THE INFLUENCE OF TALENT MANAGEMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL SELF-EFFICACY ON JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG ACADEMICIANS

By

MARY CHRISTINIA JOHNSON

Thesis Submitted to
College of Business
Universiti Utara Malaysia,
in Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of
Master of Human Resource Management

Pusat Pengajian Pengurusan Perniagaan
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT
Universiti Utara Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence of four dimensions of talent management, which are identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management as well as occupational self- efficacy on job performance among academicians in Malaysia higher educational institutions. Job performance was measured by integrating task performance and contextual performance. A total of 381 academicians participated from Universiti Utara Malaysia, Universiti Malaysia Perlis and Universiti Sains Malaysia in this study. Regression analysis was performed to test the research hypotheses. The results of these findings revealed that all four dimensions of talent management (i.e. identifying critical position, competence training, development, and reward management) have a significant and positive influence on job performance. Similarly, occupational self-efficacy was found to have a significant and positive influence on job performance. Discussions elaborated on the research findings. Additionally, this study also discussed theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the study, directions for future research, and conclusion.

Keywords: Talent Management, Identifying Critical Position, Competence Training, Development, Reward Management, Occupational Self- Efficacy and Job Performance.

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini meneliti pengaruh empat dimensi pengurusan bakat—iaitu mengenal pasti jawatan kritikal, latihan kompetensi, pembangunan dan pengurusan ganjaran serta efikasi kendiri kerjaya terhadap prestasi kerja dalam kalangan ahli akademik di institusi pengajian tinggi di Malaysia. Prestasi kerja dinilai melalui penggabungan prestasi tugas dan prestasi kontekstual. Seramai 381 orang ahli akademik daripada tiga university dari Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMap) dan Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) telah mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini. Analisis regresi digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa keempat-empat dimensi pengurusan bakat memberi pengaruh yang signifikan dan positif terhadap prestasi kerja. Begitu juga, efikasi kendiri kerjaya didapati mempunyai kesan yang signifikan dan positif terhadap prestasi kerja. Kajian ini turut membincangkan implikasi teori dan praktikal, keterbatasan kajian, cadangan untuk kajian masa hadapan serta kesimpulan.

Kata Kunci: Pengurusan Bakat, Mengenal Pasti Jawatan Kritikal, Latihan Kompetensi, Pembangunan, Pengurusan Ganjaran, Efikasi Kendiri Kerjaya, Prestasi Kerja

DECLARATION

I certify that except where due acknowledgement has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; and any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledge.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Firstly, I would like to convey my gratitude to God for giving me the strength, health, motivation to complete this research paper. My highest respect and thanks to my parents, siblings, and friends for giving me morale support and encouragement during the process of preparing this paper. Meanwhile, I would like to be to take the opportunity to express greatest gratitude and thank you to my supervisor, Associate Professor Dr. Johanim Johari for the invaluable knowledge, efforts and time in providing me with the proper guidance, assistance, and effortless support throughout the entire process. Dr. Johanim, has been a good mentor by guiding me to complete my literature review. I also thank all the lecturers, college mates, and my friends who have created an environment of support and encouragement. I would like to address a special thanks to the respondents who have contributed significantly by participating in the study and answering the questionnaires. In a nutshell, I would like express thousands of heartfelt thanks to each and every single person who supported and assisted me directly and indirectly in completing this research paper.

Thank you very much.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study's background, problem statement, and research queries and objectives. It concludes with a summary of chapter one and further delineates the scope and significance of the study by delineating the key operational terms.

1.1 Background of Study

Education serves as a pillar for the progress of any nation, significantly affecting both individual lives and societal development. It offers numerous benefits, broadening an individual's understanding and perspective (Abdulghani, 2014). Education is pivotal for a country's growth, fostering improvements across various sectors. Thus, education plays an essential part in the greatest achievement of a country by strengthening its social and developmental foundation to elevate living standards (Peril & Promise, 2000). Without education, individuals lack the ability to think critically or succeed because they do not possess the knowledge required to enhance their living conditions. This highlights how an educated and developed community can improve its quality of life. Furthermore, education promotes societal recognition and respect, empowering individuals to distinguish right from wrong and make informed decisions.

The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015–2025 (Higher Education) was created by the Malaysian Ministry of Education to bring the country's higher education system up to par with that in other countries. The government has prioritized several issues to enhance higher education institutions in alignment with this Blueprint. The plan also serves as a strategic initiative to improve course effectiveness, student quality in higher education, and strengthen the development and research (R&D) and institutional governance, all crucial for the advancement of higher education. Public universities contribute primer role in achieving national goals, such as Malaysia's Vision 2030, as outlined by Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad. In alignment with this vision, educational institutions must fully engage with and respond effectively to government strategies to help develop a well-educated and advanced nation.

The Malaysian higher education system, which focuses on student enrollment in public universities, aims to drive educational progress and establish a reputation for dynamism, competitiveness, and the capacity to respond to global challenges (Ministry of Education, 2015). Furthermore, by positioning Malaysia as a regional hub for higher education excellence, the development programs are strategically aligned with human resource needs, intellectual development, and the demands of the global market (Ujang, 2009). Additionally, the Ministry is committed to raising lecturer recruitment standards. As part of the Malaysia Blueprint 2015-2025, both new and existing lecturers will undergo upskilling through induction training programs.

Based on the 2011 World Bank review of teacher training in Malaysia, lecturers in teacher training institutes (IPGs) and tertiary universities will be encouraged to specialize further to enhance their subject matter expertise while balancing their responsibilities in

teaching, research, and publication. It falls under the government obligation to assess the capability of public higher education institutions to ensure they are meeting their obligations and contributing to a robust and globally competitive educational system.

There are three types of public higher institutions in Malaysia which are classified as the comprehensive universities, focus universities and research universities. Research universities primarily specialize on R&D in fields like science, technology, medicine, and innovation. Comprehensive universities consist of a broader range of disciplines, while focus universities specialize in technical education, teaching, management, and defense studies. These universities aim to fulfill the Ministry of Education's mission.

According to Ministry of Education (2018) by year 2018, Malaysia had almost twenty public universities, which consists of total eleven focus universities, five research and four comprehensive universities. While these universities share certain characteristics—competitive entry standards, both undergraduate and postgraduate programs, and quality faculty, they differ in terms of student enrollment ratios. Specifically, research and focus universities have a roughly equal distribution of undergraduate and postgraduate students (50:50), whereas comprehensive universities have a 70:30 ratios (Index Education, 2018). Apart from universities, community and public colleges, polytechnics, and teacher training institutions also consider as higher education institutions which provide foundation, diploma and certificates programs in Malaysia.

In universities, lecturer plays a crucial role in student advancement, being a prime contributor in formation of human capital through various learning methods. As a result, lecturers must be committed to their responsibilities and fully engaged in the teaching

process. Narimawati (2007) and Tella et al., (2007) also emphasize that engaged educators can significantly boost institutional productivity. Furthermore, according to the Education Ministry, the number of academicians in Malaysia dropped from 42,588 in 2013 to 35,000 in 2016 due to budget cuts, resulting in the termination of about 6,000 lecturers (The Star Online, 2017).

Academicians not only guide students in academic research but also engage in scholarly work to contribute to society's knowledge base (Zainudin et al., 2010). Regarding teaching, academicians must stay updated with the latest technological advancements and adapt to changes in teaching methods (Zainudin et al., 2010). Consequently, job performance is vital for ensuring institutional success, as employees are viewed as valuable assets that directly contribute to organizational growth and success (Danish & Usman, 2010; Ahmed and Uddin, 2012; Zameer et al., 2014).

Thus, organizations increasingly focus on implementing talent management (TM) practices that optimize academic performance (Mangusho et al., 2015; Ndolo et al., 2017; Mkamburi & Kamaara, 2017). One of the main issues that all Malaysian institutions face is maintaining high standards of job performance in the face of changing educational demands (Macky & Johnson, 2000; Dobre, 2013). Therefore, efficient talent management practices are critical especially in improving employee job performance in the current educational environment, ultimately leading to a competitive edge. The research objects to explore the impact of key talent management dimensions as well as occupational self-efficacy, on job performance among academicians.

1.2 Problem Statement

The responsibilities of academicians and educators are extensive, and at the same time, they face considerable challenges. In Malaysia, academicians are crucial in shaping student development and enhancing the quality of institutions, aligning their efforts with the government's strategic objectives for the growth of higher education. Likened to the past roles of academicians at universities, today's expectations extend beyond teaching to include conducting research, participating in academic conferences, and publishing scholarly articles.

Furthermore, academicians are integral to both the university environment and its management. The rapid pace of global changes has propelled the growth of the higher education sector in Malaysia, contributing to increased stress and pressure on public university instructors (Idris, 2009) As a result, misalignment between individuals and the organization, limited opportunities for career advancement, skill mismatches, and inadequate employee retention efforts can lead to disgruntlement and result in the loss of top performer (Spector, 1985; Inayat et al., 2021).

Inadequate recruitment practices, such as ineffective candidate screening, can further exacerbate the lack of person-organization fit, leading to higher turnover rates (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021). Additionally, employees who feel misaligned with their roles often face frustration, leading them to negatively assess their workplace and pursue job opportunities elsewhere (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021). Furthermore, a deficiency in essential skills and competencies can reduce productivity and decrease employee satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Similarly, when organizations do not invest sufficiently in

employee development, it can result in career stagnation and dissatisfaction as staff members struggle to meet their role expectations without the support they need (Inayat & Jahanzeb, 2021).

Additionally, ineffective or absent retention strategies, such as lack of promotion opportunities, can signal to employees that their contributions are undervalued. To overcome these challenges, it is crucial to adopt effective talent management strategies, such as, implementing reward management, supporting development, providing competence training, identifying critical positions, and promoting occupational self-efficacy, all of which enhance employee job performance.

The global talent shortage, as highlighted by ManpowerGroup (2020), reveals that the absence of necessary talent can significantly hinder an organization's competitiveness. The survey conducted by ManpowerGroup (2020) disclosed a critical gap in available talent, nearly dual the levels seen in the previous decade. Despite considerable investments in recruitment and retention efforts, many organizations still face challenges with high employee turnover (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021). A deficiency in the required competencies and skills can result in lower efficiency and diminished staff satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

Additionally, an ongoing gap between job expectations and employees' skillsets can result in frustration and dissatisfaction (Seligman, 2018). These skills gap not only reduces productivity but also contributes to burnout. Employees who feel inadequately equipped to carry out their responsibilities are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and may seek other employment opportunities. Hence, this study aims to investigate the influence

of occupational self-efficacy and talent management dimensions on academics' job performance in public institutions in Malaysia's northern region.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions of this study are:

i. Does the dimensions of talent management (i.e.: Identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management) influence on job performance among academicians?

ii. Does occupational self-efficacy influence on job performance among academicians?

1.4 Research Objectives

The research objectives of this study are:

i. To examine the influence on dimensions of talent management (i.e.: Identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management) on job performance among academicians.

ii. To examine the influence of occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academicians.

1.5 Scope of Study

This research primary investigates the association between dimension of talent management (i.e.: Identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management) and occupational self-efficacy concerning job performance of academicians from Universiti Utara Malaysia, Universiti Malaysia Perlis and Universiti Sains Malaysia. Universities, as service-oriented institutions, require high levels of job performance from their academicians, as the quality of educators and researchers is often reflected in their job performance.

In addition, the academicians working in Malaysia's tertiary education sector are the focus of this study. This is because Malaysia has made considerable strides in improving the caliber of its university. According to Hassan (2001), Malaysia has experienced notable growth in its public higher education institutions (IPTAs), as evidenced by increased student enrollment, the expansion of science and technology programs, and the rise of online learning, all of which signify substantial progress in the sector. As a result, this research endeavours to examine on the effect of talent management dimensions—such as reward management, identifying critical positions, competence training and development—along with occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academicians working in public institutions in the northern region.

1.6 Significance of Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between occupational self-efficacy and job performance, looking specifically at the impact of talent management attributes. The use of the analysis of the gathered data, the research aims to evaluate job

performance levels of academicians and investigate how this talent management dimensions, and occupational self-efficacy influence these levels.

Furthermore, this research holds significant value from both management and practitioner perspectives. For practitioners, it provides valuable insights into how talent management dimensions and occupational self-efficacy affect academicians' job performance, thus enabling better decision-making in workforce planning and development. Therefore, this study can act as a valuable resource to guide future research efforts, as it has tested a framework that could support further exploration.

From a management perspective, this study aims to assist university management teams in improving academicians' talent management and occupational self-efficacy, ultimately enhancing job performance. The outcome of the research could function as a guide or reference for those in charge of managing academicians' performance. Since the efficiency of academicians is vital asset in driving the success of higher education institutions, understanding the factors that influence it is essential. The results are also expected to be valuable for human resource management, as they indicate the key talent management factors that significantly impact job performance.

The study outcomes are anticipated to make a conceptual input to understand the connection between talent management and job performance. More precisely, this study aims to elucidate the ways in which academicians' job performance is impacted by the aspects of occupational self-efficacy and talent management. This research aims to contribute to the existing literature on the impact of occupational self-efficacy and

dimensions of talent management on job performance, particularly within the context of Malaysia's public universities, where related studies remain limited.

In addition, this study utilizes Kurt Lewin's Field Theory as its foundational framework. Field Theory suggests that an individual's actions are shaped by both own characteristics and environmental factors. This theory contributes to act as a crucial role in understanding the forces that maintain undesirable behaviours and in identifying which factors should be strengthened or mitigated to encourage desired behaviours (Lewin, 1998).

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

This study incorporates several theoretical definitions to maintain clarity and objectivity in its direction.

1.7.1 Job Performance

Motowidlo et al., (1997) emphasized that contextual and task performance a behavioural element of job performance with the objective of achieving organizational goals (Campbell, 1990). Task performance refers to how efficiently employees carry out their primary duties or role-specific responsibilities (Motowidlo, 2003). On the other hand, contextual performance entails behaviors like diligence, cooperation, and voluntarily accepting more responsibility that enhance the psychological and social dynamics of the organization (Motowidlo, 2003).

