

SELF-EFFICACY AND
SUBJECTIVE NORMS TOWARD
STUDENT LEADERSHIP INTENTION
IN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES
IN MALAYSIA

TEH ENG HON
CHEONG SZE QI

BACHELOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
(HONS)

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

TEH HONG PIOW

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND FINANCE

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BY
TEH ENG HON
CHEONG SZE QI

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FINANCE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

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PREFACE

It is mandatory for this research project to be conducted in essence to complete our studies in Bachelor Degree of Business Administration (Honours). The topic selected for this research that stroked our interest was “Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms toward Student Leadership Intention in Private Universities in Malaysia”. This topic is emphasized within the higher education sector in Malaysia as it represents the need to nurture future leaders who will contribute to the development of our economy and country. It is crucial for students in private universities to develop strong leadership intention in order to become competent graduates and future pillars of the nation.

In the present day, many students reported lacking confidence and motivation to take up leadership roles, which relates to low self-belief and limited encouragement from people around them. This is linked to the influence of personal capability and social pressure, suggesting the importance of self-efficacy and subjective norms in shaping leadership intention. This research project will better explain the leadership intention among students and the effects of the selected variables. Generally, the independent variable(s) will impact the dependent variable in either a positive or negative way. For evaluation, the sample size of 160 respondents were taken from the students from private universities in Malaysia.

This report contains explanations and linkage from components within the theory related to self-efficacy and subjective norms and how they will affect the leadership intention among students. As a whole, this research acts as a suggestion and proof on the cruciality of improving the current and future potential of students to become effective leaders within the higher educational institutions.

ABSTRACT

Generally, there is an increasing importance of leadership intention among university students in developing future leaders. The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms with Leadership Intention among private university students in Malaysia. In this study, the independent variables are Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms, while the dependent variable is Leadership Intention. The targeted respondents of this study are students from private universities in Malaysia, and a total of 160 questionnaire responses were successfully collected. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software is used to conduct reliability analysis, correlation analysis, and regression analysis to test the relationships between the variables. The results from Multiple Linear Regression analysis indicate that both Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms have a significant positive relationship with Leadership Intention. This study is conducted to contribute to the existing literature by focusing on leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia.

Keywords: Self-Efficacy; Subjective Norms; Leadership Intention; private university students; Malaysia

Subject Area: LB2300–2430 Higher Education

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SE	Self-Efficacy
SN	Subjective Norms
LI	Leadership Intention
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
TPB	Theory of Planned Behavior
DV	Dependent Variable
IV	Independent Variable
UTAR	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
TAR UMT	Tunku Abdul Rahman University of Management and Technology
SUNWAY	Sunway University
TAYLOR	Taylor University
INTI	INTI International University & Colleges
UCSI	UCSI University
HELP	HELP University

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CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1.0 Introduction

The focus of this study is on leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia, particularly in relation to self-efficacy and subjective norms. The discussion of this topic includes key elements such as the background of the issue, the problem being addressed, and the formulation of research objectives and questions. Attention is also given to the relevance of the study and its defined boundaries, alongside a brief outline of how the thesis is organized.

1.1 Research Background

In the 21st century, higher education has become an essential foundation for social, economic, and human capital development (Compagnucci & Spigarelli, 2020). Universities are no longer solely places for academic instruction; they are also expected to nurture students with holistic skills required to succeed in dynamic labor markets (Asefer & Abidin, 2021). Around the world, higher education has been linked not only to knowledge acquisition but also to the development of critical soft skills, such as communication, teamwork, adaptability, and leadership, which employers increasingly demand (De Prada et al., 2022; Mahardhani et al., 2023; Mwita et al., 2023). Clearly, institutions of higher education are indispensable for developing human capacity and supporting sustainable development for future generations.

In Malaysia, the higher education system comprises both public and private institutions, each contributing to the nation's development agenda. As reported by the Ministry of Higher Education (2022), Malaysia has 20 public universities and 435 private higher education institutions (HEIs). Private HEIs have grown dramatically in scale, enrolling 558,692 students in 2023, which represents about 44.8 percent of the national higher education population (Penang Institute, 2025). These figures emphasize how private universities contribute to graduate development, particularly in shaping individuals who combine academic competence with soft skills needed in a knowledge-based economy.

Among the various graduate attributes, leadership has gained increasing attention

(Gigliotti & Spear, 2022). Leadership is generally defined as an influence process, where an individual motivates and guides others toward common goals (Northouse, 2025). It requires core skills such as communication, decision-making, emotional intelligence, adaptability, and the ability to build and empower teams (Bouttell, 2025). Leadership is no longer confined to formal positions, but is seen as an emerging, transferable skill that can be applied by anyone, thereby improving employability, innovation, and collaboration (Gao & Huber, 2024; Huang et al., 2022; Northouse, 2025). People often link leadership to titles, senior roles, or hierarchical ranks, but it is in fact a capability that can be developed and refined with time (Barney & Pratt, 2023). Within higher education, leadership development is associated with building self-confidence, communication, teamwork, and social responsibility (Astin & Astin, 2000; Dopson et al., 2016).

