfelt in 1984 and then further developed by Barney (Syariati, Amar, & Syariati, 2021). The core tenet of this concept is that an organization's distinctive and valued resources and talents provide it with an edge over others (Syariati, et al., 2021)

The RBV Theory is based on several core assumptions. It posits that not all resources are equal; some are rare, valuable, inimitable, and non-substitutable (VRIN), making them the key sources of competitive advantage (Bhandari, Rana, Paul, & Salo, 2020). Additionally, it assumes that resources are heterogeneous across firms, meaning that different organisations possess different combinations of resources, which contribute to their distinct competitive positions (Bhandari, et al., 2020; Chukwuma, Ohakim, Agbaeze, Alaefule, Iwobi, Ugwuja, & Ojonugwa, 2022).

One of the strengths of the RBV Theory is its emphasis on the internal aspects of organisations, particularly the resources and capabilities that drive their competitive advantage (Chukwuma, et al., 2022). It offers a helpful structure for examining how businesses might take advantage of their special assets and skills to perform better (Bhandari, et al., 2020). The theory has been influential in strategic management and has guided the development of strategies that focus on resource development and deployment.

However, the theory also has limitations. One weakness is that it may not provide clear guidance on how to identify, develop, or manage these valuable resources effectively. It offers a diagnostic framework but may not be prescriptive in terms of actionable strategies for resource management. Additionally, the RBV Theory may not fully account for external factors and environmental dynamics that can influence an organisation's competitive advantage.

The RBV can be used to comprehend how performance is pursued. Performance which depends on resources such as personal qualities, skills, knowledge, and networks can be enhanced when the above resources are pursued. One of the ways in which the individuals will enhance their performance is probably through the impression handling tactics.

2.2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.2.3.1 Underpinning Theories on Impression Management

Impression management is anchored on dramaturgical and social exchange theories. These theories provide valuable insights into the complex processes through which individuals actively shape and manage the impressions they create in social interactions and online self-presentation.

The Goffman's dramaturgical theory sheds light on how lecturers and students strategically manage impressions to create a positive and effective educational environment. According to Goffman, individuals operate in both a "front stage" and a "back stage" in social interactions. The front stage represents the public and observable aspects of behaviour, while the back stage is where individuals can be more authentic and less guarded. The classroom is the front stage, where lecturers and students perform their roles. Lecturers may engage in impression management by carefully presenting their expertise, enthusiasm for the subject matter, and approachability during lectures. Simultaneously, students may manage impressions by demonstrating attentiveness, engagement, and respect. Lecturers, in their role as educators, may employ impression management by emphasising their knowledge, competence, and dedication to teaching. Students, in turn, may adopt the role of attentive learners, showcasing their interest in the subject matter and respect for the lecturer. Through

these role-playing dynamics, both parties contribute to the construction of a positive educational experience.

Similarly, impression management within the framework of social exchange theory navigates the exchange of resources between lecturers and students. The social exchange theory can illuminate how lecturers and students engage in impression management to create a favourable exchange of resources, whether these resources be in the form of knowledge, guidance, or academic support. Lecturers may engage in impression management by conveying expertise, approachability, and dedication to teaching. Lecturers who are perceived as trustworthy may find that students are more willing to actively engage in the learning process. Similarly, students who are viewed as committed and respectful may receive increased support and guidance from lecturers. Thus, by understanding and applying the social exchange theory, lecturers and students can effectively manage impressions to establish a foundation of trust and commitment, fostering a positive and productive academic relationship.

2.2.3.2 Underpinning Theories on Job Performance

Job performance anchored on job characteristics and transformational leadership theories. The job characteristics theory provides a structured framework for optimising lecturer performance in their core teaching and research tasks. By redesigning their roles to include elements such as skill variety (involving various teaching methods, course designs, and research projects), task identity (making lecturers responsible for a significant portion of their work), task significance (emphasising the importance of their contributions to students and the academic community), autonomy (allowing lecturers to decide how to deliver their courses and conduct research), and feedback (providing regular assessments of their teaching and research quality), institutions can

create more engaging and fulfilling work environments. This job enrichment can lead to increased motivation, job satisfaction, and, ultimately, improved task performance among lecturers.

The transformational leadership theory complements the job characteristics theory by addressing the contextual aspects of lecturer performance. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate their followers to excel beyond their own expectations. In academia, transformational leaders, such as academic deans or department chairs, can create a culture of innovation, support, and professional growth. They can communicate a compelling vision for the department or institution, stimulate intellectual curiosity and creativity among lecturers, and provide individualised consideration, recognising the unique needs and potential of each lecturer. This leadership style can foster a positive, motivating environment that encourages lecturers to excel not only in their core responsibilities but also in their contextual contributions, such as mentorship, curriculum development, and participation in academic committees. By implementing these two theories in tandem, higher education institutions can create an environment that empowers lecturers, enhances their task and contextual performance, and ultimately benefits students and the academic community as a whole.

2.3 Empirical Review

Prior empirical studies on the discussed are presented in this section. They are arranged based on the stated objectives of the study.

2.3.1 Self-promotion and Job Performance

Melchers et al. (2020) looked at how self-promotion affected interview performance. The purpose of the study was to determine whether self-promotion is associated with variations in interviewee performance and whether there is inter-individual variation in

the identification of accomplishment criteria. SEM was the methodology used, and the participants consisted of 127 German-speaking pupils. The results showed that performance was significantly harmed by self-promotion. It was found that using self-promotion negatively impacted performance, even while it may have positive impacts generally.

Gross, et al. (2021) investigated the relationship between a worker's supervisor-focused self-promotion efficacy and the outcomes of their work grouping. With a representative sample of 195, the research focused on 1016 workers from industrial companies in Germany and Switzerland in order to examine the effects of self-promotion among groups of workers. The study used SEM to analyze the collected data using a survey research approach. The findings showed that the relationship between a focal employee's supervisor-focused self-promotion and the supervisor's evaluation of the focal worker's performance on the job is moderated by the self-promotion atmosphere inside the workplace group. The result reached was that taking into account the self-promotion environment improves comprehension of the function of self-promotion for both individuals and work groups.

According to Dziejic and Jastrzębowska (2022), impression management through academic lectures is studied by both the students and the lecturers. The purpose of the study was to investigate how faculty scholars' opinions and student impression handling are influenced by various elements. Using a correlational research approach, the study included 207 participants in total, comprising 59 instructors and 149 students from Polish universities. Online surveys were used for data gathering. The findings showed a relationship between a scientist's reputation in the field, which includes things like publications, expert activities, and scientific accomplishments, and the impression the scientist gives off. The results showed a lower positive link between prestige and the

researcher's overall image, and a strong, albeit moderate, positive association between prestige and image construction. On the other hand, there was a somewhat favorable correlation between picture generation and the researcher's reputation. The inference made was that greater ratings of a scientist's reputation are associated with the success of image building as well as the scientist's overall perception.

2.3.2 Ingratiation and Job Performance

A study on the effect of impression-management strategies on supervisor assessments of organizational citizenship behavior was carried out by Bolino et al. in 2006. The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of tactics for managing impressions on OCB supervisor ratings. The study, which took the form of a survey, included 122 workers in Spanish manufacturing companies. The approach that was selected was SEM. The findings indicated that supervisor-focused impression management strategies had a favorable link with OCB ratings, whereas job-focused strategies showed a negative correlation with these assessments. Furthermore, it was discovered that good civic behaviors were favorably correlated with supervisor approval of the worker as well as general evaluations of job performance. The study came to the conclusion that the association between supervisor-focused techniques for managing impressions and the supervisor's assessments of staff acceptance is mediated by OCB ratings.

Wu, et al (2013) investigated flattery in the workplace concerning the function of subordinate and supervisor political skill. The sample comprised 640 workers, with 320 individuals each serving as subordinates and supervisors in a large manufacturing company located in Beijing, China. Data collection was conducted through the use of surveys. The results demonstrated that subordinates possessing high political skill are less likely to have their demonstrations of flattery behavior acknowledged by their

supervisors. Conversely, supervisors with high political skill tend to perceive flattery behavior exhibited by their subordinates. Additionally, the most effective condition for subordinates to conceal flattery from their supervisors occurs when the subordinates are politically astute and the supervisors are not. Furthermore, when supervisors detect flattery behavior, they tend to assign low ratings to the job performance and promotability of their subordinates. These lower ratings are attributed to the compromised personal reputation of the subordinates resulting from the detected flattery.

Gever and Okoro (2020) explore how the self-presentation tactics of Facebook users in Nigeria influence their responses to persuasive political messages. The study examined strategies such as supplication, ingratiation, self-promotion, success, and basking. Utilizing an online questionnaire, the research evaluated responses to political messages on Facebook, considering indicators like post engagement (ignoring, viewing, commenting, liking, and sharing). Data analysis involved methods such as simple percentages, mean and standard deviation, weighted mean, correlation, Chi-Square tests, and multiple regression. Findings suggested that ingratiation has a positive, albeit non-significant, predictive relationship with responses to persuasive messages. Additionally, a significant correlation was found between message elements and the reactions of Facebook users, emphasizing the influence of the message source on user responses.

2.3.3 Exemplification and Job Performance

Moe and Katz (2020) examined the connection between teacher self-compassion and the adoption of autonomy-supportive and structuring motivating styles, as opposed to de-motivating controlling and chaotic styles. The study also explored the potential mediating roles of teacher psychological need satisfaction and burnout. Utilizing a survey research design, the research involved 318 teachers in Italy as participants. Self-

report questionnaires were employed to evaluate self-compassion, need satisfaction, burnout, and the use of (de)motivating teaching styles. The results indicated a positive correlation between teachers' self-compassion levels and higher ratings of need satisfaction, personal accomplishment, as well as the implementation of autonomy-supportive and structuring motivating styles. Conversely, a greater inclination toward self-derogation among teachers was associated with heightened need frustration, burnout, and the adoption of controlling and chaotic motivating styles.

Khizar, et al (2021) investigated the link between students' impression management and academic performance through two studies. Study 1 involved 311 graduate students, revealing that various impression management tactics and styles were employed in interactions with teachers and peers. Exemplification and self-promotion tactics, along with an authentic acting style, were positively associated with academic performance measured by GPA. In Study 2, 183 postgraduate research students and their supervisors were examined, showing that self-promotion and exemplification tactics had a positive connection with supervisor-rated performance in terms of competence. Study 2 also found that the supervisor's perceptions of deceitfulness played a moderating role in the relationship between student impression management and positive outcomes, such as perceived competence and supervisor-rated performance. Specifically, these relationships were weaker when the supervisor perceived higher deceitfulness in the impression manager compared to when deceitfulness was perceived as lower.

2.3.4 Supplication and Job Performance

Arif, et al (2011) explored the influence of impression management on performance ratings in the banking and telecom sectors of Pakistan. Using data from 153 supervisor-subordinate pairs, the study examined various impression management techniques and

their impact on supervisor ratings. Positive techniques like ingratiation and exemplification were viewed favorably, while negative tactics such as intimidation, self-promotion, and supplication had an adverse effect on performance ratings. The study concluded that impression management significantly affects how employees are rated by their supervisors, with some employees using both positive and negative portrayals based on the situation.

Wang and Highhouse (2016) studied how modest and supplication have different effects, with an emphasis on how managers of impressions view subordinates' characteristics and how they behave in self-effacing ways. The study used a survey design with 88 Chinese people as the sample. The data analysis showed that supervisors' opinions of a subordinate's conscientiousness and agreeableness were positively correlated with humility. However, there was a negative link between supervisory judgments of agreeableness and supplication. Furthermore, while comparing Agreeableness to Conscientiousness, supervisors evaluated pleading and modesty in different ways. The results of the study imply that subordinates may use modesty to make a good impression, but using supplication as an impression management tactic should be done with caution.

In order to better understand how Chinese students' conceptions of academic integrity affect their intents for self-assessment, Li et al. (2023) looked at the tension between impression control and learning. A cross-sectional survey with a large sample size of 2,063 Chinese undergraduate students was employed in the study to investigate the variables impacting these goals. According to the SEM results, intentions for learning-oriented self-evaluation were predicted by favorable opinions of academic integrity and a conception of integrated quality assessment as a tool for improvement. On the other hand, intentions for impression management were significantly predicted by elevated

perceptions of peer misconduct and unfavorable opinions of integrated quality evaluation.