1.7.2 Talent Management

According to Thunnisen et al. (2013), talent management is a thorough process that includes a variety of connected organizational tasks like locating, choosing, training, and

keeping top talent as well as preparing them for important strategic roles. This process also involves leveraging employees' strengths to enhance their engagement and contribution, ultimately benefiting the organization. The key dimensions of talent management include reward management, identifying critical positions, competence training and development.

a. Identifying Critical Position

The process of discovering crucial responsibilities inside a business that significantly contribute to its long-term competitive advantage is known as "finding critical positions" (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

b. Competence Training

Competence training defined as the investment of time and money to help employees acquire the skills necessary for their current positions and potential career advancement prospects (Collins and Clark, 2003; Sun, Aryee, and Law, 2007).

c. Development

The process of enhancing employees' abilities and dispositions is known as development. (Lyria, 2013; Rabbi et al., 2015)

d. Reward Management

By boosting employees' motivation, inspiration, and dedication, reward management entails developing and implementing strategies and tactics that help workers achieve organizational objectives.

(Radhika, 2020).

1.7.3 Occupational Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1977a), occupational self-efficacy can be defined as a person's confidence in their ability to carry out challenging activities or deal with challenging conditions. It represents confidence in one's capacity to complete a task successfully.

1.8 Thesis Organization

The first chapter of this research examines the study's background, the problem statement, both research questions and objectives, the scope, the significance, and the definition of key terms.

The second chapter explored the body and key findings from previous literature reviews that pertain to the variables that will be used in this study, the formulation of hypotheses, and the framework that has been created for this investigation.

Chapter three talks about the methodology part in the meantime. This clarification includes the unit of analysis, how to measure both the variable sample and the population, how to construct the questionnaire, how to collect the data, and how to analyze the results. Chapter four contains the results of this study endeavor, which came from the data

collection. The results of the hypothesis testing, the analysis interpretation, and the demographic profiles of the respondents are all included.

The findings from the previous chapters are finally summarized in chapter five, which also discusses the connections between the variables. The study's shortcomings, consequences, and suggestions for further research are also covered in this chapter.

1.9 Chapter Summary

Chapter one gives a summary of the study, including information on the research's history and context. The problem statement, research goals, and research questions are then briefly summarized. Definitions of the important terminology used in the study are also included in this chapter. Lastly, it describes how the following chapters will be organized. The pertinent literature for this investigation is reviewed in chapter two.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter commences with a literature review of the variables that comprise job performance, which is later followed by an examination of the dimensions of occupational self-efficacy and talent management. Furthermore, after reviewing the literature, hypotheses for each proposed relationship are presented along with the conceptual framework and a summary for the chapter.

2.1 Job Performance

2.1.1 Definition and conceptualization of job performance

Freundlander and Liberman (1991) provide a precise definition of job performance as acts that are recognized by the organization and have the potential to yield rewards. Villamova, Austin, and Borman (2005) describe job performance as the specific behaviors needed to achieve both organizational and job-specific goals. Kha et al. (2011) further state that the quantity and quality of work required of an employee can be utilized to evaluate their performance. Belogolovsky and Somech (2010) also note that job performance may be perceived differently by managers and employees, with employees often viewing it through the lens of role-specific behaviors.

A positive work environment that promotes satisfaction and happiness can enhance job performance (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2007). Employers recognize that fostering such an

environment is an effective way to stimulate high-performing employees to attain organizational objectives. However, Pugno and Depedri (2009) argue that only employees who fully understand their job roles and meet job expectations are likely to perform well. Consequently, the nature of job performance varies across different job roles.

Job performance is evaluated using multiple criteria, such as work accuracy, speed, quantity, quality, and overall effectiveness. Organizations use these performance levels to make decisions regarding rewards, promotions, additional responsibilities, or even termination if expectations are not met. Managers and organizations assess job performance by reviewing task completion and gathering feedback from customers and suppliers (Mohammed, 2015).

Job performance is a multi-faceted concept (Springer, 2011), comprising both task and contextual performance, with social skills being key predictors. Researchers like Borman and Motowidlo (1993) have explored these dimensions. In this circumstance, performance refers to a range of behaviors over time, reflecting their value to the organization. Thus, performance differences arise from variations in the organizational value of behaviors demonstrated by different individuals or by the same individual at different times.

Obilade (1999) proposes that educator performance can be viewed as the tasks educators perform over time that contribute to institutional goals, while Peretemode (1996) suggests that job performance is assessed by an employee's involvement in daily organizational activities. This study focuses on academic job performance, which is increasingly influenced by talent management practices and self-efficacy.

2.1.2 Job Performance Model

Numerous ideas and models of job performance have been put forth in earlier research; each model and theory is founded on particular studies and situations. This section reviews previous research and relevant theories on job performance. Motowidlo and Borman (1993) suggest the idea relates to contextual and task performance are the two main components of job performance that are the subject of this study.

Contextual performance involves non-technical skills while task performance is the ability of employees to complete the tasks assigned by the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Jex & Britt (2008), emphasize that task performance reflects the technical aspect of an employee's role, Examples of task performance include activities such as sales by sales assistants, investigations conducted by law enforcement officers, and administrative duties performed by office staff. As such, an individual fulfilling essential job duties is a major aspect of task performance.

In contrast, contextual performance refers to actions that improve organizational efficiency by positively influencing the work environment, as well as the social and psychological dynamics within the workplace (Motowidlo, 2003). Contextual performance is defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) as voluntary employee activities that benefit the organization, such as carrying out tasks, cooperating with others, supporting colleagues, abiding by business policies, and advancing organizational goals. Contextual performance examples include assisting new hires in understanding protocols, offering to take on extra work, and remaining upbeat under trying conditions.

The primary difference between contextual performance and task performance lies in their attention: task performance is role-specific and varies based on job requirements, whereas contextual performance emphasizes supportive behaviors and productive actions that are consistent across different job types. The employee's actual contribution to the company and their own development, including the advancement of their knowledge and skills, are both reflected in their contextual performance.

2.1.3 Previous Studies on Academician's Job Performance in Malaysia

The effectiveness of academicians' work is considered a critical outcome of their professional duties in Malaysia. The focus on academic performance has grown within the realm of higher education research, making it a central area of study. The job performance of academicians is strongly associated with academic quality. Academic staff performance directly affects both the overall success of Malaysian public universities and the quality of education they provide. As a result, additional research into the job performance of academicians is essential for improving both the educational experience and the overall well-being of the academic staff.

Several studies have explored the factors influencing academicians' job performance. For instance, the connection between human resource practices and job performance among academicians, with a specific focus on career development within Malaysian higher education institutions. The research found that the reward systems offered to academicians had a direct impact on their performance, a conclusion supported by other studies indicating a strong link between rewards and job performance. Hence, in Malaysian universities, job performance serves as an essential measure of an academician's effectiveness. As a consequence of this, the academician's performance on

the job will be investigated further in this study with regard to the difficulties that were brought up in earlier research.

2.2 Talent Management

2.2.1 Definition and Conceptualization Background of Talent Management

Talent management define as the process of systematically identifying key jobs that are necessary for an organization's long-term competitive advantage is known as talent management (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015). Besides that, Adeosun & Ohiani, (2020) emphasize that the procedure includes identifying critical responsibilities within the company, assembling a pool of competent candidates to occupy these roles, and developing a robust human resource plan to cultivate future leaders. Additionally, the organizations are realizing the need of good people management, and the correlation between job performance and talent management is becoming more and more prominent (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield Jones, Hankin, & Michaels, 1998; Bjorkman, Fey, & Park, 2007). Nonetheless, it remains difficult for HR professionals to agree on how to define, identify, and evaluate organizational talent.

2.2.2 Dimension of Talent Management

Talent management has evolved into a strategic discipline encompassing a broad set of functions designed to attract, develop, deploy, and retain human capital aligned with organizational goals. Over the past decade, scholars have conceptualized talent management as a multi-dimensional construct, extending beyond traditional human resource management (HRM) to address competitive positioning, talent shortages, and globalization (Al Ariss et al., 2014; Collings et al., 2017). Besides that, Collings & Mellahi

(2009) emphasized that, implementing a talent management system aims to boost the competitive advantage of the company by enhancing the fundamental skills and talents of people in key roles and by identifying and rewarding valuable contributors. Consequently, the talent management process is organized around four primary dimensions: Identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management. This dimension focuses on recognizing critical roles within an organization that are essential for maintaining a competitive advantage (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

2.2.2.1 Identifying Critical Position

The concept of identifying critical positions is distinct from identifying high-potential employees. Jayaraman et al. (2018) emphasize that critical positions are those that disproportionately contribute to an organization's success. They argue that focusing on these positions allows firms to prioritize strategic talent allocation more effectively. This view aligns with Sparrow et al. (2019), who introduced the concept of "A-positions"—roles rather than people—as the locus of strategic value in talent management. Their research asserts that strategic human resource management should prioritize roles that are mission-critical, thereby aligning talent decisions with broader organizational goals.

Besides that, finding and developing talented individuals is the first step in the process, according to the position-centric approach to talent management. These roles are distinguished by their significant impact on organizational performance. Researchers emphasize the need to identify critical positions (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005) to enhance competitive advantage and improve organizational outcomes. By building a talent pool and acquiring skilled individuals for these critical roles, the organization ensures the presence of behaviours vital for effective performance.

2.2.2.2 Competence Training

In the context of talent management, competence training serves as a strategic tool for developing and retaining high-performing employees by enhancing their job-related knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Collings et al., 2019). Besides that, talent management emphasizes the identification, development, and retention of individuals who occupy key roles or have high potential to contribute to organizational success.

Within this framework, competence training ensures that these individuals acquire the integrated set of competencies required to meet both current and future organizational demands (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2020). Competence training in talent management goes beyond generic skill development, focusing instead on aligning training content with the organization's strategic goals. This ensures that employees in critical positions possess the necessary capabilities to drive innovation, maintain operational excellence, and adapt to evolving industry requirements (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016).

Furthermore, competence training strengthens employee engagement and organizational commitment, as employees perceive investment in their professional growth as recognition of their value to the organization (Bhatnagar, 2020). Additionally, competence training involves purposeful actions by professional trainers to increase employees' efficiency and productivity (Sukmawati et al., 2020). It necessitates an ongoing investment of time and resources to assist employees in developing the specific competencies needed for both their current and future roles (Sun et al., 2007; Collins & Clark, 2003). This investment is seen as a way to build organizational capability through competency-based HR practices. Therefore, training is crucial for enhancing employees'

skills, preparing them for career growth, and ensuring they are aligned with the changing needs of the corporate world.

2.2.2.3 Development

Development refers to a strategic and long-term process aimed at enhancing the knowledge, skills, and abilities of employees—particularly those identified as high-potential or occupying critical positions—so they can meet both current and future organizational needs. Unlike short-term training, which focuses on immediate skill acquisition, development emphasizes continuous learning, adaptability, and preparation for leadership and succession roles (Garavan et al., 2012). Besides that, it often involves a combination of formal programs such as workshops, seminars, and academic courses, alongside informal learning opportunities such as mentoring, coaching, and job rotations (Collings et al., 2019).

The purpose of development within talent management is twofold: to prepare individuals for greater responsibilities and to ensure organizational sustainability through effective succession planning. By investing in the long-term growth of key employees, organizations can foster higher engagement, retention, and performance levels, as employees perceive development opportunities as recognition of their value and potential (Bhatnagar, 2020). Moreover, development initiatives aligned with organizational strategy ensure that talent pipelines remain robust, enabling organizations to respond effectively to evolving market and operational challenges.

In accordance with the findings of Luna-Arocas et al. (2020), the process of providing employees with the capabilities, know-how, and conduct necessary for their

present and future positions is known as development. Garavan et al (2012) stated that talent development focuses on high-potential workers who are anticipated to assume key roles within the organization. Additionally, development programs shall adopt best practices in employee training, including the integration of feedback from peers (Almomani et al., 2021). Hence, tailored learning paths are crucial for addressing specific training needs, leading to greater engagement with the material and enhanced skills.

2.2.2.4 Reward Management

Reward management is a strategic, systemic set of policies, practices, and processes through which organizations design, deliver, and evaluate both monetary and non-monetary rewards to attract, motivate, develop, and retain employees. Contemporary scholarship frames reward management not merely as pay administration but as a holistic "reward system" that integrates base pay, variable pay, benefits, recognition, development opportunities, and intrinsic rewards (e.g., autonomy, mastery, purpose) so that individual motivations and organizational objectives are aligned (Figueiredo et al., 2025). By configuring reward elements around competencies and performance outcomes, reward management functions as an instrument of talent management: it signals which roles and behaviours are valued, directs employee effort toward strategic goals, and forms part of an organization's investment in its human capital (Figueiredo et al., 2025).

Empirical and conceptual work in the last decade further highlights the complementary roles of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards (salary, bonuses, benefits) remain important for meeting basic equity and expectancy needs and for reinforcing targeted performance; intrinsic rewards (recognition, meaningful work, development opportunities) foster engagement, creativity, and sustained discretionary

effort—mechanisms that are especially important for retaining high-potential employees and promoting long-term capability development (Manzoor et al., 2021). Effective reward management therefore requires coherence across reward components (total reward), attention to fairness and transparency, and alignment with talent-management processes (selection, development, succession) so that reward practices both reflect and reinforce the organization's talent priorities (Figueiredo et al., 2025). According to Herzberg's (1968) the two-factor theory, extrinsic rewards like pay and incentives are less effective motivators than intrinsic ones like recognition, professional progression, and a sense of accomplishment. Ultimately, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation work together to enhance employee performance, making reward management something that is essential to the process of talent management.