In Malaysia, employers have expressed persistent concerns about graduates' shortcomings in soft skills, particularly in leadership, communication, and critical thinking, which are considered vital for both organizational performance and economic growth (Osman et al., 2025). In response, leadership was identified as one of the six essential graduate attributes in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education). The introduction of initiatives such as the Integrated Cumulative Grade Point Average (iCGPA) and structured leadership development programmes reflects the government's efforts to ensure that students cultivate not only academic knowledge but also leadership competencies (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015).

However, leadership does not develop automatically; it is often preceded by leadership intention, which refers to an individual's willingness and readiness to take on leadership roles (Ajzen, 1991; Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Leadership intention is seen as an antecedent to actual leadership behavior, providing insight into how students translate their leadership potential into practice. Importantly, it is not fixed and can be developed through participation in student organizations, leadership programs, and other developmental experiences (Kennedy et al., 2021; Smist, 2020). Therefore, examining the factors that shape leadership intention is crucial in higher education, particularly in Malaysia, where gaps in graduate employability remain a concern.

Of the factors affecting students' intention to lead, self-efficacy has been widely studied. It refers to an individual's confidence in their ability to perform tasks and

overcome challenges (Bandura, 1978). As introduced by Bandura (1997), self-efficacy shapes how people approach goals, exert effort, and persist in the face of difficulties. There are four main sources of its formation, namely, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1978). Individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to be more resilient, motivated, and proactive in managing their responsibilities, which affects their overall performance and personal development (Artino, 2012).

Similarly, subjective norms are also central to understanding leadership intention. It refers to the perceived expectations or encouragement from significant others, such as family, peers, or educators, about whether a person should perform a certain behavior. This concept emphasizes how social support and approval shape personal decisions and actions (Ajzen, 1991). Individuals who perceive stronger encouragement from their social environment are more likely to feel motivated and confident in taking on responsibilities (Latimer & Ginis, 2005).

Empirical studies support the importance of self-efficacy and subjective norms in predicting students' leadership intention. Polatcan (2023) found that leadership self-efficacy influences leadership practices through the mediating role of motivation to lead, implying that individuals' belief in their leadership capability can strengthen their intention to lead. University students who perceive themselves as capable leaders are more motivated to assume leadership roles, thereby fostering stronger leadership intention (Wu & Jugovac, 2024). On the other hand, subjective norms describe a leader's perception of appropriate and inappropriate actions based on the expectations of significant others or social referents (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). When students feel that significant others expect or support them in taking on leadership roles, they are more likely to develop the motivation and confidence to engage in such roles (Gatari & Arbiyah, 2018).

Nevertheless, most previous studies were conducted in Western contexts or foreign universities, leaving limited evidence on Malaysian private university students. Furthermore, past studies have often considered self-efficacy and subjective norms separately, without examining their combined role in predicting leadership intention.

In summary, leadership development is a vital outcome of higher education, with leadership intention as its foundation. Self-efficacy and subjective norms are key

determinants of students' readiness to assume leadership roles. As private universities in Malaysia continue to grow in importance, it is necessary to investigate how these factors influence students' leadership intention, thereby addressing current gaps while offering practical insights for enhancing leadership development.

1.2 Research Problem

In an ideal higher education environment, universities should not only cultivate academically outstanding graduates but also nurture talent with the leadership skills necessary to drive societal and organizational progress (Brooks et al., 2024). At the national level, the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2015–2025) identifies leadership as one of the six core graduate competencies, reflecting the government's vision that all graduates should possess leadership skills (Bush et al., 2018). Therefore, the ideal conditions for cultivating leadership intent among students at Malaysian private universities include creating a supportive environment, encouraging active participation, providing adequate institutional support, and addressing challenges such as low confidence and limited opportunities for leadership practice (Ghasemy et al., 2018). In such circumstances, students will feel capable, motivated, and socially recognized, thereby actively seeking and accepting leadership opportunities, laying the foundation for the development of effective leadership in higher education and broader fields (Amadi et al., 2025).

Compared to the ideal situation where private university students' leadership aspirations are based on self-efficacy and supportive subjective norms, the current reality in Malaysia is not optimistic. Although policy documents such as the Malaysian Education Blueprint emphasize leadership as a core competency for graduates (Bush et al., 2018), private university graduates still fail to meet employers' expectations. Research indicates that higher leadership motivation correlates with future leadership positions, the sustainability of leadership careers, and improved career and subordinate outcomes. Conversely, low leadership motivation reduces individuals' chances of entering and maintaining leadership roles (Auvinen et al., 2020). The Malaysian Employers Federation emphasizes that, in addition to academic qualifications, graduates should possess strong proactive communication skills and the ability to actively participate in various

activities, as these skills are currently lacking in many people (Aznan, 2024). In addition, nearly 26.9% of graduates are employed in positions that do not fully utilize their qualifications, indicating a mismatch between graduates' abilities and job opportunities (Redaccion, 2024).

Not only that, but numerous studies have also pointed out that graduates continue to lack soft skills, particularly in leadership, communication, and critical thinking (Ghazali et al., 2025). This indicates that the envisioned objectives have not yet been achieved. A survey of 360 employers found that nearly half of employers rated graduates' leadership skills as “fair,” with only 5.8% rating them as “excellent,” indicating a significant gap between expectations and actual abilities (Tahir et al., 2018). In addition, research from Margaret University indicates that employers value critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork, communication, and leadership skills most highly, but these skills remain underdeveloped among graduates (Osman et al., 2025). A recent survey on employer expectations found that leadership consistently ranks among the most important soft skills new employees should possess, alongside teamwork, adaptability, and emotional intelligence (Sareen, 2025).

