

IMPACTS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT, SELF-EFFICACY, SELF-ESTEEM, AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN (UTAR) DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

ANG HUEY SHIN
HENG SE TI
LEE SOOK YAN
SING XIAO XUAN

BACHELOR OF BUSINESS
ADMINISTRATION (HONOURS)

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL
RAHMAN

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND FINANCE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS

SEPTEMBER 2022

ANG, HENG, LEE, & SING

JOB PERFORMANCE

BBA (HONS)

SEPTEMBER 2022

IMPACTS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT, SELF-
EFFICACY, SELF-ESTEEM, AND
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON
JOB PERFORMANCE OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN
UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN (UTAR)
DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

BY

ANG HUEY SHIN
HENG SE TI
LEE SOOK YAN
SING XIAO XUAN

A final year project submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirement for the degree of

BACHELOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
(HONOURS)

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND FINANCE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS

SEPTEMBER 2022





Copyright @ 2022

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED. No part of this paper may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, graphic, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, scanning, or otherwise, without the prior consent of the authors.

DECLARATION

We hereby declare that:

- (1) This undergraduate FYP is the end result of our own work, and that due acknowledgement has been given in the references to ALL sources of information be they printed, electronic or personal.
- (2) No portion of this FYP has been submitted in support of any application for any other degree or qualification of this or any other university, or other institutes of learning.
- (3) Equal contribution has been made by each group member in completing the FYP.
- (4) The word count of this research project is 15530 words.

Name of Student:	Student ID:	Signature:
1. <u>ANG HUEY SHIN</u>	<u>18ABB06156</u>	<u></u>
2. <u>HENG SE TI</u>	<u>18ABB06799</u>	<u></u>
3. <u>LEE SOOK YAN</u>	<u>18ABB02211</u>	<u></u>
4. <u>SING XIAO XUAN</u>	<u>18ABB05492</u>	<u></u>

Date : 2ND SEPTEMBER 2022

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

First, we found the topic we selected to be challenging, but we had put all our effort to present this research project. No doubt, it would have been nearly impossible to accomplish it without the assistance of the people who guide us toward the completion of the whole project. We truly cherish the chance that is given to express our deepest appreciation to everyone who landed their helping hand in our study.

We would like to thank our university, Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman, for providing us with the opportunity to conduct this research project. We can obtain sufficient data, journal articles, and information required for the research project under the support of UTAR. Furthermore, we would like to show our greatest honour and gratitude by thanking our supervisor, Dr. Hemaniswarri Dewi a/p Dewadas for guiding us throughout the whole research project. We appreciate all her efforts and disbursed precious time in supervising us patiently to ensure our research is in the correct direction from the beginning until the end of our research. We are glad and honored to gain some precious experiences and knowledge from our supervisor who is also willing to share with us.

Lastly, we would like to acknowledge the efforts that have been contributed by all the beloved team members who have been united and worked hard to carry out the research project. Throughout the research project, all the members gave full cooperation and willingly communicate with each other in completing this research project. With the toleration, corporate, contribution, and sacrifice of precious time of all the members, we were able to complete this research on time. Hopefully, all the efforts will bring to good result, and thanks to all parties involved in this research project once again.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Copyright Page	iv
Declaration	v
Acknowledgement	vi
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
List of Abbreviations	xiv
List of Appendices	xv
Abstract	xvi
CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH OVERVIEW	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Research Background	1
1.2 Problem Statement	4
1.3 Research Objective	7
1.3.1 General Objective	7
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	7
1.4 Research Question	8
1.4.1 General Question	8
1.4.2 Specific Questions	8
1.5 Hypotheses of the study	9
1.6 Significance of the study	10
1.7 Chapter Layout	11
1.8 Conclusion	12
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.0 Introduction	13
2.1 Underlying Theories	13
2.1.1 Behavioural Plasticity Theory	13

2.1.2 Social Cognitive Theory	14
2.1.3 Conservation of Resources Theory	15
2.2 Review of the Literature	17
2.2.1 Independent Variable: Employee Engagement (EE)	17
2.2.2 Independent Variable: Self-Efficacy (SE)	18
2.2.3 Independent Variable: Self-Esteem (SES)	20
2.2.4 Independent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	21
2.2.5 Dependent Variable: Job Performance (JP)	22
2.3 Review of Past Theoretical Framework	24
2.3.1 Employee Engagement and Job Performance	24
2.3.2 Self-Efficacy and Job Performance	26
2.3.3 Self-Esteem and Job Performance	27
2.3.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Job Performance	28
2.4 Conceptual Framework	30
2.5 Hypothesis Development	31
2.5.1 Employee Engagement	31
2.5.2 Self-Efficacy	32
2.5.3 Self-Esteem	33
2.5.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	34
2.6 Conclusion	34
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	35
3.0 Introduction	35
3.1 Research Design	35
3.2 Data Collection Method	36
3.3 Sampling Design	37
3.3.1 Target Population	37
3.3.2 Sampling Techniques	38
3.3.3 Sampling Frame and Sampling Location	39
3.3.4 Sampling Elements	39
3.3.5 Sampling Size	41

3.4 Research for Instrument	41
3.4.1 Questionnaire Design	41
3.4.2 Pilot Study	42
3.5 Construct Measurement	45
3.5.1 Construct Origin	45
3.5.2 Scale Measurement	46
3.5.2.1 Nominal Scale	49
3.5.2.2 Ordinal Scale	49
3.5.2.3 Interval Scale	50
3.6 Data Processing	50
3.6.1 Data Checking	50
3.6.2 Data Editing	51
3.6.3 Data Coding	51
3.6.4 Data Transforming	51
3.7 Data Analysis	52
3.7.1 Descriptive Analysis	52
3.7.2 Reliability Analysis	52
3.7.3 Inferential Analysis	53
3.7.3.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient	53
3.7.3.2 Multiple Regression Analysis	54
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS	55
4.0 Introduction	55
4.1 Descriptive Analysis	55
4.1.1 Respondents' Demographic Information	55
4.1.1.1 Gender	56
4.1.1.2 Age	57
4.1.1.3 Faculties	58
4.1.1.4 Working Period	60
4.1.1.5 Working Position	61
4.1.1.6 Education Level	62

4.1.1.7 Income Level	63
4.1.2 Central Tendencies Measurement of Construct	64
4.1.2.1 Job Performance	64
4.1.2.2 Employee Engagement	66
4.1.2.3 Self-Efficacy	67
4.1.2.4 Self-Esteem	69
4.1.2.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	70
4.2 Measurement Scale	72
4.2.1 Reliability Analysis	72
4.3 Inferential Analysis	73
4.3.1 Pearson’s Correlation Analysis	73
4.3.2 Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) Analysis	75
4.3.3 Anova	76
4.3.4 Coefficients	77
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS	79
5.0 Introduction	79
5.1 Statistical Analysis Summary	79
5.2 Discussions of Major Findings	80
5.2.1 Relationship between Employee Engagement and Job Performance	80
5.2.2 Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Job Performance	81
5.2.3 Relationship between Self-Esteem and Job Performance	82
5.2.4 Relationship between Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Job Performance	83
5.3 Implication of Study	84
5.3.1 Managerial Implication	84
5.3.2 Theoretical Implication	85
5.4 Limitations of Study	86
5.5 Recommendations	87
5.6 Conclusion	88
References	89

Appendices 117

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 3.1: Nine Faculties and the Number of Academic Staff	40
Table 3.2: Summary of Reliability Test Result in Pilot Test	43
Table 3.3: Interpretation of Reliability of Instrument	44
Table 3.4: Origin of Construct (Questionnaire)	45
Table 3.5: Level of Scale Measurement	46
Table 3.6: Pearson Correlation Coefficient Value	54
Table 4.1: Respondent's characteristic (Gender)	56
Table 4.2: Respondent's characteristic (Age)	57
Table 4.3: Respondent's characteristic (Faculties)	58
Table 4.4: Respondent's characteristic (Working Period)	60
Table 4.5: Respondent's characteristic (Working Position)	61
Table 4.6: Respondent's characteristic (Education Level)	62
Table 4.7: Respondent's characteristic (Income Level)	63
Table 4.8: Reliability, Mean and Standard deviation (Job Performance)	64
Table 4.9: Mean and Standard deviation (Employee Engagement)	66
Table 4.10: Mean and Standard deviation (Self-Efficacy)	67
Table 4.11: Mean and Standard deviation (Self-Esteem)	69
Table 4.12: Mean and Standard deviation (Organisational Citizenship Behaviour).....	70
Table 4.13: Summary of Reliability Test Result in Full Study	72
Table 4.14: Coefficient Range	73
Table 4.15: Pearson Correlation Coefficient	74
Table 4.16: Model Summary	75
Table 4.17: ANOVA	76
Table 4.18: Coefficients	77
Table 5.1: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis	79
Table 5.2: Summary of Hypothesis Test Result	80

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 2.1: Employee Engagement and Job Performance Model	24
Figure 2.2: Self-Efficacy and Job Performance Model	26
Figure 2.3: Proposed Conceptual Framework	30

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EE	Employee Engagement
SE	Self-Efficacy
SES	Self-Esteem
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
JP	Job Performance
UTAR	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
OTL	Online Teaching and Learning
IV	Independent Variables
DV	Dependent Variable
MCO	Movement Control Order

LIST OF APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix 1: Sample Size for a given Population Size	117
Appendix 2: Survey Questionnaire Sample	119

ABSTRACT

The outbreak of Covid-19 has implied significant effects on organisations' way of management, affecting employees' working routines and activities. Recently, we found that the job performance of academic staff had been influenced by the Covid-19 pandemic. Hence, this research is to investigate the impacts of employee engagement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and organisational citizenship behaviour on the job performance of academic staff in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) during the Covid-19 pandemic. Specifically, the study sought to achieve the following: (1) To investigate the impact of employee engagement on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic; (2) To determine the impact of self-efficacy on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic; (3) To study the impact of self-esteem on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic; (4) To examine the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The number of respondents who participated in this research is 300 academic staff from UTAR. This study uses questionnaire as a method of research. The collected data is analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1.0 Introduction

Beginning chapter of the topic starts with the research background and highlights the problem statement that encourages researchers to study this topic with high interest. It further continued with the research objectives and questions in a general and specific version. This chapter is then covering the hypotheses and importance of the research, followed by chapter structure and a conclusion.

1.1 Research Background

Covid-19, a disease caused by a novel virus identified as SARS-CoV-2. The outbreak was first reported in Wuhan City, Hubei Province located in China. The contagious disease then spread to the entire world and became a threat to human health (Elengoe, 2020). With varying levels of effort, most countries affected by the pandemic have been able to slow the propagation of coronavirus with drastic steps like prohibitions on community events and gatherings, workforce shutdowns, limitations on staying at home, limitations on domestic and international destinations, screening and monitoring of contacts, and the closing of educational institutions (Aristovnik et al., 2020). The first Covid-19 case was discovered in Malaysia on January 24, 2020. The number of instances then had an exponential increase, and the Malaysian government had to impose MCO to control disease's stretch.

The virus's widespread caused concern among the population, affecting a wide range of businesses and organisations, including the educational system. In just a few weeks, from primary education to higher education of the whole education system, they must fundamentally restructure their operations with the transition to online teaching and learning (OTL) environment (Garcia – Morales et al., 2021, as cited in Mishra et al., 2020). According to the United Nations educational, scientific, and cultural organisation, higher education institutions in 185 countries in April 2020 were fully closed. The pandemic made an impact on the world's more than 1000 million students (Garcia - Morales et al., 2021 as cited in Marinoni et al., 2020). In Malaysia, the Higher Education Ministry decided that entire teaching and learning activities in all higher education institutions must be performed online, starting from 27th May until 31st December 2020, in response to the country's lockdown rules and regulations (Al-Kumaim et al., 2021). Regular schedule management, stress management, exam rules, teamwork skills, student registration and financial deprivation, threat to forward educational development, and sanitation system improvement were all issues they encounter during and after the pandemic (Nahar et al., 2020).

When the dreadful sickness afflicted younger schooling generations, there were also academicians and teachers suffering the consequences (Naidu, 2020). Although universities opt to switch study mode from face-to-face to online mode using platforms like Zoom and Microsoft Team, this became a difficult challenge for academic staff in higher education institutions as they must continue teaching remotely by adapting to new concepts relating to pedagogy and using their own technology devices (Schleicher, n.d.). Besides the limitation of internet access and connectivity issues, majority were unfamiliar to utilise the information technology platforms. Academic staff were confronted with difficulty, because of their lack of experience in online learning system, including student involvement, participation, interaction, generated online course content or converts offline courses to online mode (Al-Kumaim et al., 2021). Moreover, they faced obstacles during the online examinations time to ensure exam quality and carry out proper monitoring for students. As for the practical classes and examinations, there was a higher burden

added on to the academic staff as the courses were unable to be taught online and there was an essential requirement for the use of laboratories (Leal Filho et al., n.d.). There was also a challenge to academic staff to assess students' level of understanding on topics taught during the OTL (Naidu, 2020).

In 2021 and 2022 onwards, universities began partially reopening after the quick response and the peak of the pandemic. Forcing academic employees in some countries to return to the office and classroom may be difficult because they were accustomed to working from home (Naidu, 2020). To assure study persistence and enhance the student experience, hybrid-learning systems were built to incorporate both remote and in-person learning. Some difficulties occurred in developing resilient hybrid learning mode like health concerns, allocating limited teacher and infrastructure capacity evenly among students and managing increasing operational complexity (UNESCO, 2020). The most difficult issue for academicians throughout and after Covid-19 was to maintain the high-quality provision of education to students, which necessitates a great deal of focus (Naidu, 2020 as cited in Sahu, 2020; World Bank, 2020). Academic staff were required to handle difficulties with socioemotional competence in applying their skills to assist and encourage pupils, as well as establish connections based on traits such as respect, patience, and compassion (Naidu, 2020 as cited in Nordenbo et al., 2008).

Faculty members were forced to adapt to unusual circumstances and teach in new ways, adopting both online and offline education, while trying to connect with students and colleagues. As a result, educators' stress and burnout raised and thus influenced their job performance throughout this extraordinary period, prompting the turnover rate of academic staff and might cause academicians shortages in the future (Zamarro et al., 2021). Their performance in work can be the main factor that leads an organisation to achieve success in the competitive market (Perkbox, n.d.). Job performance cannot be separated from the concept of employee engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour (Sugianingrat et al., 2019). Also, employees' self-concept including self-esteem and self-efficacy could result in

affecting their work performance (Mustika & Widyawati, 2020). Therefore, the study aimed to explore the relationship among IV and the job performance of academic staff.

1.2 Problem Statement

Pervasive changes in work pattern, teaching expectation, job-related stress and psychological problem affecting job performance were seen during this pandemic (Wray & Kinman, 2022). Fear, tension, uncertainty, and financial instability accompanied the pandemic period over the world. Numerous factors were identified influencing job performance, particularly effective leadership, financial instability, security and working environment (Shoaib et al., 2022). Academic staff were pressured because of the transition from a traditional workplace to a digital environment, which compromised their efficiency, performance, and fulfilment. Managing stress to maintain sustainability development during the pandemic was an essential workplace issue, and its negative effect on job performance had been demonstrated (Shoaib et al., 2022).

The pandemic caught lecturers off stride when new methods of learning disrupted their usual teaching approach. It can be a big challenge for lecturers who are not used to generate and present educational materials on a web-based system. This is because it combines both e-learning and educational and graphic processes to make course materials successful. Lecturers may need formal education to plan and distribute materials (Aini et al., 2020). In terms of operations, lecturers spent more time preparing for e-learning than traditional learning. As a result, the burden grew as the quantity of learning content increased. Since the delivery method was entirely online, lecturers may find it difficult to ensure and evaluate student participation in both asynchronous and synchronous situations. This circumstance may have an impact on the content of the e-learning evaluation that was completed (Aini et al., 2020).

Employee engagement (EE), self-efficacy (SE), self-esteem (SES), and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) are among the critical factors identified affecting job performance. EE is one of the challenges faced during the pandemic. Most schools, training firms, institutions, colleges, and universities in the education industry have been impacted by the recession (Mahajan & Lele, 2021). During the pandemic, lecturers were allowed working from home to continue the teaching process. However, keeping a work-life balance had become incredibly hard. It is even challenging for female lecturers because they had the added responsibilities of keeping a family and looking after kids. Due to the Covid-19 restriction, they were also confined to their homes. This might be a source of emotional strain for females working and training from home during the Covid-19 pandemic (Farooq et al., 2020). For instance, in the middle of a lesson, the lecturer was affected by family issues such as a noisy child and they may need to stop teaching to solve the child's problem. This can lead to them not being able to complete the lesson in scheduled time and spend more time to do so.