2.3.5 Intimidation and Job Performance

Banzon-Librojo et al. (2017) examined the relationships between teachers administering severe discipline, perceived teacher support, and incidents of bullying victimization among high school students in the Philippines. The study, utilizing a correlation research design with 401 students, employed structural equation modeling to test a hypothesized model. This model included direct links between harsh discipline and bullying victimization, as well as an indirect pathway through students' perceptions of teacher support. The results indicated that experiences of severe teacher discipline predicted increased bullying victimization and a negative perception of teacher support among students. However, no significant indirect effects were observed. These findings highlight the potential impact of school discipline strategies on student behavior and relationships, emphasizing the influential role of teachers in shaping norms for acceptable conduct. The study suggests that future research could further explore how teachers' disciplinary practices, whether strict or positive, relate to incidents of bullying.

Mbada, Ogunseun, Fasuyi, Adegbemigun, Fatoye, Idowu, and Fatoye (2020) conducted a cross-sectional survey investigating the prevalence and associated factors of bullying in physiotherapy education in Nigeria. The study involved 219 students from three Federal Universities, selected through purposive sampling. Questionnaires were used for data collection, and both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied for analysis. The results indicated a high occurrence of bullying in physiotherapy education, with students noting a lack of efforts to prevent lecturer-driven bullying. Despite about half of the respondents perceiving sufficient school policies and support mechanisms, the analysis found no significant associations between bullying and factors such as age,

gender, level of study, or university affiliation. These findings underscore the pervasive and overlooked problem of bullying in physiotherapy education in Nigeria, particularly among clinical physiotherapy students, regardless of intrinsic or extrinsic factors.

Huang (2022) looked at the relationship between academic achievement and bullying at school, concentrating on the function that children's feeling of inclusion at school plays as a mediator. The study's main goal was to investigate the effects of bullying incidents at school on children's academic performance in reading, science, and arithmetic. The study, which used a survey research design, focused on students in Guangdong, Jiangsu, Beijing, and Shanghai, China. Data analysis revealed strong and negative associations between students' performance in science, math, and reading and being a victim of bullying as well as the bullying culture generally. Furthermore, it was found that the influence of harassment assault and an intimidating atmosphere on learning outcomes in these courses was somewhat mediated by students' feelings of being accepted at school. The study also recommended areas for additional research in this field and addressed implications for bullying therapy.

2.3.6 Demographic Characteristics Effect

Bourdage et al. (2020) examined the association between personality, interview performance, and impression management's mediating function. With an emphasis on the mediating role of image-management practices, the study, which involved 212 business students from a Canadian university, sought to explore how personality factors affected performance in job interviews. The findings indicated that an enhanced use of managing impressions was predicted by a lack of sincerity and high levels of Extraversion, which is as well as low levels of emotional intelligence as rated by peers and by the self. Additionally, the study discovered that humility and honesty had an

overall neutral effect on interview performance. Due to their use of both beneficial and detrimental impression management techniques, those with low Honesty-Humility did not perform any better during interviews. This study adds to our knowledge of the relationship between personality traits and interview success by highlighting the significance of individual impression management activities in determining the success of people with specific features.

In a study on variables affecting work performance, Tunio et al. (2021) specifically looked at faculty members' personality qualities and how they affected students' performance and job satisfaction in Pakistani business schools. The study used a survey design, and its participants were students and staff of Karachi's private business schools. The instrument of inquiry was a questionnaire, and SEM was used to analyze the results. The results showed that personality traits and job performance were positively correlated, with job satisfaction acting as a mediating factor in this connection.

Diso and Haruna (2020) explored the preferences of History students for their lecturers' gender and its correlation with academic achievement in Colleges of Education in Kano State, Nigeria. Based on data collected from 200 students, the study revealed a significant mean difference in the achievement of history students taught by male lecturers compared to those taught by female lecturers. However, no significant difference was observed in the achievement of students who preferred and were taught by female lecturers. The study concluded that lecturers' gender significantly influences students' academic achievement in history courses and suggested adopting a mixed-team teaching model.

Tunio et al. (2021) studied the impact of personality traits on job performance and satisfaction among faculty members in business schools in Pakistan. Using a survey design with staff and students from private business schools in Karachi, the researchers

found a positive relationship between personality traits and job performance, with job satisfaction mediating this connection.

Diso and Haruna (2020) explored the preferences of History students for their lecturers' gender and its correlation with academic achievement in Colleges of Education in Kano State, Nigeria. Based on data collected from 200 students, the study revealed a significant mean difference in the achievement of history students taught by male lecturers compared to those taught by female lecturers. However, no significant difference was observed in the achievement of students who preferred and were taught by female lecturers. The study concluded that lecturers' gender significantly influences students' academic achievement in history courses and suggested adopting a mixed-team teaching model.

Saripek et al. (2023) investigated the impression management strategies of academics in Turkish universities offering sports education. With a focus on demographic variables, the study included 503 faculty members and utilized a questionnaire as the main research instrument. The findings indicated that academics' use of impression management tactics did not significantly differ based on gender. However, some tactics were influenced by factors such as academic department, age, professional seniority, and academic title.

Table 2.1 Summary of Empirical Review

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
Self-promotion and Job performance					
.1	Melchers, et al (2020). “Identification of the targeted performance dimensions and self-promotion in interviews: Investigations of uncharted waters”	Academics, Germany	Survey and SEM	Performance was significantly and negatively impacted by self-promotion.	None of the studies on self-promotion was conducted within the Nigerian context. It suggests there is a shortage of studies on impact of self-promotion on the job performance of lecturers in Nigeria.
2	Gross, et al (2021). “Too much self-promotion! How self-promotion climate relates to employees' supervisor-focused self-promotion effectiveness and their work group's performance”.	Manufacturing firms in Germany and Switzerland.	Survey, and SEM	The impact of a worker's self-promotion towards their manager on the worker's job performance depends on the level of self-promotion that exists in the workplace.	
3	Dziedzic and Jastrzębowska, (2022). “Impression management by academic lectures in their own opinion and the students”.	Academics, Poland	Correlational, Online survey,	A self-promotion proxy, like a lecturer's image, was strongly correlated with academic status.	
Ingratiation and Job Performance					
4	Bolino, et al (2006). “The impact of	Manufacturing firms, Spain	Survey, SEM	While job-focused impression	The reviews suggest that ingratiation have been

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
	impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organisational citizenship behaviour”.			management strategies have a negative correlation with OCB ratings, supervisor-focused strategies have a favorable correlation.	studied in the manufacturing sector, but not in the academic sector. Also the study carried out in Nigeria was not done in the academic setting
5	Wu, et al (2013). “Ingratiation in the workplace: The role of subordinate and supervisor political skill”.	Large manufacturing firm in Beijing	Survey	The ingratiation behavior of politically astute personnel is frequently disregarded by managers; nevertheless, astute supervisors are aware of this behavior. When supervisors notice ingratiation behavior, they may deduct points from work performance ratings.	
. 6	Gever and Okoro, (2020). “Influence of Facebook users' self-presentation tactics on their response to persuasive political messages”.	Nigeria	Survey, correlational design	Positive reactions to persuasive messages are predicted by gratitude, yet the association is not statistically significant.	
Exemplification and Job Performance					

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
7	Moe and Katz (2020). “Self-compassionate teachers are more autonomy supportive and structuring whereas self-derogating teachers are more controlling and chaotic: The mediating role of need satisfaction and burnout”.	Academics, Italy	Survey, correlational design	Self-compassionate educators utilized motivational techniques that were supportive and structured, and they reported better levels of need satisfaction and personal accomplishment.	Although exemplification is shown to have a positive effect on performance, the studies were not carried out in Universities in Nigeria
8	Khizar, et al (2021). “Student impression management and academic performance: A moderated mediation model.”	Academics, Pakistan	Survey, correlational design	In impression management, self-promotion, exemplification, and genuine acting are favorably correlated with academic achievement, particularly GPA.	
Supplication and Job Performance					
9	Arif, et al (2011). “Impact of impression management on performance rating.”	Banking and telecom sectors of Pakistan	Survey, descriptive analysis	Intimidating, self-promotional, and supplicatory behaviors had a negative effect on performance ratings, while ingratiation and exemplary behaviors	There are mixed results on the effect of supplication on job performance. It thus suggests that more studies are needed to ascertain the effect of supplication on job performance.

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
				had a positive effect.	
10	Wang, and Highhouse, (2016). “Different consequences of supplication and modesty: self-effacing impression management behaviours and supervisory perceptions of subordinate personality.”	Chinese	Survey, descriptive analysis	Suppleness has a negative correlation with supervisor views of agreeableness, while modesty has a positive correlation with conscientiousness and agreeableness.	
.11	Li, et al (2023). “The tension between impression management and learning: examining the impact of Chinese students’ academic integrity perceptions on self-assessment intentions”.	Academics, China	Survey, SEM	Positive views on academic integrity and integrated quality assessment predict learning-oriented self-assessment intentions. Peer misconduct predicts impression management intentions.	
Intimidation and Job Performance					
12	Banzon-Librojo, et al (2017). “Relations between harsh discipline from teachers, perceived teacher support, and bullying victimisation among high school students.”	Academics, Philippine	SEM, Survey	Encountering severe disciplinary measures from teachers was associated with increased instances of bullying victimization and a more negative perception of teacher	Intimidation is shown to negatively affect students’ outcome. Also, the studies lay emphasis of bullying, and there is need for more studies that validate the result

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
				support among students.	
13	Mbada,et al (2020). “Prevalence and correlates of bullying in physiotherapy education in Nigeria.”	Academics, Nigeria	Survey	The analysis did not find any significant associations between bullying and factors such as age, gender, level of study, or specific university affiliation.	
14	Huang, (2022). “Exploring the relationship between school bullying and academic performance: The mediating role of students’ sense of belonging at school.”	Academics, China	Survey, SEM	Being a victim of bullying and the overall atmosphere of bullying had significant and adverse correlations with students' performance in science, mathematics, and reading. Moreover, students' sense of belonging at school was identified as a partial mediator in the impact of both bullying victimization and the bullying climate on academic achievements in these	

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
				subjects.	
Impression Management, Demographics and Job Performance					
15	Bourdage, et al (2020). “Personality, interview performance, and the mediating role of impression management.”	Academics, Canadian	Survey, SEM	Individuals with high levels of Extraversion and low levels of Emotionality might excel in interviews due to their effective use of impression management. Conversely, although Honesty-Humility had an indirect impact on interview performance through various pathways, the overall effect was neutral, indicating that individuals with low Honesty-Humility did not outperform in interviews.	The studies did not succinctly explain the mediating role of demographics on the relationship between impression management an job performance of lecturers in Universities
16	Tunio, et al (2021). “Factors affecting job performance: a case study of academic staff in Pakistan.”	Academics, Pakistan	Survey, SEM	Results show that personality traits show a positive relationship with job performance that mediates by job satisfaction.	

S/N	Author and Title	Sector and Location	Methodology	Findings	Gaps
17	Diso, and Haruna, (2020). “History students’ preference for lecturers’ gender and achievement in a history course in Colleges of Education in Kano State”.	Academics, Kano State.	Survey, Independent sample t-test and ANOVA	The study finds that students' academic performance in history classes is significantly impacted by the gender of the lecturers.	
18	Saripek, et al (2023). “Impression Management of Academicians in higher education institutions providing sports education.”	Academics, Turkey	Survey, correlational design	Gender did not impact self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, or intimidation. Exemplification depends on department; intimidation on age, seniority. Supplication, self-promotion vary by job title.	

Source: Researcher’s compilation (2024)

2.4 Research Gap

The empirical review has identified several gaps in the existing knowledge, shedding light on areas where further research is needed. Below is an elaboration on each gap:

- a. **Absence of Self-Promotion Studies in the Nigerian Context:** The review presents a notable gap in research within the Nigerian context specifically concerning self-promotion. None of the studies on self-promotion have been conducted in Nigeria, indicating a scarcity of research on the impact of self-promotion on the job performance of lecturers in Nigerian universities (Melchers et al., 2020; Gross et al., 2021). This omission underscores the need for studies that are contextually relevant to Nigeria's academic environment.
- b. **Limited Exploration of Ingratiation in the Academic Sector in Nigeria:** While ingratiation has been studied in the manufacturing sector, the academic setting has not received sufficient attention (Bolino et al., 2006; Gever & Okoro, 2020). Moreover, the studies conducted in Nigeria did not focus on the academic sector. This highlights a gap in understanding the role and impact of ingratiation specifically within the academic context in Nigeria.
- c. **Lack of Studies on Exemplification in Nigerian Universities:** Despite the positive effect shown in studies on exemplification, there is a gap in research conducted within universities in Nigeria (Moe et al., 2020; Khizar et al., 2021). The absence of studies within this context suggests a need for research that specifically explores the relationship between exemplification and job performance among lecturers in Nigerian universities.
- d. **Mixed Results on Supplication and Job Performance:** The review highlights mixed results on the effect of supplication on job performance. The conflicting findings indicate a need for more comprehensive studies to ascertain the true

impact of supplication on job performance, particularly in the context of lecturers in universities (Ariff, 2021; Li et al., 2023).