Additionally, a study on remote undergraduate physics laboratories revealed that students often avoid speaking up out of fear of “looking foolish,” ultimately choosing to retreat to the sidelines (Rosen & Kelly, 2023). This behavior reflects how a lack of social cognition and self-confidence can hinder their active participation (Rosen & Kelly, 2023). Given that the annual growth rate of enrollment at private universities in Malaysia is approximately 5.1%, the gap between ideal and actual conditions is particularly concerning (Ong, 2015). If the willingness to cultivate leadership remains weak, the channels for cultivating future leaders, especially talent from this important group, will continue to be in short supply (Azlan et al., 2024).

Despite growing evidence suggesting that Malaysian graduates lack soft skills (Nordin, 2025). Empirical research on how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence leadership intentions remains notably scarce, particularly among students at Malaysian private universities. Existing literature often adopts an overly broad scope, treating employability as a universal outcome rather than leadership intentions as a prerequisite for leadership action (Ghazali et al., 2025). In addition, most intention-based studies are conducted in Western or public

university settings or focus on entrepreneurial intention rather than leadership (Bush et al., 2018).

Although entrepreneurship education has a positive impact on the self-efficacy and subjective norms of undergraduate students at private universities (Balder et al., 2020), these findings are conceptually distinct from empirical research on leadership intentions.

First, as of 2023, private university students accounted for 558,692 of Malaysia's higher education enrollment, representing 44.8% of the total enrollment in higher education institutions (Penang Institute, 2025). Understanding the leadership aspirations of this group is critical to scalable leadership development. Secondly, the lack of targeted research means that universities and policymakers lack practical insights into which factors most effectively drive leadership intentions in this context, particularly in relation to self-efficacy and subjective norms (Balder et al., 2020). Without this knowledge, leadership development programs may remain vague and ineffective.

If the gap between ideals and reality is not addressed, graduates from private universities in Malaysia will continue to enter the workforce lacking leadership skills (Wahiza et al., 2013). This not only undermines their own career trajectories but also weakens the nation's overall leadership capacity, impacting Malaysia's economic growth rate (Azmi et al., 2018). Employers may continue to perceive graduates as "unqualified" and unable to handle positions requiring initiative, collaboration skills, and strategic thinking, even if the university ranks highly (UPM, 2024).

To address this issue, this study proposes several feasible approaches. First, academic institutions should integrate inputs from self-efficacy theory. For example, research from American universities has found that leadership simulations and workshops can effectively enhance students' leadership self-efficacy, as these activities allow students to experiment with decision-making and leadership behaviors in a safe environment (Rosch & Anthony, 2012). Second, social reinforcement structures should be embedded to reinforce subjective norms. Examples include peer mentoring, teacher encouragement, and a culture of recognition. Experience indicates that these structures influence the formation of intentions (Ajzen, 1991; Saufi & Hong, 2024).

This research explores the roles of self-efficacy and subjective norms in

influencing students' intention to pursue leadership positions, providing a clearer understanding of these effects. Universities can use these findings to develop intervention measures. For example, higher education institutions that foster positive social norms through their curricula and campus culture are more likely to help students develop stable leadership intentions (Rosch & Collins, 2019). Three authors have emphasized that self-efficacy is a core predictor of leadership behavior, as it enhances individuals' confidence in taking responsibility and exerting influence (Seibert et al., 2004). Ultimately, enhancing leadership intentions through targeted strategies not only equips graduates with employability skills but also cultivates them into experienced leaders. This aligns with national development goals and ensures that the potential of the private university sector is fully realized.

1.3 Research Objectives

This study's objectives are divided into a general objective and specific objectives in order to outline the overall purpose of the research and the key variables being examined.

1.3.1 General Objectives

The general objective is to study the relationship between self-efficacy, subjective norms, and student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study include:

- To examine how *self-efficacy* is associated with student leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia.
- To examine how *subjective norms* are associated with student leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 General Question

What factors contribute to student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia?

1.4.2 Specific Questions

The specific research questions of this study are:

- Does *self-efficacy* have a relationship with student leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia?
- Do *subjective norms* have a relationship with student leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia?

1.5 Research Significance

This study has both theoretical and practical relevance. It examines self-efficacy (SE) and subjective norms (SN) as factors related to leadership intention (LI). From an academic standpoint, the study looks into how these two factors are associated with student leadership intention in Malaysian private universities, addressing a gap in the existing literature. Although earlier research has discussed the influence of these variables on leadership or behavioural intentions in general, there is still limited empirical evidence within the context of leadership among private university students in Malaysia. By focusing on this setting, the study contributes to the extension of the Theory of Planned Behavior in the area of leadership development and helps identify key psychosocial predictors of leadership intention.