Lecturers' SE has indeed been found to have a substantial influence on lecturers' ambitions, resilience, and enthusiasm to use technology in teaching and learning (Răducu & Stănculescu, 2021). Common ideas regarding lecturers' SE, may exhibit variances related to teaching on the online platform. These variances and variability are worth highlighting considering previous research since improvements in SE have been found to improve student performance (Guoyan et al., 2021). Previous study utilising documented a higher lecturer SE associated with more favorable instructional practices before the Covid-19 pandemic (San-Martín et al., 2020). On the other hand, weak lecturer SE has been shown to harm student achievement in class. From the standpoint of lecturers' SE, it gives insight into assurance, empathy, and responsiveness in an outbreak (Guoyan et al., 2021).

As a notion, SES is thought to be a significant element in determining work performance. It is significant since it reveals people's self-perception and sense of personal value. According to Kanayo (2016), employees with high SES have decent working conditions and achievements, whereas those with low SES are unduly

reliant and have trouble in deciding. Employees' SES is negatively affected when goals are not met. When personal goals, objectives, and performance traits are in line, employees' SES are increased. This suggests that if an employee's job requirement accord with their point of view, they are more likely to have self-respect. However, it should be mentioned that a person's past experiences, many of which may affect their SES, come from students, colleagues, and other social classes with whom they have had or currently have interactions. In 2020 coronary virus pandemic, faculty of inferiority affected their job performance, because they could not live up to the expectations set by the university.

Personal efforts that are beyond the responsibilities of the workplace function are referred to as OCB. During the pandemic, certain professionals, although having acclimated to their learning environment, seem to be less connected with their job, which is one of the issues linked with OCB at the university. This slowed down the tasks and more time was needed to execute things to accomplish the task which was previously done in a shorter period (Nugroho et al., 2020). One of the obvious scenarios is when all the academic staff were struggling to cope up and needed longer time to adapt and perform as all academic tasks were unexpectedly changed to online platforms. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, lack of communication and the lack of cooperation and discussion with colleagues becomes an issue of the OCB to the academic staff making it more difficult to complete the work during this pandemic.

In short, academic staff's performance was seen to be tremendously affected during the Covid-19 pandemic. This study aims to determine the impacts of EE, SE, SES, and OCB on work performance of UTAR academic staff during the Covid-19 pandemic. We are interested in doing research as UTAR students to determine how academic faculty at UTAR can retain their job performance while teaching online using our independent variables (IV).

1.3 Research Objective

1.3.1 General Objective

This study's main goal is to ascertain the impacts of employee engagement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and organisational citizenship behaviour on work performance of UTAR academic staff during the Covid-19 pandemic.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

1. To investigate the impact of employee engagement on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.
2. To determine the impact of self-efficacy on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.
3. To study the impact of self-esteem on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.
4. To examine the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

1.4 Research Question

1.4.1 General Question

What are the impacts of employee engagement, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and organisational citizenship behaviour on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic?

1.4.2 Specific Questions

1. What is the impact of employee engagement on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic?
2. What is the impact of self-efficacy on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic?
3. What is the impact of self-esteem on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic?
4. What is the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on the job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic?

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

Hypothesis Statement 1:

Employee engagement has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Hypothesis Statement 2:

Self-efficacy has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Hypothesis Statement 3:

Self-esteem has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Hypothesis Statement 4:

Organisational citizenship behaviour has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Our study is particularly significant as it provides a better understanding of the elements influencing the JP of UTAR academicians during the Covid-19 pandemic. It contributes to a deeper knowledge about how EE, SE, SES, and OCB might boost JP. This research benefits to academicians because it catches the attention of universities to focus on the issues faced by lecturers during the pandemic. This research can be useful for other higher education institutions as well as lecturers to improve their JP.

SE can predict the overall JP of academic staff. For instance, management of UTAR can take advantage of this link because SE improves JP, people with strong SE put more effort into their work, they can stay in their jobs longer (Cetin & Aşkun, 2019).

In addition, confidence is an essential principle for a successful job. When UTAR academic staff have better SES and confidence in their abilities, they are more likely to take calculated risks, learn new things, and explore new possibilities using their abilities (Hearn, 2019). Management team in higher education institutions can use OCB to build social capital by promoting the development of network structures that lead to excellence in JP (Basu et al., 2017).

In conclusion, this study will benefit higher education institutions and academicians by identifying the impacts of the respective variables on JP and provide some suggestions to enhance the quality of job.

1.7 Chapter Layout

There are five chapters in this research project. The study is essentially introduced in Chapter 1, and the focus of Chapter 2 is to discuss the pertinent idea or notion. Besides, the methodology of the research is explained in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 shows the research result through using the SPSS software. For the last chapter, it comes out a conclusion and implications of this research.

Chapter 1 has stated an introduction of research background. Also, it included the issue statement, research objectives and questions, study hypotheses, and chapter structure. Chapter 2 is discussing the theories and concepts about the impact of EE, SE, SES, and OCB on JP of UTAR academicians during the Covid-19 pandemic. It also investigates the relationship between IV and DV through the findings or reviewing the literature on the research topic. The relevant past research and hypothesis development is stated in this chapter.

Chapter 3 is the methodology section that should present the research design, discuss the instruments to be used, the procedures of the research, the data analysis plan and sample size justification. Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software is used in Chapter 4 to determine the linkage among IV and DV. It also analyses the descriptive data, inferential data, and scale measurement.

For achieving study objectives, Chapter 5 offers a research overview. It discusses the study outcomes, its implications, limitations, suggestions as well as conclusion.

1.8 Conclusion

The background of the Covid-19 pandemic has been explained and its impacts on JP of academic staff in higher education institutions are briefly stated. Besides, this chapter has listed the research objectives and questions related to the research topic. Therefore, this chapter is a starter for the following chapters and further information on the variables are being discussing in deep and detail with providing the supporting evidence in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Chapter 2 is about the perceptions of other researchers in relation to the topic covered in this research. Firstly, this chapter starts with a literature review on employee's JP and its relevant factors such as EE, SE, SES, and OCB. Later, the second part of this chapter explores the underlying theories and develops the theoretical framework. This chapter ends by developing a conceptual framework and hypotheses regarding the factors affecting academic staff's JP in higher education institutions during the Covid-19 pandemic. The researcher must consult the literature to do further research.

2.1 Underlying Theories

2.1.1 Behavioural Plasticity Theory

Brockner (1988) stated that the Behavioural Plasticity Theory postulates that persons with low SES are more vulnerable to outside influences. Behavioural Plasticity Theory is based on the idea that having a high level of SES can act as an asset, providing a safe haven for negative situations and reducing their impact. On the other side, those with low SES need it and are more adversely impacted by bad circumstances. In this approach, when compared to people with low SES, the impact of bad situations on outcomes should be more anchored. Job stressors such as job uncertainty, which relates to how unclear or difficult to define a job's

goals and aspirations are, are commonly investigated as mediators of the impact of self-levels, and job conflict, which refers to how many conflicting requirements, requests, and stressors a job consists of; high SES levels are remembered to weaken the link between job stressors and their JP. Scientists looked examined SES levels as mediators of employment stresses on work contentment, work pressure, sadness, anxiety, and genuine unhappiness side effects using the conduct moral adaptability hypothesis structure. As a result, one direct application of the conduct flexibility hypothesis is to see if SES levels reduce the negative effects of job stressors on JP; without a doubt, various experts have used this method (Ferris et al., 2010).

2.1.2 Social Cognitive Theory

According to social cognitive theory, people's confidence in the framework, such as trust in the association, would communicate with representatives' confidence in themselves, such as SE, to anticipate work views and methods of behaving. The SE is anticipated to have a significant impact on work mind sets such as job satisfaction and turnover goals, as well as ways of behaving such as task execution and authority citizenship. These ways of behaving will have a more grounded impact because representatives will have a higher level of confidence in the organisation (Ozyilmaz et al., 2018). The importance of SE in several aspects of work environment viability and work mentalities has been studied extensively by social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2012). A person's SE is founded on the premise that self-viability affects decision-making, and it refers to their confidence in their ability to finish a task (Bandura, 1988).

Representatives' decision-making, effort determination, perseverance in the face of adversity, and self-improvement and self-upsetting concept designs are all influenced by SE. In this regard, self-viability is seen as an

important determinant of JP and work attitudes (Bandura, 1988). Faith in one's capacities and self is viewed as a vital part of one's self-idea, as confirmed by the consideration of SE in more significant levels of character development like centre self-assessment and mental capital. A positive hierarchical way of behaving sees self-viability as a state-like development that fundamentally affects representatives' business-related perspectives and ways of behaving (Ozyilmaz et al., 2018).

2.1.3 Conservation of Resources Theory

According to the Conservation of Resource (COR) theory, resources have inherent motivating elements that make it easier to accomplish goals and satisfy needs. With the prospect of reaping rewards, people work hard to safeguard, develop, and engage in these resources. These resources allude to a wide psychological concept that incorporates universal emotional stability like task significance and need fulfilment in addition to aspects that are specifically relevant to the workplace. Inhibiting this fundamental emotional stability has the impact of draining energy because they are crucial to a person's success. Moreover, COR highlights those individuals who are most adept at allocating resources to maximise their resource pool, instead of those who have access to an abundance of resources, those who prosper. This implies that people who have a collection of resources associated with their jobs are best prepared to acquire and engage in other resources. Be aware that these extra resources may also include general psycho-energetic resources and are not just restricted to resources for the workplace (Hu et al., 2019).

Environmental and individual factors influence how engaged employees are at work. Personal resources refer to an individual's perception of his or her capacity to higher pressures and impact the environment. They are positive

self-evaluations linked to perseverance. Personal resources are essential for achieving goals because they guard against danger and the resulting financial and psychological costs, stop dangers, and promote individual growth and development. This is because an individual's self-evaluation is more favourable the larger their resources remain. The alignment between an individual's aims and their ability is then likely to be quite strong (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Individuals are more inclined to develop job burnout and adverse physical or mental impacts when they deplete resources at work. Bergeron (2007) contends that individuals experience a constant loss of essential resources and lack the energy to keep a functional OCB, eventually resulting in more citizen exhaustion, when OCB levels are low to medium. Additionally, low levels of OCB among employees make it challenging for them to obtain new resources due to the absence of reciprocal interactions and to build social capital through limited social conservations with co-workers, which can result in tiredness and fatigue. Higher levels of OCB are linked to greater levels of personal resources, like stimulating and fulfilling jobs, and lower exposure to negative conditions such as strain or anxiety (Xu et al., 2021). Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) discovered that participating in more colleague-specific OCB prevented further resource depletion and protected workers from emotional tiredness by allowing them to form connections with other people and recharge their resources.

2.2 Review of the Literature

2.2.1 Independent Variable: Employee Engagement (EE)

The term “employee engagement’ (EE) has several different definitions depending on the company (Riyanto et al., 2021). EE is defined as a "developing working condition characterised by a positive affective, psychological, and behavioural state to achieve organisational outcomes. EE may also be defined as employees' willingness to use their abilities in a variety of settings to assist the company flourish. EE has also been defined as a rising state of work in which people see, think, and behave in a manner that contributes to desirable business effectiveness, according to some studies. EE is defined as a condition of active commitment to personally gratifying activities (Bin, 2015). According to Abror et al. (2020 as cited in Whilst, Orgambídez-Ramos & de Almeida, 2017), EE refers to the positive emotional bonding between staff and the job assigned to him or her.

It encompasses a variety of aspects, including the employee-organisation connection. The major areas of concern for successful work that needs to be done successfully and efficiently are the company and the administration's care of the worker (Tanwar, 2017). Employees who are engaged are familiar with the business situation and work together to improve productivity for the interest of the organisation. Vigor, integration, participation, effectiveness, power, devotion, passion, and pleasant states of mind are all characteristics of engagement, which are defined as drivers for employee success. Individuals who are engaged have a good mindset and a job-related state of mind defined by enthusiasm, devotion, and immersion. These characteristics start preparing employees for their work, reducing the risk of errors and blunders (Sendawula et al., 2018).

EE refers to the long-term employees' obligations, enthusiasm, and participation. Job tiredness is the opposite of EE. It is a state of mind that begins with social contact at work and culminates with improved organisational performance. Whenever an employee considers significance in his work, he performs better when he finds value in his career, the corporate culture, and policies. Self-association with the professional life, which involves a commitment to the workplace, significant interest in the work, and depth of work activities, is also a factor in EE (Riyanto et al., 2021).

2.2.2 Independent Variable: Self-Efficacy (SE)

Self-efficacy (SE) is a trust or assurance in one's ability to do tasks efficiently to complete a task, and it is a self-evaluation of one's overall capacity to execute the immediate tasks in a specific circumstance. It is a notion that displays a participant's ideas about their capacity to achieve its goals from the organisation and can be a key factor in determining a participant's attitudes and behaviours. Past studies have employed performing the duties, self-confidence, and ability to assess SE, all of which can improve a person's work efficiency (Yu et al., 2020). According to Abror et al. (2020), people with high SE can settle their task effectively. SE has three components: degree, which refers to how tough a task is that a person thinks she can complete; depth, which refers to how positive or negative one's ideas about degree are; and applicability, which refers to how well predictions are generalised across contexts (Lunenburt, 2011).

Degree refers to the complexity of the work a person thinks she can complete; Intensity refers to how positive or negative a person's thoughts about the degree are, and Inclusion refers to the degree of applicability anticipated across contexts. Employee attitudes, engagement, and

performance are all influenced by their sense of accomplishment. People usually set out to complete a task with the anticipation of failing (Lunenburg, 2011). Four different methods—past performance, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional cues—can be used to gauge one's level of SE. Past performance is a source of SE that stems from good interactions. Since it is based on the actual events, past performance is the type of expertise that has the most influence on an individual's SE. Continued failure, on the other hand, contribute to a reduction in SE, particularly when the problems happen before the person's SE is sufficiently matured (Widyawati et al., 2018).

Vicarious experience is a matter of SE that is independent of his successes and failures. SE can be affected by other people's perspectives. Viewing other people's achievements in a specific field increases a person's feeling of SE in that sector. Individuals persuade themselves that if others can do it effectively, the person is also capable of finishing. For verbal persuasion, it is a persuasion technique that is used to persuade people that they are able of reaching their goals. Perception mindsets and communication from the manager or supervisor are some of the things that are present at this level. Individuals are directed by advice and instruction through verbal persuasion. People are directed by advice and instruction in verbal persuasion, which strengthens their confidence in their abilities and assists in achieving the intended outcome. Lastly, emotional cues are a measurement of a person's capacity to do a task, which is impacted in part by biological functions. Fluctuations in the person's feelings and physiological state serve as a warning that something undesirable is happening, and so emergency circumstances are prevented (Widyawati et al., 2018).

2.2.3 Independent Variable: Self-Esteem (SES)

According to Pereira et al. (2021), self-esteem (SES) is an all-encompassing evaluation of an individual that shows how much they think they are capable, successful, significant, and deserving of good things in life. The perception of high SES has been associated with positive traits such as confidence, dignity and initiative that will have linked with job performance (JP). According to the research by Baumeister et al. (2003), SES may be divided into two categories: high SES, which refers to a very favorable overall description of an individual, and low SES, which relates to a negative characterisation of an individual. The results of a person's JP will depend on their level of SES. The researchers had determined that there is a SES significantly impact JP. This demonstrates that SES and individual JP can occasionally be linked. A person with a strong sense of self, for instance, will do better at work. SES and JP have a considerable link, according to research by Akgunduz (2015). SES levels have an impact on a person's capacity to work, handle stress, develop relationships at work, and degree of dynamism in the workplace. As a result, SES has a significant influence on JP. It indicates that having high SES gives one the courage and drive to carry out activities and functions at work to advance both personally and professionally. According to Timothy and Joyce (2001), there is a strong correlation between SES and JP. The researchers found that SES will lead an individual to perform effectively on the job to maintain their self-image and they tend to increase their SES to meet their actual JP to the standards. This is because an individual who has lower SES will tend to either lower their standard or completely withdraw from the job when they receive negative feedback.

2.2.4 Independent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Schnake and Dumbler (2003) stated that organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) can be defined as “the behaviour of individual outside the traditional role of the employee determined by the job description if with no subsequent rewards provide by the organisation when done or any incomplete punishment, but the organisational benefits in a way or another to improve the employee JP and efficiency”. It can be a term for anything positive and constructive that an individual does in the organisation to support the employee well-being of the organisation. According to Abror et al. (2020), OCB might be defined as the actions done by staff to assist other colleagues beyond their duties assigned. Any organisation will receive the benefits from encouraging employee participation in OCB to increase job efficiency, customer satisfaction, absenteeism, and most important reduce the cost of turnover (Al-Mahasneh, 2015). Hakim et al. (2014) stated that OCB can help to strengthen the employee’s positive behaviour in terms of personal development to increase the JP efficiency towards future competition. For instance, the organisation can improve the culture of OCB through performance appraisal and work standards evaluation. Al-Mahasneh (2015) research indicates that the significance of OCB lies in its ability to enhance each employee's overall performance of the organisation by fostering relationships of exchange across diverse departments.