In sum, reward management in modern organizations is a multidimensional, strategic practice that goes beyond compensation administration: when carefully designed and integrated with talent management, reward systems enhance motivation, enable capability development, and increase retention of critical and high-potential personnel—thereby contributing to sustained organizational performance (Figueiredo et al., 2025; Manzoor et al., 2021).

2.3 Occupational Self-Efficacy

On the other hand, the phrase "occupational self-efficacy" refers to the extent to which an individual believes that they are capable of successfully completing activities that are associated to their employment and achieving their professional goals. Based on Bandura's (1977, 1997) social cognitive theory, occupational self-efficacy drives motivation, behavior, and performance, especially in difficult situations. Within occupational settings,

this belief functions as a personal resource that supports task performance, perseverance, and adaptability (Rigotti et al., 2008). It does not focus on the quantity of skills an individual has, but rather on their belief in what they can achieve with their existing skills in various contexts (Bandura, 1997). When confronted with obstacles, people with strong self-efficacy are more inclined to tackle challenging tasks, establish more ambitious goals, and persistently strive toward achieving those goals (Bandura, 1997, 2012).

Rafiola et al. (2020) clarify that occupational self-efficacy involves an individual's self-awareness and belief in their ability to effectively plan and execute tasks while overcoming obstacles. Moreover, according to the Social Cognitive Theory, occupational self-efficacy is defined as an individual's evaluation of their own capabilities and their self-assurance in their capacity to carry out activities that need particular capabilities (Robbins & Timothy, 2013; Bandura, 1999). Cetin & Askun (2018) indicated that previous research has shown a positive correlation among occupational self-efficacy, job motivation, and job performance. Therefore, occupational self-efficacy is an essential element in career life (Paggi & Jopp, 2015; Fullemann et al., 2015).

2.4 Underpinning Theory

According to Kurt Lewin's Field Theory, an organizational "field" is the result of the interaction between environmental factors and individual traits. This framework is essential for understanding and managing employee change, talent management, and related HR practices (Kump, 2023; Burnes, 2004; Swanson & Creed, 2014). Lewin’s view emphasizes that the environment is a dynamic, constantly evolving force, which, in

conjunction with individual traits, influences behavior. This interaction is crucial when implementing change management, especially during organizational transitions.

Unfreezing, moving, and refreezing are the three steps of Lewin's change model, which provides organizations with a clear road map for handling planned changes. Leaders must first prepare employees for change (unfreezing), foster commitment and action (moving), and finally, stabilize new behaviors to ensure lasting transformation (refreezing) (Bakari et al., 2017; Hussain et al., 2016; Burnes, 2004; Shirey, 2013). Within this model, Field Theory provides a structured approach to identifying the forces that either facilitate or hinder change. By recognizing these forces, organizations can implement specific interventions to overcome resistance and drive progress (Swanson & Creed, 2014; Martin & Colville, 2017).

In addition, the focus of Field Theory on the relationships between individual and the surroundings provides an analytical tool that may be utilized for the purpose of determining the most important positions within an organization. By assessing roles that are most influenced by or capable of influencing crucial organizational forces, the theory allows organizations to strategically allocate resources and support. This approach ensures that roles critical to achieving change and organizational goals are prioritized and empowered (Martin & Colville, 2017).

Lewin’s theory also suggests that reward systems serve as driving forces that encourage behaviours aligned with organizational objectives. By connecting rewards to desired actions, leaders can boost employee motivation and self-efficacy, facilitating readiness for change (Bakari et al., 2017; cc). Building self-efficacy is especially important during the unfreezing stage, as it prepares employees for new responsibilities

and challenges. Besides that, aligning rewards with objectives helps reduce resistance and fosters an environment that supports change.

Additionally, Lewin's emphasis on participation and democracy, when combined with motivational strategies, helps cultivate a culture of continuous talent development and organizational adaptability (Endrejat et al., 2017). By promoting involvement and inclusivity, organizations can develop a more engaged, flexible workforce that is better prepared for change. When applied effectively, change management grounded in Field Theory enhances job satisfaction, overall job performance, and commitment (Bakari et al., 2017; Martin & Colville, 2017).

In conclusion, Lewin's Field Theory offers a strong theoretical framework for identifying critical roles, managing employee change, and assisting with talent management procedures. By understanding and leveraging the forces within the organizational environment, companies can create targeted reward systems, build self-efficacy, foster talent development, and ultimately improve job performance (Bakari et al., 2017; Endrejat et al., 2017; Burnes, 2004; Swanson & Creed, 2014; Martin & Colville, 2017). This all-encompassing strategy guarantees the development of the factors that propel organizational success, fostering long-term expansion and flexibility in a constantly shifting business environment.

2.5 Hypotheses Development

In this study, job performance will be the dependent variable in this study, while occupational self-efficacy and talent management will be the independent variables. The four components of talent management that will be examined in this study are reward

management, competence training, development, and critical position identification. Additionally, five hypotheses were tested in the study.

2.5.1 Talent Management and Job performance

2.5.1.1 Identifying Critical Position and Job Performance

Identifying individuals with excellent performance and great potential, assigning them to key roles, and offering them a customized HR plan are the main objectives of the strategic talent management system. The ability, motivation and opportunity model (AMO model) predicts that this strategy will improve individual performance. The relationship between HRM practices and organizational performance is known to be mediated by employee motivation (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

Identifying critical positions within an organization is a key strategic component of talent management, as it enables management to allocate resources and development efforts to roles that have the greatest impact on organizational success. According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), critical positions are those that contribute disproportionately to sustainable competitive advantage. When these roles are clearly identified, organizations can implement targeted recruitment, training, and succession planning strategies, ensuring that individuals occupying such positions are equipped to perform at the highest level.

Past studies have consistently shown that identifying and investing in critical positions has a positive and significant effect on job performance. For instance, Huselid et al. (2005) found that organizations that systematically identify and manage critical roles

demonstrate higher individual and organizational performance outcomes. Succession planning research—closely related to identifying key positions—has shown significant positive effects on employee effectiveness, leadership continuity, and the minimization of performance gaps (Abate & Bogale, 2022). Similarly, Nijs et al. (2014) reported that talent management practices that focus on key positions—rather than solely on high-performing individuals—result in better alignment between organizational priorities and employee outputs, thereby enhancing performance. This positive relationship is attributed to increased role clarity, targeted capability development, and strategic alignment, which together foster both task and contextual performance.

In the academic sector, identifying critical positions such as program leaders, senior researchers, and curriculum coordinators is particularly important, as these roles directly influence teaching quality, research productivity, and institutional reputation. Empirical evidence from academic institutions shows that individuals in well-defined critical positions demonstrate higher levels of engagement, accountability, and output when compared to peers in non-critical roles (Barkhuizen et al., 2014). This suggests that the process of identifying and managing critical positions not only improves performance at the individual level but also contributes to the achievement of long-term institutional goals.

Additionally, creating a strong talent pool presents challenges from both organizational and individual standpoints. Key considerations include responding to evolving business needs, adapting to changes in individual circumstances, offering development opportunities, retaining senior management commitment, and defining success metrics. Consequently, organizations must adopt both internal and external

recruitment strategies to effectively cultivate talent pools (Haeruddin, 2017a; 2017b). Based on empirical evidence in the literature, it is proposed that:

H1: There is a positive and significant relationship between identifying critical position and job performance.

2.5.1.2 Competence Training and Job Performance

Studies indicate that performance evaluation scores reveal that education is a key factor in career progression and compensation (Hayek et al., 2016). However, Marvel (2013) pointed out that the human capital theory emphasizes how crucial education is in establishing a person's socioeconomic standing. For instance, the returns on human capital acquired through education and training have an impact on an individual's production. Furthermore, when job-specific and organization-specific training are provided and mandated, employee performance improves productivity (Hayek et al., 2016). According to Hayek et al. (2016), training is also essential for cultivating talent and skills, which raises production and performance and, ultimately, raises pay. As a result, researchers have proposed that competence training can lay a strong foundation for enhancing individual job performance. Following is a hypothesis that has been proposed on the basis of previous research:

H2: There is a positive and significant relationship between competence training and job performance.

2.5.1.3 Development and Job Performance

Maley et al. (2024) and Wahyudi et al. (2022) imply that as people see improved talent management techniques as chances for professional advancement, they lead to better

employee performance. In contrast, studies found that expatriates play a crucial role in global talent management. The influence of expatriate status on career growth and talent development continues to be a central topic of research (Ramaswami et al., 2016).

Furthermore, empirical research by Pietrantoni et al. (2024) and Tariq et al. (2024) emphasizes how important it is for businesses to store and share knowledge in order to guarantee that workers have the knowledge and abilities needed to function at their best. Furthermore, by encouraging skill development and motivation, Banuari et al. (2021) show that well-executed talent management procedures improve employee performance. Based on the findings from prior research, it is proposed that:

H3: There is a positive and significant relationship between development and job performance.

2.5.1.4 Reward Management and Job Performance

Research has shown that inadequate remuneration is directly linked to an organization's profits (Akerele, 1991). The wage gap between low- and high-income earners can result in reduced employee motivation, commitment, and productivity. However, financial rewards are not the sole motivators—other forms of recognition, such as appreciation, growth opportunities, and management attention, also contribute. In a similar vein, another study concluded that a well-balanced reward system improves both employee motivation and company productivity (Deeprose, 1994).

Both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are strongly associated with employee performance (Olsson & Kvaløyr, 2008, 2013). Additionally, research shows that extrinsic rewards positively affect employee satisfaction. Other studies have similarly observed the

positive impact of extrinsic rewards, especially promotions, on employee satisfaction, although some limitations were noted in earlier research. For example, while medical allowances and promotion packages are valued as extrinsic rewards, it is argued that salary packages should be more attractive and sufficient. Based on the findings from previous studies, it is proposed that:

H4: There is a positive and significant relationship between reward management and job performance.

2.5.2 Occupational Self-Efficacy and Job Performance

Occupational self-efficacy has been shown to be related to job performance, as demonstrated in research by Abun et al. (2021). Hill et al. (1987) discovered that occupational self-efficacy improves an employee's ability to adapt to new technologies, which in turn enhances job performance. Gist (1989) further suggests that self-efficacy enables employees to generate creative ideas that can elevate their position within the workplace. Additionally, self-efficacy helps employees succeed in group settings, contributing to improved job performance (Mitchell et al., 1994). Self-efficacy also aids employees in acquiring key skills that enhance job performance (Wood et al., 1990). These findings collectively reinforce the role of self-efficacy in boosting job performance.

Similarly, Wood & Bandura (1989) argue that self-efficacy strengthens an individual's belief in their abilities, encouraging perseverance and hard work toward goal achievement. It also empowers employees to take on more difficult tasks, which further improves their job performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy motivates employees to put in considerable effort and overcome challenges (Bandura, 1999; Abun

et al., 2021). This is because self-efficacy drives individuals to achieve their desired outcomes through their efforts (Bandura, 1999). In contrast, employees who deem self-efficacy as unimportant tend to doubt their capabilities, avoid challenging tasks, or opt for simpler solutions, which negatively affects their job performance (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1999). Workers with diminished self-efficacy tend to surrender more readily when encountering challenges (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Abun et al., 2021), resulting in reduced job performance in discouraging circumstances at work. Recent research indicates that workers with elevated self-efficacy generally excel compared to those with diminished self-efficacy (Judge et al., 2007; Bono & Judge, 2001; Luthans & Stajkovic, 1998; Abun et al., 2021; Tims et al., 2014).

However, Oldham & Cummings (1996) argue that it is an employee's creativity, not self-efficacy, that drives job performance. Similarly, Janssen et al. (2004) propose that the ability of employees to adapt to their work environment is more critical for job performance than self-efficacy. There appears to be a gap in the comprehension of the connection between self-efficacy and job performance, which suggests the need for further inquiry. This is based on the literature that was evaluated. Consequently, on the basis of this analysis of the relevant literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

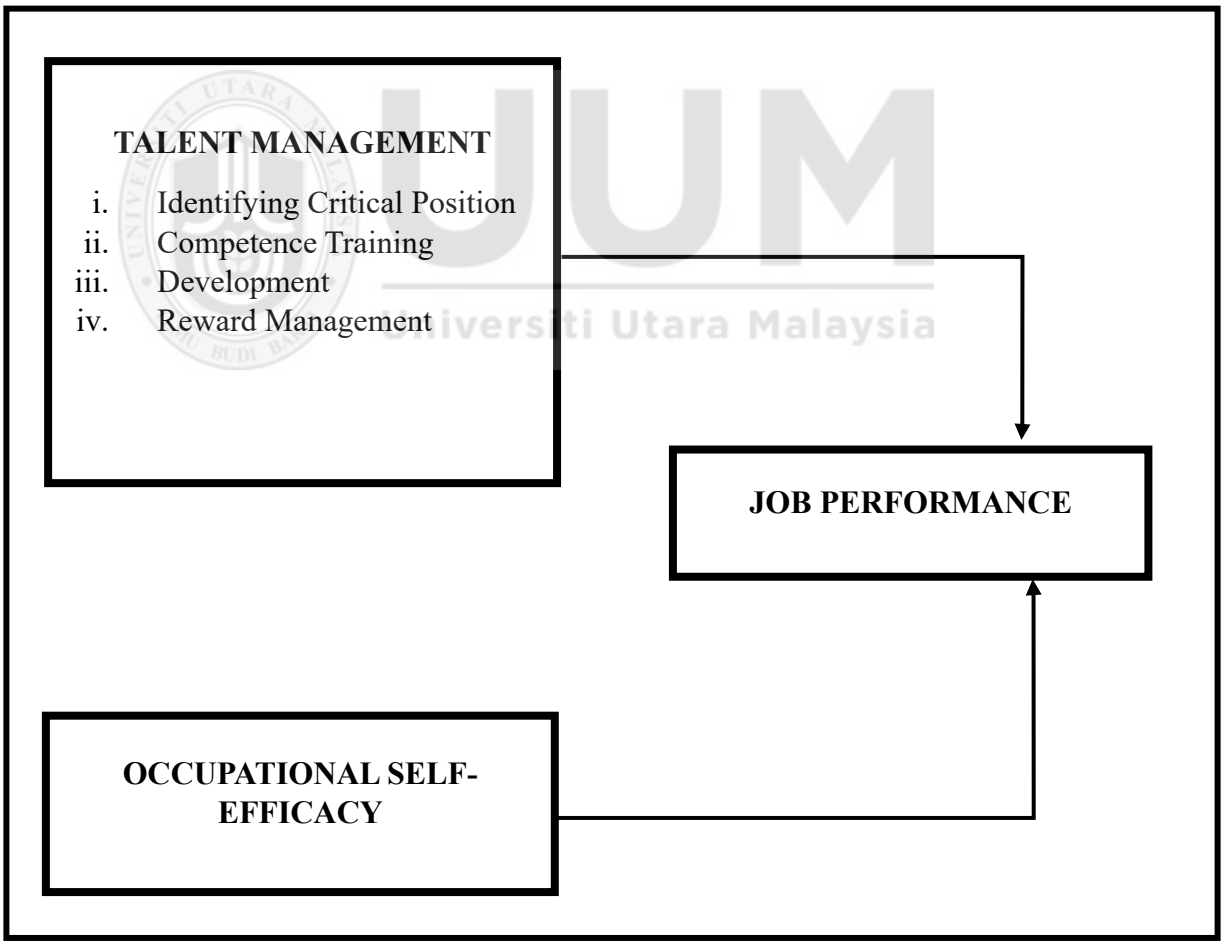
H5: There is a positive and significant relationship between occupational self-efficacy and job performance.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study established a theoretical framework to understand and clarify the relationship between the dependent variable, job performance, and the independent variables, occupational self-efficacy and talent management. Figure 2.1 shows that a study framework was constructed based on the hypothesized links between the independent and dependent variables.