From a practical viewpoint, the results are relevant for higher education institutions and policymakers. Leadership is often highlighted by employers in Malaysia as an important but insufficiently developed graduate attribute. Given that a large proportion of higher education students in Malaysia are enrolled in private universities, it is important to understand what shapes leadership intention in this group for human capital development. The findings may assist universities in designing programs that strengthen students' confidence and foster supportive learning environments. Policymakers may also use the results to support strategies aligned with the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015–2025, so that graduates are

better prepared for leadership roles in both organizational and societal contexts.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Relevant theories and prior literature are reviewed in this chapter to provide a foundation for the hypotheses in this study.

2.1 Underlying Theories

The theoretical foundation of this study is built upon Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). In behavioural research, these theories are often applied to explain how individuals form intentions and make decisions.

2.1.1 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

Social Cognitive Theory, which evolved from Albert Bandura's earlier Social Learning Theory, suggests that human behavior is shaped by the ongoing interaction between personal factors, environmental impacts, and behavior itself, a process Bandura called reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1986, 1997). This theory emphasizes not only observational learning but also other key components, including self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) introduced the construct of self-efficacy to describe one's conviction in their ability to perform the necessary actions that lead to specific achievements. It directly affects motivation, perseverance, and decision-making, which makes it highly relevant in understanding students' leadership intention (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020).

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is derived from four main sources: mastery experiences, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion, and physiological or emotional states. For instance, when students successfully accomplish leadership-related tasks, they build mastery experiences that increase their confidence to pursue larger leadership roles. Likewise, observing peers in leadership, receiving encouragement, and managing stress also enhance leadership self-efficacy (Perets et al., 2025).

Despite its prominence, SCT has also faced criticism. Critics have argued

that SCT is overly broad in scope, which makes it difficult to fully operationalize and empirically test all its constructs simultaneously (Munro et al., 2007). Some researchers who use SCT as a theoretical foundation have been criticized for using only one or two concepts from the theory to explain behavioral outcomes (Baranowski et al., 2002). Additionally, there is criticism that self-efficacy may not always translate into behavior, as situational constraints may prevent individuals from acting on their beliefs (Maddux, 2009). However, the repeated use of self-efficacy across educational and leadership domains stresses its validity and relevance.

SCT and self-efficacy have been extensively applied in higher education. For example, Komarraju and Nadler (2013) linked self-efficacy to motivation and effort regulation among undergraduates, while Honicke and Broadbent (2015) showed that self-efficacy significantly predicted academic performance. Beyond academic achievement, SCT has also been extended into leadership research. Hannah et al. (2008) introduced the notion of leadership efficacy, underlining that self-efficacy beliefs enhance individuals' willingness to accept leadership roles and to persist when facing leadership challenges (Bergman et al., 2021). For student leadership, self-efficacy influences whether students see themselves as capable of organizing peers, making decisions, and effectively representing their groups (Phillips, 2022). Ultimately, students with stronger self-efficacy are more likely to develop leadership intention, as their confidence sustains motivation to engage in leadership opportunities (Polatcan, 2023).

Hence, SCT provides a strong theoretical base for expecting that students with higher self-efficacy are more likely to intend to take on leadership roles in private universities.

2.1.2 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behavior, an extension of the earlier Theory of Reasoned Action developed by Ajzen (1991), is a widely used framework for understanding and predicting human intentions and behaviors. According to TPB, a person's behavioral intention is influenced by three main factors: their attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Among these, subjective

norms refer to the social expectations or encouragement that individuals perceive from family, peers, and other significant people, which can influence whether they intend to take action. When individuals feel that the people around them approve of or expect them to behave in a certain way, they are more likely to form the intention to do so (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188, as cited in Armitage & Conner, 2001).

Under the TPB framework, the concept of subjective norms consists of two components, which are normative beliefs and motivation to comply (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972). Normative beliefs involve an individual's perception of what referents (important others) think they should do, while motivation to comply reflects the extent to which an individual is willing to comply with these expectations (Ajzen, 1991). TPB's later refinements also distinguished between injunctive norms (perceptions of what important others approve of) and descriptive norms (perceptions of what others actually do), both of which provide insight into how social influences shape human intention and action (Ajzen, 2020).

Apart from that, subjective norms represent social influence processes that are context-dependent, and their predictive power becomes more prominent in areas where social acceptance and group expectations are salient (Fischer et al., 2019). A study of Islamic school principals in Sabah confirmed that cultural and community expectations, as forms of subjective norms, can determine leadership behaviors in school settings (Said et al., 2024). Therefore, in cultures that emphasize interdependence, such as Malaysia, subjective norms tend to have a greater impact on behavioral intentions (Azmi et al., 2023).

Much research grounded in the TPB has consistently shown that subjective norms are a key determinant in shaping individuals' intentions in multiple contexts (Collins et al., 2011; Rajeh, 2022; Wan et al., 2017). Beyond general behavioral contexts, subjective norms have also been examined in relation to leadership. Chan and Drasgow (2001), drawing on the TPB, identified a "social-normative" motivation to lead, reflecting a sense of obligation to assume leadership roles. For student leadership, for example, if educators, friends, family, or the university community encourage leadership participation or value leadership roles, students are more likely

to intend to step into such positions (Gatari & Arbiyah, 2018).

In this way, the TPB offers an explanation of how subjective norms, as a form of social influence, may affect students' intention to become leaders.