Vu et al. (2022) shows that OCB and OCB dimension (Rejeki et al., 2019) had a significant relationship with the JP of staff during the Covid-19 pandemic. The five dimensions of OCB identified by the researchers are benevolence, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesies, and civic virtue. Altruism refers to the individual behaviour of helping co-workers without anything in return. Conscientiousness is defined as the behaviour is that shown to exceed the minimum requirements or rules desired by the organisation. Sportsmanship is any positive behaviour that occurs by an

individual toward the organisation. Courtesy refers to the behaviour of the employee maintaining good relations with colleagues in the organisation. Civic virtue shows an individual who takes responsibility and participates in the tasks of the organisation (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Tambe (2014) studied that all dimensions of OCB are necessary for effective JP and enhancing the effectiveness of an organisation.

2.2.5 Dependent Variable: Job Performance (JP)

Many methods used to distinguish between employees' performance and organisational performance. Job performance (JP) was also used to categorise employee performance. According to Oatley, the success of an organisation depends not only on people performance (job performance), but also on other factors, such as the organisation's work environment. To be successful, a company will also need a good employee. According to Ramlall (2008) point of view, the staff's creativity, innovation, and dedication spirit is essential for organisational success. Griffin et al. (1981) argues that excellent JP and the employees' output improvement is crucial. It may bring some benefits, for example, to stabilise the economy, this means that raise living standards, increase their income, increase the demand for consumer goods, and so on.

In addition, higher level of JP is expressive of personnel in the company. However, businesses may recruit staff members who satisfy the qualifications or have the essential talents to increase firm's performance. The success of employees also depends on five aspects, according to Vroom (1964), including knowledge, experience, ability, personality, and skills. Barrick and Mount (1991) suggested that they are more focusing on personality. The expert thinks, workers' character need to have better

attention than the other factors affecting the work efficiency. In addition, how to prepare and measure the employee's JP is necessary.

Process and outcome are other ways to categorise JP. It is therefore a difficult idea. The process component refers to the employee's work activities and the procedure of accomplishing goal (Campbell, 1990). An individual's specific behaviour or activity in carrying out their job responsibilities in support of the organisation's mission refers to the performance. The outcome component refers to the result of employee behaviour. In contrast to the behaviour aspect, the result component is influenced by outside factors. For instance, a salesman may present his goods in a spectacular way from a behavioural perspective, but the product's demand is dropping, which results in poor sales. Performance, on the other hand, can be judged in terms of effectiveness, which refers to the result, or efficiency, which refers to the cost of reaching the result. To improve the organisational performance, two types of behaviour must be assessed. Examples of task and contextual performance were provided by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). JP includes customer service, helping with mission-critical tasks, and participating directly or indirectly in the production process from raw materials to final items. It should be connected to a formal organisation reward program to increase EE. Consequently, to get the award, the employee must meet the requirements of the company.

Five of the performance attributes that proposed by Campbell (1990) — specialised work task proficiency, non-job task specific proficiency, oral and writing proficiency, leadership position supervision, and management support—are connected to task performance. Contextual performance is the indirect work and impact an employee has on an organisation's operations. It significantly affects a company's culture. There are two forms of contextual performance: job commitment, which refers to employee self-motivation such as self-discipline or following the instructions of the organisation or leader, and employee self-motivation such as self-discipline

or following the directions of the organisation or leader. Extra-role performance and OCB are important components of contextual performance that may provide effectiveness (Smith et al., 1983).

2.3 Review of Past Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Employee Engagement and Job Performance

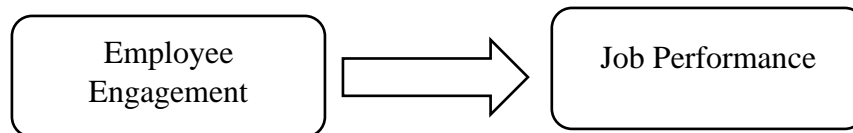


Figure 2.1. Employee Engagement and Job Performance Model

Employee engagement (EE) is a proactive, favourable workplace condition characterised by zeal, commitment, and immersion (Schaufeliet et al., 2006). Vigor is the term for having a lot of energy and perseverance when working. Strong interest in one's profession, as well as a sense of significance and passion, are traits of dedication. Being completely concentrated and contentedly immersed in one's job is referred to as absorption. Therefore, motivated personnel typically possess high levels of energy and are passionately immersed in their job. Additionally, they frequently lose themselves in their work, which makes time fly (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

JP, also known as in-role performance, refers to the outputs and actions that are formally mandated and directly advance the objectives of the organisation (Motowildo & Van Scotter, 1994). JP encompasses, among

other things, achieving business goals and giving persuasive sales presentations (Behrman & Perreault, 1982). The emphasis in the concept of JP is on the usefulness of performance for organisational objectives. EE helps both individuals and businesses since engaged workers are expected to exhibit higher JP. When compared to non-engaged employees, engaged employees perform better due to positive feelings like happiness, excitement, and enthusiasm (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

According to the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), people can increase their personal resources—physical, intellectual, social, and psychological resources—by broadening their fleeting thought-action repertoires. This is accomplished by experiencing positive emotions like happiness, interest, and contentment. Joy increases resources by encouraging the urge to play and be creative. Interest encourages a person's drive to learn new things, experience new things, and expand their horizons. Positive feelings are frequently experienced by engaged workers (Schaufeli & Van Rhenen, 2006). People that are happy are more open to chances at work, more social and helpful to others, and more hopeful (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001).

2.3.2 Self-Efficacy and Job Performance

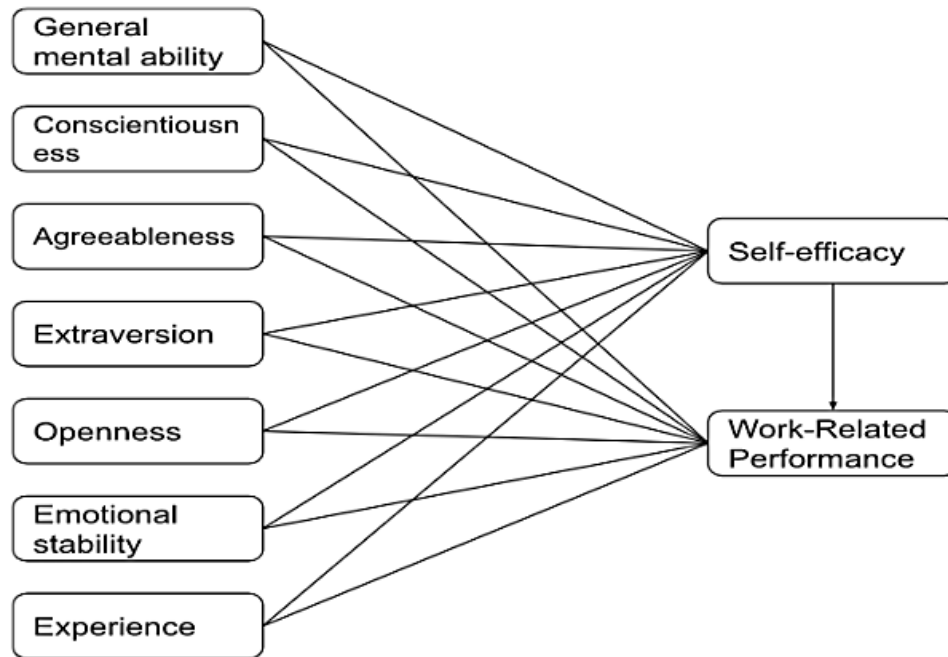


Figure 2.2. Self-Efficacy and Job Performance Model

Self-efficacy (SE) beliefs are thought to encourage greater JP in a variety of ways since they are task- or domain-specific (Bandura, 1986). First, one's SE beliefs affect feelings of competence and confidence in their perceived capacity to do a necessary task, which inspires them to put out extra effort to meet their goals (Bandura, 1997). Second, having SE beliefs increases one's sense of agency or control over their circumstances, which motivates one to perform at a higher level (Bandura, 1986). Agentic individuals, or those that act deliberately and proactively to achieve their goals, arrange themselves and their settings, experiment with alternative approaches, and reflect on their experiences to learn how to better control their JP (Bandura, 2006).

The tested model that determined the specific connection between SE and JP is depicted in the figure 2.2. The model hypothesises that overall mental capacity, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, openness, emotional stability, and experience influence SE, which is then predicted to forecast JP in the workplace. Beyond SE, there are numerous more ways

that the factors might influence JP. One way that both cognitive capacity and experience impact JP is the collection of job knowledge. The information required to do a job properly may be acquired more easily by intelligent individuals, and experience offers the essential opportunities for knowledge acquisition (Schmidt, Hunter, & Outerbridge, 1986). Like how agreeableness and extraversion encourage interpersonal connections at work, conscientiousness encourages people to set more challenging objectives and to be more committed to achieving them (Gellatly, 1996). These traits may also result in improved JP (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998).

Some of the relationships have more empirical and conceptual backing than others. For instance, among the most well-established relationships in the literature are those between cognitive capacity and JP as well as between conscientiousness and JP (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). Similarly, multiple research has found a connection between the Big Five qualities and SE (e.g., Judge & Ilies, 2002; Thomas, Moore, 1996). Other studies have demonstrated that experience (e.g., Shea & Howell, 2000) and cognitive capacity (e.g., Phillips & Gully, 1997) are effective predictors of SE. This research considers all the connections between the distal factors and SE and JP in keeping with the study's aim to assess the specific linkages between SE, individual differences, and JP.

2.3.3 Self-Esteem and Job Performance

The link between self-esteem (SES) and job performance (JP) is established early on, even in primary school. According to research, pupils' high levels of SES are a significant indicator and predictor of their academic success. This tendency persists throughout adulthood, and a recent study has shown the substantial correlation between SES and JP. This bond is undoubtedly mutual. People who are more confident in their talents tend to perform better at work, and job success can boost confidence (Hearn, 2019).

Employees are more likely to take measured risks, learn new things, and use talents to explore new possibilities when they have stronger SES and confidence in their abilities. Employees with confidence and experience are tremendously useful to businesses wanting to grow and prosper. A less certain employee would surely need more assurance than one who is certain of their talents. They will regularly ask their supervisors for advice on how to continue, which is not always an issue because managers must be there to offer feedback when necessary. Employees will do more in less time if they are empowered to act without second-guessing themselves. They will just carry out the current task. This will help the business's bottom line and save it hundreds of hours (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003).

Employees with a higher sense of self-worth require less management. It was recently revealed that Tesla CEO Elon Musk loses time and money regularly because of his constant micromanagement. People may not want to micromanage their employees, but if their sense one is suffering from a lack of confidence, they may feel compelled to keep an eye on them to a certain extent until they feel secure. Confident employees, on the other hand, are more engaged, independent, and self-reliant, as said above. This not only makes employees more productive but also frees up management time to focus on more pressing issues (Hearn, 2019).

2.3.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Job Performance

Organ (1988) defined OCB as a behaviour that contributes indirectly to an organisation's performance by maintaining the social structure of the organisation, which leads to its health and cleanliness. Researchers have debated whether OCB should be considered part of an employee's in-role responsibilities, even if they feel it is a discretionary kind of behaviour that is not explicitly rewarded by the business (Morrison, 1994). The notion of

OCB is extremely like the construct of contextual performance, which was proposed as a substitute for the OCB construct by Borman and Motowidlo (1997), Borman et al. (1995), Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994), and Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). Perhaps in reaction to the critiques, OCB has been broadened to encompass behaviour that helps to "maintain and improve the social and psychological milieu that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997). OCBs are still predominantly considered as discretionary behaviours that are less likely to be officially or openly rewarded in an organisation, despite this new definition recognising their value in explaining task performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). People do not operate alone; they pool their skills and efforts to achieve their objectives (Snell, 1999).

The concept of OCB has progressed beyond the notions of 'cooperation' that were formerly assumed to have an impact on organisational performance, and subsequent study into the concept has provided a solid foundation for its underlying construct. Cooperation, on the other hand, was thought to be primarily impacted by the workplace culture and surroundings (Smith et al., 1983). Because two of its key elements are trust and the strength of interpersonal relationships, OCB is a significant phenomenon in the informal organisation idea. As a result, exactly like social capital, studies have discovered that OCB has a significant influence on organisational performance and individual growth. Altruism, generalised compliance, sportsmanship, civility, and civic virtue are the five aspects of OCB (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCBs, according to the literature, is an individual's optional pro-social behaviour that is distinct from formal job obligations and tasks that are not part of the job description, and they benefit both people and the organisation (Organ et al., 2006). Organisational success has been demonstrated to be positively associated to OCBs (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Organ et al., 2006). Although it is not part of their formal job description, OCB has been

discovered to affect managerial evaluations of personnel (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Whiting et al., 2008). This indicates that management believes OCB is advantageous to businesses in terms of performance, and that voluntary involvement is viewed as a sign of organisational commitment (Organ et al., 2006). According to Whiting et al. (2008), OCB is just as significant as JP in evaluating personnel.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

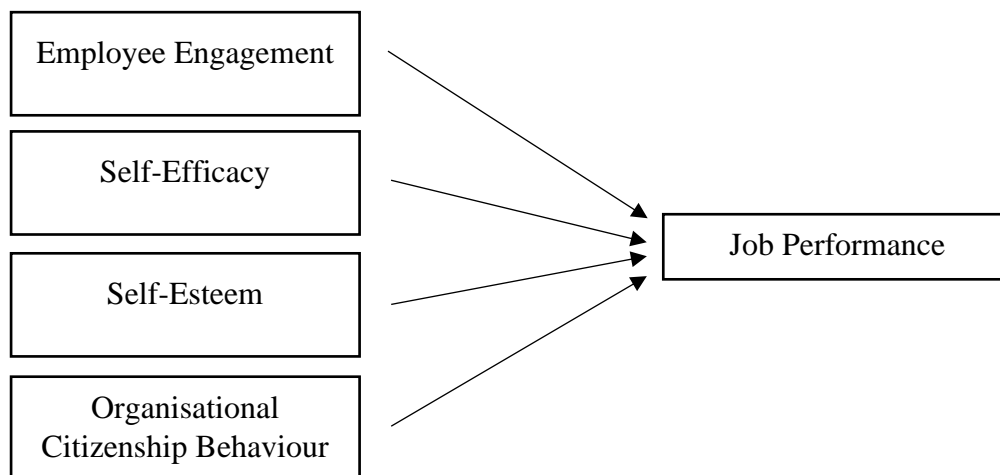


Figure 2.3. Proposed Conceptual Framework

This study included IVs which are Employee Engagement (EE), Self-Efficacy (SE), Self-Esteem (SES), and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) have significant impact on DV which is job performance (JP). Figure 2.3 indicates overall framework of this study. There is a positive connection between EE, SE, SES, and OCB on JP.

2.5 Hypothesis Development

2.5.1 Employee Engagement

H1: Employee engagement has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

According to Bedarkar and Pandita (2014) as cited in Tower Perrin (2006); Gallup, (2006), several studies showed that employee engagement (EE) leads to improved job performance (JP), which in turn leads to improved organisational performance. Furthermore, by referring to Adhitama and Riyanto (2020) as cited in Bakker et al. (2008), a few studies have revealed links between EE and JP. Chanana and Sangeeta (2021) found out that EE makes workers care about their job contributions and outcomes produced during the Covid-19 pandemic. Additionally, according to Maha Ahmed Zaki Dajani (2015), motivated employees may help their employers meet their goals, carry out their strategies, and provide important financial outcomes. Tanwar (2017) mentioned that EE and JP are linked because engaged workers will have a better sense of belonging, excitement, work knowledge, and greater relationship with employers. Thus, it decreases the possibility of task confusion, and workplace conflicts as well as lower the rate of absenteeism, and employee turnover, and enhanced the effectiveness and efficiency of JP.

During the Covid-19 pandemic, employees who show high EE in their jobs are more likely to receive excellent JP evaluations (Zhang, et al., 2022, as cited in Hood et al., 2016). Additionally, compared to disengaged employees, high EE professionals exhibit a passion for their jobs, recognise the value of their work, and demonstrate loyalty to their employers. As a result, it is seen as a crucial concept underlying JP (Ismail et al., 2019).

2.5.2 Self-Efficacy

H2: Self-efficacy has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

According to Kovács and Kálmán (2022), self-efficacy (SE) relates to employees' job performance (JP) during the Covid-19 pandemic. Also, Lim et al. (2022) observed that there is a substantial positive relationship between SE and JP during the pandemic period. Carter et al. (2018) as cited in Bandura (1997) studied that SE beliefs influence sentiments of competence and confidence in one's perceived ability to accomplish a needed task assigned, implying that they work hard to achieve their objectives. SE beliefs are the confidence that exerting effort will provide fruitful outcomes, which increases a person's capacity to persist in pursuing goals. Moreover, Carter et al. (2018) as cited in Bandura (1986) found that SE beliefs encourage enhanced JP by giving people a greater sense of control or agency over their lives.