Figure 2.1

Research Framework



2.7 Chapter Summary

Chapter two discusses the concepts, definitions, and theories that support the model of the independent variable—including elements of academicians' occupational self-efficacy and talent management—and job performance as the dependent variable—while examining various theories and studies conducted by different researchers. Furthermore, the aspects of talent management were briefly examined in light of previous research. Additionally, this chapter emphasized both theoretical and empirical findings from earlier studies. As a result, the framework and theoretical assumptions were also presented. Following this, the third chapter will provide a comprehensive and extensive explanation of the technique that was utilized in this research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Chapter three mainly illustrates the research design utilized in this study. In this chapter, the research technique is discussed along with the study design, which covers the data collection method used throughout the research process. Additionally, the target audience, sample size of respondents, sampling technique, and research instrument which comprises of questionnaires have all been precisely identified. The final section provides the chapter summary.

3.1 Research Design

The research method is implemented to accumulate data for examination, with the goal of offering a more profound insight into the problem being studied. Research design refers to a structured approach or method employed to address a research problem through data collection, measurement, and analysis (Sileyew, 2019). Khanday (2023) defines research design as the comprehensive strategy for answering research questions. The research methods will be classified into two types: quantitative and qualitative. Qualitative methods are data collection techniques that produce results such as text or visuals, focusing on gaining insights into specific subjects rather than presenting numerical data (Tenny, 2022). Quantitative research is the research of numerical data using statistical methods, especially figures, to examine a problem or phenomenon. After identifying the variables related to the issue and establishing a theoretical framework, the next critical step for the researcher is to design research that can be analysed to offer a solution.

The nature of the experiments conducted is both descriptive and hypothesis-testing. A descriptive study seeks to understand the characteristics of an organization following routine practices, while hypothesis testing aims to identify the differences in dependent variables to predict the study's results (Jilcha, 2019). Therefore, by testing the hypothesis, this study will explore the influence between talent management and occupational self-efficacy on academicians' job performance.

Besides that, quantitative approach is leverage in this study by using a questionnaire to collect data on academicians' job performance in public universities. A questionnaire consists of a series of written questions where respondents provide their answers. The questionnaire approach provides a fast, affordable, and dependable information gathering method from a significant number of individuals within target group (Ranganathan, 2023). Additionally, questionnaires provide measurable responses that are easy to interpret, making them suitable for research purposes. In this research, questionnaires are used as the primary tool for data analysis. The survey contains inquiries concerning both the independent and dependent variables of the research. Data for this study was collected from academicians from public universities. Additionally, it collects demographic details like gender, age, marital status, job experience, educational history, and others.

3.2 Sampling Design

The term "cross-sectional statistical analysis" refers to a numerical portrayal of demographic trends, attitudes, or decisions. A component of this approach is the use of questionnaires or structured interviews, which entails using the representative sample to analyse a representative sample of the population. According to Thomas (2020), a cross-sectional study is characterized as a group of individuals at one particular moment in time.

In order to examine the relationship between the dependent variable, which is job performance, and the independent variables, which are the dimension of talent management which include identifying critical position, competence training, development, reward management and also occupational self-efficacy hence, the researchers employ the cross-sectional method.

3.2.1 Population

The research populations refer to the entire group of subjects from which the researcher seeks to draw conclusions or gather data (Noor, 2022). The population element, in this case, pertains to the actual participants or items being measured, representing the core focus of the research (Shukla, 2020). For this study, the population consists of total 5,801 academicians working at higher education institutions in Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UNIMAP), and Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM).

Since most academicians are employed full-time, the research is limited to full-time academic staff. Academicians are ideal participants for investigating the effect of talent management along with occupational self-efficacy on job performance, as their roles demand high engagement, consistent productivity, and adaptability to institutional requirements. By focusing on this population, the study aims to provide insights that can directly enhance organizational behavior in academic environments.

3.2.2 Sample Size

In this particular study, the sample size was established utilizing the sample size determination table by Morgan & Krejcie (1970). The overall population consists of 1,166 at UUM, 2,442 at USM, and 2,193 at UniMAP. The population and sample size for this

research are restricted to educators from the Northern area of Malaysia. Based on the sample size determination table, a population of 5,801 suggests a sample size of 364.

3.2.3. Sampling Technique

The convenience sampling technique was employed for this study. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which participants are selected based on their accessibility, proximity, and willingness to participate, rather than through random selection. This method is often used when time, cost, or logistical constraints limit the ability to employ probability-based methods (Etikan et al., 2016). Since survey will be conducted online via email, respondents can be easily contacted and invited to participate in the questionnaire using the provided Google Form. The sample size chart developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) is used to establish the required population and sample size of academicians. The results of this determination are presented in table 3.4.

3.3 Measurement and Instruments

Structured questionnaires were used as the data collection tool in this study. The research design for this study incorporates a structured approach to measuring the key variables under investigation job performance, identifying critical position, competence training, development, reward management and occupational self-efficacy. The questionnaire consists of 53 items, divided into six sections, each accompanied by clear and detailed instructions. Respondents were requested to answer questions in the questionnaire according to their opinion of agreement, as determined by a Five-Point Likert scale. The Five-Point Likert scale was chosen for this survey to evaluate behavior-related questions, where responses are rated in sections two and three, from one (strongly disagree) to five

(strongly agree). Sekaran et al. (2009) assert that the mean and standard deviation of the variables may be readily calculated using the interval scale.

3.4 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was organized into four sections, labelled A to D. Section A contains 21 questions designed to assess job performance. Section B includes 26 questions aimed at measuring the dimensions of talent management. Section C consists of six questions focused on occupational self-efficacy. The last part, D, asks the respondents for personal information including their gender, age, nationality, marital status, greatest level of education, job title, type of work, and years of service in the academic sector. Along with the questionnaire, there was also a cover letter with all the information and directions for the study.

To evaluate each study variable, this questionnaire used items from multiple sources. The personal information section includes demographic questions commonly found in other research studies. Section A, containing 21 questions, was adapted from the questionnaire developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Section B includes 26 questions adapted from the work of Jayaraman, Talib, and Khan (2018). Finally, Section C consists of 6 questions, which were adapted from the studies by Rigotti, Schyns, and Mohr (2008). Additionally, a comprehensive description of each survey section provided in Table 3.1, and 3.2 presents an illustration of the distribution of the variables that were utilized in the research.

Table 3.1 Description of Survey' Section

Questionnaire Sections	Variables	Number of items	Main reference / adopted from
Section A	Job Performance	21	Williams and Anderson (1991)
Section B	Talent Management		Jayaraman, Parvaiz and Ahmad Faraz (2018).
	• Identifying Critical Position	4	
	• Competence Training	6	
	• Development	5	
	• Reward Management	11	
Section C	Occupational self-efficacy	6	(Rigotti, Schyns, and Mohr (2008)
Section D	Demographic Information		Contains: gender, age, Nationality, Marital status, academic qualification, position, employment type and length of service.
	Total	**53**	

Table 3.2: Operational Definition and Instrument of Variables

Variables	Operational Definition	Items
Job Performance	Job performance is defined as behavioural elements of task performance and contextual performance of an individual (Motowidlo et al., 1997) to meet organizational objectives (Campbell, 1990).	1. I adequately complete assigned duties. 2. I fulfil responsibilities specified in job description. 3. I perform tasks that are expected of my manager. 4. I perform tasks that are expected of my manager 5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation. 6. I neglect aspect of the job which is obligated to perform. 7. I fail to perform essential duties.

8. I help others who have been absent.
9. I help others who have heavy workloads.
10. I assist supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
11. I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.
12. I go out of way to help new employees.
13. I take a personal interest in other employees.
14. I pass along information to co-workers.
15. My attendance at work is above the norm.
16. I give advance notice when unable come to work.
17. I take undeserved work breaks.
18. I spent great deal of time with personal phone conversations.

		19. I complain about significant things at work. 20. I conserve and protect organizational property. 21. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.
Identifying Critical Position	Identifying critical position defines the process of identifying pivotal roles in an organization that differentially contributes to the organization's sustainable competitive advantage (Collings and Mellahi, 2009)	1. My company identifies the critical positions aligned with business strategies. 2. My company builds up a talent pool in the organization. 3. My company differentiates the employees on the basis of their contribution levels. 4. My company identifies the employees that makes maximum impact on organization success.

Competence Training	Competence training involves investment of resources such as time and money to develop employees targeted skills required for both present roles and future career opportunities (Collins and Clark, 2003 and Sun, Aryee, and Law, 2007).	1. The training activities for the employees are focused on required competencies. 2. The training activities for the employees are implemented continuously. 3. The content of the training activities for the employees are based on job performance. 4. The training activities for the employees required time and extensive financial resources. 5. The training activities for the employees are designed to develop firm specific skills or knowledge. 6. Training activities for the employees are in line with assigned critical tasks.

Development	Development is defined as the process of enhancing the skills and attitude of the employees (Lyria, 2013 and Rabbi et al., 2015).	1. Development needs are identified for employees. 2. Employees have many opportunities for upward mobility. 3. I have clear career paths in this organization. 4. I have more than one avenue for promotion. 5. Developmental activities include feedback on developmental growth agenda for the employees.

Reward Management	Reward management defines as the process of developing and implementing strategies, approaches and systems, which would make provision of help and support to the human resources in the achievement of organizational goals by increasing motivation, inspiration and commitment (Radhika, 2020)	1. My company provides recognition, e.g. financial recognition such as cash, paid travel, incentive bonus or variable pay, etc. 2. My supervisor discusses and provides meaningful and helpful feedback on job performance. 3. My company values my work and contribution. 4. I believe that my company has a fair and just system of rewarding employees. 5. My company set challenging targets in my job. 6. I have supportive and like-minded colleagues. 7. My company supports a balanced lifestyle (between my work and personal life).

8. My company encourages and organizes team building or other social networking activities among employees.
9. My company provides a competitive pay package (i.e., basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay).
10. My company provided medical aids, retirement, and pension benefits.
11. My company provides recognition via non-financial means, e.g certificate of recognition.

Organisational Self-Efficacy	Self-efficacy defined as the confidence of an individual toward his or her ability to handle the difficult task or challenge as Bandura (1977a).	1. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities. 2. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions. 3. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it. 4. My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future. 5. I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job. 6. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.

3.5 Pilot Test

The purpose of a pilot study is to conduct a small-scale examination that assesses the research methods, data gathering tools, sample selection strategies, and other research approaches as a preparatory stage for the primary study. As stated by Burns and Bush (2003), the main aim of a pilot test is to identify and correct any problems in the questionnaire prior to conducting the real survey. Before completing the questionnaire, a pilot test is performed to assess the accuracy and dependability of its design. Lowe (2019) highlights that a pilot test assists in confirming that the procedures, the samples, the instruments, and the analysis are suitable and efficient, serving as a precursor to the more extensive research.

The pilot test was conducted with a smaller group of 40 academicians from UNITAR International University Centre Ipoh, who were asked to complete the questionnaire. Over five days of pre-testing, respondents provided feedback on the questions, instructions, and overall flow of the questionnaire. After conducting the pilot study, feedback from the participants will be analysed to determine whether any modifications are needed in the wording or structure of the questions. A reliability analysis will be conducted using Cronbach's Alpha to assess the internal consistency of the questionnaire, with a threshold of 0.70 or higher being considered acceptable for each scale (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Measurement reliability denotes the extent to which a measurement remains stable and consistent. The three criteria commonly highlighted in discussions of reliability are test-retest reliability, internal consistency, and inter-rater reliability. Bryman & Bell (2007) state that reliability assesses how consistent the relationships are between the correlated concepts and the measurement tools, indicating

the strength of the connection between the variables. Bryman & Bell (2007) highlight that internal reliability assesses if a participant's score on one measure corresponds with their scores on other measures and whether this consistency is upheld among various observers. If reliability falls below this threshold or significant issues are identified, the questionnaire will be revised accordingly to ensure it is a valid and reliable tool for measuring the research objectives in the main study.