- e. Limited Validation of Intimidation's Negative Effects: While intimidation is shown to negatively affect students' outcomes, the review suggests a need for additional studies to further validate and consolidate these results. More research is required to thoroughly understand the implications of intimidation, especially in academic settings (Banzon-Librojo et al., 2017).
- f. Unclear Understanding of Demographic Effects: The review notes a lack of clarity in studies explaining the mediating role of demographics on the relationship between impression management and job performance of lecturers in universities. This gap highlights the necessity for research that delves into the nuanced ways in which demographic factors mediate the observed relationships in the academic context (Melchers et al., 2020; Gross et al., 2021).

In addressing these gaps, there is need for research that can contribute significantly to the understanding of impression management and its impact on job performance, specifically tailored to the unique context of Nigerian universities.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research design, population and sampling technique, sample size, operationalisation and measurement of variables, research instrument, validity and reliability of the research instrument, model specification, sources of data and finally, the techniques of data analysis that were employed.

3.1 Research Design

The study employed a correlational survey research design and structural equation modelling (SEM). The correlational design initially identified associations between independent (impression management) and dependent (job performance) variable. Once these associations were established, SEM was employed to create a more comprehensive model that not only included correlations but also tested the specified conceptual framework. The SEM thus enabled the researcher to assess the strength and direction of relationships, providing a more understanding of the interconnections among the variables.

3.2 Population of the Study

The study targets academic staff in selected public and private universities in Edo State, totaling seven accredited Universities. Among the seven universities in Edo State, three are public universities, and the remaining four are private. To ensure an unbiased selection process, the universities were arranged based on their founding years. The criterion for inclusion in the study involved selecting the oldest public and private Universities. Consequently, the University of Benin (UNIBEN), and Ambrose Alli Universities (AAU) were selected under the public schools category, while the

Igbinedion (IU) and Benson Idahosa Universities (BIU) were selected under the private universities category.

Data retrieved from the registries of the selected universities as of October 2023 revealed that there were 3,002 academic staff in the Universities. Table 3.1 shows the breakdown of the universities.

Table 3.1 Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State

S/N	Universities	Academic staff
	Public Universities	
1	University of Benin	1949
2	Ambrose Alli University	674
Total		2623
	Private Universities	
3	Igbinedion University	188
4	Benson Idahosa University	191
Total		379
Grand total		3002

Source: Registries (2023)

From Table 3.1 above, the total number of academic staff in the selected public universities was 2,623, while the total number of academic staff in the selected private universities was 379. Hence 3,002 academic staff made up the study's population

3.3 Sample Size

To determine the sample size for the study, the researchers employed the Yamane (1967) formula. This formula is a statistical method used to calculate an appropriate sample size based on the total population. By applying this formula, the researchers aimed to ensure that their selected sample would be representative and provide reliable insights for their research objectives.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where: n = Sample size = ?

N = population figure = 3002

$e = \text{level of significance} = 0.05$

$$\begin{aligned}n &= \frac{3002}{1+(3002 \times 0.05^2)} \\&= \frac{3002}{1+7.505} \\&= \frac{3002}{8.505}\end{aligned}$$

$$n = 352$$

The sample size is therefore 352.

To determine the sample size in each universities, the percentage contribution of the universities to sample size was computed as follows:

$$\text{Uniben} = \frac{1949}{3002} \times 352 = 229$$

$$\text{AAU} = \frac{674}{3002} \times 352 = 79$$

$$\text{IU} = \frac{188}{3002} \times 352 = 22$$

$$\text{BIU} = \frac{191}{3002} \times 352 = 22$$

Based on the above computation, 229, 79, 22 and 22 academic staff were sampled from Uniben, AAU, IU, and BIU respectively.

3.4 Sampling Technique

In order to reduce delay in the collection of data, convenience sampling method was adopted. This involved the selection of respondents based on their easy accessibility and availability to the researcher. However, the respondents were accessed based on the quota that was allocated to each of the universities.

3.5 Model Specification

The model for this study is stated as the dependent variable (job performance) is a function of the independent variables (impression management proxy by self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, ingratiation and intimidation), mediated upon by demographic characteristics. The relationships are stated below:

Model 1: Relationship between impression management and job performance

$$JBF = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SFP + \beta_2 EXP + \beta_3 SUP + \beta_4 ING + \beta_5 INT + e \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Model 2: Relationship between impression management and demographic characteristics

$$DEM = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SFP + \beta_2 EXP + \beta_3 SUP + \beta_4 ING + \beta_5 INT + e \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Model 3: Relationship between demographic characteristics and job performance

$$JBF = \beta_0 + \beta_1 DEM + e \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

Where:

JBF = Job performance

SFP = Self-promotion

EXP = Exemplification

SUP = Ingratiation

ING = Supplication

INT = Intimidation

DEM = Demographic characteristics

e = Error Term

β_0 = Constant

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ = Coefficients of the various independent variables

The a priori expectations are: $\beta_1 > 0, \beta_2 > 0, \beta_3 < 0, \beta_4 < 0$ and $\beta_5 < 0$

A priori expectations are positive for β_1 and β_2 , suggesting that it is anticipated that an increase in the corresponding independent variables will be associated with an increase in the dependent variable. However, a priori expectations are negative for β_3 , β_4 , and β_5 , implying that it is expected that an increase in the corresponding independent variables will be associated with a decrease in the dependent variable.

3.6 Operationalisation and Measurement of Variables

Impression management (the independent variable) was measured by 20 -item, 5-point Likert scale from Gardner and Cleavenger (1998). Job performance (the dependent) will be measured by 4-item 5-point Likert scale, while demographics (the mediating variable) was measured from Bourdage et al (2020) and Diso, and Haruna, (2020), and Edobor and Akenzua (2023). Table 3.2 below shows the operationalisation and measurement of the variables.

Table 3.2: Operationalisation and Measurement of Variables

S/N	Variable	Operationalisation	Measurement	No. in Questionnaire
1	Gender	The sex of respondents	2-point categorical scale	Q.1
2	Age	How old a respondent is.	4-point interval scale	Q.2
3	Highest Qualification	The level of education the respondent has obtained	3-point categorical scale	Q.3
4	Status	Current position of the staff	7-point point categorical scale	Q.4
5	Personality attribute	Disposition of lecturers as introvert or extrovert	2-point categorical scale	Q.5
6	Self-promotion	The tendency to showcase skills and accomplishments to enhance their professional image.	5-point Likert scale	Q.6-Q.9
7	Exemplification	Present oneself as committed and dedicated professionals.	5-point Likert scale	Q.10-Q.13
8	Ingratiation	Attempt to gain favour, approval, or acceptance by pleasing others.	5-point Likert scale	Q.14-Q.17
9	Supplication	Earnestly and humbly asking for something by pleading or requesting	5-point Likert scale	Q.18-Q.21
10	Intimidation	Bullying, threatening or manipulating others to be obeyed.	5-point Likert scale	Q.22-Q.25
11	Job performance	How well lecturers engage in meaningful interaction with the students in the discharge of their responsibilities	5-point Likert scale	Q.26-Q.29

Source: Researcher (January, 2024)

3.7 Sources of Data

The main source of data for the survey will be primary data. Data were collected using online questionnaire.

3.8 Research Instrument

The research instrument (that is the questionnaire) is divided into 2 sections. Section A captures demographic characteristics; while Section B captures the independent and dependent variables (that is impression management and job performance). The respondents were to indicate the extent to which they are in agreement or disagreement with the statements. The questionnaire is structured on a 5-point Likert scale measurement which indicate strongly agree (5), agree (4), Undecided (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1).

3.8.1 Validity of Research Instrument

The questionnaire items will be validated by the supervisor. The researcher will present a draft of the questionnaire to her supervisor to facilitate objective criticism for subsequent modification. Based on the objective of the study, the questionnaire was deemed to have both content and face value validity.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Study

The reliability analysis will further be conducted using the Cronbach alpha reliability test. First a pilot survey will be conducted in which 20 copies of the questionnaire were administered to some lecturers in the selected schools. Second, the copies of questionnaire were retrieved, coded and subjected to Cronbach alpha reliability test using the statistical package for social science (SPSS). The results will be displayed in Table 3.6 below. Cronbach alpha reliability values will be deemed reliable at 70% or 0.7 (Tavakol, & Dennick, 2011).

Table 3.3 Reliability Test Results

S/N	Variables	Number of items	Questions	Cronbach alpha value
1	Self-promotion	4	6-9	0.755
2	Exemplification	4	10-13	0.710
3	Ingratiation	4	14-17	0.731
4	Supplication	4	18-21	0.789
5	Intimidation	4	22-25	0.762
6	Job performance	4	26-29	0.758

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (January, 2024).

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The information gathered through the online survey underwent analysis using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS (Teo, Tsai, & Yang, 2013; Thakkar, 2020) and the SPSS. SEM is a statistical method enabling researchers to study intricate relationships among multiple variables simultaneously, making it particularly suitable for investigating latent constructs and their interconnections (Thakkar, 2020). Through the application of SEM in AMOS, researchers can model and evaluate the inherent structure of the data, revealing latent variables and examining both direct and indirect associations among them (Thakkar, 2020). In this approach, the data obtained from the online questionnaire serves as input for SEM analysis. The software then calculates various parameters of the model, such as path coefficients, factor loadings, and error variances, to assess the model's goodness of fit. This process allows for the examination of measurement model fit, assessing the reliability and validity of latent constructs, as well as structural model fit, testing hypotheses concerning relationships between constructs.

3.10 Test of Measurement Model

The reliabilities and validities of impression management tactics, job performance, and demographic characteristics' (such as gender, age, and qualifications) constructs were assessed using the quality criteria of AMOS. Table 3.4 reported Cronbach's Alpha composite reliability and discriminant validity.

Table 3.4: Validity and Reliability Scores

Variable	Indicator	Factor loading	Discriminant validity	Composite reliability	Cronbach alpha
Self-promotion	SFP1	.745	.822	.722	.755
	SFP 2	.760			
	SFP 3	.751			
	SFP 4	.771			
Exemplification	EXM1	.771	.810	.710	.710
	EXM 2	.853			
	EXM 3	.741			
	EXM 4	.754			
Ingratiation	ING1	.804	.710	.730	.731
	ING 2	.792			
	ING 3	.761			
	ING 4	.750			
Supplication	SUP1	.731	.772	.704	.789
	SUP 2	.733			
	SUP 3	.744			
	SUP 4	.709			
Intimidation	INT1	.786	.741	.716	.762
	INT2	.800			
	INT3	.752			
	INT 4	.735			
Demographic characteristics	DEM I	.733	.700	.723	.822
	DEM 2	.702			
	DEM 3	.716			

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024).

Table 3.4 above shows the validity and reliability scores. The factor loading, discriminant validity, composite reliability and Cronbach alpha values were all above 0.700 indicating that there was a high loading within factors. They also demonstrated sufficient reliability and validity.

3.11 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model fit results were used to assess confirmatory factor analysis. Good model fit was indicated by Chi-square (χ^2/df) or CMIN/df, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Normal Fit Index (NFI) (Shek, & Yu, 2014). There is a good model fit when χ^2/df is lesser or equal to 3 (Agler, & Deboeck, 2017); CFI, and NFI are higher than 0.90; and RMSEA is lesser than 0.10 (Kadiri, & Umemezia, 2018; Shek, & Yu, 2014). Table 3.5 displayed model fit values and bench marks.

Table 3.5: Model Fit Summary

Model fit index	Values	Benchmark	Source
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation RMSEA	0.042	<0.10	Shek and Yu (2014)
Normed Fit Index NFI	1.000	>0.90	Shek and Yu (2014)
Chi-Square to the Degree Of Freedom CMIN/DF	1.233	≤ 3.00	Agler and Deboeck (2017)
Comparative Fit Index CFI	1.000	≥ 0.50	Shek and Yu (2014)

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024).

In Table 3.5 above, the model fit indices showed that RMSEA was 0.042, NFI was 1.000, $\chi^2/df = 1.233$ and CFI was 1.000. These indicated that there was a good model fit and it was theoretically consistent.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

The Study sought to determine the influence of impression management tactics on the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State. The targeted sample size of the study was 352, but 288 responses were retrieved from the online questionnaire that was administered. This chapter shows the analyses of the collected data. It starts with description of demographic characteristics of respondents as well as the variables. Then it presents results from structural equation modeling, test the formulated hypotheses, and discusses the findings.