Taufiq-Hail et al. (2021) stated that SE has a clear impact on JP and is linked to workers' ability to complete a given task in a specific context while responding to rapid changes in the environment. Having a positive sense of self and belief in one's capabilities will improve their optimism when completing a given work. Conversely, a low feeling of SE can cause or exacerbate negativity when performing a certain duty. As a result, this kind of unpleasant feeling reduces the inspiration and commitment to achieving the intended goals and thus influences the final JP. Hence, it is well acknowledged that SE plays a critical role and is major impacts employees' JP on a certain task.

2.5.3 Self-Esteem

H3: Self-esteem has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

According to Veerasamy et al. (2013), employees' self-esteem (SES) impacts positively on job performance (JP) in the workplace. Moreover, Atiya (2021) stated that SES is linked to well-organised operations, stronger job satisfaction, and improved work achievement during the Covid-19 pandemic. Individuals with low SES have been shown to perform less successfully under stress as compared to those with strong SES (Mossholder et al., 1982 as cited in Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Judge and Bono (2001) as cited in Dodgson and Wood (1998) demonstrated that people with high SES remain optimistic when facing failure and thus increase the likelihood of job success and happiness in the future. Staff with strong SES will be more likely to have effective JP as they desire to keep their positive personal image.

Referring to Gardner et al. (2004), high SES leads workers to contribute great effort and participate in goal-directed behaviour when task performing. Individuals with high SES have greater JP than those with low SES because they are task-motivated, tenacious, and have a positive working attitude to deal with hurdles. According to Kumar (2017), employees with a high degree of SES have a positive perception of themselves as contributors, attractive, and successful individuals. Therefore, this attitude leads to producing better job results.

2.5.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

H4: Organisational citizenship behaviour has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The OCB has been connected to individual overall work performance in the organisation, according to studies by Psychogios et al. (2019) and Podsakoff et al. (2000). Ariani (2012) indicated that OCB affecting on job performance (JP) due to the higher is the OCB, the higher is the JP. Thus, the employee who engages in OCB plays a key role during the Covid-19 pandemic since all the organisations are facing difficulties due to the changes in the society and economic that are beyond their control (Anderson, 2020). Evans & Davis (2015) studied that OCB can exchange tacit knowledge, foster sharing, and reduce the time to allocate the resources among the employees. It can lead to affect an individual JP such as through an improvement in task quality, goal achievement and greater productivity. In addition, Hui et al. (2004) investigated how better planning, scheduling, problem-solving, and contributing to service quality through OCB might enhance an organisation's employee's talents and capabilities to accomplish their work. Vaziri et al. (2020) and Yu et al. (2021) stated that OCB is critical to the survival of many organisations during the Covid-19 pandemic.

2.6 Conclusion

In Chapter 2, DV and IV have been discussed in detail under the section of literature review. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks was developed by referring to various published journal articles. Under the section of hypotheses development, all the IV show a positive relationship with employees' JP.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter covers the chapter design, data collection methods, sample design, research instruments, construct measurement, data processing, and data analysis. Research method is the process of analysing data to provide the necessary information. This chapter's objective is to give background information on the study methodology and describe how the study is carried out. This research involves analysis, and as a summary of this chapter, a conclusion is provided.

3.1 Research Design

For this study, UTAR academic staff were polled. Qualitative research is acknowledged to be suitable for exploratory research, such as during a research project's pilot stage. It is typically used to explore further into the subjects at hand as well as discover more about individual experiences, viewpoints, attitudes, and trends. On the other side, quantitative research is all about numbers and statistics. Because quantitative research explicitly outlines what is assessed and how it is measured to find patterns in, for example, behaviour, motivation, emotion, and cognition, quantitative data gathering is far more organised than qualitative data collection (Järvelä et al., 2021).

As a result, this study employs the quantitative research approach. It is defined as the methodical investigation of phenomena via the use of quantifiable data and statistical, mathematical, or computational approaches ("Research Guides: Organising Your Social Sciences Research Paper: Quantitative Methods", 2021). It

collects all information from present and prospective techniques, in addition to conducting online surveys and questionnaire surveys. All the outcomes can be mathematically expressed.

Also, this study is based on a causal research design. It is a form of study that determines the link between two variables' cause and effect (Bhasin, 2021). Researchers will have a thorough comprehension of the phenomena under investigation and will be able to evaluate cause and effect linkages accurately. The study's main purpose was to examine if the IV have an impact on the DV.

3.2 Data Collection Method

Different studies compared secondary data from sources or a literature review in online journal publications. The identification of an online survey and hand-out questionnaires was aided by primary data. Primary data has a higher value than secondary data since it has not been edited or amended by humans. For the core data categories, a questionnaire is employed, and for the secondary data categories, published journal articles are utilised. It is more efficient, economical, quick, and accurate to obtain information about the target audience (Howard, 2021). The survey form's principal data is used to address the hypotheses and research questions. The questionnaire was collected from 13th June 2022 (Week 1) to 9th July 2022 (Week 4). Questionnaires were sent to academic staff by distributing physical questionnaire as well as online Google Form.

3.3 Sampling Design

A foundation of every research project, and it is used to provide various types of statistical information. In this research, the sampling design was developed with five different parts including the target population, sampling techniques, sampling frame, sampling location, and sample size.

3.3.1 Target Population

It is crucial to have a clear understanding of the target population reached well in advance of starting survey fieldwork (Murphy, 2016). As the education industry is one of the most impacted industries during the Covid-19 pandemic, UTAR had been chosen to be the targeted research organisation. It is a non-profit private institution established on the 13th of August 2002, guided by its vision to be a worldwide university that provides an excellent and affordable education to learners. UTAR is among the leading university in Malaysia with campuses organised in Kampar, Perak, and Bandar Sungai Long located in Selangor, with a ranking of #1001-1200 in the 2022 edition of the Times Higher Education (THE) World University Rankings and a ranking of #167 in the Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) Asia University Rankings 2022. Since its inception in 2002, UTAR has seen tremendous growth and expansion, whether in terms of student enrollment, staff strength, academic portfolio, or teaching and research facilities. The university's enrolment has grown from 411 students in its Petaling Jaya campus in 2002 to more than 21,000 students (Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman, n.d.).

According to Koay (2010), most private higher education institutions have a high turnover rate of academic staff. As a result, much research was

focused on private universities. In Malaysia, private institutions were highly valued for research because it is now a significant industry. UTAR is one of the leading private universities in Malaysia. The population focused is the lecturers working in UTAR on the Kampar campus and Sungai Long campus. The total number of academic staff in this university is approximately 1301 which is from nine different faculties and more than forty different departments.

Despite providing work-life balance, a high employer EPF rate, and a friendly working environment for its employees, there are also disadvantages such as low salary increment, lots of paperwork and administrative tasks, employees' contribution being undervalued by management, low overtime pays, and weekend pay, loads of teaching hours as well as insufficient resources for teaching and learning (Glassdoor, n.d.). Hence, this research focuses on UTAR to investigate its JP and factors for improvement.

3.3.2 Sampling Techniques

There are two types of sampling techniques: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. This research applies probability sampling technique, and it is the gold standard in sampling methodology. It means that there is an equal possibility that each item or person in this population sample will be chosen for the sample (Taherdoost, 2016).

Additionally, there are six additional classifications for the probability sampling approach (simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, multiphase sampling, and multistage sampling). The simple random sampling is used in the study and

using this sampling is to ensure that every items of the population has an equal probability of inclusion in sample. The complete sampling frame is required for this method (Acharya et al., 2013).

3.3.3 Sampling Frame and Sampling Location

The sample frame is crucial to sampling probability; if it is improperly drawn from the population of interest, random sampling from that frame will not be able to address the research topic (Acharya, 2013). The sampling frame of this research is available because the researchers can obtain the name list of the respondents from the staff directory of UTAR website. UTAR academic staff from Kampar and Sungai Long campuses were chosen.

3.3.4 Sampling Elements

In this study, we mainly target the academic staff of UTAR from nine different faculties and centre for foundation (as shown in Table 3.1) with different position (associate lecturer, lecturer, senior lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, professor) and departments.

Table 3.1:

Nine Faculties and the Number of Academic Staff

Faculties	Number of Academic Staff
Accountancy and Management (Sungai Long campus)	109
Arts and Social Science (Kampar campus)	98
Business and Finance (Kampar campus)	168
Creative Industries (Sungai Long campus)	123
Engineering and Green Technology (Kampar campus)	86
Information and Communication Technology (Kampar campus)	79
Medicine and Health Sciences (Sungai Long campus)	141
Science (Kampar campus)	90
Engineering and Science (Sungai Long campus)	259
Centre for foundation (Sungai Long campus)	65
Centre for foundation (Kampar campus)	83

3.3.5 Sample Size

Sample size refers to the number of observations or participants included in the current study. Faber and Fonseca (2014) stated that the samples of a study should not be either too big or too small since both have limitations that can influence the conclusions. They have 1301 academic staffs who work in UTAR. Based on Appendix 1, it shows the population size and sample size. As a result, a sample size of 297 is being chosen.

3.4 Research for Instrument

Tools that are used to allocate, measure, and analyse the data of the main study. In this study, the questionnaire is being used as a tool to collect the data from the respondents, and a pilot study is being used to assess the reliability or consistency of an instrument.

3.4.1 Questionnaire Design

The heart of the survey is questionnaires. The questionnaire is normally used in survey research, experiments, and other modes of observation. An appropriate questionnaire design is very important to lead the process of the research (Acharya, 2010). In this research, the questionnaire is being used to collect data from the respondents, and they are essential to answer all the items. The questionnaire for this study consists of six sections with 39 items which are:

Section A: Demographics information (age, gender, educational background, faculty, working periods, working position and monthly salary).

Section B: Independent variable (employee engagement) with 7 items.

Section C: Independent variable (self-efficacy) with 6 items.

Section D: Independent variable (self-esteem) with 6 items.

Section E: Independent variable (organisational citizenship behaviour) with 6 items.

Section F: Dependent variable (job performance) with 7 items.

3.4.2 Pilot Study

The pilot study also can be known as a feasibility study and it is one of the necessary stages in a research project (Hassan et al., 2006). The pilot study is conducted to test the entire research project from start to finish which increases the likelihood of success for the main study and it can become a cornerstone of good research design. The main purpose of the pilot study is to improve the efficiency and identified potential problem areas of the main study. This means that the result of the pilot study can inform feasibility and identify modifications needed in the main research (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). First, the pilot study should involve a focus target population to establish the issues to be addressed in a large-scale questionnaire survey (Van & Hundley, 2001). For instance, the academic staff of UTAR from nine different faculties and centre for the foundation are the focus group that targets to conduct the survey. Therefore, this research applies the pilot study to test the wording and order of the questions or the range of the answers on multiple-choice and 30 sets of questionnaires were prepared for this test. The 30 sets of questionnaires had been distributed through online Google Form and fully collected in 1 week from 5th June 2022 to 10th June

2022. We distributed the questionnaire according to the name list which obtained from the UTAR staff directory website. The collected data was tabulated as the final data into Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software to measure the Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient.

Table 3.2:

Summary of Reliability Test Result in Pilot Test

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Employee Engagement	0.923
Self- Efficacy	0.922
Self- Esteem	0.875
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.864
Job Performance	0.972

Source: Develop from this research

Table 3.2 shows that Cronbach's Alpha generated from SPSS software for variables falls between 0.864 and 0.972. Their values exceed 0.8 and are excellent in reliability.

Noble and Smith (2015) stated that pilot test is aimed to observe the instrument validity as well as reliability. In the aspect of testing the reliability of the questionnaire, the pilot test was conducted through collect the data from the respondents. Normally, the items of the questionnaire were rated on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 which means 1 equals to strongly disagree, to 5 equals to strongly agree. For instance, Sections B to F in this research questionnaire are represented in a form of a data code which is 1 to 5 and each of the codes represents the level of agreement. In other words,

Cronbach's Alpha conducts scale measurement of reliability to determine the consistency in relatedness of a set of variables within a target population (Field, 2013). According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), the alpha value is identified in the table 3.3.

Table 3.3:

Interpretation of Reliability of Instrument

Coefficient	Reliability's Level
0.80 to 0.95	Very Good
0.70 to 0.80	Good
0.60 to 0.70	Moderate
Less than 0.60	Poor

3.5 Construct Measurement

3.5.1 Constructs Origin

Table 3.4:

Origin of Construct (Questionnaire)

Variables	Items	Sources:
Independent	Employee Engagement	Ahmed et al. (2020) and Abror et al. (2020) as cited in Albrecht and Marty (2017)
	Self-Efficacy	Taufiq-Hail et al. (2021) and Abror et al. (2020) as cited in Albrecht and Marty (2017)
	Self-Esteem	Webster et al. (2020)
	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Abror et al. (2020) as cited in Zhang, Guo, and Newman (2017) and Zhao, Wu, Sun, and Chen (2012)
Dependent	Job Performance	Riyanto et al. (2021)

3.5.2 Scale Measurement

Section A approached the metrics of ordinal as well as nominal, while Section B to Section F approached interval scale.

Table 3.5:

Level of Scale Measurement

No.	Questions	Level of Scale Measurement
Section A		
1.	Gender	Nominal
2.	Age Group	Ordinal
3.	Education Background	Ordinal
4.	Faculty	Nominal
5.	How long you have been working for this organisation?	Ordinal
6.	What is your current position in your organisation?	Ordinal
7.	What is your monthly salary income in your organisation?	Ordinal
Section B		
	Employee Engagement	
1.	I feel strong and vigorous at my job.	Interval
2.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	Interval
3.	I am proud to work for the university.	Interval
4.	I practice my best skills at work every day.	Interval

5.	My supervisor and co-workers seem to care about me at work.	Interval
6.	The university motivates me to go beyond what I would in a similar role elsewhere.	Interval
7.	Most of the systems and processes in the university support me getting my work done effectively.	Interval
Section C		
	Self-Efficacy	
1.	I feel that I can always manage to solve difficult problems at work if I try hard enough.	Interval
2.	I have the technical background to understand and use the online working methods.	Interval
3.	I have the intellectual capability to understand, learn, or use online working methods.	Interval
4.	I have patience to get acquainted with using the new digital methods to work with the university.	Interval
5.	I feel confident representing my work area in online meetings with management.	Interval
6.	I can help students when they experience difficulties in doing a task.	Interval
Section D		
	Self-Esteem	
1.	I feel confident about my abilities when working online.	Interval
2.	I feel that others respect and admire me.	Interval
3.	I feel confident that I understand my job assigned.	Interval

4.	I feel as smart as others in the university.	Interval
5.	I feel good about myself when working online.	Interval
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	Interval
Section E		
	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	
1.	I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the university.	Interval
2.	I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the university.	Interval
3.	I try hard to self-study to increase the quality of work outputs.	Interval
4.	I am willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	Interval
5.	I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues.	Interval
6.	I comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches, and no evidence can be traced.	Interval
Section F		
	Job Performance	
1.	I complete my work according to a predetermined schedule.	Interval
2.	I complete my work according to university quality standards.	Interval
3.	I have skills in the field of work in the university.	Interval
4.	I use skills to perform my work in the university.	Interval

5.	I am responsible for the outcomes of my work.	Interval
6.	I can be punctual at work.	Interval
7.	I understand the tasks that must be done.	Interval

3.5.2.1 Nominal Scale

Nominal scale is regularly used in surveys and data from large demographic subgroups. Its purpose is to identify an object; it usually deals with quantitative data where no amount is given (Dalati & Gomez, 2018). In our research, nominal metrics is applied to measure question like sex. It means that the replies are divided into only two categories without order: male and female.

Example: Gender

() Male

() Female

3.5.2.2 Ordinal Scale

Even though nominal and ordinal variables are similar, the ordinal scale encompasses all rating data, such as the Likert scale and other 0-to-10 scales. There is no specific contradiction in the ordinal scale; it just seeks to assess and characterise the value as greater or lower in scale (Mishra et al., 2018). For instance, the questions in this study can be assessed using ordinal scales such as age group.

Example: Age

- () 18 to 37 years old
- () 38 to 57 years old
- () Above 57 years old

3.5.2.3 Interval Scale

Each question in this section has a five-point scale, with 1 being the lowest score. The interval scale measurements for sections B, C, D, E, and F are shown. A numerical scale known as the interval scale can be used with order variables that are spaced uniformly apart. The interval scale was used to represent the degree of agreement among respondents on various criteria. Respondents can score and assess their agreement on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 denoting strongly disagree and 5 denoting strongly agree, for each of the questions in this section. The data's reliability and sensitivity can be improved by using a five-point scale (Dalati & Gomez, 2018).