2.2 Review of Variables

2.2.1 Dependent Variable - Leadership Intention (LI)

Based on the TPB by Ajzen (1991), intention is conceptualized as the motivational force behind action, indicating how much effort individuals are willing to put in, and how much effort they plan to put in, to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). Thus, when applied to the leadership domain, leadership intention refers to the willingness and effort that individuals plan to invest in leadership roles, with stronger intention expected to translate into a higher likelihood of holding such roles.

Chan and Drasgow (2001) proposed the concept of motivation to lead, describing it as people's willingness to assume leadership roles, and it strongly resonates with the discussion of intention within the TPB, which represents an individual's readiness to act. Several scholars have noted their conceptual proximity, with motivation to lead often regarded as an antecedent or overlapping dimension of leadership intention. For example, Stiehl et al. (2015) treated motivation to lead as a factor that fosters leadership intention and argued that both concepts psychologically represent an individual's willingness to take on leadership roles. In their discussion, they acknowledged the conceptual overlap between motivation to lead and leadership intention, suggesting that both may be understood as proximal manifestations of leadership motivation (Stiehl et al., 2015). Likewise, Kennedy et al. (2021) exhibited that leadership intention reflects individuals' expressed desire to assume leadership roles, conditioned by motivation to lead. So, motivation to lead captures similar dimensions of leadership intention, since both are considered a precursor to actual leadership behavior.

For student leadership intention, Gatari and Arbiyah (2018) defined it as

the intention to lead, and the students' willingness and effort planned to assume leadership roles, and it is the most immediate predictor of whether they actually become leaders. Similarly, motivation to lead (intention to lead) is defined by Smist (2020) as the "willingness" to lead, and it reflects students' readiness and motivation, strengthened through their participation in student organizations. Huo and Hamid (2025) further explained that leadership intention is the willingness and motivation of students to step into leadership positions within student organizations.

Within higher education, student leadership intention is viewed as an important component in developing future leaders, as students' willingness to lead often predicts participation in leadership programs and election to positions (Kennedy et al., 2021). Komives et al. (2009) asserted that students' leadership aspirations are formed during university years through social interaction and self-reflection. Moreover, students with stronger leadership intentions are more likely to seek leadership roles in their careers, contributing to organizational and societal leadership capacity (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). In this sense, understanding the drivers of leadership intention is essential for universities that aim to nurture the next generation of leaders.

Empirical studies have revealed that leadership intention can be linked to multiple psychological and social influences. In a study of European university students, Wu and Jugovac (2024) found that self-efficacy and leadership experience significantly and positively predicted motivation to lead. Besides, Flanagan and Palmer (2021) showed that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control significantly predicted business undergraduates' intention to pursue leadership roles, illustrating TPB's applicability to leadership aspirations. In Southeast Asia, Gatari and Arbiyah (2018) reported that Indonesian university students' leadership intention was strongly predicted by perceived expectations from significant others, reinforcing the influence of social factors in collectivistic cultures. Mahardhani et al. (2023) observed that participation in co-curricular activities increased students' motivation and readiness to lead, indicating leadership intention can be shaped through university experiences.

Even though the literature consistently demonstrates the importance of leadership intention in predicting future leadership behavior, most studies have focused on Western contexts, foreign universities, or workplace leadership aspirations. Empirical evidence on student leadership intentions in Malaysian private universities remains scarce. Since cultural values and social expectations can shape how leadership intention develops, examining this context is important. At the same time, students in Malaysian private universities operate in competitive environments where leadership skills are increasingly valued for employability. Investigating leadership intention in this context can provide useful insights into how self-efficacy and subjective norms, as key psychological and social influences, shape students' readiness to take on leadership roles during and after their university studies.

2.2.2 Independent Variable - Self-Efficacy (SE)

Self-efficacy, as defined by Bandura (1997), reflects an individual's confidence in their capacity to manage and execute actions in order to attain intended outcomes. In other words, it represents people's confidence in their ability to successfully handle tasks and challenges (Bandura, 1997). According to Schunk and DiBenedetto (2020), self-efficacy means the perceived capability of an individual to learn or perform actions at a certain level, and it also determines how individuals think, feel, and behave in the face of challenges. Gist and Mitchell (1992) further emphasized that individuals with strong self-efficacy beliefs are more motivated to initiate action, devote greater effort to their tasks, and persist even when encountering difficulties.

When applied to leadership, self-efficacy refers to confidence in performing leadership tasks such as influencing others, setting direction, and solving problems (McCormick, 2001). According to Hoyt et al. (2003), leadership self-efficacy enhances individuals' willingness to take on leadership responsibilities by reducing fear of failure and increasing resilience in group settings. Similarly, Anderson et al. (2008) highlighted that leadership self-efficacy influences behaviors such as adaptability,

motivation, and persistence when facing challenges. Individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more motivated to pursue leadership opportunities, demonstrate resilience in the face of setbacks, and are willing to take responsibility (Anderson et al., 2008; Bandura, 1991, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Following that, such individuals have been linked to greater leadership motivation and a stronger intention to assume leadership roles (Amadi et al., 2025; Paglis & Green, 2002; Polatcan, 2023; Wu & Jugovac, 2024).

However, not all findings have shown consistent results. Gatari and Arbiyah (2018), in their study of Indonesian universities, found that self-efficacy did not show a significant relationship with students' intention to lead.