Table 3.3 illustrate that, all the variables reliability coefficients surpass the recommended threshold of 0.70, indicating acceptable internal consistency among the respective items. Consequently, the questionnaire can be considered a good tool for measuring the constructions. Participants also provided positive feedback regarding the clarity of the questions, suggesting that no revisions were needed for the final instrument. Hence, no changes were deemed necessary. Overall, the pilot test outcomes validate the adequacy of the measures and support moving forward with the main data collection.

Table 3.3: Pilot Test Result

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Identifying Critical Position	4	0.770
Competence Training	6	0.845
Development	5	0.759
Reward Management	11	0.895
Occupational Self-efficacy	6	0.830
Job Performance	21	0.941

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

In this study, the questionnaire was created in English, which serves as the universal language. The survey was distributed to academicians from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMap) and Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). The researcher contacted the registrar departments of the three selected universities via email to obtain the total number of academicians in each institution.

The academic professionals were subsequently emailed the questionnaires. In the email, the researcher offered clear directions and guidelines to make certain that the respondents comprehended the questionnaire and its objective. This was carried out to ensure that the participants were completely aware of the study's aims. The survey was shared through Google Forms, along with a comprehensive cover letter outlining the objectives of the study. The data collection process will be monitored continuously to ensure that responses are coming in as expected. Google Forms allows for automatic aggregation of responses, providing a clear overview of the collected data in real-time. Once the data collection period is complete, the responses will be exported to a statistical software program for further analysis. This approach allows efficient data gathering, providing high-quality, organized data that is easy to analyse. The use of Google Forms also enables the researcher to reach participants across the targeted universities, making the data collection process both inclusive and comprehensive.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

In order to analyse the collected data, SPSS 30.0 was used in this study. The study technique included multiple regression analysis, correlation analysis, reliability testing, and descriptive analysis. Reliability tests were performed on the items that were part of

the questionnaire to establish their consistency and stability. Additionally, in order to summarize and explain the overall quantity of data contained in the research, descriptive analysis was performed in conjunction with the data presentation in percentage form.

The following details will be used to summarize the respondent's personal information: gender, age, marital status, academic background, job title, type of employment, length of service as an academician in the academic field, and length of service at the higher education institution where they currently hold a position. Descriptive analysis is a technique used to characterize the features of a population or a sample, according to Zikmund (2003). This platform makes it possible to transform unprocessed data into a format that is easy for users to understand and analyse. To assess the connection between the dependent and independent variables, a descriptive analysis was performed on the statement that was included in the questionnaire.

In this particular study, the researchers decided to do correlation analysis because it is an essential stage that must be completed before multiple linear regression. The purpose of this inquiry was to investigate multiple linear regression in order to ascertain the extent to which the independent variable effects the dependent variable and to provide answers to the research questions that were brought up by this investigation.

3.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter three primarily focused on the study's design, conceptual and operational definitions, population, measurement variables, sampling techniques, and study elements. Pilot tests have been performed to assess reliability, and mechanisms for data gathering and analysis have been detailed. The analysis of the data was conducted using the SPSS

version 30.0 software. The next chapter will contain a short overview of the research results and conclusions drawn from the statistical analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

Chapter four showcases the results of the statistical analysis performed on the research data. The initial section addresses the process of gathering data, the responses from the survey, and the methods used for data cleansing. The subsequent section offers a detailed summary of the data, succeeded by reliability and factor analyses. Following that, correlation and regression analyses were performed to assess the study's hypotheses. The chapter wraps up by recapping the findings of the hypothesis tests.

4.1 Response Rate

The rate of responses is a vital factor in guaranteeing that the research results can be applied to the wider population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). In this research, 381 questionnaires were allocated based on the rank distribution established by the researcher. All 381 surveys were received, leading to a response rate of 100%.

4.2 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

The demographic classification provides useful insights into the characteristics of the sample, helping to contextualize the study population (Field, 2018). In this research, eight demographic variables were analysed: age category, gender, academic qualification, marital status, type of employment, position, length of service at the current institution and length of service in academia.

As presented in Table 4.1, of the 381 respondents, 199 (52.2%) were male, and 182 (47.8%) were female. The respondents' ages were grouped into five categories. The largest

group was individuals aged 35 to 44 years, comprising 100 academicians (26.2%), followed by those aged 45 to 54 years with 96 respondents (25.2%). The 25 to 34-year age group accounted for 81 academicians (21.3%), while 67 academicians (17.6%) were aged 54 years and above. The smallest group, those aged 24 years and younger, included 37 academicians (9.7%). Regarding marital status, 186 academicians (48.8%) were married, 93 (24.4%) were unmarried, and 102 academicians (26.8%) were either widowed, divorced, or separated.

The probability distribution presented in Table 4.1 indicates that the vast majority of academicians held Doctoral Degrees, totalling 186 (48.8%). A total of 79 respondents (20.7%) held Bachelor's Degrees, and 71 (18.6%) held Master's Degrees. The smallest group comprised diploma holders, with 45 respondents (11.8%).

In terms of rank, the largest group of respondents were Lecturers, numbering 110 (28.9%), followed by 90 respondents (25.5%) holding the rank of Associate Professor or Senior Lecturer. Additionally, 47 respondents (12.3%) were Tutors, and 44 respondents (11.5%) held the title of Professor. Regarding employment type, the majority of respondents were permanent staff, totalling 243 (63.8%), while 138 (36.2%) were on a contract basis.

In terms of length of service at the current higher education institution, the largest proportion fell within the 11 to 15 years range, comprising 111 academicians (29.1%). This was followed by those with 16 to 20 years of service, making up 55 academicians (14.4%). A further 48 academicians (12.6%) had 21 to 25 years of service, while 74 academicians (19.4%) had served for 26 to 30 years. Additionally, 59 academicians (15.5%) had served for 30 years or more. Those with 5 to 10 years of service accounted

for 25 academicians (6.6%), and 9 academicians (2.4%) had served for less than 5 years.

The distribution of respondents' length of service in their current institution shows seven distinct categories, with the largest group being those with 11 to 15 years of service (106 respondents, or 27.8%), followed by 67 respondents (17.6%) with 5 to 10 years of service. A significant portion, 53 respondents (13.9%), had served for over 30 years, while 48 respondents (12.6%) had 21 to 25 years of service. Forty-one respondents (10.8%) had 16 to 20 years of service, while 38 respondents (10.0%) had between 26 and 30 years of service. The minimal cohort, accounted for 28 responders, which is 7.3% of the total, and had less than 5 years of service.

Table 4.1

Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

Demographics Profile	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	199	47.8
Female	182	52.2
Age		
24 and below years old	37	9.7
25 to 34 years old	81	21.3
35 to 44 years old	100	26.2
45 to 54 years old	96	25.2
54 and above	67	17.6
Marital Status		
Single	93	24.4
Married	186	48.8
Other: Widower	102	26.8
Academics Qualifications		
Diploma	45	11.8
Bachelor Degree	79	20.7
Master Degree	71	18.6
Doctoral Degree	186	48.8
Position		

Tutor	47	12.3
Lecturer	110	28.9
Senior Lecturer	90	23.6
Associate Professor	90	23.6
Professor	44	11.5
Type of Employment		
Contract	138	36.2
Permanent	243	63.8
Length of Service in the Academician Field		
Less than 5 years	9	2.4
5 – 10 years	25	6.6
11 – 15 years	111	29.1
16 – 20 years	55	14.4
21 – 25 years	48	12.6
26 – 30 years	74	19.4
30 years and above	59	15.5
Length of Service in the Current Higher Education Institution		
Less than 5 years	28	7.3
5 – 10 years	67	17.6
11 – 15 years	106	27.8
16 – 20 years	41	10.8
21 – 25 years	48	12.6
26 – 30 years	38	10.0
30 years and above	53	13.9

4.3 Descriptive Analysis

Once the data set has been corrected, a descriptive analysis will be performed to provide a summary of the raw data. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), descriptive statistics are crucial for gaining insights into the general characteristics of the variables being examined, including key measures such as the mean, standard deviation, maximum, and minimum values. Descriptive statistics help summarize the data by offering a view into the central tendency, variability, and range of the variables.

These statistical measures are essential for gaining a deeper understanding of how the data is distributed, as highlighted by Sekaran and Bougie (2009). The mean, for example, represents the average value of the data set, providing an indication of the central tendency or the typical value around which the data points are clustered. A higher mean usually suggests that the overall score of the sample is elevated, reflecting a stronger performance or outcome on the variable being measured.

In addition to the mean, the standard deviation holds a significant position in evaluating the dispersion or variability of the results. It measures how much individual data points differ from the mean, thereby providing an indication of the degree of dispersion within the data set. When the standard deviation is lower, it implies that the data points are closely packed around the mean, which suggests that there is little variance and that there is consistency. A higher standard deviation, on the other hand, suggests a greater degree of unpredictability. This is because the data points are more dispersed, which shows that there is less uniformity and more variation in the numbers (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Therefore, the standard deviation is a vital metric, as it helps to understand the diversity and unpredictability of the data, making it an important tool for interpreting data reliability and drawing meaningful conclusions.

Table 4.2 displays the descriptive statistics for various constructs, including job performance, identifying critical positions, reward management, competence training, development, and occupational self-efficacy. The mean scores show that occupational self-efficacy has the highest mean of 3.172, indicating that, on average, participants have a relatively strong sense of self-efficacy in their roles. This is closely followed by reward management with a mean of 3.144 and development with a mean of 3.137, both suggesting

a moderately favourable perception. In comparison, competence training has the lowest mean score of 3.111, indicating that participants perceive this aspect to be less effective compared to the others. Interestingly, both job performance and identifying critical positions have identical mean scores of 3.133, reflecting a neutral or average perception of these constructs.

In terms of the variability of responses, the construct of identifying critical positions shows the highest standard deviation of 0.969, indicating significant dispersion in the responses, meaning that participants' opinions on the importance of critical positions vary widely. Competence training follows with a standard deviation of 0.885, showing considerable variability in perceptions of the effectiveness of training. On the other hand, job satisfaction and job engagement display relatively lower standard deviations of 0.793 and 0.790, respectively, suggesting more consistent perceptions across the sample. Particularly noteworthy is the fact that work performance has the lowest standard deviation rate, which is 0.793, showing that participants had a high level agreement with regard to this construct.

Table 4.2

Descriptive statistics of the constructs

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Job Performance	3.133	0.793
Identifying Critical Position	3.133	0.969
Competence Training	3.111	0.885
Development	3.137	0.893
Reward management	3.144	0.823
Occupational Self-Efficacy	3.172	0.884

4.4 Reliability Analysis

There were reliability tests performed on the research variables in order to examine the consistency and stability of the measuring tools. These tests were carried out after it was established that all of the data sets satisfied the relevant statistical assumptions. This step was crucial to ensure that the data collected was dependable and accurately represented the concepts being studied. It was determined that the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was the most appropriate metric to use for evaluating the reliability of the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha is a very well-known metric that is utilized for the purpose of evaluating the internal consistency of a scale. This measure reveals the degree to which a group of items are closely related to one another. According to Hair et al. (2018), a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.6 or higher is generally considered acceptable, suggesting that the data is reliable for analysis. A value at or above this threshold indicates that the measurement

instrument is sufficiently consistent in its ability to capture the constructs under study. If the Cronbach's Alpha value had fallen below 0.6, it would have suggested that the instrument lacked reliability, which would have required adjustments to improve the measurement scale.

Utilizing Cronbach's Alpha, a metric that is generally acknowledged for measuring the internal consistency of measurement scales, we were able to determine the degree of dependability that each of the five portions of the instrument represented. In order to determine the degree to which items on a scale are linked with one another, Cronbach's Alpha is utilized. This metric is used to determine how consistently the instrument assesses the same construct. The Job Performance section, which includes 21 items designed to assess proactive work behaviour and self-management, yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.913. The high value reflects strong internal consistency, indicating that the items in this section are closely related and accurately represent the concept of job performance.

The identifying critical position section, which had four items, got a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.701. While this value is lower than that of the job performance section, it is still within an acceptable range for exploratory research, as values above 0.7 are generally considered reliable, although it indicates a more moderate level of consistency compared to other sections. The competence training section, which contains 6 items, achieved a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.753, falling within the acceptable range. This score suggests that the items reliably measure the construct of competence training, affirming that the section is effective in capturing relevant information about training programs.

The development section, containing five items, achieved a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.710 signalling satisfactory reliability. This result indicates that the items in this section are consistent in their measurement of development-related aspects. The reward management section, with 11 items, where Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to be 0.838, which indicates that there is a high degree of internal consistency. This suggests that the items in the reward management section are reliably assessing the construct of reward systems within the organization. Lastly, the occupational self-efficacy section, containing 6 items achieved a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.762 signalling satisfactory reliability. This result indicates that the items in this section are consistent in their measurement of occupational self-efficay-related aspects.

Overall, the Cronbach's Alpha values for all sections indicate that the instrument is generally reliable, with most sections demonstrating strong internal consistency, particularly in the areas of job performance and reward management.

Table 4.3

Reliability test results

Variable	No of Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Job Performance	21	0.913
Identifying Critical Position	4	0.701
Competence Training	6	0.753
Development	5	0.710
Reward management	11	0.838
Occupational Self-Efficacy	6	0.762

4.6 Correlation Analysis

In order to investigate the connections that exist between the variables utilized in this investigation, a Pearson correlation analysis was carried out. It has been stated by Hair et al. (2018) that the strength of a correlation is represented by the correlation coefficient, where a value of 0 indicates no relationship, and values of +1 and -1 correspond to perfect positive and negative correlations, respectively. As presented in Table 4.4, the analysis revealed that all correlations were positive, indicating a positive relationship between each pair of variables.

Job performance showed significant positive correlations with identifying critical positions (r = 0.746), competence training (r = 0.847), development (r = 0.797), occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.819), reward management (r = 0.895) and occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.819). These strong correlations suggest that higher job performance is associated with improved outcomes in these areas. Similarly, identifying critical positions showed moderate positive correlations with competence training (r = 0.663), development (r = 0.638), reward management (r = 0.741), and occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.672), indicating a positive relationship with these key variables, although to a slightly lesser extent.