3.6 Data Processing

3.6.1 Data Checking

Before analysing the data, researchers must first go through the questionnaire to verify that it is complete and precise, with no errors, missing answers, and inconsistency. It is the step in which unsuitable data is deleted, and the researchers can make any corrections or amendments to a questionnaire if a problem arises. Researchers must make changes to the questionnaire if the results show an unreliable coefficient (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). This research has collected a total number of 309 sets of

questionnaires, while 9 sets are not taken into consideration and have been deleted due to incomplete information.

3.6.2 Data Editing

Data editing is the next step, which aims to identify and correct the questionnaire's illegible, inconsistent, insufficient, illogical, ambiguous outcomes, and missing data. When a mistake is discovered in a questionnaire, researchers are expected to make changes or eradicate the inaccuracy. Data editing is critical to prevent the non-sampling errors that will further influence the research's reliability (Shukla, 2018).

3.6.3 Data Coding

Data coding is the third stage of data preparation. Data coding is a method of summarising and classifying acquired data to provide a logical framework for the information. Numbers are allocated to the replies of respondents while entering the data into the database (Shukla, 2018). For instance, the question of gender is divided into female and male, and the code data is being set as “1” and “2”, respectively.

3.6.4 Data Transforming

All the coded data from respondents are sent to the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program to transform the code data into variables for information analysis (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019).

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis can be defined as the process of assessing data, such as examining each component of the data utilising analysis and logical reasoning. In the next sections, the key statistical approaches used were presented in further detail. Researchers can produce and analyse the data using IBM SPSS statistics after gathering the questionnaire data. This analysis included descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, and inferential analysis.

3.7.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics are used to summarise a sampling without drawing any conclusions based on probability theory. When utilising tools like frequency distribution tables, percentages, and other statistical tests such as means to explain demographics, descriptive statistics are being used. Simple quantitative metrics like percentages or averages, as well as graphic explanations like histograms and bar charts, can be used to summarise data using descriptive statistics (Kaliyadan & Kulkarni, 2019). In Section A, demographic data was used for descriptive analysis.

3.7.2 Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha was developed in response to a requirement for a metric to measure the internal consistency and dependability of research instruments. It is primarily utilised when there are several elements to analyse a topic in an extensive study (Adeniran, 2019). Based on Table 3.3, the value of Cronbach's Alpha is started from 0.00 to 0.60 is considered

poor reliability, 0.60 to 0.70 is considered fair reliability, 0.70 to 0.80 is considered good reliability, and 0.80 to 0.95 is very good reliability.

3.7.3 Inferential Analysis

It is a technique for figuring out how the DV and IV are related. This study used multiple regression analysis and the Pearson Connection Coefficient to assess the degree of correlation between two variables.

3.7.3.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Correlation is the process of determining if two variables are negatively or positively connected, or if they have no interaction at all, by examining their connection, interaction, or correlation. If a change in one variable causes change in the other, the two variables are said to be interrelated. The correlation coefficient is utilised to represent the level of correlation or relationship among variables to evaluate it. To put it another way, the correlation coefficient assesses the intensity such as the direction and degree of a relation or connection between two variables (Obilor & Amadi, 2018).

Several methods have been developed for transforming correlation coefficients into descriptors such as "poor," "moderate," or "strong" links. According to Schober et al. (2018), the value can be identified in the table 3.6.

Table 3.6:

Pearson Correlation Coefficient Value

Correlation Coefficient Range	Correlation
0.00 to 0.10	Negligible
0.10 to 0.39	Weak
0.40 to 0.69	Moderate
0.70 to 0.89	Strong
0.90 to 1.00	Very strong

3.7.3.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

There is a DV and at least two IV in multiple regression analysis. This method is used to figure out how at most two IV interact with a DV. The direct connection among the DV and IV is also investigated by implementing regression analysis techniques (Baek & Chung, 2020).

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

300 sets of survey are usable in this study, and the data obtained was analysed using the statistical product and service solutions (SPSS) program as described in chapter 3. This chapter covers the analysis of descriptive and inferential data as well as measuring scales.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

The process of describing and summarising the collected data is conducted constructively to show a clear understanding of the respondents' demographic information.

4.1.1 Respondents' Demographic Information

Section A devoted to demographic data from respondents. A total of 300 respondent's demographic information are presented as follows.

4.1.1.1 Gender

Table 4.1:

Respondent's characteristic (Gender)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	115	38.3
Female	185	61.7

Table 4.1 presents the gender frequency result and percentage out of 300 respondents taken part in this research. It shows that 115 (38.3%) respondents are male while 185 (61.7%) respondents are female.

4.1.1.2 Age

Table 4.2:

Respondent's characteristic (Age)

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
18 - 37 years old	130	43
38 - 57 years old	143	47
> 57 years old	27	9

Table 4.2 presents the age frequency result and percentage out of 300 respondents. It represents that 130 (43%) of respondents' is those who aged between 18 to 37 years old. Besides, the higher result among the age group is the respondents of the age between 38 to 57 years old with a result of 143 (47%), the ages of above 57 years old is the lower result among the age group with a frequency of 27 (9%).

4.1.1.3 Faculties

Table 4.3:

Respondent's characteristic (Faculties)

Faculties	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Centre for Foundation Studies (CFS)	63	21
Faculty of Science (FSC)	55	18.3
Faculty of Information and Communication Technology (FICT)	25	8.3
Faculty of Business and Finance (FBF)	22	7.3
Faculty of Engineering and Green Technology (FEGT)	20	6.7
Faculty of Arts and Social Science (FAS)	19	6.3
Faculty of Creative Industries (FCI)	30	10

Faculty of Accountancy and Management (FAM)	23	7.7
LKC Engineering and Science (FES)	29	9.7
Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences (FMHS)	14	4.7

Table 4.3 presents the frequency result of faculty and percentage out of 300 respondents. Based on the table, the centre of foundation studies and faculty of science have the higher results compared with other faculties which are 63 (21%) respondents and 55 (18.3%) respondents. Followed by the faculty of creative industries has 30 (10%) respondents, the faculty of engineering and science has 29 (9.7%) respondents, the faculty of information and communication technology has 25 (8.3%) respondents, faculty of accountancy and management has 23 (7.7%) respondents, 22 (7.3%) responders were from the department of business and finance, 20 (6.7%) from the faculty of engineering and green technology, 19 (6.3%) from the faculty of arts and social science, and just 14 (4.7%) from the faculty of medical and health sciences.

4.1.1.4 Working Period

Table 4.4:

Respondent's characteristic (Working Period)

Working Period	Frequency	Percentage (%)
< 1 year	6	2
1 - 2 years	48	16
2 - 3 years	68	22.7
3 - 5 years	63	21
> 5 years	115	38.3

Table 4.4 shows the result of working period frequency and percentage of 300 respondents. According to the table, the respondents who work at the UTAR for less than 1 year have only 6 (2%) respondents. In addition, the respondents who work at UTAR from 1 year to 2 years, 2 years to 3 years, and 3 years to 5 years have different results of 48 (16%) respondents, 68 (22.7%) respondents, and 63 (21%) respondents. Lastly, there is a total of 115 (38.3%) respondents who had worked at UTAR for more than 5 years.

4.1.1.5 Working Position

Table 4.5:

Respondent's characteristic (Working Position)

Working Position	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Graduate Assistant	8	2.7
Lecturer	179	59.7
Senior Lecturer	32	10.7
Assistant Professor	34	11.3
Associate Professor	29	9.7
Professor	18	6.0

Table 4.5 shows the result of working position frequency and percentage of 300 respondents. It indicates that the position of lecturers has a higher result which is 179 (59.7%) respondents. Followed by 32 (10.7%) respondents with the position of senior lecturer, 34 (11.3%) respondents with the position of assistant professor, 29 (9.7%) respondents with the position of associate professor and 18 (6%) respondents with the position of professor. Thus, the position of graduate assistant is the least which only 8 (2.7%) respondents.

4.1.1.6 Education Level

Table 4.6:

Respondent's characteristic (Education Level)

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Undergraduate	15	5.0
Master	128	42.7
PhD	157	52.3

Table 4.6 presents the frequency result of education level and percentage of 300 respondents. The table shows that 157 (52.3%) respondents have achieved the education level of PhD and 128 (42.7%) respondents have achieved the education level of master. While the respondents achieved the education level of undergraduate only 15 (5%) respondents.

4.1.1.7 Income Level

Table 4.7:

Respondent's characteristic (Income Level)

Income Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than RM3000	3	1.0
Between RM3000 to RM4000	103	34.3
Between RM4001 to RM5000	83	27.7
Between RM5001 to RM7000	51	17.0
More than RM7000	60	20.0

Table 4.7 presents the frequency result of income level and percentage of 300 respondents. The table shows that less than RM3000 is the lowest result among the income group which is only 3 (1%) respondents. Most of the respondents which are 103 (34.3%) have an income between RM3000 to RM4000 and 83 (27.7%) respondents have an income between RM4001 to RM5000. Followed by the income between RM5001 to RM7000 and more than RM7000 which are 51 (17%) respondents and 60 (20%) respondents who work at the UTAR.

4.1.2 Central Tendencies Measurement of Construct

Means and standard deviation for each item in this questionnaire are estimated or communicated using the central tendency. It seeks to accurately describe all the study data (Manikandan, 2011).

4.1.2.1 Job Performance (DV)

Table 4.8:

Reliability, Mean and Standard deviation (JP)

No.	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
JP1	I complete my work according to a predetermined schedule.	4.0833	0.71514
JP2	I complete my work according to university quality standards.	4.0700	0.67821
JP3	I have skills in the field of work in the university	4.1233	0.64512

JP4	I use skills to perform my work in the university.	4.1833	0.64636
JP5	I am responsible for the outcomes of my work.	4.1667	0.66359
JP6	I can be punctual at work.	4.1467	0.65313
JP7	I understand the tasks that must be done.	4.2100	0.69342

Table 4.8 shows the results of job performance of the academic staff at UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic regarding the measurements of central tendency. During the Covid-19 pandemic, the JP7 had a higher value of mean which is 4.21, following by the JP4 have the mean of 4.1833, JP5 have the mean of 4.1667, JP6 have a mean of 4.1467 and JP3 have a mean of 4.1233. The JP1 and JP2 have the lower value of mean which is 4.0833 and 4.0700. Although JP1 has a lower value of mean, it has a higher standard deviation (0.71514) compared with JP3 (0.64512). The standard deviation for JP2 (0.67821), JP4 (0.64636), JP5 (0.66359), JP6 (0.65313) and JP7 (0.69342).

4.1.2.2 Employee Engagement (IV)

Table 4.9:

Mean and Standard deviation (EE)

No.	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
EE1	I feel strong and vigorous at my job.	3.9100	0.68077
EE2	I am enthusiastic about my job.	3.9800	0.63320
EE3	I am proud to work for the university.	4.0000	0.67443
EE4	I practice my best skills at work every day.	4.1433	0.64615
EE5	My supervisor and co-workers seem to care about me at work.	3.8233	0.70743
EE6	The university motivates me to go beyond what I would in a similar role elsewhere.	3.8100	0.75883

EE7	Most of the systems and processes in the university support me getting my work done effectively.	3.8667	0.73759
-----	--	--------	---------

Table 4.9 shows the results of employee engagement (EE) of the academic staff at UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic regarding the measurements of central tendency. Based on the table, it represents that the EE4 has a high value of means among the result of the EE group. Both EE1 and EE2 has a difference of only 0.07 value which is 3.91 and 3.98. Besides, EE5 as well as EE6 and EE7 have a close mean values which is 3.8233, 3.81 and 3.8667, respectively. All of the standard deviations of EE were not exceeded the value of 0.8. For the standard deviation of EE1, EE2, EE3 and EE4 was not exceeded 0.7 which is 0.68077, 0.63320, 0.67443 and 0.64615. While the standard deviation for the less part was not exceed 0.8 which is EE5 with a value of 0.70743, EE6 with a value of 0.75883 and EE7 with a value of 0.73759.

4.1.2.3 Self-Efficacy (IV)

Table 4.10:

Mean and Standard deviation (SE)

No.	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
SE1	I feel that I can always manage to solve difficult problems at work if I try hard enough.	3.9533	0.77448

SE2	I have the technical background to understand and use the online working methods.	3.8533	0.74409
SE3	I have the intellectual capability to understand, learn, or use online working methods.	3.9433	0.67452
SE4	I have patience to get acquainted with using the new digital methods to work with the university.	4.0167	0.63593
SE5	I feel confident representing my work area in online meetings with management.	3.8267	0.82394
SE6	I can help students when they experience difficulties in doing a task.	4.1833	0.66170

Table 4.10 shows the results of self-efficacy (SE) of the academic staff at UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic regarding the measurements of central tendency. Although the mean for SE4 (4.0167) and SE6 (4.1833) are high, but their standard deviation values are low at 0.63593 and 0.66170. Moreover, SE1 (3.9533) and SE3 (3.9433) have the closest mean. The value of the standard deviation for both items are 0.77448 and 0.67452. The value of mean for SE2 and SE5 are 3.8533 and 3.8267. SE5 has the highest standard deviation (0.82394) compared with SE2 (0.74409).

4.1.2.4 Self-Esteem (IV)

Table 4.11:

Mean and Standard deviation (SES)

No.	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
SES1	I feel confident about my abilities when working online.	3.8833	0.72443
SES2	I feel that others respect and admire me.	3.6767	0.73525
SES3	I feel confident that I understand my job assigned.	3.9867	0.60639
SES4	I feel as smart as others in the university.	3.5500	0.91485
SES5	I feel good about myself when working online.	3.7967	0.71906
SES6	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	4.1400	0.69427

Table 4.11 shows the results of self-esteem (SES) of the academic staff at UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic regarding the measurements of central tendency. SES6 obtained the highest mean (4.14) among the SES group. Subsequently, SES3 with mean (3.9867), SES1 with mean (3.8833), and SES5 with mean (3.7967). As the result shows that SES4 obtained lowest mean (3.55), while its standard deviation recorded at 0.91485, which is the highest value and the only value that exceeds 0.8. Thereafter, the standard deviation value for SES3 (0.60639) and SES6 (0.69427) are between 0.6 to 0.7. Lastly, SES1, SES2, and SES5's standard deviation value are around 0.70 which is 0.72443, 0.73525 and 0.71906.

4.1.2.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (IV)

Table 4.12:

Mean and Standard deviation (OCB)

No.	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
OCB1	I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the university.	3.9300	0.73954
OCB2	I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the university.	3.7433	0.72055
OCB3	I try hard to self-study to increase the quality of work outputs.	3.9800	0.67413

OCB4	I am willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	4.0667	0.66611
OCB5	I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues.	4.0900	0.75971
OCB6	I comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches, and no evidence can be traced.	3.9400	0.66674

Table 4.12 shows the results of organisational citizenship behaviour of the academic staff at UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic regarding the measurements of central tendency. Based on the table, it shows that OCB has an unusually high result of value of mean among the variables group. First, OCB4 and OCB5 have the highest value that had already exceeded 4.0 which are 4.0667 and 4.0900. Other than that, there has the closest value of mean among OCB1, OCB3 and OCB6 which is 3.9300, 3.9800 and 3.9400, respectively. While OCB2 has lowest mean (3.7433) with a quite high standard deviation value (0.72055). Moreover, OCB5 not only has the highest mean, but also its standard deviation value (0.75971). Nevertheless, OCB4 is one of the higher value of mean but is different from OCB5, it obtained lowest standard deviation (0.66611). Additionally, OCB1's standard deviation is 0.73954, OCB3 is 0.67413 and OCB6 is 0.6674.

4.2 Measurement Scale

4.2.1 Reliability Analysis

Table 4.13:

Summary of Reliability Test Result in Full Study

Variables	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
Employee Engagement	7	0.784	Good Reliability
Self- Efficacy	6	0.703	Good Reliability
Self- Esteem	6	0.760	Good Reliability
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	6	0.760	Good Reliability
Job Performance	7	0.842	Very Good Reliability

Source: Developed in Research

According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), the value of Cronbach's Alpha should be at least 0.6 or above is considered fair reliability. The stability and consistency of research are measured in terms of reliability. If a certain measurement is applied to the same item of measurement again and yields the same findings, this means that they are correct or accurate and are regarded as trustworthy. Based on the summary table 4.13, five of the variables are falling above 0.7 and range from 0.703 to 0.842. This means that all variables are good in reliability and consistency on Cronbach's Alpha. Besides that, the Job Performance (JP) variable has excellent variability since its Cronbach's Alpha value reaches the highest value of 0.842. This indicates that the JP is the most reliable compared to other variables in this research.

4.3 Inferential Analysis

Extrapolating the results of data from a specific sample that was drawn from the whole targeted population. It is also used to distinguish between variables that are independent of one another and those that are related. It highlights various data characteristics and makes some statistically supported inferences. testing methods such as correlation analysis Associations between DV, IV, and items have been researched using Cronbach's Alpha and other methods.