Past studies have produced mixed results, which implies that the impact of self-efficacy may vary under different cultural or situational circumstances. This inconsistency underscores the importance of re-examining its role in student leadership intention within private universities in Malaysia.

2.2.3 Independent Variable - Subjective Norms (SN)

Subjective norms refer to an individual's perceived social pressure from significant others to perform or refrain from a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This perception reflects the expectations and influence of important referents, such as family, peers, or mentors whose opinions matter to the individual (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977). As stated by Peters and Templin (2010), subjective norms are influenced by a person's normative beliefs combined with the individual's motivation to comply with these expectations. Similarly, Ardakani et al. (2020) mentioned that subjective norms encompass personal perception of social pressures to adopt specific behaviors. Bosnjak et al. (2020) further explained that strong social cues, or subjective norms, positively predict a person's intention to perform a behavior.

In collectivistic societies, social expectations from important others impose a stronger effect on individuals' intentions to perform certain behaviors,

pointing to the critical influence of cultural context in shaping motivation and intentional processes (Shneor et al., 2021). Conceptually, individuals who perceive greater social pressure or encouragement from others tend to develop intentions toward a particular behavior. Therefore, subjective norms have been considered an important predictor of behavioral intention, providing a theoretical basis via the TPB for their influence on students' intention to assume leadership roles (Flanagan & Palmer, 2021; Gatari & Arbiyah, 2018).

Nonetheless, meta-analytic results argue that subjective norms may have a weaker effect on intentions than other elements within the TPB framework. Armitage and Conner (2001) concluded that while subjective norms consistently predict behavioral intentions across diverse domains, their influence is typically weaker than that of attitudes and perceived behavioral control. This indicates that although subjective norms matter, their impact can vary in strength across contexts.

This inconsistency points to the need for further investigation, particularly in different contexts. The majority of prior studies have examined intentions in domains like entrepreneurship or occupational choices, leaving leadership intention comparatively underexplored. In the case of Malaysian private universities, where both individual aspirations and social expectations strongly interact, studying how subjective norms contribute to leadership intention remains highly relevant.

2.3 Proposed Theoretical / Conceptual Framework

Independent Variables

Dependent Variable

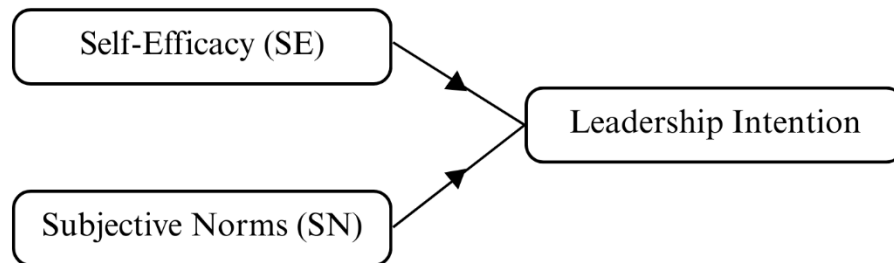


Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework

This study is guided by two well-established theoretical perspectives: Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory highlights how self-beliefs, especially self-efficacy, influence individuals' motivation and behavioural decisions. Within this framework, self-efficacy reflects students' confidence in their ability to assume leadership roles, making it a key predictor of leadership intention.

Meanwhile, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) identifies subjective norms as a key determinant in shaping behavioural intention, referring to the perceived social pressure from significant others. In the context of student leadership, encouragement and expectations from peers, family, and academic staff may affect students' willingness to assume leadership responsibilities.

By integrating these perspectives, the proposed theoretical framework combines psychological (self-efficacy) and social (subjective norms) factors to explain students' leadership intention. This integrative approach provides a robust basis for investigating how individual confidence and perceived social expectations jointly influence leadership aspirations among students in private universities in Malaysia.

2.4 Hypotheses Development

2.4.1 Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Leadership Intention

Research conducted by Paglis and Green (2002), drawing on Social Cognitive Theory, managers with higher self-efficacy were more motivated to lead organizational change and more frequent leadership attempts, indicating a positive relationship between self-efficacy and leadership intention.

In higher education, Polatcan (2023) reported that leadership self-efficacy significantly predicted students' leadership practices, with motivation to lead partially mediating this effect. Similarly, Wu and Jugovac (2024) found that students with higher self-efficacy showed greater motivation to lead, while Amadi et al. (2025) emphasized that leadership self-efficacy is a critical factor in students' willingness to take on leadership roles in campus organizations.

Findings from several studies indicate that self-efficacy is significantly related to leadership intention. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 of this study is proposed to further examine the influence of self-efficacy on leadership intention among private university students in Malaysia.

On the basis of prior empirical research, we hypothesize that:

H1: Self-efficacy has a significant relationship with student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia.

2.4.2 Relationship between Subjective Norms and Leadership Intention

Flanagan and Palmer (2021), in their study of undergraduate business students' career aspirations, highlighted that subjective norms strongly predicted students' intentions to pursue senior leadership roles, reinforcing the influence of normative pressures on leadership pathways. In a similar vein, Gatari and Arbiyah (2018) found that subjective norms significantly predicted Indonesian undergraduates' intention to lead student

organizations, indicating that social pressures and expectations from peers, family members, and significant others strongly influence students' decisions to assume leadership roles. Their findings prove that in collectivist cultural contexts, social expectations may exert stronger influence on intentions (Shneor et al., 2021).