Furthermore, competence training was strongly positively correlated with development (r = 0.735), reward management (r = 0.799), and occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.780), suggesting that improvements in training are closely linked to progress in these areas. Development also showed a positive correlation with reward management (r = 0.777) and occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.708), indicating interdependence between these constructs. Lastly, reward management exhibited a strong positive

correlation with occupational self-efficacy (r = 0.789), suggesting that effective reward systems are associated with higher levels of self-efficacy among employees.

Overall, these results indicate generally strong positive relationships between the key variables in the study, with particularly robust correlations between job performance and the other constructs.

Table 4.4

Means, Standard Deviations, and correlations with confidence intervals

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Job Performance	Identifying Critical Position	Competence Training	Development	Reward management	Occupational Self-Efficacy
Job Performance	3.133	0.793	1					
Identifying Critical Position	3.133	0.969	0.746**	1				
Competence Training	3.111	0.885	0.847**	0.663**	1			
Development	3.137	0.893	0.797**	0.638**	0.735**	1		
Reward management	3.144	0.823	0.895**	0.741**	0.799**	0.777**	1	
Occupational Self-Efficacy	3.172	0.884	0.819**	0.672**	0.780**	0.708**	0.789**	1

4.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

As stated by Sekaran and Bougie (2009), regression analysis is a statistical method that is commonly applied for the purpose of determining the strength and direction of the relationship that exists between independent variables and dependent variables. This method also plays a crucial role in determining the significance of independent variables in predicting the outcomes of the dependent variable. Regression techniques are

particularly valuable for evaluating the direct effects of the variables under investigation and for testing the hypotheses outlined in the study.

As presented in Table 4.5, the R-squared value is 0.871, indicating that the independent variables—identifying critical positions, development, competence training, reward management and occupational self-efficacy —explain 87.1% of the variation in job performance among academicians. The remaining 12.9% of the variance in job performance can be attributed to other factors that were not included in this research.

Table 4.5

Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.933[a]	0.871	0.870	0.286	1.995

a. Dependent Variable: job performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), occupational self-efficacy, identifying critical position, development, competence training, reward management

The findings of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) are presented in Table 4.6. These findings provide additional evidence that strengthens the importance of the regression model. An F value of 507.686 and a p-value of 0.001 indicate that the regression model is statistically significant, as demonstrated by the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA). It can be deduced from this that the predictor variables, which include identifying critical position, competence training, development, reward management and

occupational self-efficacy, collectively account for a significant amount of the diversity in job performance among academicians.

The value of F indicates that the model has a high explanatory power, which means that the variables that were chosen as predictors are able to effectively account for the variance that was observed in job performance. As an additional point of interest, the p-value of 0.001 demonstrates that the probability of these results being the result of random chance is extremely low, which further supports the validity of the model. In the study conducted by Saunders et al. (2019), it was determined that a F ratio is regarded to be significant when the probability of the observed differences occurring by chance is lesser than 0.05. This robust regression model provides important insights into the factors that influence job performance, offering a clearer understanding of the predictors at play.

Table 4.6

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1	Regression	208.037	5	41.607	507.686	<.001
	Residual	30.733	375	0.082		
	Total	238.770	380			

a. Dependent Variable: job performance
b. Predictors: (Constant): occupational self-efficacy, identifying critical position, development, competence training, reward management

The coefficients table displays both unstandardized (β) and standardized (β) effects of each predictor on job performance. The data shows that a one-unit increase in identifying critical positions is linked to a 0.080 increase in job performance. In contrast, competence training has a more pronounced effect, with a 0.218 increase in job

performance for each unit increase. Development is associated with a 0.121 rise in job performance, while reward management exhibits the strongest positive relationship, contributing a 0.392 increase in job performance per unit increase. Additionally, occupational self-efficacy also positively impacts job performance, contributing 0.131 per unit increase.

Standardized betas indicate that reward management ($\beta = 0.407$) has the strongest positive correlation with job performance, followed by competence training ($\beta = 0.243$) and occupational self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.146$) and development ($\beta = 0.136$) showing moderate positive relationships. In comparison, identifying critical positions ($\beta = 0.098$) has a smaller but still positive effect. All predictors are statistically significant, with p-values under 0.001, except for the constant, which is significant at $p = 0.019$.

Nevertheless, the analysis points to potential issues with multicollinearity, as indicated by the very low tolerance values (below 0.10) and high Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs), especially for Job Demand and Organizational Constraints. These results suggest problematic multicollinearity, implying that the predictor variables may be strongly correlated with one another, which could undermine the reliability of the regression coefficients.

Table 4.7

Coefficients

Model		β	Std. Error	Standardized Beta	t	Sig
1	(Constant)	0.178	0.061		2.935	.004
	Identifying Critical Position	0.080	0.023	0.098	3.434	<.001
	Competence Training	0.218	0.031	0.243	6.992	<.001
	Development	0.121	0.028	0.136	4.363	<.001
	Reward Management	0.392	0.038	0.407	10.329	<.001
	Occupational Self Efficacy	0.131	0.030	0.146	4.345	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

4.7 Hypotheses Test Result

Table 4.8 provides an outline of the findings of the analysis that was performed in order to evaluate the hypotheses of this study. The analysis was carried out using SPSS, beginning with filling, screening, and concluding with regression. Additionally, all of the data that was mentioned in the preceding section was included in the analysis. A total of five hypotheses were validated. The result of hypotheses testing, specifically examining the influence of talent management and occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academician. The table indicate that all the five hypotheses H1 to H5 are supported, with p-values less than 0.001, and confirming that these relationships are statistically significant. This means that both the dimension of talent management (ei. identifying critical position, competence training, development and reward management) and occupational self-efficacy play a vital role boosting employee job performance. The confirmation of all five hypotheses highlight that, the university HR

and management invest to design more effective talent management strategies and training development programs. Similarly, enhance occupational self-efficacy and apply targeted HR practices can directly improve job performance.

Table 4.8

Summary of the research hypotheses test results

No	Hypotheses Statement	Result
H1	There is positive and significant relationship between identifying critical position and job performance.	**Supported**
H2	There is a positive and significant relationship between competence training and job performance.	**Supported**
H3	There is a positive and significant relationship between development and job performance.	**Supported**
H4	There is a positive and significant relationship between reward management and job performance.	**Supported**
H5	There is a positive and significant relationship between self-efficacy and job performance.	**Supported**

4.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter Four provides a comprehensive analysis of data collected from 381 respondents, yielding a 100% valid response rate, which ensures the absence of missing values and confirms the high quality of the dataset. Descriptive statistics reveal that reward management has the highest mean score, while competence training received the lowest score, indicating varying effects on job performance. The reliability analysis demonstrates excellent internal consistency across all constructs, with Cronbach's Alpha values exceeding 0.70, affirming the reliability of the measurement instruments. All five

hypotheses were supported, with the correlation analysis revealing strong, positive relationships among all variables, particularly between reward management and job performance. According to the results of the multiple regression analysis, each independent variable significantly affects job performance, with reward management emerging as the most substantial.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions of the data analysis conducted in the research. This chapter delineates the study's limitations, offers recommendations for further research, and presents the conclusion.

5.1 Recapitulations of the Research Result

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of various dimensions of talent management and occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academicians. The results of this study reveal that all dimensions of talent management, including identifying critical positions, competence training, development, and reward management, have a positive and significant effect on job performance among academicians in northern region public universities. Furthermore, the findings also show that occupational self-efficacy is positively and significantly related to job performance among academicians at these universities.

Objective 1: To examine the influence of identifying critical position on job performance among academicians.

The results of this study demonstrate that identifying critical positions has a positive and significant effect on job performance among academicians in public higher education institutions. Identifying critical positions is a crucial component of talent management, as it helps accurately pinpoint and manage key roles, which positively influences individual performance. The findings suggest that academicians in strategic roles are more aligned with institutional objectives, leading to better performance outcomes.

This supports the work of Collings and Mellahi (2009), which highlights the importance of identifying and investing in key positions to foster a competitive advantage and ensure high performance. Furthermore, academicians in such positions are more likely to receive targeted training, development programs, and mentorship, all of which enhance their abilities and job performance. The positive impact of identifying critical positions on job performance can be attributed to the efficient management of these roles, which are often tied to succession planning, career growth, and internal leadership development. When academicians perceive clear opportunities for career advancement, they are more likely to invest more effort into their current roles, ultimately boosting their job performance.

Objective 2: To examine the influence of competence training on job performance among academicians.

The findings of this study indicate a positive and significant impact of competence training on job performance among academicians. This aligns with previous research by Hayek et al. (2016), which emphasized that specific training programs lead to greater productivity. Similarly, Hadaitana and Iqbal (2023) noted that effective job training programs are key to improving employee productivity and service quality. This study shows that by equipping academicians with the necessary skills, they are able to meet goals and perform tasks more effectively. The significant positive relationship between competence training and job performance is likely due to its impact on curriculum development and research capabilities, which in turn enhances teaching quality and scholarly output. Moreover, academicians participating in training are better prepared to adopt new teaching methods, such as online platforms and blended learning, leading to improvements in teaching effectiveness, student outcomes, and job performance. Therefore, competence training plays a vital role in enhancing job performance among academicians.

Objective 3: To examine the influence of development on job performance among academicians.

The results of this study show a significant and positive effect of development on job performance among academicians in higher education institutions. This is in line with the findings of Burke & Hutchins (2007), who highlighted the importance of ongoing development in enhancing employee performance. Previous research by Wickramaratne and Perera (2020) demonstrated that talent management, including development,

significantly influenced job performance among Generation Y trainees in Sri Lanka. Similarly, studies in Malaysian private universities have shown that development positively impacts job performance (Yusoff et al., 2021). The findings suggest that continuous development through workshops, seminars, and advanced studies helps academicians improve their teaching quality and academic output, leading to better overall performance. Development initiatives also equip academicians with the qualifications and skills necessary for promotions and leadership roles, further boosting job performance. Therefore, development plays a crucial role in enhancing job performance among academicians.

Objective 4: To examine the influence of reward management on job performance among academicians.

The findings of this study show there is a significant and positive influence of reward management on job performance among academicians at higher education institutions. This finding is consistent with past research Mabaso and Dlamini (2018) found that effective total reward system improved job performance among the employees in South African higher education institution. Similarly, Musenze et al. (2021) confirm that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards significantly influenced job performance in Uganda's public sector. Hence, this positive correlation suggests that well-structured rewards increase employee motivation which boost up the job performance among the employees.

The plausible reason for this result due to academicians often engage in intellectual demanding and time intensive task such as involve in research, publication, teaching, and in-charge as adviser for clubs and society. When their efforts are recognised with well-

structured reward system such as bonuses, awards, and promotions it reinforces a sense of value at the same time improve the job performance among academicians. Besides that, clear reward partway gives academicians a tangible reason to increase in job performance such as publishing in high impact journals. Hence, reward management noteworthy influence and can helps to boost up the academicians' job performance.

Objective 5: To examine the influence of occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academicians.

The findings of this study demonstrate a significant and positive influence of occupational self-efficacy on job performance among academicians. This supports the meta-analysis conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), which concluded that occupational self-efficacy is a strong predictor of job performance. Additionally, Rigotti et al. (2008) further supported this by showing that occupational self-efficacy is positively correlated with performance outcomes. Their study confirmed the role of self-efficacy in predicting performance across various job types and cultures. The reason for these results could be that academicians, who face demanding tasks such as teaching, research, and administrative duties, perform better when they believe in their ability to manage these tasks effectively. As indicated by this study, high occupational self-efficacy contributes to better teaching quality, research output, and student engagement, which are all key elements of job performance among academicians.

5.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study provides further empirical insights into the areas of talent management, occupational self-efficacy, and job performance. Additionally, the use of Field Theory as an underlying framework for studies on talent management, occupational self-efficacy, and job performance is supported by the findings. The results confirm the fundamental principles of Field Theory, demonstrating that both individual and organizational factors play a significant role in influencing job performance. Besides that, this study contributes to the theoretical body of knowledge in the field of human resource management and organizational behaviour by validating and extending the application of Kurt Lewin's Field Theory within the context of higher education institutions in Malaysia. Field Theory posits that behaviour is shaped by the interaction between individual characteristics and environmental factors. By empirically demonstrating that both external organizational practices—represented by the four dimensions of talent management (identifying critical position, competence training, development, and reward management)—and the internal psychological construct of occupational self-efficacy significantly influence job performance, the study affirms the duality of these forces in shaping employee outcomes.

Furthermore, this research enriches the literature by integrating talent management and occupational self-efficacy into a single analytical framework. While prior studies have examined these constructs separately, the findings of this study highlight their combined effect in enhancing job performance, thereby providing a more holistic view of performance determinants in academic settings.

From a practical perspective, management should focus more on human resource strategies, particularly the dimensions of talent management and occupational self-efficacy among academicians within institutions. The study highlights the clear benefits of fostering positive talent management practices and enhancing occupational self-efficacy for the betterment of academic institutions. The findings also provide actionable insights for policymakers, university administrators, and human resource practitioners. First, the strong positive relationship between reward management and job performance underscores the importance of designing comprehensive reward systems that go beyond financial compensation to include recognition, career advancement opportunities, and work-life balance initiatives. Such systems can serve as powerful motivators for academicians to excel in both teaching and research.

Second, the significant influence of competence training and development on performance suggests that higher education institutions should invest in continuous professional development programs. These programs should be strategically aligned with institutional goals, providing academicians with the skills and knowledge necessary to adapt to evolving educational technologies, research demands, and global academic standards. Third, the results indicate that identifying and nurturing critical positions within the academic workforce is vital for institutional sustainability. By strategically managing high-impact roles, universities can ensure that key teaching, research, and leadership functions are performed by individuals who are both competent and motivated. Finally, the significant role of occupational self-efficacy implies that universities should foster a supportive work environment that enhances confidence in academic roles. This can be achieved through mentorship programs, constructive performance feedback, and

opportunities for autonomy in academic decision-making. Strengthening self-efficacy not only improves current performance but also builds resilience against occupational stress, thereby contributing to long-term retention.