4.3.1 Pearson's Correlation Analysis

Table 4.14:

Coefficient Range

Coefficient range	Strength
± 0.91 to ± 1.00	Very strong
± 0.71 to ± 0.90	High
± 0.41 to ± 0.70	Moderate
± 0.21 to ± 0.40	Small but definite relationship
0.00 to ± 0.20	Slight, almost negligible

Table 4.15:

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

		Employee Engagement	Self-Efficacy	Self-Esteem	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Job Performance
Employee Engagement	Pearson Correlation	1	.571**	.579**	.592**	.531**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	300	300	300	300	300
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.571**	1	.620**	.544**	.466**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	300	300	300	300	300
Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	.579**	.620**	1	.548**	.532**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	300	300	300	300	300
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.592**	.544**	.548**	1	.550**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	300	300	300	300	300
Job Performance	Pearson Correlation	.531**	.466**	.532**	.550**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	300	300	300	300	300

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

EE, SE, SES, and OCB were IV, and Pearson Correlation analysis was performed on their relationships with the DV. SE and JP have a correlation of 0.466 whereas EE and JP have a connection of 0.531. SES and JP have a correlation of 0.532, whereas OCB, an IV, and JP have a correlation of 0.550. The highest association among the four pairings is found between SES and JP, which is followed by EE, OCB, and SE.

With a p-value less than 0.05, each of the four variable pairs demonstrates a significant relationship. The fact that there were positive correlations between all four sets of IV and DV added to the validity of the findings. This demonstrates that the IV and DV are changing in the same manner.

4.3.2 Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) Analysis

Table 4.16:

Model Summary

Model Summary^b				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.638 ^a	.407	.399	.37246

a. IV: (Constant), OCB, SE, EE, SES

b. DV: JP

Table 4.16 reveals that the value of R is 0.638, and it is positive value and moderate relationship. The R-square shows how far that IV can account for the percentage variance in DV. IV may account for approximately 40.7 % of the change in the DV in this research. The remaining of R-square is 59.3 %, however, suggests that there are additional JP issues.

4.3.4 Anova

Table 4.17:

ANOVA

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	28.115	4	7.029	50.667	<.001 ^b
	Residual	40.924	295	.139		
	Total	69.039	299			

a. DV: JP

b. IV: (Constant), OCB, SE, EE, SES

The F value and significance level, commonly known as the p-value, for the Anova test presented in the table 4.18 are 50.667 and 0.001, respectively. F values are often used to evaluate the total impact of all IV on the DV. Next, the P-value is 0.001. Considering this, it may be concluded that all of the IV are trustworthy and can be utilised to explain the DV. In other words, the model's fit was enhanced with the inclusion of four IV. This is because the DV is significantly influenced by the IV (EE, SE, SES, OCB).

4.3.5 Coefficients

Table 4.18:

Coefficients

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.114	.220		5.064	<.001
	EE	.214	.065	.204	3.295	.001
	SE	.065	.065	.062	.997	.320
	SES	.219	.060	.227	3.644	<.001
	OCB	.274	.060	.272	4.538	<.001

a. DV: JP

The tolerance value for IV ranges from 0.997 to 5.064, as shown in Table 4.18 (Coefficients). Additionally, there is the best standards coefficient, 0.272, indicating that organisational citizenship behaviour can explain job performance. It is followed by self-esteem (=0.227), employee engagement (=0.204), and self-efficacy (=0.062).

The Multiple Linear Regression equation of this study:

$$JP = a + b_1 (EE) + b_2 (SE) + b_3 (SES) + b_4 (OCB)$$

Where, JP=Job Performance, a=constant, EE=Employee Engagement, SE=Self-Efficacy, SES=Self-Esteem, OCB=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, bi= slopes

Multiple Regression Equation

$$\text{Job Performance} = 1.114 + 0.214 (\text{EE}) + 0.065 (\text{SE}) + 0.219 (\text{SES}) + 0.274 (\text{OCB})$$

Highest Contribution

OCB has a beta value (0.272), less than the coefficient of correlation for this predictor variable. This suggests that after controlling the variances described by all other variables in the model, OCB helps to clarify the variation in the DV (JP).

Second Highest Contribution

Beta value of SES (0.227) is below the predictor variable correlation coefficient. If all the other prediction variables in the model are considered, SES recorded with a second largest explanatory contribution toward DV's variance (JP).

Lowest Contribution

Table 4.18 states that SE is the IV that makes the least difference to the DV (JP). The beta value (0.062) is the smallest of the others. If all the other explanatory factors are controlled in this study, SE is responsible for the least variance in the JP.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The last chapter of the study summarises the analyses on the data that were collected and performed from the introductory chapter to chapter 4 is provided. Also, this chapter discusses the theory's implication, study's limitations, including several recommendations for future researchers or academicians to solve the related constraints. Lastly, the conclusion part acts as a closure for the entire research.

5.1 Statistical Analysis Summary

Table 5.1:

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Independent Variables	Sig. Value	Finding
Employee Engagement	0.001	Significant (<0.05)
Self-Efficacy	0.320	Insignificant (>0.05)
Self-Esteem	<0.001	Significant (<0.05)
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	<0.001	Significant (<0.05)

5.2 Discussions of Major Findings

Table 5.2:

Summary of Hypothesis Test Result

Independent Variable	Result	Supported (Reject H0)
Employee Engagement	r-value = 0.531 p-value = 0.001	Yes
Self-Efficacy	r-value = 0.466 p-value = 0.320	No
Self-Esteem	r-value = 0.532 p-value = <0.001	Yes
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	r-value = 0.550 p-value = <0.001	Yes

5.2.1 Relationship between Employee Engagement and Job Performance

H1: Employee engagement has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

As shown in Table 5.2, it indicates a moderate association between EE and JP. The p-value (0.001) is smaller than alpha value (0.01). Hence, EE has a significant impact on JP. This implies that as academic staff become more engaged with their engagement, their JP is also affected. This output has consistency with past research mentioned in literature part. Based on the findings from Bakker and Demerouti (2008), Bedarkar and

Pandita (2014), and Adhitama and Riyanto (2020), engaged workers are expected to exhibit higher JP. They perform better due to positive feelings like happiness, excitement, and enthusiasm. Also, the acceptance of H1 is consistent with the statement from Chanana and Sangeeta (2021) who found out that EE makes workers care about their job contributions during the Covid-19 pandemic. To sum up, the greater the level of EE, the higher the JP will be.

5.2.2 Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Job Performance

H2: Self-efficacy has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

As shown in Table 5.2, this hypothesis is rejected since its p-value more than 0.05. This result is different from what was interpreted in literature review. Although most studies stated that high SE leads workers to perform their duty with more confidence and thus generating greater outcomes, the rejection of H2 implies that when academic staff have high or low SE, their JP are not significantly affected. Based on this research, it shows that academic staff had low confidence level as they felt difficult and challenging to handle online tasks during the pandemic. They also felt that they lack of sufficient technical skills to work with the university, such as using online working methods to meet with the management to discuss their academic progress. However, all these issues may not have direct impact on their JP. SE appears to be more of a capability to forecast one's JP than a belief in one's talents. Therefore, a decline in SE has no impact on JP since it was possible to presume equal talents. Also, SE is likely to have a negative impact on resource allocation when planning is the main process, which

might impact JP. However, this is a useful, adaptive function for SE rather than a self-debilitating one (Bandura & Locke, 2003).

Besides that, there are few studies showed that SE has no significant impact on JP. For instance, Spaan (2021) mentioned that there is no direct linkage between SE and JP. Also, Ambarita and Hanafi (2021) found out that JP is only influenced by the condition of workplace and is not impacted clearly by the level of workers' SE. According to Razak (2021), it did not support the idea that more SE would cause higher JP. It indicated that SE was positively correlated with JP, but this relationship was not statistically significant. JP is unrelated to one's capacity for doing the duty and level of self-assurance. Employees often lose the meaning of their skills when doing their jobs, or it might be that they act in less intelligent ways, which lowers the value of their work. In other words, workers who conduct themselves less professionally do not significantly improve work output. Therefore, it can be concluded that SE has no significant impact on JP.

5.2.3 Relationship between Self-Esteem and Job Performance

H3: Self-Esteem has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

As shown in Table 5.2, it shows a moderate association between SES and JP. This implies that academic staff have strong or low SES, their JP will be affected. Thus, SES has a significant impact on JP. This result is consistent with the interpretation in literature. According to Veerasamy et al. (2013), Atiya (2021), Kumar (2017), Mossholder et al. (1982), Judge and Bono (2001), Hearn (2019), Alavi and Askaripur (2003), and Gardner et al. (2004),

SES impacts positively on JP in the workplace. High SES gives the person confidence and urge to perform the tasks and functions of the job, in addition striving to improve and develop professionally. People with SES feel motivated to carry new tasks or take on new challenges. The more engaged, autonomous, and self-reliant academic staff members are, the more productive they are. This also frees up management time to devote to more urgent matters.

5.2.4 Relationship between Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Job Performance

H4: Organisational citizenship behaviour has a significant impact on job performance of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

It concludes that OCB and JP have a modest relationship. This implies that academic staff's JP is impacted to the extent that they exhibit OCB. It follows that OCB and job success are strongly correlated. This is also consistent with our previous findings mentioned in Chapter 2 literature. As mentioned by Psychogios et al. (2019), Podsakoff et al. (2000), Ariani (2012), Anderson (2020), Evans and Davis (2015), Hui et al. (2004), Vaziri et al. (2020) and Yu et al. (2021), OCB has been connected to individual overall JP in the organisation. OCB can exchange tacit knowledge, foster sharing, and reduce the time to allocate the resources among the employees. It can lead to affect an individual JP such as through an improvement in task quality, goal achievement and greater productivity. Workers' willingness to engage in behaviours or acts outside the bounds of their designated position is referred to as OCB. In UTAR, it was believed that the workplace culture and environment had a major influence on cooperation.

OCB is an important phenomenon in the university setting since trust and the quality of interpersonal connections are two of its main components.

5.3 Implication of Study

5.3.1 Managerial Implication

By conducting this research, we can know that EE, SES, and OCB impact the UTAR academicians' JP significantly during Covid-19 pandemic. To enhance EE, higher education institutions must assign right job to the right worker. This implies that all personnel retention and recruitment efforts can be in line with achieving business objectives. Also, they can follow up on the teaching progress with their staff and collect their feedback regularly to make sure that they can complete job effectively and efficiently. Moreover, universities can offer training programmes for their academic staff to learn how to use the online platform as well as how to attract students to be interest to learn. As a result, they can have sufficient teaching skill and utilise it properly to conduct the teaching process. Universities must build trust in the workplace and believe that their staff can conduct job on time, lead students well, and help students solve problems during the pandemic.

To improve SES for attaining high JP, academic staff can utilise positive affirmations properly to give themselves more power to keep going to work. Academicians can identify their talents and competencies in any field and strive to develop them to build their confidence level. Also, they should learn to tolerate compliments received from others. On the other hand, higher education institutions can raise employees' SES levels by assisting them to identify their proficiencies and weaknesses. Management in

universities should accept the mistakes of academic staff and encourage them to learn from errors when adapting to both online and offline teaching platforms. For the improvement in OCB, universities can establish a workplace that actively promotes OCB. Reports to gauge JP should be prepared regularly to support favourable OCB. Universities can provide non-monetary rewards to academic staff who have appropriate OCB to increase their motivation. Also, the management team can promote OCB through training to educate the workforce on the value of good rapport and connections in the workplace.

Based on the result, although SE has no significant impact on JP, it is beneficial as well for universities in improving staff's SE. Some ways are applicable like designating a team leader as a role model who demonstrates self-efficacious behaviour in the workplace, providing all personnel with chances for professional growth to further boost SE, as well as promoting supportive leadership behaviours among managers and team members. Academic staff can raise their SE at work during the pandemic by creating reasonable goals and studying how other co-workers perform well in teaching remotely

5.3.2 Theoretical Implication

Through this study, we have applied three theories which is behavioural plasticity theory, social cognitive theory, and conservative of resource theory. As the result of the study, these three theories are beneficial to EE, SE, SES, and OCB to the academic staff on their JP.

Through behavioural plasticity theory, staffs have higher levels of SES and can manage their emotions well because they have positive working attitude. When staffs feel confident to carry out their work (higher SES) can reduce

negative emotions and perform their tasks well. Followed by Social Cognitive theory, the staff believe they can complete their job well with their ability. The higher level of SE can affect the staff JP since the staff feels confident to make the decision or believe they can conduct the job well by themselves during the Covid-19 pandemic. Lastly, Conservative resources theory, a higher level of OCB can help the staff get the resources more easily to stimulate their job and can reduce the negative impact (stress) in the bad condition. Personal resources are more important in EE since they can help the staff to improve their individual growth and development, and to reduce the dangers.

Compared to the previous study, these three theories are beneficial for our study in helping to improve the academic staffs' JP through EE, SE, SES, and OCB during the Covid-19 pandemic.

5.4 Limitations of Study

While researching the effect of EE, SE, SES, and OCB on JP of UTAR academicians during the Covid-19 pandemic, there have several limitations to complete this research.

The first limitation would be the participation of the respondents. We just focus on the academic staff from a single private university. Therefore, the result of this research may be unable for generalising to other higher education institutions since they have different structure and management. Apart from this, each of the academic staff has different working hours or not in the office or whether not always online due to the Covid-19 pandemic. The researchers who distributed the questionnaire physically and online needed to take much time to consume the

questionnaire and collected back all the questionnaires, so it caused difficulty for the involvement of every single respondent to fill up the questionnaire.

In addition, insufficient or inaccurate data results might occur due to the respondent's error. Some respondents are not willing to participate in this study as personal information such as working period, monthly salary, or faculty was required to be answered in the questionnaire. Other than that, the questionnaire contained a total of 39 items covered in six sections. Hence, the respondent who agrees to participate in this study needs to allocate some time to answer all the items and it may lead the respondent to lose motivation to complete the questionnaire.

5.5 Recommendations

There are a few recommendations that prospective researchers are suggested to improve and be beneficial for future studies. Based on the result from this study, it is suggested to expand the geographical area of the research study and thus involve more academic staffs in Malaysia. It means that the research can be conducted in a different context such as private colleges, public universities, international universities, public colleges, and other higher institutions in Malaysia. It may help to improve the accuracy of the data. Besides, the researchers also can upload the survey to the university public staff website, send the survey directly to a list of respondents via email or the most direct way is by hiring a market research agency to conduct the data collection process.

Moreover, the researcher suggested that it can keep questionnaires and individual questions short and limit the number of difficult, sensitive, or open-ended questions to decrease burden to respondents. Removing the questions asked for the respondent's personal information such as salary income can increase the participation of the respondents and the completion rate of the questionnaire.

5.6 Conclusion

In a nutshell, 309 sets of survey were collected, consisting of 93 questionnaires that distributed to academic staff physically and the remaining, 216 questionnaires were received through online Google Form. Data obtained were analysed using various data tests through the SPSS system. EE, SES, and OCB were shown to have a significant impact on the JP of academic staff in UTAR. On the other hand, SE has no significant impact on JP of academic staff in UTAR during the Covid-19 pandemic.

REFERENCES

- Abror, A., Patrisia, D., Syahrizal, S., Sarianti, R., & Dastgir, S. (2020). Self-efficacy, employee engagement, remuneration and employee loyalty in higher education: The role of satisfaction and OCB. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*, 29(3), 5456-5470.
<http://sersc.org/journals/index.php/IJAST/article/view/6061>
- Acharya, A. S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., & Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it. *Indian Journal of Medical Specialties*, 4(2), 330-333.
<https://doi.org/10.7713/ijms.2013.0032>
- Acharya, B. (2010). Questionnaire design. *Central Department of Population Studies*.
- Adeniran, A. O. (2019). Application of Likert scale's type and Cronbach's alpha analysis in an airport perception study. *Scholar Journal of Applied Sciences and Research*, 2(4), 1-5.
- Adhitama, J., & Riyanto, S. (2020). Maintaining employee engagement and employee performance during Covid-19 pandemic at PT. Koexim Mandiri Finance. *Journal of Research in Bussiness and Management*, 8(3).
- Adler, M., and Koch, A. K. (2017). Expanding the job demands-resources model to classify innovation-predicting working conditions. *Manag. Rev.* 28, 175–203.
<https://doi.org/10.5771/0935-9915-2017-2-175>

Ahmed, T., Khan, M. S., Thitivesa, D., Siraphatthada, Y., & Phumdara, T. (2020). Impact of employee's engagement and knowledge sharing on organisational performance: Study of HR challenges in COVID-19 pandemic. *Human Systems Management, 39*(4), 589-601.

Aini, Q., Budiarto, M., Putra, P. O. H., & Rahardja, U. (2020). Exploring e-learning challenges during the global COVID-19 pandemic: A review. *Jurnal Sistem Informasi, 16*(2), 57-65.