Although only a limited number of studies have directly examined the effect of subjective norms on leadership intention, the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) positions subjective norms as a central determinant of intention formation, and the findings that do exist suggest that the relationship may be significant. The insufficient evidence in this area points to a gap in the literature, suggesting that further empirical research is needed in varied settings.

Evidently, subjective norms have been found to be significantly associated with leadership intention. In situations where students experience strong social expectations from peers, family, and significant others, their intention to assume leadership positions in universities tends to increase.

Considering these empirical results, the hypothesis of this study is stated as follows:

H2: Subjective norms have a significant relationship with student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the theoretical basis for this study, drawing on Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The review emphasized self-efficacy and subjective norms as key factors shaping students' leadership intention. While these variables have been studied in other domains, their combined relationship with leadership intention remains underexplored in Malaysian private universities. Based on this gap, hypotheses are developed to examine these relationships in the present study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology applied in the study. It explains the overall research design, sampling design, methods of data collection, and the tools used for data analysis. Each of these components is discussed to provide clarity on how the study was structured and carried out. By detailing the procedures, this chapter makes sure that the research is transparent, reliable, and aligned with the research questions and hypotheses.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is crucial for ensuring study success, as it must align with the nature of the research question, the researcher's expertise, and the characteristics of the target respondents (Charli et al., 2022). Quantitative research constitutes a structured inquiry involving data collection and interpretation, relationship testing, and measurement validation. It achieves reliability and validity by minimizing errors (Watson, 2015).

A quantitative research approach is adopted in this study. The questionnaire will guide participants to select all possible usage scenarios and patterns from predetermined options, thereby obtaining standardized data. By adopting this quantitative design, the research not only provides empirical evidence on how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence leadership intention but also offers actionable insights for higher education institutions to cultivate future student leaders through targeted interventions.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

The data collection stage is essential in this research because it supplies the evidence needed to analyse relationships between the research variables. As Kara (2020) emphasizes, selecting appropriate data collection methods ensures that the information obtained is both valid and reliable in achieving research objectives.

This study makes use of two types of data, namely primary data and secondary data.

3.2.1 Primary Data

In research, primary data refers to information collected directly from original sources by researchers, without relying on any existing secondary data. According to guidelines for research, primary data constitutes direct evidence closely tied to specific research questions, thus exhibiting high relevance and contextual specificity (Kabir, 2016). Common collection methods include surveys, in-depth interviews, and direct observation, all enabling researchers to obtain detailed, reliable feedback from target populations (Hox & Boeije, 2005). This study will collect primary data by distributing structured closed-ended questionnaires to students at selected private universities. This approach is appropriate because it collects quantitative data that can be systematically analysed to examine how self-efficacy and subjective norms relate to student leadership intention.

One advantage of primary data is that researchers can fully control the design and implementation of the data collection process, thereby reducing the risk of inaccuracies or biases that may arise in secondary data (Longe, 2020). Furthermore, as primary data is original and has not been analyzed by other scholars, it can provide unique insights relevant to the research objectives. Consequently, primary data collection is considered the most appropriate method, ensuring both the accuracy and validity of the research findings.

3.2.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data refers to information that has been collected and made publicly available by other researchers, institutions, or organizations, rather than data directly generated by the current study (Sindin, 2017). Secondary data forms the foundation of existing knowledge systems and can be reinterpreted to serve new research objectives (Martins et al., 2018). Hox and Boeije similarly clarify that secondary data encompasses both published and unpublished sources, including books, government reports, statistical databases, academic journals, and research papers, all of which

can be reused to conduct new analyses (Hox & Boeije, 2005). For this study, secondary data holds value in supplementing primary findings by providing contextual information, theoretical underpinnings, and existing research evidence on topics such as self-efficacy, subjective norms, and leadership intention among student populations.

This study will collect secondary data from peer-reviewed journal articles, conference proceedings, and digital academic databases. These resources help broaden the scope of research by providing insights into existing trends, validated measurement scales, and conceptual frameworks to guide analysis. Incorporating secondary data improves the credibility of the findings and links the study to the wider body of academic literature. When used alongside primary data, it enables a more holistic and balanced understanding of the research questions.

3.3 Sampling Design

3.3.1 Target Population

This study focuses on students enrolled in private universities in Malaysia as the target population. Surveying a broader student cohort enables a more comprehensive understanding of leadership intent, as it captures perspectives from both those with leadership experience and those without. This inclusive approach ensures the research reflects not only the views of students already inclined toward leadership but also considers the potential barriers and motivations of those hesitant to assume leadership roles.

As emphasized by Komives et al. (2005), leadership identity develops through ongoing exposure and practice. This implies that even students lacking leadership experience can offer valuable insights into their willingness or reluctance to assume leadership roles. In Malaysia, private universities constitute a vital component of the higher education system, making significant contributions to producing graduates equipped with employability and leadership-related competency (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2022). Consequently, focusing on the student population of private universities provides an appropriate setting for exploring how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence leadership

intention. By defining this target population, the study ensures its findings present a balanced and meaningful representation of leadership intention characteristics among Malaysian private university students.