In conclusion, this study provides both a theoretical foundation and practical guidelines for improving academic performance through an integrated approach that combines robust talent management strategies with initiatives aimed at enhancing occupational self-efficacy.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

This study recognizes several limitations that may affect the interpretation and generalization of its findings. One significant limitation is the relatively small sample size, which comprised only 381 academicians. This sample size, while adequate for this study, may not fully capture the diversity of experiences and perspectives that could exist within the broader population of academicians. Additionally, the study's geographical scope was limited to the Northern region of Malaysia, specifically focusing on academicians from three institutions: Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMap), and Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). As a result, the findings may not be representative of academicians in other regions of Malaysia or those working in different types of institutions.

Another limitation of the study arises from its use of a cross-sectional research design, which involves collecting and analysing data at a single point in time. This design does not allow for the establishment of causal relationships between the variables, as it only captures a snapshot of the situation rather than tracking changes over time. Therefore,

while associations between variables can be identified, conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships cannot be drawn.

Moreover, due to the limited sample size and the specific regional focus of the study, the generalizability of its findings is constrained. The results may not fully reflect the views and experiences of academicians from all public higher education institutions across Malaysia, particularly in areas outside the Northern region. These factors should be considered when interpreting the results and applying them to broader contexts.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

For future research, it is highly recommended to utilize a larger and more diverse sample that includes both public and private universities. This would ensure a more comprehensive representation of the academic community across different institutional types. Additionally, conducting comparative studies would provide valuable insights into the differences in job performance between academicians at public and private institutions, helping to identify any unique challenges or advantages associated with each type of university.

Expanding the geographical scope of this study to encompass both Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia (Sabah and Sarawak) would further enhance the findings, offering a more comprehensive view of the factors influencing job performance among academicians. This broader approach would allow researchers to capture regional variations and better understand how contextual differences shape academic performance.

Future studies should also consider including additional variables such as motivation, job stress, and job satisfaction, either as mediators or moderators. The inclusion of these factors would help uncover other critical elements that may influence job performance among academicians. By examining these additional dimensions, future research could offer a more nuanced understanding of the complex factors that drive academic performance.

Lastly, it is suggested that future research not solely rely on questionnaire surveys as the primary data collection method. Incorporating qualitative methods, such as interviews, could add depth to the analysis, providing richer insights into the experiences and perspectives of academicians. By combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches, future studies could enhance the validity and reliability of their findings.

5.5 Conclusion

The primary objective of this study is to evaluate the effect of several dimensions of talent management—specifically identifying critical positions, competence training, development, and reward management—alongside occupational self-efficacy on the job performance of academicians in public higher education institutions. The findings provide valuable insights into how these variables influence the performance of academicians in these institutions.

The results of this study successfully address all research objectives, demonstrating that the factors of identifying critical positions, competence training, development, reward management, and occupational self-efficacy all have a significant and positive impact on job performance among academicians in public higher education institutions.

Furthermore, the research reveals that each of the four dimensions of talent management and occupational self-efficacy are positively correlated with job performance. This suggests that the effective management of these factors is crucial for enhancing the performance of academic staff.

As a result, it is recommended that higher education institutions place a stronger emphasis on these elements to sustain or improve the quality of job performance among academicians. Institutions should focus on systematically identifying key roles, providing targeted training, fostering professional development, implementing effective reward management systems, and promoting occupational self-efficacy to optimize academic performance and institutional success.

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APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

A STUDY ON ORGANIZATIONAL PRACTICES AND BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOMES AMONG ACADEMICIANS

Dear Respondent,

I am Mary Christinia Johnson, a postgraduate student from University Utara Malaysia (UUM) KL branch under the Master of Human Resource Management (MHRM) Programme.

I am currently conducting a study on the relationship between organizational practices and behavioural outcomes among academicians in Malaysia. This study aims to assess the organizational practices in public higher education institution and its impact on the behavioural outcome of academicians.

If you have any questions regarding this research, you may forward them to us back to the email of christinajohnson473@gmail.com.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in answering this questionnaire

SECTION ONE

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to yourself and your current job, please indicate your level of agreement to the following statement.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I adequately complete assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I fulfil responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I perform tasks that are expected of my manager.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I perform tasks that are expected of my manager	1	2	3	4	5
5	I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I neglect aspect of the job which is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I fail to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I help others who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I assist supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).	1	2	3	4	5
11	I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I go out of way to help new employees.	1	2	3	4	5

13	I take a personal interest in other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I pass along information to co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
15	My attendance at work is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I give advance notice when unable come to work.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I take undeserved work breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I spent great deal of time with personal phone conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I complain about significant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I conserve and protect organizational property.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION TWO

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to the practices in the organization that you are currently working, please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My company identifies the critical positions aligned with business strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My company builds up a talent pool in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My company differentiates the employees on the basis of their contribution levels.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My company identifies the employees that makes maximum impact on organization success.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION THREE

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to the training activities in the organization that you are currently working, please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The training activities for the employees are focused on required competencies.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The training activities for the employees are implemented continuously.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The content of the training activities for the employees are based on job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The training activities for the employees required time and extensive financial resources.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The training activities for the employees are designed to develop firm specific skills or knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Training activities for the employees are in line with assigned critical tasks.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FOUR

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to your current job please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Development needs are identified for employees.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Employees have many opportunities for upward mobility.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I have clear career paths in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I have more than one avenue for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Developmental activities include feedback on developmental growth agenda for the employees.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FIVE

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to your current job please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My company provides recognition, e.g. financial recognition such as cash, paid travel, incentive bonus or variable pay, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My supervisor discusses and provides meaningful and helpful feedback on job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My company values my work and contribution.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I believe that my company has a fair and just system of rewarding employees.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My company set challenging targets in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I have supportive and like-minded colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My company supports a balanced lifestyle (between my work and personal life).	1	2	3	4	5
8	My company encourages and organizes team building or other social	1	2	3	4	5

	networking activities among employees.					
9	My company provides a competitive pay package (i.e., basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay).	1	2	3	4	5
10	My company provided medical aids, retirement, and pension benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
11	My company provides recognition via non-financial means, e.g certificate of recognition.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION SIX

INSTRUCTIONS: With reference to your current job please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
2	When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

PERSONAL INFORMATION

INSTRUCTIONS: This part contains a few demographic information pertaining to yourself. Please tick (/) in the box or write your response in the space provided.

1. Gender

   ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age

   ☐ 24 and below ☐ 25 – 34 ☐ 35 – 44 ☐ 45 – 54 ☐ 54 and above

3. Marital Status

   ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/ Widowed/ Separated

4. Academic Qualification

   ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachalor Degree ☐ Master Degree ☐ Doctoral Degree

5. Position

   ☐ Tutor ☐ Lecturer ☐ Senior Lecturer

   ☐ Professor ☐ Associate Professor

6. Type of employment

   ☐ Permanent ☐ Contract

7. Length of service as an academician in the academic field.

☐ Less than 5 years ☐ 5 - 10 years ☐ 11 - 15 years ☐ 16 - 20 years

☐ 21 - 25 years ☐ 26 - 30 years ☐ 30 years and above

8. Length of service in the current higher education institution.

☐ Less than 5 years ☐ 5 - 10 years ☐ 11 - 15 years ☐ 16 - 20 years

☐ 21 - 25 years ☐ 26 - 30 years ☐ 30 years and above

APPENDIX B- PILOT TEST OUTPUTS

1. Job Performance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.941	.941	21

2. Identifying Critical Position

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.770	.769	4

3. Competence Training

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.845	.846	6

4. Development

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.759	.759	5

5. Reward Management

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.895	.897	11

6. Occupational Self- Efficacy

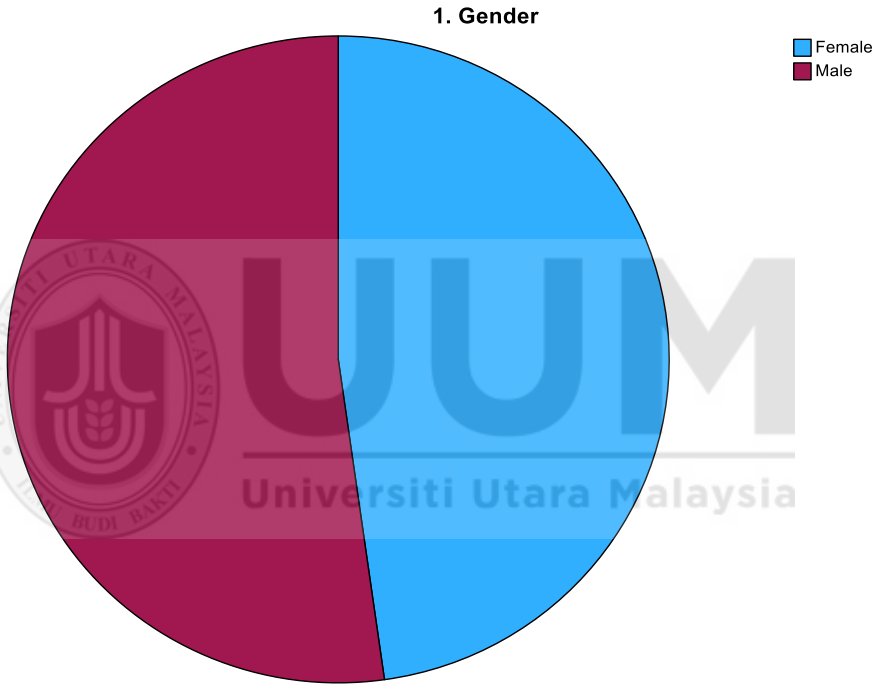
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.830	.831	6

APPENDIX C - FREQUENCIES DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS PROFILE

1. Gender

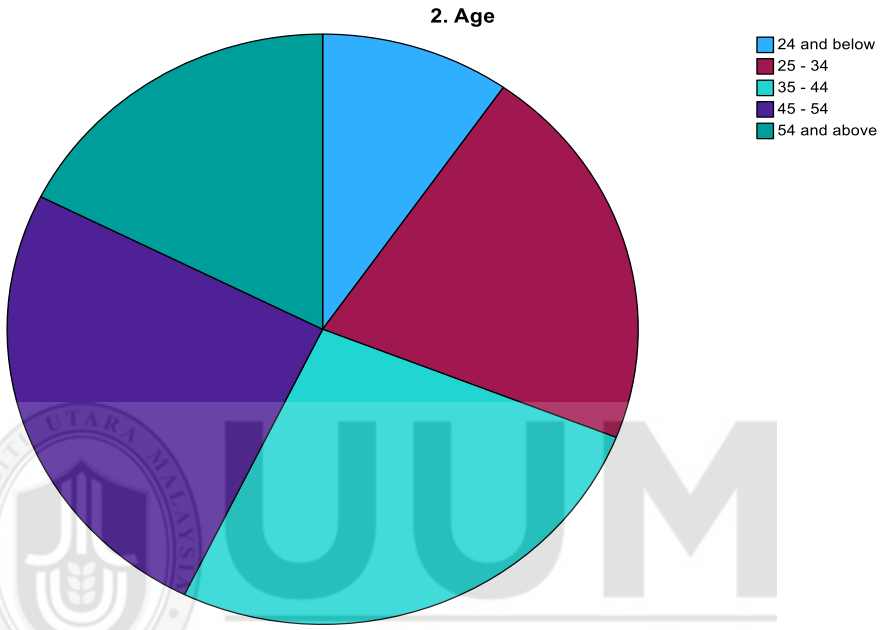
	N	%
Female	182	47.8%
Male	199	52.2%



2. Age

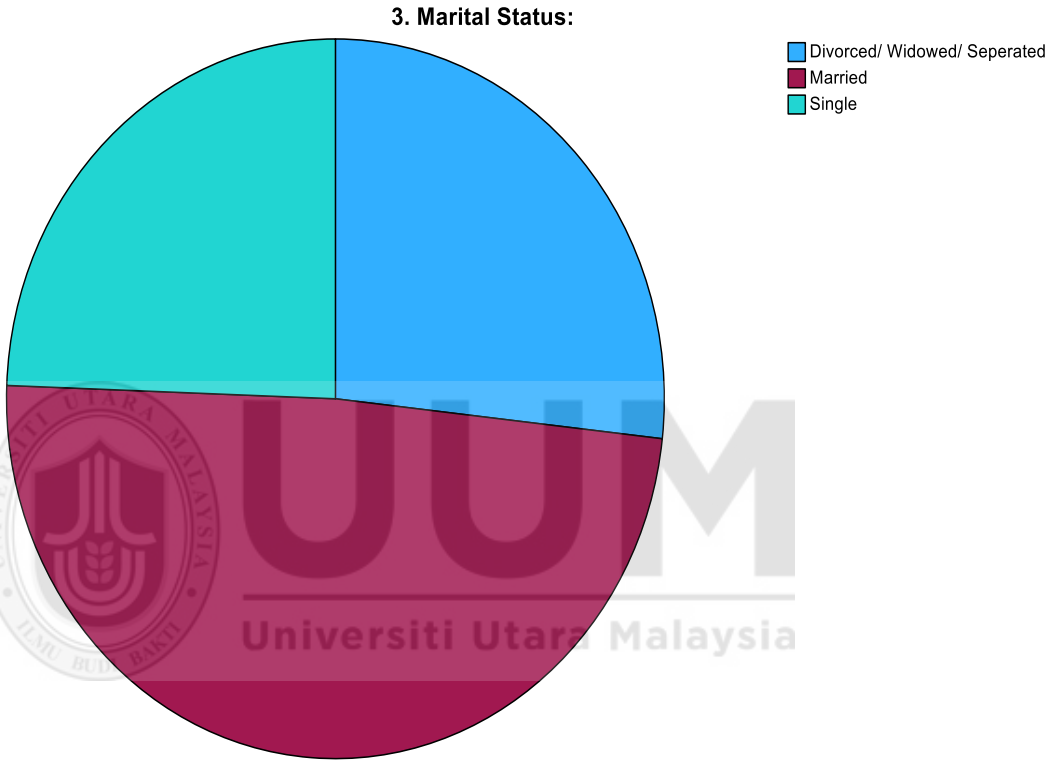
	N	%
24 and below	37	9.7%
25 - 34	81	21.3%
35 - 44	100	26.2%
45 - 54	96	25.2%
54 and above	67	17.6%

2.