Akgunduz, Y. (2015). The influence of self-esteem and role stress on job performance in hotel businesses. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 27*(6).

<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2013-0421>

Al-Kumaim, N. H., Alhazmi, A. K., Mohammed, F., Gazem, N. A., Shabbir, M. S., & Fazea, Y. (2021). Exploring the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on university students' learning life: An integrated conceptual motivational model for sustainable and healthy online learning. *Sustainability, 13*(5), 2546.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052546>

Al-Mahasneh, M. A. (2015). The impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on job performance at Greater Amman municipality. *European Journal of Business and Management, 7*(36), 108-118.

Alavi, H. R., & Askaripur, M. R. (2003). The Relationship Between Self-Esteem and Job Satisfaction of Personnel in Government Organizations. *Public Personnel Management, 32*(4), 591-600.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600303200409>

Alvi, M. (2016). A manual for selecting sampling techniques in research.

Ambarita, P. R. L., & Hanafi, A. (2021). The Influence of Self-Efficacy and Work Environment on Employee Performance: Empirical Study on PT Sarana Indoguna Lestari Surabaya. *Open Journal of Business and Management*, 10(1), 263-280.

Andrew, O. C., & Sofian, S. (2012). Individual factors and work outcomes of employee engagement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 40, 498-508.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.03.222>

Anggraeni, A. I. (2018). The effect of psychological contract perceived organisational support, and value congruence on organisational citizenship behaviour: Social exchange theory perspectives. *Calitatea*, 19(162), 67-72.

Anderson, R. M., Heesterbeek, H., Klinkenberg, D., & Hollingsworth, T. D. (2020). How will country-based mitigation measures influence the course of the COVID-19 epidemic? *The Lancet*, 395(10228), 931-934.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30567-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30567-5)

Aristovnik, A., Keržič, D., Ravšelj, D., Tomaževič, N., & Umek, L. (2020). Impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on life of higher education students: A global perspective. *Sustainability*, 12(20), 8438.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/su12208438>

Ariani, D. W. (2012). The relationship between social capital, organisational citizenship behaviours, and individual performance: An empirical study from banking industry in Indonesia. *Management Research*, 4(2), 226.

<https://doi.org/10.5296/jmr.v4i2.1483>

Atiya, M. A. G., Sliman, W. M. M., & Elsebaie, S. R. (2021). COVID-19 stigma and nurses' professional quality of life, self-esteem and performance. *American Journal of Nursing*, 9(6), 206-215.

<https://doi.org/10.12691/ajnr-9-6-4>

Baek, J. W., & Chung, K. (2020). Context deep neural network model for predicting depression risk using multiple regression. *IEEE Access*, 8, 18171-18181.

<https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.2968393>

Basu, E., Pradhan, R. K. and Tewari, H. R. (2017). Impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on job performance in Indian healthcare industries: The mediating role of social capital. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 66(6), 780-796.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-02-2016-0048>

Bandura, A. (1988). Organisational applications of social cognitive theory. *Australian Journal of Management*, 13, 275-302.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/031289628801300210>

Bandura, A. (2012). On the functional properties of perceived self-efficacy revisited. *Journal of Management*, 38, 9-44.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311410606>

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 4(1), 1-44.

<https://doi.org/10.1111%2F1529-1006.01431>

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanisms in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.37.2.122>

Bedarkar, M., & Pandita, D. (2014). A study on the drivers of employee engagement impacting employee performance. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 133, 106-115.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.174>

Behrman, D. N., & Perreault, W. D. J. (1982). Measuring performance of industrial salespersons. *Journal of Business Research*, 10, 355–370.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/0148-2963\(82\)90039-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0148-2963(82)90039-X)

Bergeron D. M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: good citizens at what cost? *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 32 1078–1095.

<https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2007.26585791>

Bhasin, H. (2021). Causal Research - Meaning, Explanation, Examples, Components. Retrieved 9 March 2021, from <https://www.marketing91.com/causal-research/>

Biostats. (2016). Test for homogeneity of variances – Levene’s test and the Fligner Killeen test. Retrieved from <https://biostats.w.uib.no/test-forhomogeneity-of-varianceslevenes-test/>

Bin, A. S. (2015). The relationship between job satisfaction, job performance and employee engagement: An explorative study. *Issues in Business Management and Economics*, 4(1), 1-8.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.15739/IBME.16.001>

Blau, P. M. (1964), *Exchange and Power in social Life*. New York: John Wiley.

Bouckenooghe, D., Clercq, D. D., Naseer, S., and Syed, F. (2021). A curvilinear relationship between work engagement and job performance: the roles of feedback-seeking behaviour and personal resources. *J. Bus. Psychol.* [Epub ahead of print].

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-021-09750-7>

Borman, W.C., White, L.A. & Dorsey, D.W. (1995). Effects of ratee task performance and interpersonal factors on supervisor and peer performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(1), 168–77.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.80.1.168>

Brockner, J. (1983). Low self-esteem and behavioural plasticity: Some implications. In L. Wheeler & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Review of personality and social psychology, vol. 4: 237-271*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Brockner J. (1988). *Self-esteem at work: Research, theory, and practice*. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath & Co.

Carter, W. R., Nesbit, P. L., Badham, R. J., Parker, S. K., & Sung, L. K. (2018). The effects of employee engagement and self-efficacy on job performance: a longitudinal field study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 29*(17), 2483-2502.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244096>

Çetin, F. and Aşkun, D. (2019). The effect of occupational self-efficacy on work performance through intrinsic work motivation. *Management Research Review, 41*(2), pp. 186-201.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-03-20170062>

Chanana, N., & Sangeeta (2021). Employee engagement practices during COVID-19 lockdown. *Journal of Public Affairs, 21*(4), e2508.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2508>

COVID-19/Coronavirus. (n.d.). Retrieved from Statista:

<https://www.statista.com/page/covid-19-coronavirus>

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31, pp. 874-900.

<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206305279602>

Dalati, S., & Gomez, J. M. (2018). Survey and Questionnaires. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-74173-4_10

Demerouti, E., Nachreiner, F., Bakker, A. B., and Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 86, 499–512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499>

Edwards, J. R., & Cable, D. M. (2009). The value of value congruence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 654.

Elengoe, A. (2020). COVID-19 Outbreak in Malaysia. *Osong Public Health and Research Perspectives* 2020, 11(3), 93-100. <https://doi.org/10.24171/j.phrp.2020.11.3.08>

Evans, W. R., & Davis, W. D. (2005). High-performance work systems and organisational performance: The mediating role of internal social structure. *Journal of Management*, 31(5), 758-775. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279370>

Faber, J., & Fonseca, L. M. (2014). How sample size influences research outcomes. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*, 19, 27-29. <https://doi.org/10.1590%2F2176-9451.19.4.027-029.ebo>

Farooq, F., Rathore, F. A., & Mansoor, S. N. (2020). Challenges of online medical education in Pakistan during COVID-19 pandemic. *J Coll Physicians Surg Pak*, 30(6), 67-9.

<https://doi.org/10.29271/jcpsp.2020.suppl.s67>

Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Lian, H., & Keeping, L. M. (2009). When does self-esteem relate to deviant behavior? The role of contingencies of self-worth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(5), 1345–1353.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016115>

Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., Pang, F. X., & Keeping, L. M. (2010). Self-esteem and job performance: the moderating role of self-esteem contingencies. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(3), 561-593.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01181.x>

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. sage.

Gardner, D. G., Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). The effects of pay level on organisation-based self-esteem and performance: A field study. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 77(3), 307-322.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/0963179041752646>

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-Build Theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56, 218–226.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.218>

García-Morales, V. J., Garrido-Moreno, A., & Martín-Rojas, R. (2021). The transformation of higher education after the COVID disruption: Emerging challenges in an online learning scenario. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12*, 196.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.616059>

Glassdoor. (n.d.). *UTAR employee reviews about "low salary"*. Retrieved from https://www.glassdoor.com/Reviews/UTAR-low-salary-Reviews-EI_IE201169.0,4_KH5,15.html

Guoyan, S., Khaskheli, A., Raza, S. A., Khan, K. A., & Hakim, F. (2021). Teachers' self-efficacy, mental well-being and continuance commitment of using learning management system during COVID-19 pandemic: a comparative study of Pakistan and Malaysia. *Interactive Learning Environments, 1-23*.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2021.1978503>

Hakim, W., Nimran, U., Haerani, S., & Alam, S. (2014). The antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and their effect on performance: Study on public university in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. *Journal of Business and Management, 16*(2), 5-13.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.9790/487X-16220513>

Halbesleben J. R. B., Bowler W. M. (2007). Emotional exhaustion and job performance: the mediating role of motivation. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 92 93–106.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.93>

Hassan, Z. A., Schattner, P., & Mazza, D. (2006). Doing a pilot study: why is it essential? *Malaysian family physician: the official journal of the Academy of Family Physicians of Malaysia, 1*(2-3), 70.

Hazzi, O., & Maldaon, I. (2015). A pilot study: Vital methodological issues. *Business: Theory and Practice*, 16(1), 53-62.

Hein, V., & Hagger, M. S. (2007). Global self-esteem, goal achievement orientations, and self-determined behavioural regulations in a physical education setting. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 25(2), 149-159.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02640410600598315>

Hearn, S. (2019, January 11). Performance Management: What Is the Connection Between Performance and Self-Esteem. *Clear Review*. Retrieved from <https://www.clearreview.com/performance-management-what-is-the-connection-between-performance-and-self-esteem/>

Howard, C. (2021). Advantages and Disadvantages of Online Surveys | Cvent Blog. Retrieved 9 March 2021, from <https://www.cvent.com/en/blog/events/advantages-disadvantages-online-surveys>

Hu, Q., Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., Shimazu, A., & Dollard, M. F. (2019). Resource crafting: Is it really 'resource' crafting—or just crafting? *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 614.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00614>

Hui, C., Lee, C., & Rousseau, D. M. (2004). Psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour in China: investigating generalizability and instrumentality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(2), 311.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.2.311>

Hrebiniak, L. G. (1974). Effects of job level and participation on employee attitudes and perceptions of influence. *Academy of management journal*, 17(4), 649-662.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2307/255644>

Ismail, H. N., Iqbal, A., & Nasr, L. (2019). Employee engagement and job performance in Lebanon: the mediating role of creativity. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 68(3), pp. 506-523.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-02-2018-0052>

Järvelä, S., Järvenoja, H., & Veermans, M. (2021). Understanding the dynamics of motivation in socially shared learning. Retrieved 10 March 2021, from <https://imotions.com/blog/qualitative-vs-quantitative-research/>

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits—self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 86(1), 80-92.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.80>

Jon L. Pierce, Donald G. Gardner, Randall B. Dunham, & Larry L. Cummings. (2014). *The Academy of Management Journal*, 36(2), pp. 271-288.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R. L. (1966). *The social psychology of organisations*. New York: Wiley

Kanayo, D. O. (2016). The influence of self-esteem and role stress on job performance of technical college employees. *International Journal of Online and Distance Learning*, 1(1), 58-75.

<https://doi.org/10.47604/ijodl.283>

Kaliyadan, F., & Kulkarni, V. (2019). Types of variables, descriptive statistics, and sample size. *Indian Dermatology Online Journal*, 10(1), 82.

https://doi.org/10.4103%2Fidoj.IDOJ_468_18

Kun, A., and Gadanez, P. (2019). Workplace happiness, well-being and their relationship with psychological capital: a study of hungarian teachers. *Curr. Psychol.* 41, 185–199.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-019-00550-0>

Kumar, N. (2017). Self-esteem and its impact on performance. *Indian Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(2), 142-147.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.5958/0976-1748.2015.00019.3>

Koay, L. S. (2010). HRM practices and employees turnover intention of Private Higher Education Institutes (PHEIs) in Penang: The mediating roles of workplace well-being. Retrieved from http://eprints.usm.my/23982/1/HRM_PRACTICES_AND_EMPLOYEES_TURNOVER_INTENTION_OF_PRIVATE_HIGHER_EDUCATION_INSTITUTES_PHEIs_IN_PENANG_THE_MEDIATING_ROLES_OF_WORKPLACE_WELL_BEING.pdf

Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behaviour and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, pp. 656-669.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256704>

Kovács, Z., & Kálmán, C. (2022). The role of self-regulation and perceived self-efficacy in adaptation to home-office work during the pandemic. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge, and Innovation*, 4(2), 88-98.

<https://doi.org/10.1556/2059.2021.00048>

Krauss, S., & Orth, U. (2021). Work experiences and self-esteem development: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *European Journal of Personality*, 08902070211027142

<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F08902070211027142>

Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.

<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F001316447003000308>

Leal Filho, W., Wall, T., Rayman-Bacchus, L. *et al.* Impacts of COVID-19 and social isolation on academic staff and students at universities: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health* 21, 1213(2021).

<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-021-11040-z>

Li, R., and Ling, W. (2007). A review of the research on work/job engagement. *Adv. Psychol. Sci.* 15, 366–372.

<https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1671-3710.2007.02.028>

Liston, K. (2021). Employee Engagement Models for a Happier, More Profitable Workplace. *Contact Monkey*. Retrieved from <https://www.contactmonkey.com/blog/employee-engagement-models>

Lim, S., Song, Y., Nam, Y., Lee, Y., & Kim, D. (2022). Moderating Effect of Burnout on the Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Job Performance among Psychiatric Nurses for COVID-19 in National Hospitals. *Medicina*, 58(2), 171.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina58020171>

Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). Self-efficacy in the workplace: Implications for motivation and performance. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, 14(1), 1-6.

Lu, X., and Tu, Y. (2015). The short-term fluctuation of work engagement. *Adv. Psychol. Sci.* 23, 268–279.

<https://doi.org/10.3724/SP.J.1042.2015.00268>

Maha Ahmed Zaki Dajani. (2015). The impact of employee engagement on job performance and organisational commitment in the Egyptian banking sector. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, 3(5), 138-147.

<http://pubs.sciepub.com/jbms/3/5/1>

Mahajan, D. S., & Lele, D. S. G. U. (2021). Employee Engagement of Faculties in Management Institutes in Pune During Covid-19 Pandemic. *International Journal of Human Resource Management and Research (IJHRMR)*, 11(2), 53-60.

Manikandan, S. (2011). Measures of central tendency: The mean. *Journal of Pharmacology and Pharmacotherapeutics*, 2(2), 140.

<https://doi.org/10.4103%2F0976-500X.81920>

Mishra, P., Pandey, C. M., & Singh, U. (2018). Scales of Measurement and Presentation of Statistical Data. *Annals of Cardiac Anaesthesia*, 21(4):419-422.

https://doi.org/10.4103/aca.ACA_131_18

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety, and availability and the engagement of human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 11–37.

<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892>

Miller, Janice & Verbos, Amy & Goswami, Ashita. (2014). Employee social cognition and performance evaluation process reactions. *Personnel Review*. 43.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-01-2011-0011>

Morrison, W.E. (1994). Role definition and organisational citizenship behaviour: the importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6), 1543–67.

<https://doi.org/10.2307/256798>

Mossholder, K. W., Bedeian, A. G., & Armenakis, A. A. (1982). Group process-work outcome relationships: A note on the moderating impact of self-esteem. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25(3), 575-585.

Mossholder, K. W., Bedeian, A. G., & Armenakis, A. A. (1981). Role perceptions, satisfaction, and performance: Moderating effects of self-esteem and organisational level. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 28: 224-234.

[https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/0030-5073\(81\)90023-4](https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/0030-5073(81)90023-4)

Mustika, I. N., & Widyawati, S. R. (2020). The Influence of Employee Engagement, Self Esteem, Self-Efficacy on Employee Performance in Small Business. *International Journal of Contemporary Research and Review*, 11(04), 21771-21775.

<https://doi.org/10.15520/ijcrr.v11i04.799>

Motowildo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 475-480.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.4.475>

Naidu, P. (2020). Embracing the new norm; challenges faced by lecturers post Covid-19: A focus group study of lecturers in Malaysia. *Global Business & Management Research*, 12(4).

Nahar, R., Hasan, F., & Khan, F. (2020). Impact of Covid-19 on Private Higher Educational Institutions (PHEI) in Bangladesh: Challenges and Policy Responses.

Nugroho, B. S., Suheri, S., & Hakim, L. (2020). Effect of Knowledge Sharing dan Leader member Exchange (LMX) and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) to Indonesian Lectures' Performance. *Systematic Reviews in Pharmacy*, *11*(9), 972-981.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.31838/srp.2020.9.141>

Obilor, E. I., & Amadi, E. C. (2018). Test for significance of Pearson's correlation coefficient. *International Journal of Innovative Mathematics, Statistics & Energy Policies*, *6*(1), 11-23.