4.1 Description of Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Table 4.1: Demographic Profile of Respondents

S/N	Variable	Attribute	Frequency	Percent
1	Gender	Male	154	53.5
		Female	134	46.5
		Total	288	100.0
2	Age	16-35	18	6.3
		36-55	210	72.9
		56 and above	60	20.8
		Total	288	100.0
3	Highest Qualification	Master's Degree	181	62.8
		Doctorate Degree	107	37.1
		Total	288	100.0
4	Status	Professor	15	5.2
		Associate Professor	34	11.8
		Senior Lecturer	48	16.7
		Lecturer I	140	48.6
		Lecturer II	46	16.0
		Assistant Lecturer	5	1.7

		Total	288	100.0
5	Personality	Introvert	108	37.5
		Extrovert	180	62.5
		Total	288	100.0
6	Institution	Public Universities	208	72.2
		Private Universities	80	27.8
		Total	288	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024).

Gender: The gender distribution presented indicates that, within the studied population, there were 154 male lecturers, constituting 53.5% of the total, and 134 female participants, accounting for 46.5%. This distribution suggests a slight majority of male lecturers in the sample. The percentage breakdown provides insights into the gender composition of the population under consideration.

Age: The age distribution among the sampled lecturers indicates a diverse representation across different age groups. The majority of the lecturers fall within the age range of 36-55, constituting 72.9% of the sample, suggesting a significant proportion of mid-career professionals. Meanwhile, a smaller percentage, 6.3%, belongs to the 16-35 age group, possibly reflecting early-career or entry-level lecturers, while 20.8% are 56 years and above, representing a cohort of more experienced and senior academics. This distribution implies a balanced mix of junior, mid-level, and senior lecturers within the sampled population. Understanding this age diversity is crucial for interpreting study findings, as different career stages may influence the dynamics of impression management and its potential impact on job performance among lecturers in the academic context.

Qualification: The qualification distribution among the lecturers reveals that a significant majority, comprising 62.8% of the sample, holds a Master's Degree, while 37.1% have attained a Doctorate Degree. This distribution suggests a prevalent prevalence of lecturers with Master's Degrees within the studied population. The higher

proportion of Master's Degree holders may indicate a mix of early-career and mid-career academics, as this degree is often a prerequisite for entry into academic positions. On the other hand, the presence of 37.1% of lecturers with Doctorate Degrees reflects a substantial number of individuals with advanced academic qualifications, likely representing senior faculty members or those specializing in research-oriented roles. Understanding the distribution of qualifications is essential for contextualizing the findings of the study, as academic rank and research expertise may vary across different qualification levels, potentially influencing impression management behaviors and their impact on job performance.

Status: The status distribution among the lecturers illustrates the hierarchical positioning within the academic ranks. Among the sampled lecturers, the majority, constituting 48.6%, hold the position of Lecturer I, indicating a predominant presence of early to mid-career academics. Additionally, 16.7% are Senior Lecturers, suggesting a significant representation of mid-level faculty members with a higher level of experience and expertise. The distribution further reveals that 11.8% hold the rank of Associate Professor, signifying a notable proportion of academics with a more advanced career status. A smaller percentage, 5.2%, have achieved the status of Professor, reflecting a limited number of individuals at the highest academic rank. Lecturer II and Assistant Lecturer positions constitute 16.0% and 1.7%, respectively, representing mid-level and entry-level academic positions. This distribution highlights the diverse career stages and academic hierarchies within the sampled population, offering valuable insights into the professional composition of the lecturer cohort.

Personality: The personality distribution reveals that among the sampled lecturers, 62.5% are categorised as extroverts, while 37.5% are identified as introverts. This distribution indicates a notable prevalence of extroverted personalities within the

lecturer cohort. Extroverts are typically characterised by outgoing and social traits, suggesting that a significant proportion of the lecturers may exhibit behaviours associated with sociability, assertiveness, and comfort in interpersonal interactions. On the other hand, the presence of 37.5% introverts suggests a substantial minority with characteristics such as introspection, preference for solitary activities, and potential reservation in social settings.

Institutions: The distribution indicates that 72.2% of the respondents were from public universities, while 27.8% were from private universities

4.2 Description of Variables

In this section, the responses of the respondents are presented in terms of the impression management tactics and job performance. All responses are in the order of the Likert rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD), with ratings such as 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. The means of each of the responses were calculated. The figures below the frequency were used to represent percentage responses. The decision rule was based on 3.0. Mean values lesser than 3.0 were considered as disagreement to the responses. The tables below showed a description of responses. This was followed by their interpretations.

Table 4.2: Description of Self-promotion

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
SLP1	I proudly highlight my achievements	84 29.2%	63 21.9%	59 20.5%	48 16.7%	34 11.8%	3.40	1.37
SLP2	I seize every chance to showcase their capabilities	57 19.8%	34 11.8%	73 25.3%	64 22.2%	60 20.8%	2.88	1.40
SLP3	I attribute both past and present successes to	50 17.4%	22 7.6%	43 14.9%	85 29.5%	88 30.6%	2.52	1.44

	myself							
SLP4	I utilise status symbols to convey my position of influence.	38 13.2%	49 17.0%	56 19.4%	62 21.5%	83 28.8%		
Grand Mean							2.64	1.39
							2.86	1.40

Source: Fieldwork, (January, 2024).

Table 4.2 above presents the respondents' evaluation of self-promotion. The self-promotion statements yield varying levels of agreement. With $\bar{X} = 3.40$, it is evident that the respondents strongly agree with 'proudly highlighting my achievements', indicating a willingness to showcase their successes. 'Seizing every chance to showcase capabilities' follows closely with $\bar{X} = 2.88$, suggesting a disagreement to actively demonstrating their skills. However, the $\bar{X} = 2.52$ for 'attributing both past and present successes to myself' reflects disagreement, implying a more reserved stance on taking credit for accomplishments. Similarly, 'utilising status symbols to convey influence' received $\bar{X} = 2.64$, indicating a disagreed inclination toward this form of self-promotion. The grand $\bar{X} = 2.86$ signifies an overall disagreement tendency toward self-promotion, with a degree of variability in responses across different aspects of showcasing oneself.

Table 4.3: Description of Exemplification

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
EXM1	I set a positive example whenever I can	65 22.6%	132 45.8%	38 13.2%	31 10.8%	22 7.6%	3.65	1.17
EXM2	I freely dedicate my time and energy to assist students and colleagues	71 24.7%	44 15.3%	100 34.7%	56 19.4%	17 5.9%	3.33	1.21
EXM 3	I am ready to make personal sacrifices for the well-being of the students	21 7.3%	137 47.6%	88 30.6%	34 11.8%	8 2.8%	3.45	0.89

	and colleagues							
EXM 4	I exhibit a strong sense of personal integrity	36 12.5%	77 26.7%	127 44.1%	36 12.5%	12 4.2%	3.31	0.98
Grand Mean							3.43	1.06

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024).

Table 4.3 shows the respondents' evaluations of exemplification and it indicates a generally positive outlook. Across the statements, participants express a willingness to set positive examples ($\bar{X} = 3.65$); dedicate time and energy to assist others ($\bar{X} = 3.33$); make personal sacrifices for the well-being of students and colleagues ($\bar{X} = 3.45$); and exhibit a strong sense of personal integrity ($\bar{X} = 3.31$). The mean values being above the decision rule threshold of 3.0 imply an overall agreement with these behaviors. The relatively low standard deviations across the statements suggest a degree of consistency in respondents' perceptions, indicating that there is not a significant amount of variability in their assessments. This consistency in positive self-evaluations across multiple aspects of exemplification may reflect a shared commitment to fostering a supportive and ethical environment among the respondents. With a grand \bar{X} of 3.43, which is above the decision rule threshold of 3.0, it implies that, on average, respondents tend to agree with the statements related to exemplification. This suggests a positive overall assessment of their own behaviors in terms of setting positive examples, dedicating time and energy to assist others, making personal sacrifices for well-being, and exhibiting personal integrity.

Table 4.4: Description of Ingratiation

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
ING 1	I behave in ways that are consistent with others expectations	-	20 6.9%	99 34.4%	73 25.3	96 33.3%	2.15	0.97
ING 2	I describe myself in ways that others will find personally appealing	26 9.0%	71 24.7%	81 28.1%	63 21.9%	47 16.3%	2.88	1.21
ING 3	I outwardly express agreement with others' opinions even though I am not required to so.	6 2.1%	46 16.0%	102 35.4%	129 44.8%	5 1.7%	2.72	0.83
ING 4	I flatter others regarding their appearance, conduct and so on	-	51 17.7%	184 63.9%	50 17.4%	3 1.0%	2.98	0.63
Grand Mean							2.68	0.91

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024)

Table 4.4 presents the respondents' evaluation of ingratiation. The responses to the statements on ingratiation reveal a pattern of behaviour where respondents, on average, demonstrate a tendency to fall below the decision rule threshold of 3.0. Specifically, respondents express behaviours such as behaving inconsistently with others' expectations ($\bar{X} = 2.15$); describing themselves in ways that may not be universally

appealing ($\bar{X} = 2.88$); outwardly expressing agreement even when not required ($\bar{X} = 2.72$); and offering flattery less frequently ($\bar{X} = 2.98$). The grand \bar{X} of 2.68, indicates an overall inclination toward disagreement with the provided statements. Hence the data implies that, on average, respondents tend to exhibit behaviours that are less aligned with conforming to others' expectations and presenting themselves in universally appealing ways, as indicated by mean values below the 3.0 decision rule threshold.

Table 4.5: Description of Supplication

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
SUP1	I downplay my abilities to secure help from others	23 8.0%	23 8.0%	68 23.6%	88 30.6%	86 29.9%	2.34	1.21
SUP2	I emphasis my shortcomings at task during appeals for help	32 11.1%	33 11.5%	99 34.4%	97 33.7%	27 9.4%	2.81	1.11
SUP3	I play dumb to secure aids from others	25 8.7%	45 15.6%	89 30.9%	100 34.7%	29 10.1%	2.78	1.10
SUP4	I stress my dependence on others for assistance	14 4.9%	49 17.0%	43 14.9%	135 46.9%	47 16.3%	2.47	1.10
Grand Mean							2.60	1.13

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024).

Table 4.5 shows the respondents' evaluation of supplication. The statements on supplication reveal a tendency to engage in behaviours that downplay one's abilities and highlight dependence on others for assistance. With mean values below 3.0, signaling disagreement with the statements, it suggests a reluctance to fully embrace supplication strategies. The first statement, "I downplay my abilities to secure help

from others" ($\bar{X} = 2.34$), indicates a moderate disagreement, implying a reservation in understating one's skills. The statement with the highest mean ($\bar{X} = 2.81$) suggests a stronger disagreement with emphasising shortcomings during appeals for help, revealing a reluctance to overtly showcase weaknesses. Similarly, "I play dumb to secure aids from others" and "I stress my dependence on others for assistance" with means, $\bar{X} = 2.78$, and $\bar{X} = 2.47$, respectively, also show a moderate disagreement. The grand mean (\bar{X}) of 2.60 signifies an overall tendency against supplication, with a standard deviation of 1.13 indicating some variability in responses across different aspects of seeking help while avoiding downplaying abilities.

Table 4.6: Description of Intimidation

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
INT1	I make sure that my decisions are to be followed without questions	23 8.0%	54 18.8%	74 25.7%	116 40.3%	21 7.3%	2.80	1.08
INT2	I threaten severe sanctions for anyone who defies my directives	27 9.4%	75 26.0%	63 21.9%	93 32.3%	30 10.4%	2.92	1.17
INT3	I publicly ridicule people who oppose me	23 8.0%	73 25.3%	70 24.3%	108 37.5%	14 4.9%	2.94	1.07
INT4	I make threat to those who do not meet my expectations	10 3.5%	34 11.8%	100 34.7%	129 44.8%	15 5.2%	2.64	0.88
Grand Mean							2.82	1.05

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024)

Table 4.6 shows the respondents' description of intimidation. The responses on intimidation suggest a tendency towards adopting assertive and potentially coercive tactics, although the mean values fall below the decision rule threshold of 3.0, indicating a degree of disagreement with the statements. The statement "I make sure that my decisions are to be followed without questions" has a mean (\bar{X}) of 2.80, suggesting a moderate disagreement with an absolute adherence to one's decisions without room for questions. Similarly, "I threaten severe sanctions for anyone who defies my directives" and "I publicly ridicule people who oppose me" have $\bar{X} = 2.92$ and 2.94, respectively, indicating a stronger disagreement with the use of severe sanctions or public ridicule as methods of control. "I make threats to those who do not meet my expectations" with $\bar{X} = 2.64$ shows a moderate disagreement with using threats for enforcing expectations. The grand \bar{X} of 2.82 suggests an overall tendency against intimidation, even though there is some variability in responses, as indicated by the standard deviation.