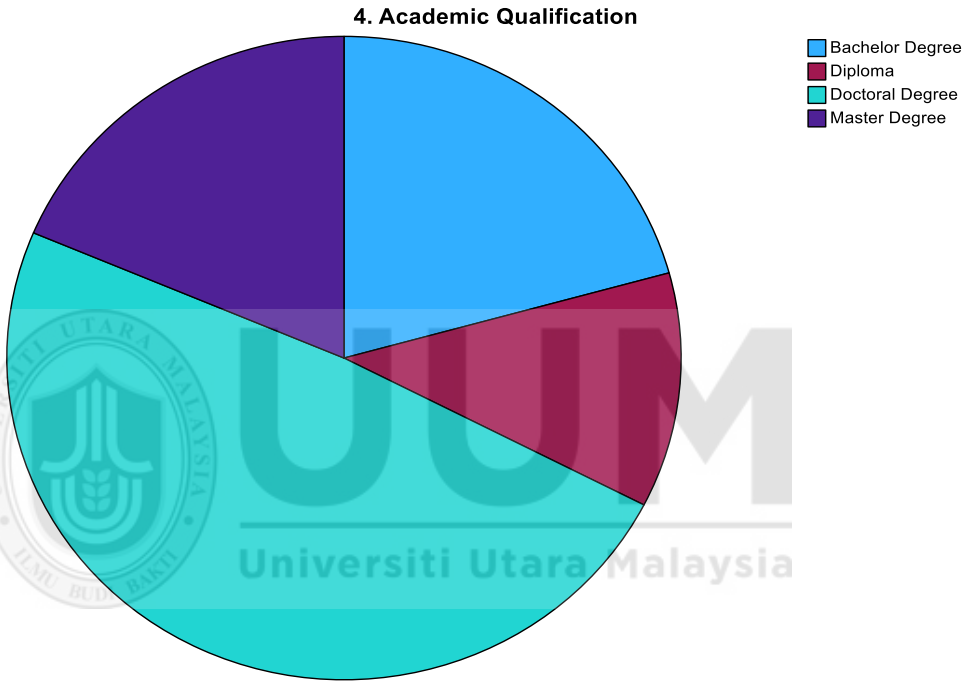
3. Marital Status

	N	%
Divorced/ Widowed/ Seperated	102	26.8%
Married	186	48.8%
Single	93	24.4%



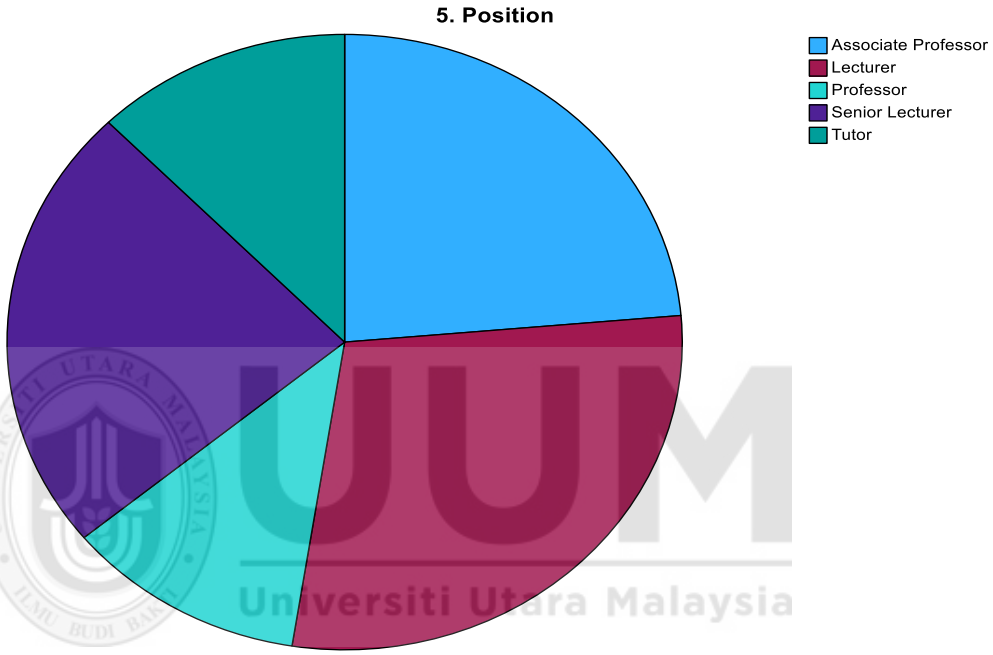
4. Academic Qualification

	N	%
Bachelor Degree	79	20.7%
Diploma	45	11.8%
Doctoral Degree	186	48.8%
Master Degree	71	18.6%



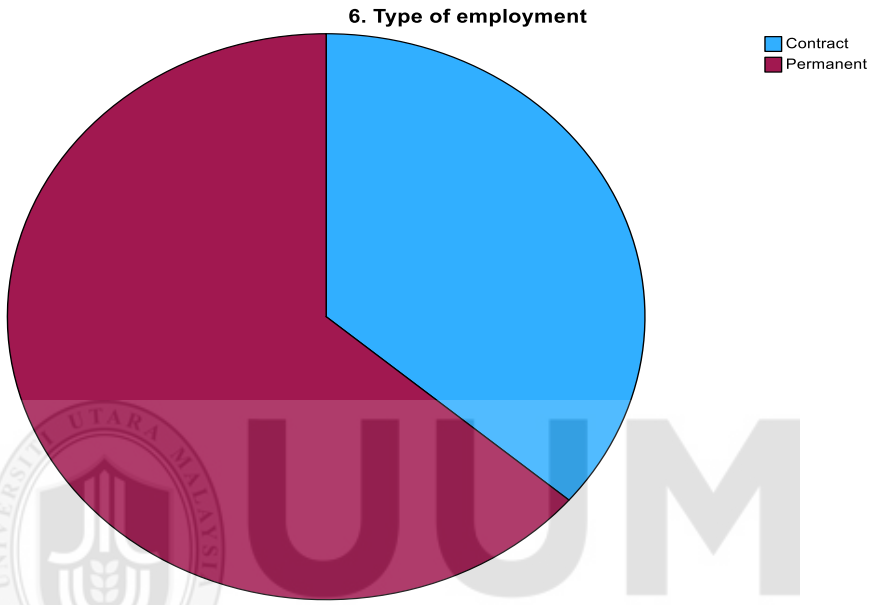
5. Position

	N	%
Associate Professor	90	23.6%
Lecturer	110	28.9%
Professor	44	11.5%
Senior Lecturer	90	23.6%
Tutor	47	12.3%



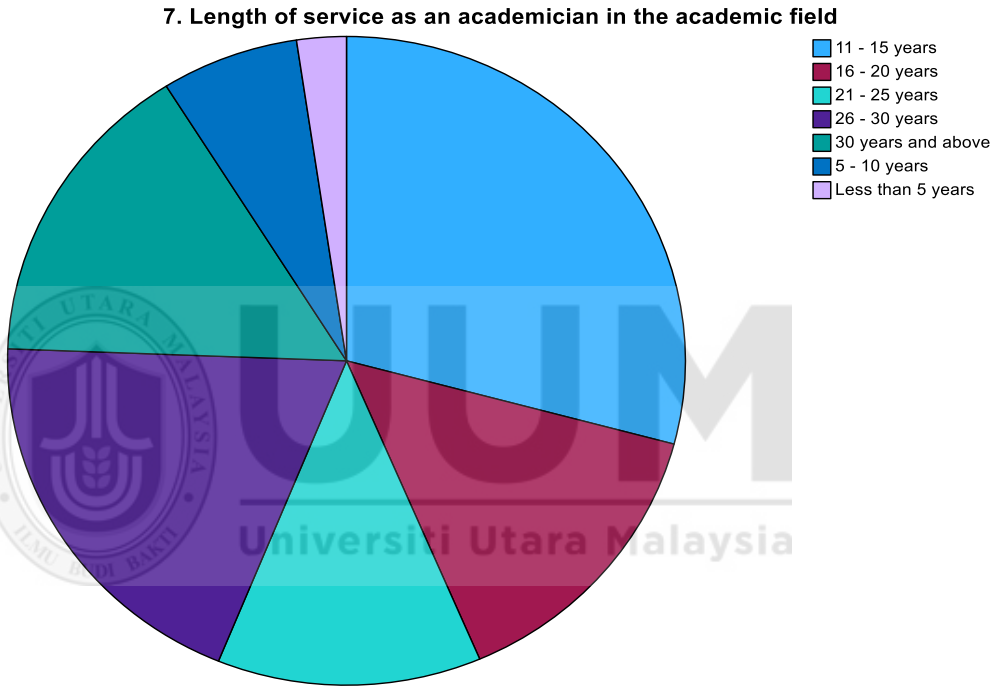
6. Type of Employment

	N	%
Contract	138	36.2%
Permanent	243	63.8%



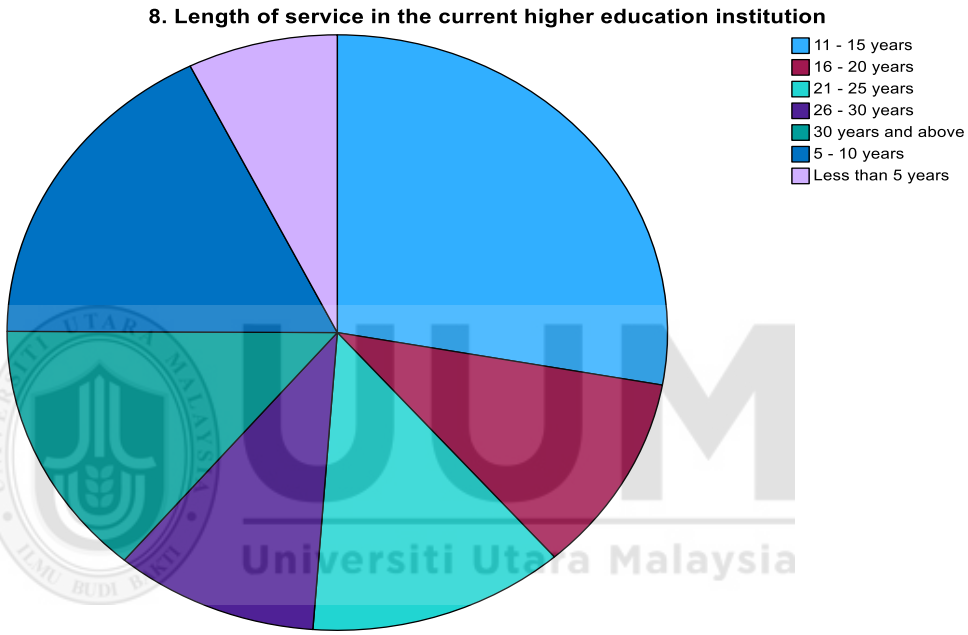
7. Length of service as an academician in the academic field

	N	%
11 - 15 years	111	29.1%
16 - 20 years	55	14.4%
21 - 25 years	48	12.6%
26 - 30 years	74	19.4%
30 years and above	59	15.5%
5 - 10 years	25	6.6%
Less than 5 years	9	2.4%



8. Length of service in the current higher education institution

	N	%
11 - 15 years	106	27.8%
16 - 20 years	41	10.8%
21 - 25 years	48	12.6%
26 - 30 years	38	10.0%
30 years and above	53	13.9%
5 - 10 years	67	17.6%
Less than 5 years	28	7.3%



APPENDIX D: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics

		Job Performance	Identifying Critical Position	Competence Training	Development	Reward Management	Occupational Self- Efficacy
N	Valid	381	381	381	381	381	381
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.1327	3.1332	3.1111	3.1370	3.1444	3.1724
Median		3.0000	3.0000	3.0000	3.0000	3.0000	3.1667
Std. Deviation		.79268	.96866	.88509	.89326	.82346	.88418

APPENDIX E: PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlations

		Job_Performance	Identifying_Critical_Position	Competence_Training	Development	Reward_Management	Occupational_self_efficacy
Job_Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.746**	.847**	.797**	.895**	.819**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381
Identifying_Critical_Position	Pearson Correlation	.746**	1	.663**	.638**	.741**	.672**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381
Competence_Training	Pearson Correlation	.847**	.663**	1	.735**	.799**	.780**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381
Development	Pearson Correlation	.797**	.638**	.735**	1	.777**	.708**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381
Reward_Management	Pearson Correlation	.895**	.741**	.799**	.777**	1	.789**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381
Occupational_self_efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.819**	.672**	.780**	.708**	.789**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	381	381	381	381	381	381

APPENDIX F: MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.178	.061		2.935	.004
	Identifying_Critical_Position	.080	.023	.098	3.434	<.001
	Competence_Training	.218	.031	.243	6.992	<.001
	Development	.121	.028	.136	4.363	<.001
	Reward_Management	.392	.038	.407	10.329	<.001
	Occupational_self_efficacy	.131	.030	.146	4.345	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: Job_Performance_Mean

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.933[a]	.871	.870	.28628

a. Predictors: (Constant), Occupational_self_efficacy, Identifying_Critical_Position, Development, Competence_Training, Reward_Management

b. Dependent Variable: Job_Performance

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	208.037	5	41.607	507.686	<.001[b]
	Residual	30.733	375	.082		
	Total	238.770	380			

a. Dependent Variable: Job_Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Occupational_self_efficacy, Identifying_Critical_Position, Development, Competence_Training, Reward_Management