Organ, D.W. (1988). *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: The Good Soldier Syndrome*, Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Ozyilmaz, A., Erdogan, B., & Karaeminogullari, A. (2018). Trust in organisation as a moderator of the relationship between self-efficacy and workplace outcomes: A social cognitive theory-based examination. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, *91*(1), 181-204.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12189>

Pereira, H., Gonçalves, V. O., & Assis, R. M. D. (2021). Burnout, Organisational Self-Efficacy, and Self-Esteem among Brazilian Teachers during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *European Journal of Investigation in Health, Psychology and Education*, *11*(3), 795-803.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ejihpe11030057>

Perkbox. (n.d.). Employee performance: effective techniques to measure, evaluate and improve. Retrieved from <https://www.perkbox.com/uk/resources/blog/employee-performance>

Pletzer, J. L. (2021). Why older employees engage in less counterproductive work behavior and in more organizational citizenship behavior: Examining the role of the HEXACO personality traits. *Personality and Individual Differences, 173*, 110550.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110550>

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organisational citizenship behaviour and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of applied psychology, 82*(2), 262.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.2.262>

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organisational citizenship behaviours: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of management, 26*(3), 513-563.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(00\)00047-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(00)00047-7)

Psychogios, A., Nyfoudi, M., Theodorakopoulos, N., Szamosi, L. T., & Prouska, R. (2019). Many hands lighter work? Deciphering the relationship between adverse working conditions and organisation citizenship behaviours in small and medium-sized enterprises during a severe economic crisis. *British Journal of Management, 30*(3), 519-537.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12245>

Răducu, C. M., & Stănculescu, E. (2021). Adaptability to online teaching during covid-19 pandemic: a multiple mediation analysis based on Kolb's Theory. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(15), 8032.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18158032>

Rahman, H. A., & Chowdhuri, A. S. M. B. (2018). Effect of employee compensation on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): A study on private commercial banks in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 6(5), 848-863.

Razak, N. (2021). How Self-Efficacy Drives Job Performance: The Role of Job Anxiety and Intrinsic Motivation. *Jurnal Manajemen*, 25(2), 190-205.

Research Guides: Organizing Your Social Sciences Research Paper: Quantitative Methods. (2021). Retrieved 9 March 2021, from <https://libguides.usc.edu/writingguide/quantitative>

Redmond, B. F. (2016). Self-Efficacy and Social Cognitive Theories. *Confluence*. Retrieved from <https://wikispaces.psu.edu/display/PSYCH484/7.+Self-Efficacy+and+Social+Cognitive+Theories>

Riyanto, S., Endri, E., & Herlisha, N. (2021). Effect of work motivation and job satisfaction on employee performance: Mediating role of employee engagement. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 19(3), 162-174.

[http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.19\(3\).2021.14](http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.19(3).2021.14)

Recognizing social exchange theory in the workplace. (n.d.). Job Search. Retrieved 1 August 2022, from <https://www.indeed.com/hire/c/info/social-exchange-theory>

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, L. D. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68 – 78.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/110003-066X.55.1.68>

San-Martín, S., Jiménez, N., Rodríguez-Torrico, P., & Piñeiro-Ibarra, I. (2020). The determinants of teachers' continuance commitment to e-learning in higher education. *Education and Information Technologies*, 1-21.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-020-10117-3>

Santoso, P. B., Asbari, M., Siswanto, E., & Fahmi, K. (2020). The role of job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour on performance: Evidence from Indonesian teachers. *International Journal of Social and Management Studies*, 1(1), 22-31.

<https://doi.org/10.5555/ijosmas.v1i1.2>

Saks, A.M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *J. Managerial Psychol.*, 21: 600-619.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169>

Schmidt, W. C. (1997). World-Wide Web survey research: Benefits, potential problems, and solutions. *Behaviour research methods, instruments, & computers*, 29(2), 274-279.

<https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03204826>

Schleicher, A. (n.d.). *The Impact of Covid-19 on education insights education at a glance 2020*. Retrieved from The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): <https://www.oecd.org/education/the-impact-of-covid-19-on-education-insights-education-at-a-glance-2020.pdf>

Schnake, M. E., & Dumler, M. P. (2003). Levels of measurement and analysis issues in organisational citizenship behaviour research. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 76(3), 283-301.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317903769647184>

Schober, P., Boer, C., & Schwarte, L. A. (2018). Correlation coefficients: appropriate use and interpretation. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 126(5), 1763-1768.

<https://doi.org/10.1213/ANE.0000000000002864>

Sendawula, K., Nakyejwe Kimuli, S., Bananuka, J., & Najjemba Muganga, G. (2018). Training, employee engagement and employee performance: Evidence from Uganda's health sector. *Cogent Business & Management*, 5(1), 1470891.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2018.1470891>

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2019). *Research Methods For Business: A Skill Building Approach, 8th Edition*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Van Rhenen, W. (2006). About the role of positive and negative emotions in managers' well-being: A study using the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS). *Gedrag & Organisatie*, 19(4), 223-244.

Shukla, T. (2018). Data Processing. *Marketing research and Data Mining*.
<https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.35660.10889>

Shoaib, M., Nawal, A., Korsakienė, R., Zámečník, R., Rehman, A. U., & Raišienė, A. G. (2022). Performance of academic staff during COVID-19 pandemic-induced work transformations: an IPO model for stress management. *Economies*, 10(2), 51.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/economies10020051>

Smith, C.A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. (1983). Organisational citizenship behaviour: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(4), 653–63.

<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.68.4.653>

Snell, S.A. (1999). Social Capital and Strategic HRM: It's who you know. *Human Resource Planning*, 22(1), 62–66.

Spain, B. (2021). The relation between self-efficacy and job performance.

Stephanie. (2020, July 7). Dunnett's test / Dunnett's method: Definition. Statistics How To. Retrieved March 15, 2022, from <https://www.statisticshowto.com/dunnetts-test/>

Sugianingrat, I. A. P. W., Widyawati, S. R., da Costa, C. A. D. J., Ximenes, M., Piedade, S. D. R., & Sarmawa, W. G. (2019). The employee engagement and OCB as mediating on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 68(2), 319-339.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-03-2018-0124>

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53.
<https://doi.org/10.5116%2Fijme.4dfb.8dfd>

Tambe, S. (2014). A study of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and its dimensions: a literature review.

Taufiq-Hail, G. A. M., Sarea, A., & Hawaldar, I. T. (2021). The Impact of Self-Efficacy on Feelings and Task Performance of Academic and Teaching Staff in Bahrain during COVID-19: Analysis by SEM and ANN. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 7(4), 224.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/joitmc7040224>

Tanwar, A. (2017). Impact of employee engagement on performance. *International Journal of Advanced Engineering, Management and Science*, 3(5), 510-515.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.24001/ijaems.3.5.16>

Tian, X., and Xie, J. (2010). The influence of POS on working behaviours of employees: empirical research on mediating role of psychological capital. *Nankai Bus. Rev.* 13, 23–29.

<https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1008-3448.2010.01.004>

UNESCO. (2020). *Covid-19 response-hybrid learning*. Retrieved from <https://en.unesco.org/sites/default/files/unesco-covid-19-response-toolkit-hybrid-learning.pdf>

Universiti Tunku Adbul Rahman. (n.d.). *Introduction*. Retrieved from <https://utar.edu.my/Introduction.php>

Vaziri, H., Casper, W. J., Wayne, J. H., & Matthews, R. A. (2020). Changes to the work–family interface during the COVID-19 pandemic: Examining predictors and implications using latent transition analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(10), 1073.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000819>

Van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies.

Veerasamy, C., Sambasivan, M., & Kumar, N. (2013). Individual skills-based volunteerism and life satisfaction among healthcare volunteers in Malaysia: role of employer encouragement, self-esteem and job performance, a cross-sectional study. *PloS ONE*, 8(10), e77698.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0077698>

Vu, T. V., Vo-Thanh, T., Nguyen, N. P., Van Nguyen, D., & Chi, H. (2022). The COVID-19 pandemic: Workplace safety management practices, job insecurity, and employees' organisational citizenship behaviour. *Safety Science, 145*, 105527.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2021.105527>

Wang, C., and Chen, H. (2020). Relationships among workplace incivility, work engagement and job performance National Taichung University of Education. *J. Hosp. Tour. 3*, 415–429.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-09-2019-0105>

Wei, Y. C. (2014). The benefits of organisational citizenship behaviour for job performance and the moderating role of human capital. *International Journal of Business and Management, 9*(7), 87.

<https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v9n7p87>

Webster, G. D., Howell, J. L., & Shepperd, J. A. (2020). Self-Esteem in 60 Seconds: The Six-Item State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES-6). *Assessment, 29*(2)

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191120958059>

Widyawati, S. R., Sujana, I. W., & Sukadana, I. W. (2018). The Role of Work Motivation in Mediating the Effect Self Esteem and Self Efficacy on Employee Performance at CV. Alam Tanpaka, Denpasar Bali. *International Journal of Contemporary Research and Review, 9*(11), 21138-21147.

<https://doi.org/10.15520/ijcrr.v9i11.624>

Why employee engagement is key to company success. (2021, October 14). *Firststap*. Retrieved from <https://firststap.io/blog/employee-engagement-key-to-company-success/>

Wray, S., & Kinman, G. (2022). The challenges of COVID-19 for the well-being of academic staff. *Occupational Medicine*, 72(1), 2-3.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqab007>

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal relationships between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational behavior*, 74(3), 235-244.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.11.003>

Xu, F., Xu, S., Zhu, J., Zhou, J., Zhang, B., & Yang, C. (2021). Why and When Do Good Soldiers Behave Unethically? Introducing Conservation of Resources Theory to Explain the Curvilinear Effects of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12, 619657.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.619657>

Yeves, J., Bargsted, M., & Ramírez-Vielma, R. (2019). Professional self-efficacy and job satisfaction: The mediator role of work design. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 35(3), 157-163.

<https://doi.org/10.5093/jwop2019a18>

Yu, J., Ariza-Montes, A., Giorgi, G., Lee, A., & Han, H. (2020). Sustainable relationship development between hotel company and its employees: Linking job embeddedness, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, job performance, work engagement, and turnover. *Sustainability*, 12(17), 7168.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/su12177168>

Yu, J., Park, J., & Hyun, S. S. (2021). Impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on employees' work stress, well-being, mental health, organisational citizenship behaviour, and employee-customer identification. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 30(5), 529-548.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2021.1867283>

Zamarro, G., Camp, A., Fuchsman, D., & McGee, J. B. (2021). *How the pandemic has changed teachers' commitment to remaining in the classroom*. Brookings. Retrieved from <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/brown-center-chalkboard/2021/09/08/how-the-pandemic-has-changed-teachers-commitment-to-remaining-in-the-classroom/>

Zhang, N., Xu, D., Li, J., & Xu, Z. (2022). Effects of role overload, work engagement, and perceived organisational support on nurses' job performance during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 30(4): 901-912.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13598>

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: *Sample Size for a given Population Size*

Population (N)	Sample (S)	Population (N)	Sample (S)	Population (N)	Sample (S)
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	210
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361

Impacts of Employee Engagement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour on Job Performance of Academic Staff in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) during the Covid-19 Pandemic

110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	281
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Appendix 2: *Survey Questionnaire Sample*

FYP Questionnaire:

TOPIC: Impacts of Employee Engagement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour on Job Performance of Academic Staff in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Dear respondents,

We are final year students of Bachelor of Business Administration (Hons) from Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR). We are currently doing our final year project on “Impacts of Employee Engagement, Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour on Job Performance of Academic Staff in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR) during the Covid-19 Pandemic”. The purpose of this research is to explore the factors affecting job performance in an organisation particularly in higher education institution.

There are TWO (2) sections in this questionnaire. Section A is on demographics while Section B covers all the variable in this study. Please read the instructions carefully before answering the questions. Please answer ALL questions in ALL sections. Completion of this questionnaire will take you approximately 5 to 10 minutes.

The information collected will be kept strictly private and confidential. All responses and findings will be used solely for academic purposes. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and willingness to participate in this research.

Research Project Team Member's Details:

Name	Student ID Number	Email
Ang Huey Shin	18ABB06156	hueyshin0514@lutar.my
Heng Se Ti	18ABB06799	stich0228@lutar.my
Lee Sook Yan	18ABB02211	lsyan0124@lutar.my
Sing Xiao Xuan	18ABB05492	singxiaoxuan@lutar.my

PERSONAL DATA PROTECTION STATEMENT

Please be informed that in accordance with Personal Data Protection Act 2010 ("PDPA") which came into force on 15 November 2013, Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman ("UTAR") is hereby bound to make notice and require consent in relation to collection, recording, storage, usage, and retention of personal information.

Notice:

1. The purposes for which your personal data may be used are inclusive but not limited to: -
 - For assessment of any application to UTAR
 - For processing any benefits and services
 - For communication purposes
 - For advertorial and news
 - For general administration and record purposes
 - For enhancing the value of education
 - For educational and related purposes consequential to UTAR

- For the purpose of our corporate governance
 - For consideration as a guarantor for UTAR staff/ student applying for his/her scholarship/study loan
2. Your personal data may be transferred and/or disclosed to third party and/or UTAR collaborative partners including but not limited to the respective and appointed outsourcing agents for purpose of fulfilling our obligations to you in respect of the purposes and all such other purposes that are related to the purposes and also in providing integrated services, maintaining and storing records. Your data may be shared when required by laws and when disclosure is necessary to comply with applicable laws.
 3. Any personal information retained by UTAR shall be destroyed and/or deleted in accordance with our retention policy applicable for us in the event such information is no longer required.
 4. UTAR is committed in ensuring the confidentiality, protection, security and accuracy of your personal information made available to us and it has been our ongoing strict policy to ensure that your personal information is accurate, complete, not misleading and updated. UTAR would also ensure that your personal data shall not be used for political and commercial purposes.

Consent:

1. By submitting this form, you hereby authorise and consent to us processing (including disclosing) your personal data and any updates of your information, for the purposes and/or for any other purposes related to the purpose.
2. If you do not consent or subsequently withdraw your consent to the processing and disclosure of your personal data, UTAR will not be able to fulfill our obligations or to contact you or to assist you in respect of the purposes and/or for any other purposes related to the purpose.
3. You may access and update your personal data by writing to us at hueyshin0514@lutar.my.

Acknowledgment of Notice

I have been notified by you and that I hereby understood, consented and agreed per UTAR above notice.

I disagree, my personal data will not be processed.

.....

.....

.....

Name:

Date:

Undergraduate Final Year Project

Section A: Demographic Information

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each of the question given below.

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Age

18 - 37 years old

38 - 57 years old

Above 57 years old

3. Education Background

- Undergraduate
- Masters
- PhD
- Other. Please state: _____

4. Faculty

- Faculty of Business and Finance
- Faculty of Arts and Social Science
- Faculty of Science
- Faculty of Information and Communication Technology
- Other. Please state: _____

5. How long you have been working for this organisation?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 2 years
- 2 - 3 years
- 3 - 5 years
- More than 5 years

6. What is your current position in your organisation?

Graduate Assistant

Lecturer

Senior Lecturer

Assistant Professor

Associate Professor

Professor

7. What is your monthly salary income in your organisation?

Less than RM3000

Between RM3000 to RM4000

Between RM4001 to RM5000

Between RM5001 to RM7000

More than RM7000

Section B

Independent Variable: Employee Engagement

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each question to indicate the extent to which you agreed or not agreed with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A) and 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I feel strong and vigorous at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am proud to work for the university.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I practise my best skills at work every day.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My supervisor and co-workers seem to care about me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The university motivates me to go beyond what I would in a similar role elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Most of the systems and processes in the university support me getting my work done effectively.	1	2	3	4	5

Independent Variable: Self-Efficacy

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each question to indicate the extent to which you agreed or not agreed with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A) and 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I feel that I can always manage to solve difficult problems at work if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I have the technical background to understand and use the online working methods.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I have the intellectual capability to understand, learn, or use online working methods.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I have patience to get acquainted with using the new digital methods to work with the university.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I feel confident representing my work area in online meetings with management.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I can help students when they experience difficulties in doing a task.	1	2	3	4	5

Independent Variable: Self-Esteem

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each question to indicate the extent to which you agreed or not agreed with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A) and 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I feel confident about my abilities when working online.	1	2	3	4	5

2.	I feel that others respect and admire me.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel confident that I understand my job assigned.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel as smart as others in the university.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I feel good about myself when working online.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Independent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each question to indicate the extent to which you agreed or not agreed with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A) and 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the university.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the university.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I try hard to self-study to increase the quality of work outputs.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5

6.	I comply with university rules and procedures even when nobody watches, and no evidence can be traced.	1	2	3	4	5
----	--	---	---	---	---	---

Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Instruction: Please select the appropriate option for each question to indicate the extent to which you agreed or not agreed with the following statements.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A) and 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I complete my work according to a predetermined schedule.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I complete my work according to university quality standards.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I have skills in the field of work in the university.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I use skills to perform my work in the university.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am responsible for the outcomes of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I can be punctual at work.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I understand the tasks that must be done.	1	2	3	4	5