Table 4.7: Description of Job Performance

S/N	Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean \bar{X}	Std. Dev.
JBF1	Students always perform well in my course	87 30.2%	107 37.2%	51 17.7%	42 14.6%	1 .3%	3.82	1.03
JBF 2	I have the required publication for my next promotion	30 10.4%	70 24.3%	100 34.7%	78 27.1%	10 3.5%	3.11	1.03
JBF3	I have never missed any promotion since I started work	22 7.6%	44 15.3%	100 34.7%	106 36.8%	16 5.6%	2.83	1.01
JBF4	I encounter less difficulty when providing support to my immediate	35 12.2%	59 20.5%	127 44.1%	50 17.4%	17 5.9%	3.16	1.04

	community							
Grand Mean							3.23	1.03

Source: Fieldwork (January, 2024)

The responses on job performance as presented in Table 4.7 suggest a generally positive self-perception, as the mean values for all statements are above the decision rule threshold of 3.0, indicating agreement with the statements. The statement "Students always perform well in my course" has the highest \bar{X} of 3.82, suggesting a strong agreement with the belief that students consistently excel in the course. "I have the required publication for my next promotion" has $\bar{X} = 3.11$, indicating agreement with being adequately prepared for the next promotion in terms of publications. The statement "I have never missed any promotion since I started work" has $\bar{X} = 2.83$, reflecting a somewhat lower level of agreement but still suggesting confidence in a history of consistent promotions. "I encounter less difficulty when providing support to my immediate community" with $\bar{X} = 3.16$ indicates a positive perception of ease in supporting the community. The grand $\bar{X} = 3.23$ suggests an overall positive self-assessment of job performance, with a standard deviation that may indicate some variability in responses across the different aspects of job performance.

4.3. Independent Sample T-Test

Table 4.8: Independent Sample T-Test

Variables	Staff Category	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	T	Df	Sig.
Self-promotion	Public universities	208	11.45	3.097	.119	286	.906
	Private universities	80	11.40	2.80	.124	157.30	.901
Exemplification	Public universities	208	13.80	2.03	.846	286	.398
	Private universities	80	13.58	2.10	.833	139.13	.406
Ingratiation	Public universities	208	10.72	1.80	-.244	286	.808
	Private universities	80	10.78	1.90	-.238	136.72	.812
Supplication	Public universities	208	10.41	2.29	.068	286	.946

	Private universities	80	10.39	2.51	.066	132.40	.948
Intimidation	Public universities	208	11.43	2.90	1.386	286	.167
	Private universities	80	10.93	2.47	1.485	166.50	.139
Job performance	Public universities	208	13.13	2.50	2.45	172.7	.015
	Private universities	80	12.36	2.06	2.67	47	.008

Table 4.8 shows the independent sample Test. It was used to ascertain the differences in the mean responses of the respondents in two categories namely, public universities and private universities. As revealed, the t-test for self-promotion ($t(157.30) = .124$, $p = .901 > 0.05$); exemplification ($t(139.13) = .833$, $p = .406 > 0.05$); ingratiation ($t(136.72) = -.238$, $p = .812 > 0.05$); supplication ($t(132.40) = .066$, $p = .948 > 0.05$); and intimidation ($t(166.50) = 1.485$, $p = .139 > 0.05$) were all non-significant as the p-values were greater than 0.05. This indicates that there was no statistical significant difference in impression management tactics among the academics in the public and private universities.

On the other hand, the job performance ($t(47) = 2.67$, $p = 0.008 < 0.05$) indicated significance as the p-value was lesser than 0.05. This indicates that there was a significant difference in the job performance of the academics in public and private universities.

4.4 Relationship between Impression Management Tactics and Job Performance

4.4.1 Correlation Analysis

In order to establish a relationship among the independent variables (self-promotion, exemplification, ingratiation, supplication, and intimidation), Pearson correlation coefficient was used. Table 4.9 show the Pearson correlation coefficients.

Table 4.9: Pearson Correlation

		SFP	EXP	ING	SUP	INT
SFP	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	288				
EXP	Pearson Correlation	.403**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	288	288			
ING	Pearson Correlation	.045	.039	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.451	.509			
	N	288	288	288		
SUP	Pearson Correlation	-.152**	-.080	.128*	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.174	.030		
	N	288	288	288	288	
INT	Pearson Correlation	.369**	.251**	.184**	.087	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	.140	

N	288	288	288	288	288
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** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.4.2 Estimated Results of Structural Model Using Maximum Likelihood Estimate

The results of the SEM using the Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE) are presented in Table 4.10. It presents the direct paths among the variables.

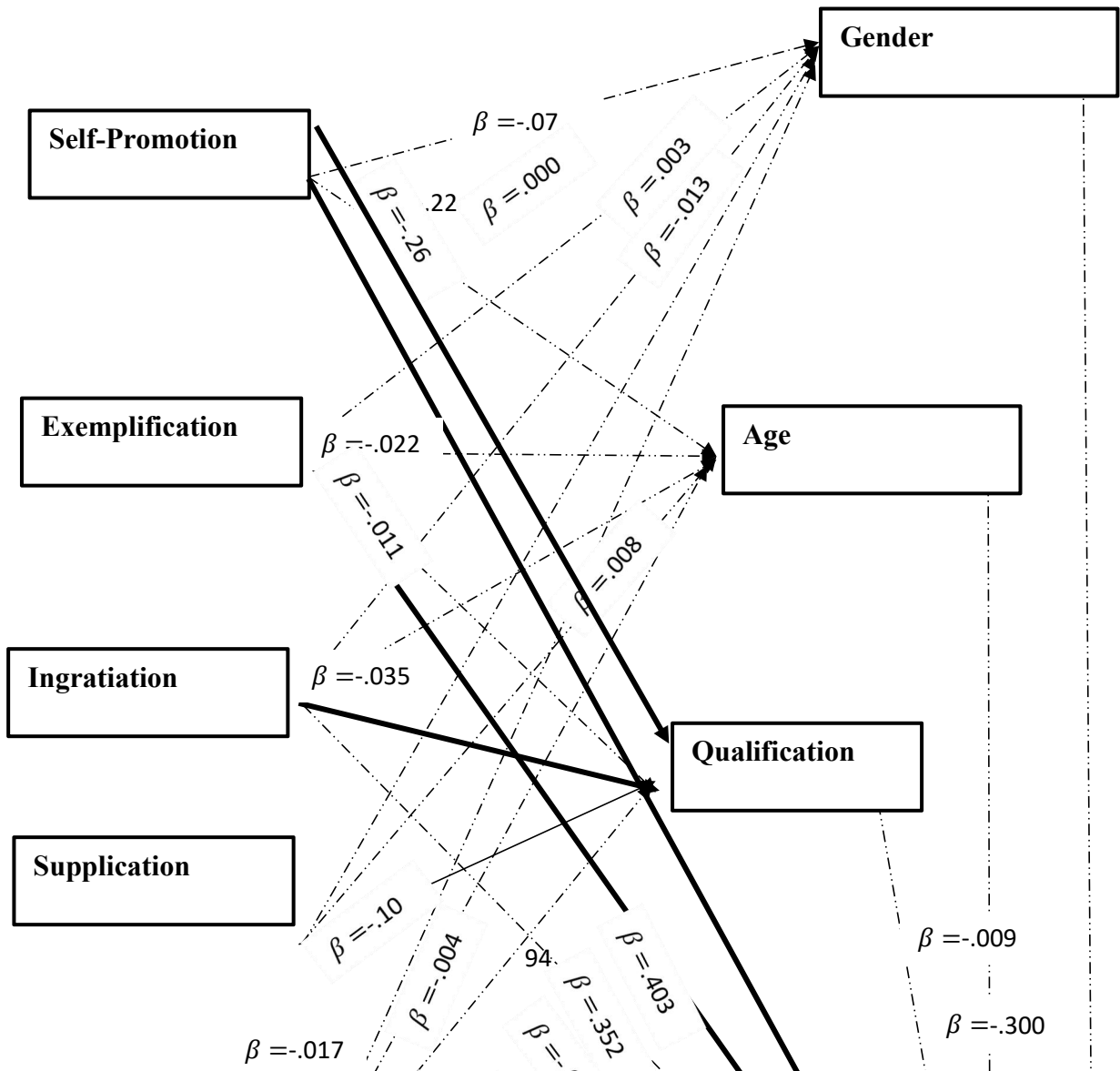
Table 4.10: Relationship among Impression Management Tactics, Job Performance and Demographic Characteristics

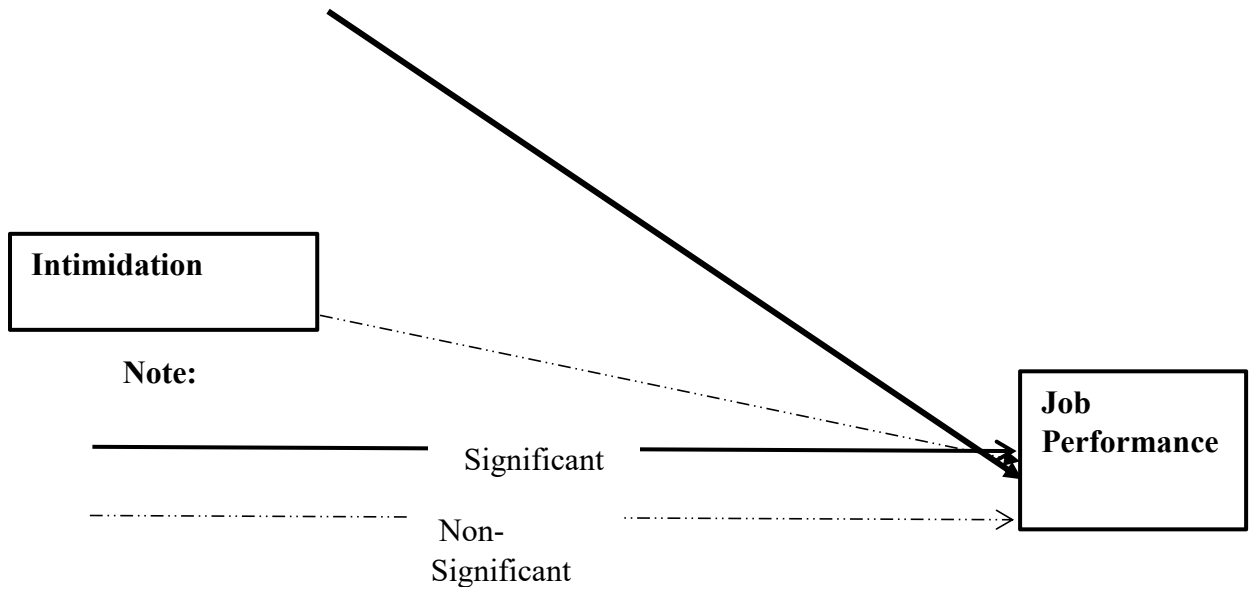
Path	Estimate β	S.E	CR	P
Self-promotion → Job performance	.403	.032	12.441	.000**
Self-promotion → Gender	-.007	.011	-.654	.514
Self-promotion → Age	-.022	.011	-1.952	.052
Self-promotion → Qualification	-.026	.011	-2.333	.020**
Exemplification → Job performance	.352	.045	7.812	.000**
Exemplification → Gender	.000	.016	-.031	.975
Exemplification → Age	.012	.016	.738	.461
Exemplification → Qualification	-.011	.015	-.742	.459
Ingratiation → Job performance	-.066	.047	-1.397	.164
Ingratiation → Gender	.003	.017	.185	.854
Ingratiation → Age	.008	.017	.458	.647
Ingratiation → Qualification	-.035	.016	-2.180	.030**
Supplication → Job performance	.207	.033	6.199	.000**
Supplication → Gender	-.013	.013	-1.028	.305
Supplication → Age	.008	.013	.585	.559
Supplication → Qualification	-.010	.013	-.836	.404
Intimidation → Job performance	-.060	.037	-1.637	.103
Intimidation → Gender	-.017	.012	-1.403	.162
Intimidation → Age	-.004	.012	-.363	.717
Intimidation → Qualification	.009	.011	.759	.449
Gender → Job performance	-.009	.287	-.030	.976

Age→Job performance	-.300	.303	-.990	.323
Qualification→Job performance	-.241	.289	-.834	.405
Significant at **p<0.05				
R ² for Job Performance: .658				
R ² for Gender: .08				
R ² for Age: .020				
R ² for Qualification: .003				
Number of Observation: 288				

Table 4.10 shows the results of the structural model and was used to explain the behaviour of the variables that were specified in the models of the study. It represents the relationship that occurred in the three models. These relationships are further depicted in a path diagram shown below.

Figure 2: Path Diagram





Source: Researcher's construction (January, 2024)

The path coefficient is represented in the path diagram above (Figure 2). The path diagram shows that self-promotion ($\beta = 0.403$, $t = 12.441$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), exemplification ($\beta = 0.352$, $t = 7.812$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), and supplication ($\beta = 0.207$, $t = 6.1999$, $p = 0.000 < 0.005$) were positive and statistically significant with job performance, while ingratiation ($\beta = -0.066$, $t = -1.397$, $p = 0.164 > 0.05$), and intimidation ($\beta = -0.060$, $t = -1.637$, $p = 0.103 > 0.05$) was negative and non-statistically significant with job performance.

The path diagram also shows that ingratiation ($\beta = 0.003$, $t = 0.185$, $p = 0.854 > 0.05$) had positive and non-significant relationship with gender, self-promotion ($\beta = -0.07$, $t = -0.654$, $p = 0.514 > 0.05$), exemplification ($\beta = -0.000$, $t = -0.31$, $p = .975 > 0.05$), supplication ($\beta = -0.013$, $t = -1.028$, $p = .305 > 0.05$), and intimidation ($\beta = -0.17$, $t = -1.403$, $p = 0.162 > 0.05$) had negative and non-significant relationship with gender.

Furthermore, it was found that intimidation was positively and non-significantly related with qualification ($\beta = 0.009$, $t = 0.759$, $p = 0.449 > 0.05$), self-promotion ($\beta = -$

0.026, $t = -2.333$, $p = 0.020$), and ingratiation ($\beta = -0.035$, $t = -2.180$, $p = .030$) were negatively and significantly related to qualification. While exemplification ($\beta = -0.11$, $t = -0.742$, $p = .459$), supplication ($\beta = -0.10$, $t = -0.836$, $p = .404$) had negative and non-significant relationship with qualification.

Furthermore, the path diagram reveal that gender ($\beta = -0.009$, $t = -0.030$, $p = .976 > 0.05$), age ($\beta = -0.300$, $t = -0.990$, $p = .323 > .05$), and qualification ($\beta = -0.241$, $t = -0.834$, $p = .405 > .05$) had negative relationship with job performance.

The R-squared of job performance was 0.66 indicating that 66 percent of changes in job performance was explained by changes in self-promotion, exemplification, ingratiation, supplication, and intimidation tactics. Also, the R-square for gender, age and qualification were 8, 2 and 3% respectively

4.5 Test of Research Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between self-promotion and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

From Table 4.10 and Figure 2, it was revealed that self-promotion had a significant relationship with job performance ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. Hence the conclusion was that there is a significant relationship between self-promotion and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between ingratiation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State;

From Table 4.10 and Figure 2, it was revealed that ingratiation had a non-significant relationship with job performance ($p = 0.164 > 0.05$). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Hence the conclusion was that there is a no significant relationship between ingratiation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between exemplification and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State

From Table 4.10 and Figure 2, it was revealed that exemplification had a significant relationship with job performance ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. Hence the conclusion was that there is a significant relationship between ingratiation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between supplication and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

From Table 4.10 and Figure 2, it was revealed that supplication had a significant relationship with job performance ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$). As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected. Hence the conclusion was that there is a significant relationship between supplication and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between intimidation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State

From Table 4.10 and Figure 2, it was revealed that intimidation had a non-significant relationship with job performance ($p = - 1.637 > 0.05$). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Hence the conclusion was that there is a no significant relationship between intimidation and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

H₀₆: Demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, and qualification) do not significantly mediate the relationship between impression management and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.

To ascertain the mediating effect of demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, and qualification) on the relationship that exists between the impression management

tactics and job performance, the path diagram in Figure 2 was used to identify the presence of mediation.

The general rule for mediation is stated as follows: i) full mediation occurs when the relationship between the independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV) is completely explained by the mediator. In other words, the direct effect of the IV on the DV becomes statistically non-significant when the mediator is included in the model. This suggests that the mediator fully accounts for the observed relationship between the IV and DV; ii) partial mediation, on the other hand, is characterised by a situation where the mediator only partially explains the relationship between the IV and DV. In this case, the direct effect of the IV on the DV remains statistically significant even after accounting for the mediator; the mediator, however, still plays a role in influencing the relationship between the IV and DV, albeit not to the extent of complete mediation; and iii) When there is no mediation, it means that the proposed mediator does not contribute to the relationship between the IV and DV. In this scenario, the direct effect of the IV on the DV remains significant, and the mediator does not significantly affect the relationship (Abu-bader, & Jones, 2021; Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Newsom, 2020; Sobel, 1982).

Based on the above situation, it was found that none of the demographic characteristics (such as gender, age and qualification) significantly related the impression management tactics with job performance. This indicates a case of no mediation. Hence the demographic characteristics (such as gender, age and qualification) did not significantly mediate the relationship between impression management and the job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

The study sought to determine the relationship between impression management tactics and the job performance of academics in selected Universities in Edo State. To achieve the aim, it was found that self-promotion was positively and significantly related.

The positive and significant relationship between self-promotion and job performance ($B = 0.403$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) implies that academics who engage in self-promotion tactics, such as highlighting their achievements and skills, tend to exhibit higher levels of job performance. This suggests that proactive self-promotion may positively influence how academics are perceived, leading to enhanced job effectiveness and productivity. The implications for university academics are that strategically showcasing one's accomplishments and competencies can contribute to professional success, career advancement, and overall effectiveness in their academic roles. The outcome of this study aligns with Dziedzic and Jastrzębowska, (2022) that a positive and significant relationship exists between self-promotion and performance. It also aligns with Gross, et al (2021) that self-promotion contributes in the effectiveness of group outcomes.

Ingratiation's negative and non-significant relationship with job performance ($\beta = -0.066$, $t = -1.397$, $p = 0.164 > 0.05$) suggests that academics who use tactics like flattery or building personal connections may not necessarily experience a significant impact on job performance. This finding implies that ingratiation strategies may not be as effective in enhancing job effectiveness among university academics. The implication for academics is that relying solely on ingratiating behaviors may not contribute significantly to professional success or performance improvement. The results are consistent with Bolino, et al (2006) who reveal that ingratiation had negative relationship with contextual performance. It was also found to be in line with Wu, et al

(2013) who found that ingratiation was a non-desirable behaviour that were expected from subordinates.

Exemplification, which shows a positive and significant relationship with job performance ($\beta = 0.352$, $t = 7.812$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), indicates that academics who go above and beyond their expected duties or demonstrate extra effort are likely to achieve higher levels of job performance. This finding suggests that academics who provide concrete examples of their dedication and commitment contribute positively to their overall job effectiveness. The implication for university academics is that investing extra effort and exemplifying a strong work ethic may lead to improved job performance, recognition, and potential career advancement. The results of this study agree with Moe and Katz (2020) that exemplification promotes positive behaviour in the workplace. It is also in tandem with Khizar, et al (2021) who found that individuals with exemplification disposition turn out with high performance.

Supplication's positive and statistically significant relationship with job performance ($\beta = 0.207$, $t = 6.1999$, $p = 0.000 < 0.005$) suggests that academics who employ tactics such as seeking assistance or emphasising their dependence on others may experience enhanced job performance. This finding implies that demonstrating vulnerability or expressing the need for support can positively influence how academics are perceived in the workplace. The implication for university academics is that acknowledging one's need for help or collaboration may foster a supportive work environment, potentially leading to improved job outcomes and overall effectiveness. The findings are line with Li et al. (2023). They found that supplication can promote positive outcomes.

The negative and non-statistically significant relationship between intimidation and job performance ($\beta = -0.060$, $t = -1.637$, $p = 0.103 > 0.05$) implies that employing tactics

involving coercion or intimidation is not significantly associated with job performance among academics. This finding suggests that intimidation tactics may not be effective in influencing job performance in the academic context. The implication for university academics is that fostering a positive and collaborative work environment may be more conducive to improved job performance than resorting to intimidating behaviours. The findings are consistent with Banzon-Librojo et al. (2017) who revealed that intimidation was non-significant disciplinary measure for enhanced performance. Similarly, Huang (2022) found that intimidation from lecturers had an adverse effect on the students' performance.

The finding that none of the demographic characteristics, including gender, age, and qualification, significantly relate impression management tactics to job performance suggests the absence of a mediating effect. In other words, these demographic variables do not play a significant role in influencing the relationship between impression management and job performance among lecturers in Universities in Edo State. This implies that the impact of impression management tactics on job performance remains consistent across different demographic groups within the studied population. The implications for University academics are twofold: firstly, it underscores the universality of the relationship between impression management and job performance, highlighting that the effectiveness of impression management tactics may not be contingent on individual demographic characteristics. Secondly, it emphasises the need for academics to focus on the strategic use of impression management in a manner that transcends demographic differences, as these variables may not significantly moderate the observed relationship between impression management and job performance. The outcome of the study is in line with Saripek et al. (2023) that the effect of impression management is not different among demographics such as gender.

Furthermore, the results of the independent sample t-tests suggest that, across the impression management tactics, there are no statistically significant differences in mean responses between academics from public and private universities. This implies that, on average, academics from both types of institutions exhibit similar tendencies in employing these impression tactics. However, the significant difference found in job performance indicates that there are notable distinctions between public and private university academics in terms of perceived job performance.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This study investigated the relationship between impression management tactics and the job performance of lecturers in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The population of the study comprised lecturers selected from the University of Benin, Ambrose Ali, Igbinedion, and Benson Idahosa Universities. The study adopted a correlational survey research design. This chapter section presents the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations, and contributions to knowledge.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The following constitute the main findings of the study:

1. There was a positive and significant relationship between self-promotion and job performance of the academics.

2. There was a negative and non-significant relationship between ingratiation and job performance of the academics.
3. There was a positive and significant relationship between exemplification and job performance of the academics.
4. There was a positive and significant relationship between supplication and job performance of the academics.
5. There was a negative and non-significant relationship between intimidation and job performance of the academics.
6. Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and qualification were found to be non-significant mediators of impression management tactics and job performance of academics in Universities in Edo State.
7. There was no significant differences in impression management tactics among the academics in public and private universities, but there was a significant difference in their job performance

5.3 Conclusion

This study sought to address the dearth of research on the relationship between impression management tactics and the job performance of lecturers within the Nigerian context, with a particular focus on Edo State. The rationale for the study stemmed from the observed prevalence of diverse impression management behaviours exhibited by lecturers in academic settings, ranging from self-promotion to intimidation. The findings reveal significant associations between certain impression management tactics, specifically self-promotion, exemplification, and supplication, and the job performance of lecturers in the selected universities. This underscores the importance of understanding how these behaviours may impact professional effectiveness in the academic landscape.

Moreover, the study looked into the potential mediating role of demographic characteristics, including age, gender, and qualification, in influencing the relationship between impression management and job performance. Surprisingly, none of these demographic factors emerged as significant mediators, suggesting that the observed impact of impression management tactics on job performance remains consistent across various demographic groups. This finding implies that the efficacy of impression management in influencing job performance is not contingent on traditional demographic attributes, highlighting the universal nature of the relationship among lecturers in Edo State.

The study's results provide valuable insights for academic institutions and policymakers in Edo State, emphasising the need to recognise and potentially address the influence of impression management on job performance. By understanding the specific tactics that positively relate to performance such as self-promotion, exemplification, and supplication, universities can develop targeted interventions or training programs to enhance lecturers' professional effectiveness. Additionally, the lack of mediation by demographic characteristics suggests that these factors may not significantly moderate the impact of impression management, emphasising the need for a holistic approach in understanding and managing these behaviors among lecturers.

Also, it is crucial for administrators, policymakers, and academic professionals to look deeper into the factors contributing to the differences in job performance and to consider targeted strategies that address the specific needs and challenges faced by academics in both public and private university settings.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following are recommended:

Professional Development Programmes: Implement professional development programmes that focus on enhancing lecturers' awareness and skills in utilising positive impression management tactics. This could include training sessions on effective self-promotion, exemplification, and supplication strategies. By providing guidance on how to strategically employ these behaviours, academic institutions can contribute to the improvement of lecturers' job performance.

Contextualized Training for Demographic Awareness: Tailor training programmes to include an awareness of demographic factors and their potential impact on impression management. While the study found that demographic characteristics did not mediate the relationship between impression management and job performance, it is essential for lecturers to understand the differences of their diverse audience. Training that promotes cultural competence and sensitivity to demographic differences could enhance communication and effectiveness.

Institutional Policies on Ethical Impression Management: Develop and communicate institutional policies that emphasise ethical and constructive impression management behaviours. Encourage a positive and supportive work environment where lecturers feel empowered to showcase their achievements without resorting to negative tactics such as intimidation. Establishing clear guidelines on acceptable behaviour fosters a healthy organisational culture.

Regular Feedback Mechanisms: Implement regular performance feedback mechanisms that facilitate open communication between lecturers and their peers, students, and administrators. Constructive feedback can help lecturers refine their impression management strategies, aligning them with institutional expectations and

fostering continuous improvement in job performance. Feedback should be specific, timely, and focused on both strengths and areas for development.

Establishment of Peer Support Networks

Facilitate the creation of peer support networks within academic departments to encourage collaboration and the exchange of best practices in impression management. Establishing a platform for lecturers to share their experiences and insights can foster a sense of community and mutual learning. Peer support networks can serve as valuable forums for discussing effective impression management strategies, enabling lecturers to navigate the complexities of their roles and enhance job performance collectively.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

While existing research on impression management has predominantly originated from countries outside Nigeria, this study contributes a unique perspective by focusing on the Nigerian context, specifically within Edo State. The study addresses a critical gap in the literature by exploring the dynamics of impression management tactics and its impact on job performance in a Nigerian academic setting.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

Moving forward, future research could look deeper into contextual factors that may influence the effectiveness of impression management tactics among lecturers in Nigeria, providing a more comprehensive understanding of these behaviors within the cultural and institutional context of the country. There is also the need to conduct longitudinal research to monitor the long-term effects of impression management behaviours on job performance. This can involve ongoing assessments of lecturers' performance and impression management practices, allowing institutions to adapt their support programs based on evolving needs and trends. Continuous assessment provides

a dynamic understanding of the relationship between impression management and job performance, enabling responsive and informed decision-making.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

**Department of Business Administration
Faculty of Management Sciences
University of Benin, Benin City**

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST FOR QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION

I am Amenze Erica Akenzua, a Ph.D. candidate in the above-mentioned department. I kindly request your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire related to the theme "Impression Management and Job Performance of Academics in Selected Universities in Edo State." Please answer the statements by marking the provided spaces. Your name or identity is not necessary. Rest assured; the information provided will solely be utilised for this research. Thank you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Gender: Male (); Female ()
2. Age: 16-35 (); 36-55 (); 56 and above ()
3. Qualification: Bachelor’s degree (), Masters’ degree (), Doctorate degree ()
4. Status: Professor (); Associate professor (); Senior lecturer ();
Lecturer 1 (); Lecturer 2 (); Assistant lecturer ()
5. Personality attribute: Introvert (); Extrovert ()
6. Institution: Public University (), Private University ()

SECTION B

Please kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about you and your company. Indicate the extent at which you agree or disagree to the following statements. **Keys: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), Strongly disagree (SD)**

Impression Management and Job performance Questionnaire (IMJPQ)

S/N	Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
-----	-------	----	---	---	---	----

		5	4	3	2	1
Self-promotion						
7	I proudly highlight my achievements					
8	I seize every chance to showcase their capabilities					
9	I attribute both past and present successes to myself					
10	I utilise status symbols to convey my position of influence.					
Exemplification						
11	I set a positive example whenever I can					
12	I freely dedicate my time and energy to assist students and colleagues					
13	I am ready to make personal sacrifices for the well-being of the students and colleagues					
14	I exhibit a strong sense of personal integrity					
Ingratiation						
15	I behave in ways that are consistent with others expectations					
16	I describe myself in ways that others will find personally appealing					
17	I outwardly express agreement with others' opinions even though I am not required to so.					
18	I flatter others regarding their appearance, conduct and so on					
Supplication						
19	I downplay my abilities to secure help from others					
20	I emphasis my shortcomings at task during appeals for help					
21	I play dumb to secure aids from others					
22	I stress my dependence on others for assistance					
Intimidation						
23	I make sure that my decisions are to be followed without questions					
24	I threaten severe sanctions for anyone who defies my directives					
25	I publicly ridicule people who oppose me					
26	I make threat to those who do not meet my expectations					

Adapted from: Gardner and Cleavenger, (1998).

Job Performance	SA	A	U	D	SD
	5	4	3	2	1

27	Students always perform well in my course					
28	I have the required publication for my next promotion					
29	I have never missed any promotion since I started work					
30	I encounter less difficulty when providing support to my immediate community					

Adapted from Nwadiokwu (2023)

Appendix II: Reliability Results

Reliability

[DataSet0]

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES= VAR00007 VAR0008 VAR0009 VAR00010

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 7-10 (Self- promotion)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.755	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 11-14 (Exemplification)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.710	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 15-18 (Ingratiation)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.731	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00019 VAR00020 VAR00021 VAR00022

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 19-22 (Supplication)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.789	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00023 VAR00024 VAR00025 VAR00026

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 23-26 (Intimidation)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.762	4

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR00027 VAR00028 VAR00029 VAR00030

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA.

Question 27-30 (Job performance)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.758	4

Appendix III: Output

Frequency Table

VAR00001

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	154	53.5	53.5	53.5
2.00	134	46.5	46.5	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00002

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	18	6.3	6.3	6.3
2.00	210	72.9	72.9	79.2
3.00	60	20.8	20.8	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00003

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	181	62.8	62.8	62.8
2.00	107	37.1	37.1	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00004

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	15	5.2	5.2	5.2
2.00	34	11.8	11.8	17.0
3.00	48	16.7	16.7	33.7
4.00	140	48.6	48.6	82.3
5.00	46	16.0	16.0	98.3
6.00	5	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00005

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	108	37.5	37.5	37.5
Valid 2.00	180	62.5	62.5	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00006

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	208	72.2	72.2	72.2
Valid 2.00	80	27.8	27.8	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00007

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	34	11.8	11.8	11.8
Valid 2.00	48	16.7	16.7	28.5
Valid 3.00	59	20.5	20.5	49.0
Valid 4.00	63	21.9	21.9	70.8
Valid 5.00	84	29.2	29.2	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00008

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	60	20.8	20.8	20.8
Valid 2.00	64	22.2	22.2	43.1
Valid 3.00	73	25.3	25.3	68.4
Valid 4.00	34	11.8	11.8	80.2
Valid 5.00	57	19.8	19.8	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00009

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	88	30.6	30.6	30.6
2.00	85	29.5	29.5	60.1
3.00	43	14.9	14.9	75.0
4.00	22	7.6	7.6	82.6
5.00	50	17.4	17.4	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00010

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	83	28.8	28.8	28.8
2.00	62	21.5	21.5	50.3
3.00	56	19.4	19.4	69.8
4.00	49	17.0	17.0	86.8
5.00	38	13.2	13.2	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00011

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	22	7.6	7.6	7.6
2.00	31	10.8	10.8	18.4
3.00	38	13.2	13.2	31.6
4.00	132	45.8	45.8	77.4
5.00	65	22.6	22.6	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00012

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	17	5.9	5.9	5.9
2.00	56	19.4	19.4	25.3
3.00	100	34.7	34.7	60.1
4.00	44	15.3	15.3	75.3
5.00	71	24.7	24.7	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00013

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	8	2.8	2.8	2.8
2.00	34	11.8	11.8	14.6
3.00	88	30.6	30.6	45.1
4.00	137	47.6	47.6	92.7
5.00	21	7.3	7.3	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00014

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	12	4.2	4.2	4.2
2.00	36	12.5	12.5	16.7
3.00	127	44.1	44.1	60.8
4.00	77	26.7	26.7	87.5
5.00	36	12.5	12.5	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00015

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	96	33.3	33.3	33.3
2.00	73	25.3	25.3	58.7
3.00	99	34.4	34.4	93.1
4.00	20	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00016

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	47	16.3	16.3	16.3
2.00	63	21.9	21.9	38.2
3.00	81	28.1	28.1	66.3
4.00	71	24.7	24.7	91.0
5.00	26	9.0	9.0	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00017

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	5	1.7	1.7	1.7
2.00	129	44.8	44.8	46.5
3.00	102	35.4	35.4	81.9
4.00	46	16.0	16.0	97.9
5.00	6	2.1	2.1	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00018

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	3	1.0	1.0	1.0
2.00	50	17.4	17.4	18.4
3.00	184	63.9	63.9	82.3
4.00	51	17.7	17.7	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00019

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	86	29.9	29.9	29.9
2.00	88	30.6	30.6	60.4
3.00	68	23.6	23.6	84.0
4.00	23	8.0	8.0	92.0
5.00	23	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00020

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	27	9.4	9.4	9.4
2.00	97	33.7	33.7	43.1
3.00	99	34.4	34.4	77.4
4.00	33	11.5	11.5	88.9
5.00	32	11.1	11.1	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00021

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	29	10.1	10.1	10.1
2.00	100	34.7	34.7	44.8
3.00	89	30.9	30.9	75.7
4.00	45	15.6	15.6	91.3
5.00	25	8.7	8.7	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00022

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	47	16.3	16.3	16.3
2.00	135	46.9	46.9	63.2
3.00	43	14.9	14.9	78.1
4.00	49	17.0	17.0	95.1
5.00	14	4.9	4.9	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00023

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	21	7.3	7.3	7.3
2.00	116	40.3	40.3	47.6
3.00	74	25.7	25.7	73.3
4.00	54	18.8	18.8	92.0
5.00	23	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00024

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	30	10.4	10.4	10.4
2.00	93	32.3	32.3	42.7
3.00	63	21.9	21.9	64.6
4.00	75	26.0	26.0	90.6
5.00	27	9.4	9.4	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00025

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	14	4.9	4.9	4.9
2.00	108	37.5	37.5	42.4
3.00	70	24.3	24.3	66.7
4.00	73	25.3	25.3	92.0
5.00	23	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00026

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	15	5.2	5.2	5.2
2.00	129	44.8	44.8	50.0
3.00	100	34.7	34.7	84.7
4.00	34	11.8	11.8	96.5
5.00	10	3.5	3.5	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00027

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	1	.3	.3	.3
2.00	42	14.6	14.6	14.9
3.00	51	17.7	17.7	32.6
4.00	107	37.2	37.2	69.8
5.00	87	30.2	30.2	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00028

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	10	3.5	3.5	3.5
2.00	78	27.1	27.1	30.6
3.00	100	34.7	34.7	65.3
4.00	70	24.3	24.3	89.6
5.00	30	10.4	10.4	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00029

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	16	5.6	5.6	5.6
2.00	106	36.8	36.8	42.4
3.00	100	34.7	34.7	77.1
4.00	44	15.3	15.3	92.4
5.00	22	7.6	7.6	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

VAR00030

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	17	5.9	5.9	5.9
2.00	50	17.4	17.4	23.3
3.00	127	44.1	44.1	67.4
4.00	59	20.5	20.5	87.8
5.00	35	12.2	12.2	100.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0	

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009 VAR00010
VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014 VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017
VAR00018 VAR00019 VAR00020 VAR00021 VAR00022 VAR00023 VAR00024
VAR00025 VAR00026 VAR00027 VAR00028 VAR00029 VAR00030 SELF_PROM
EXEMP
INGRAT SUPPLICATE INTIM JOB_PERF
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Descriptives

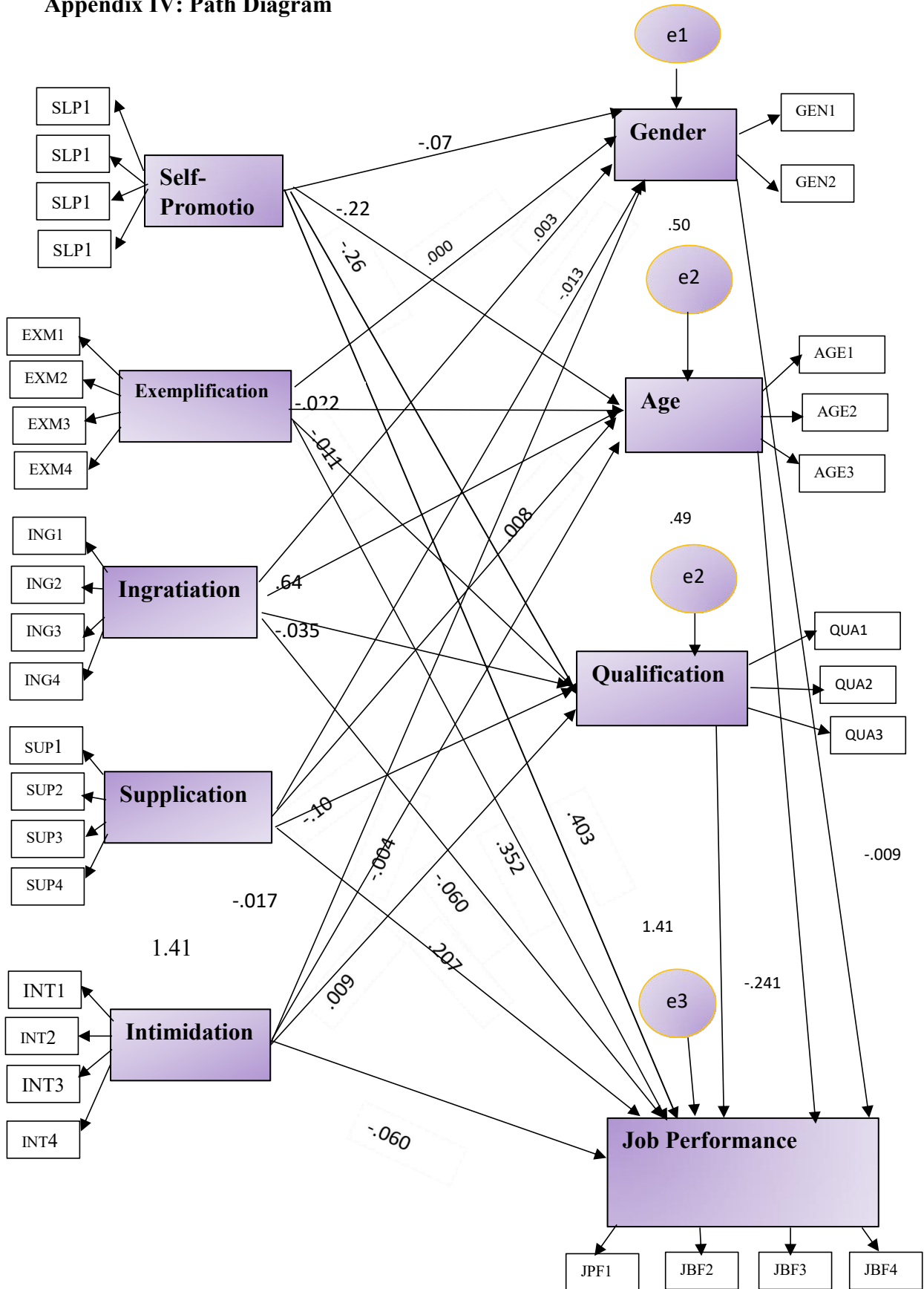
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		VAR00018 VAR00019
		VAR00020 VAR00021
		VAR00022 VAR00023
	VAR00024 VAR00025	
	VAR00026 VAR00027	
	VAR00028 VAR00029	
	VAR00030 SELF_PROM	
	EXEMP	
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[DataSet0]

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
VAR00007	288	1.00	5.00	3.3993	1.36798
VAR00008	288	1.00	5.00	2.8750	1.39873
VAR00009	288	1.00	5.00	2.5174	1.43611
VAR00010	288	1.00	5.00	2.6424	1.39457
VAR00011	288	1.00	5.00	3.6493	1.16508
VAR00012	288	1.00	5.00	3.3333	1.20972
VAR00013	288	1.00	5.00	3.4479	.89368
VAR00014	288	1.00	5.00	3.3090	.98330
VAR00015	288	1.00	4.00	2.1493	.96738
VAR00016	288	1.00	5.00	2.8819	1.21257
VAR00017	288	1.00	5.00	2.7188	.82685
VAR00018	288	1.00	4.00	2.9826	.62724
VAR00019	288	1.00	5.00	2.3368	1.21019
VAR00020	288	1.00	5.00	2.8125	1.11355
VAR00021	288	1.00	5.00	2.7813	1.09992
VAR00022	288	1.00	5.00	2.4722	1.10080
VAR00023	288	1.00	5.00	2.7986	1.07929
VAR00024	288	1.00	5.00	2.9167	1.17167
VAR00025	288	1.00	5.00	2.9410	1.06904
VAR00026	288	1.00	5.00	2.6354	.88487
VAR00027	288	1.00	5.00	3.8229	1.03252
VAR00028	288	1.00	5.00	3.1111	1.02994
VAR00029	288	1.00	5.00	2.8264	1.01095
VAR00030	288	1.00	5.00	3.1563	1.03925
SELF_PROM	288	4.00	19.00	11.4340	3.01376
EXEMP	288	9.00	19.00	13.7396	2.04605
INGRAT	288	6.00	16.00	10.7326	1.82741
SUPLICATE	288	6.00	17.00	10.4028	2.35024
INTIM	288	4.00	20.00	11.2917	2.78966
JOB_PERF	288	6.00	20.00	12.9167	2.40499
Valid N (listwise)	288				

Appendix IV: Path Diagram



APPENDIX V: OUTPUT OF STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING

Summary Variances (Group number 1 - Default model)

Path	Estimate β	S.E	CR	P
Self-promotion--> Job performance	.403	.032	12.441	***
Self-promotion--> Gender	-.007	.011	-.654	.514
Self-promotion -->Age	-.022	.011	-1.952	.052
Self-promotion--> Qualification	-.026	.011	-2.333	.020
Exemplification-->Job performance	.352	.045	7.812	***
Exemplification -->Gender	.000	.016	-.031	.975
Exemplification --> Age	.012	.016	.738	.461
Exemplification --> Qualification	-.011	.015	-.742	.459
Ingratiation-->Job performance	-.066	.047	-1.397	.164
Ingratiation --> Gender	.003	.017	.185	.854
Ingratiation -->Age	.008	.017	.458	.647
Ingratiation --> Qualification	-.035	.016	-2.180	.030
Supplication-->Job performance	.207	.033	6.199	***
Supplication --> Gender	-.013	.013	-1.028	.305
Supplication -->Age	.008	.013	.585	.559
Supplication --> Qualification	-.010	.013	-.836	.404
Intimidation -->Job performance	-.060	.037	-1.637	.103
Intimidation -->Gender	-.017	.012	-1.403	.162
Intimidation -->Age	-.004	.012	-.363	.717
Intimidation -->Qualification	.009	.011	.759	.449
Gender-->Job performance	-.009	.287	-.030	.976
Age-->Job performance	-.300	.303	-.990	.323
Qualification-->Job performance	-.241	.289	-.834	.405
e1	.499	.174	2.899	.431
e2	.556	.818	.691	.878

e3		.333	.776	.435	.910
e4		.612	.511	1.198	.458

Model Fit

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	27	.000	0		
Saturated model	27	.000	0		
Independence model	6	57.285	21	.000	1.481

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	1.000		1.000		1.510
Saturated model	1.039		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.000	.000	.000
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Independence model	.061	.048	.091	.066

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	54.000	55.071		
Saturated model	54.000	55.071		
Independence model	69.285	69.522		

Correlations

		Notes
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Comments		
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	Cases Used	Statistics for each pair of variables are based on all the cases with valid data for that pair.
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[DataSet0]

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SELF_PROM	11.4340	3.01376	288
EXEMP	13.7396	2.04605	288
INGRAT	10.7326	1.82741	288
SUPPLICATE	10.4028	2.35024	288
INTIM	11.2917	2.78966	288

Correlations

		SELF_PROM	EXEMP	INGRAT	SUPLICATE	INTIM
SELF_PROM	Pearson Correlation	1	.403**	.045	-.152**	.369**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.451	.010	.000
	N	288	288	288	288	288
EXEMP	Pearson Correlation	.403**	1	.039	-.080	.251**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.509	.174	.000
	N	288	288	288	288	288
INGRAT	Pearson Correlation	.045	.039	1	.128*	.184**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.451	.509		.030	.002
	N	288	288	288	288	288
SUPLICATE	Pearson Correlation	-.152**	-.080	.128*	1	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.174	.030		.140
	N	288	288	288	288	288
INTIM	Pearson Correlation	.369**	.251**	.184**	.087	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	.140	
	N	288	288	288	288	288

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Factor Analysis

Notes

Output Created		16-JAN-2024 17:06:45
Comments		
Input	Active Dataset	DataSet0
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	288
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	MISSING=EXCLUDE: User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	LISTWISE: Statistics are based on cases with no missing values for any variable used.
Syntax		FACTOR /VARIABLES VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009 VAR00010 VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014 VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018 VAR00019 VAR00020 VAR00021 VAR00022 VAR00023 VAR00024 VAR00025 VAR00026 VAR00027 VAR00028 VAR00029 VAR00030 /MISSING LISTWISE /ANALYSIS VAR00007 VAR00008 VAR00009 VAR00010 VAR00011 VAR00012 VAR00013 VAR00014 VAR00015 VAR00016 VAR00017 VAR00018 VAR00019 VAR00020 VAR00021 VAR00022 VAR00023 VAR00024 VAR00025 VAR00026 VAR00027 VAR00028 VAR00029 VAR00030 /PRINT INITIAL EXTRACTION /CRITERIA MINEIGEN(1)

		ITERATE(25) /EXTRACTION PC /ROTATION NOROTATE
		/METHOD=CORRELATIO N.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.08
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.15
	Maximum Memory Required	68472 (66.867K) bytes

[DataSet0]

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00007	1.000	.745
VAR00008	1.000	.826
VAR00009	1.000	.804
VAR00010	1.000	.760
VAR00011	1.000	.775
VAR00012	1.000	.828
VAR00013	1.000	.751
VAR00014	1.000	.810
VAR00015	1.000	.771
VAR00016	1.000	.762
VAR00017	1.000	.737
VAR00018	1.000	.730
VAR00019	1.000	.745
VAR00020	1.000	.836
VAR00021	1.000	.761
VAR00022	1.000	.741
VAR00023	1.000	.733
VAR00024	1.000	.750
VAR00025	1.000	.853
VAR00026	1.000	.704
VAR00027	1.000	.771
VAR00028	1.000	.860
VAR00029	1.000	.857

VAR00030	1.000	.840
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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

T-Test

Notes

Output Created		16-JAN-2024 18:48:51
Comments		
Input	Active Dataset	DataSet0
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	288
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User defined missing values are treated as missing. Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis.
	Cases Used	T-TEST GROUPS=VAR00006(1 2) /MISSING=ANALYSIS
Syntax		/VARIABLES=SELF_PRO M EXEMP INGRAT SUPPLICATE INTIM JOB_PERF /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.05
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.04

[DataSet0]

Group Statistics

	VAR00006	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SELF_PROM	1.00	208	11.4471	3.09700	.21474
	2.00	80	11.4000	2.80416	.31351
EXEMP	1.00	208	13.8029	2.02749	.14058
	2.00	80	13.5750	2.09747	.23450
INGRAT	1.00	208	10.7163	1.80212	.12495
	2.00	80	10.7750	1.90253	.21271
SUPLICATE	1.00	208	10.4087	2.29078	.15884
	2.00	80	10.3875	2.51322	.28099
INTIM	1.00	208	11.4327	2.89515	.20074
	2.00	80	10.9250	2.47404	.27661
JOB_PERF	1.00	208	13.1298	2.49782	.17319
	2.00	80	12.3625	2.05767	.23005

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
SELF_P ROM	Equal variances assumed	1.580	.210	.119	286	.906	.04712	.39717	-.73463	.82886
	Equal variances not assumed			.124	157.299	.901	.04712	.38000	-.70345	.79769
EXEMP	Equal variances assumed	.026	.873	.846	286	.398	.22788	.26931	-.30219	.75796
	Equal variances not assumed			.833	139.128	.406	.22788	.27341	-.31270	.76847
INGRAT	Equal variances assumed	.062	.803	-.244	286	.808	-.05865	.24081	-.53263	.41532
	Equal variances not assumed			-.238	136.719	.812	-.05865	.24670	-.54649	.42918
SUPLIC ATE	Equal variances assumed	.138	.710	.068	286	.946	.02115	.30973	-.58849	.63080

	Equal variances not assumed			.066	132.395	.948	.02115	.32277	-.61731	.65961
INTIM	Equal variances assumed	3.448	.064	1.386	286	.167	.50769	.36642	-.21353	1.22891
	Equal variances not assumed			1.485	166.504	.139	.50769	.34177	-.16707	1.18246
JOB_PE	Equal variances assumed	1.979	.161	2.446	286	.015	.76731	.31369	.14988	1.38473
RF	Equal variances not assumed			2.665	172.747	.008	.76731	.28796	.19893	1.33568