3.3.2 Sampling Frame and Sampling Location

According to Goodman et al. (2012), a sampling frame refers to the source list from which research units are selected. Students from private universities in Malaysia are included in the sampling framework of this study, whether or not they have leadership experience. Despite the absence of an official centralized directory covering all private university student leaders, the study will employ multiple strategies to construct an approximate sampling frame. Specific measures include consulting the official websites of selected private universities, contacting student affairs departments, and reaching out to student organizations through social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn. By directly engaging university student unions and clubs, this study aims to ensure that the sample closely represents the target population, thereby minimizing the potential for sampling frame error.

The sampling location is private universities in Malaysia, which are projected to reach 867,000 students by 2025, with an annual growth rate of 5.1% (Penang Institute, 2025). Focusing on private universities aligns with the argumentative logic presented in the problem statement: this sector represents the fastest-growing segment within Malaysia's higher education landscape, yet research indicates its graduates are frequently perceived as lacking critical soft skills, particularly leadership competencies (Ghazali et al., 2025). Therefore, by collecting data on students from Malaysian private universities, this study not only gains insights into a critical cohort of future graduates but also provides contextually relevant evidence for developing leadership development programs tailored to the private higher education sector.

3.3.3 Sampling Elements

A sampling unit refers to an individual analytical unit selected from the target population for measurement purposes (Sekaran et al., 2016). The sampling unit for this study comprises students from private universities in Malaysia, regardless of whether they have held formal leadership positions.

The broader sampling unit was chosen because leadership intention is not confined solely to students with leadership experience. Rather, it can emerge among all students as it develops alongside increased self-efficacy and is influenced by subjective norms. By surveying the entire student population, a more comprehensive and balanced understanding of leadership intention is developed through examining the influence of self-efficacy and subjective norms in this study. Consequently, each respondent represents one sampling unit, and their survey responses reflect their cognitive and practical perspectives as students within the private university context.

3.3.4 Sampling Technique

Sampling techniques are typically categorized into two types, probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Taherdoost, 2016). Under probability sampling, selection is based on known probabilities for all members of the target population, which increases the likelihood that the sample accurately represents the population. Conversely, in non-probability sampling, the probability of selection is either unknown or cannot be precisely determined (Sakshaug et al., 2019).

Due to the absence of a centralized sampling framework covering all students in Malaysian private universities, this study uses a non-probability sampling approach. In particular, purposive sampling is adopted because it enables the researcher to deliberately select respondents relevant to the research objectives. In this case, this refers to private university students regardless of their prior leadership experience. This approach is appropriate because leadership intention is not confined to students who have already held leadership positions. Instead, it may develop across a broader student population influenced by factors, for example, self-efficacy and subjective norms. By purposefully targeting students from different faculties and academic years, this study captures diverse perspectives and ensures meaningful insights into leadership intention (Etikan, 2016).

Furthermore, purposive sampling is widely employed in leadership and educational research requiring respondents to possess specific characteristics (Cash et al., 2021; Etikan, 2016). By focusing on students at

private universities, this method ensures that only individuals who meet the target criteria (students from private universities in Malaysia) are surveyed., aligning closely with the objectives of this study.

3.3.5 Sampling Size

Table 3.1

Table for sample size based on the desired accuracy source

TABLE 1
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
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	310
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
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	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.

Sample size determination tables, such as those by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), suggest sampling approximately 384 respondents when the population size exceeds 20,000 with a 95% confidence level and a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$. Given that the estimated enrollment of private universities in Malaysia stands at 558,692 (Penang Institute, 2023), a sample size of

384 ensures sufficient statistical power. The study applies multiple regression analysis to explore the effects of self-efficacy and subjective norms on students' leadership intention. According to Cohen (1992), this sample size adequately detects medium to large effect sizes in correlation and regression analyses, thereby ensuring statistically reliable and valid insights. To enhance the robustness of findings, this study will employ purposive sampling across multiple private universities, supplemented by oversampling strategies to compensate for incomplete or invalid responses. Furthermore, appropriate statistical techniques such as bootstrapping and robust standard errors will be utilized to strengthen the validity of analyses.

3.4 Research Instrument

3.4.1 Questionnaire Design

In designing this study's questionnaire, all items were meticulously adapted and developed based on established measurement frameworks from leadership and behavioral intention research to ensure clarity, conciseness, and comprehensiveness (Robbins, 1999). The questionnaire structure was designed to minimize misunderstandings and enhance respondent comprehension, thereby improving the reliability and validity of data collection (Bryman, 2016).

To ensure ethical compliance, a cover page stating the research purpose was included on the questionnaire's front page, along with a confidentiality pledge and a record of informed consent obtained prior to participation. To uphold ethical standards, the questionnaire includes a cover page stating the research purpose and theme, assures respondents of confidentiality, and records informed consent prior to participation. Respondent consent forms are documented to collect information without violating privacy, while also serving as the legal basis for investigators to gather data.

Section A of the questionnaire comprises five demographic questions: gender, age, grade level, institution of study, and major field. These

closed-ended questions are designed to reduce respondent fatigue and ensure standardization, thereby facilitating simpler data coding and analysis (Brace, 2018). This section helps categorize respondents into relevant groups, supporting a more precise interpretation of research findings. Additionally, this technique aims to reduce the cognitive load and attention expenditure required for respondents to formulate answers during the initial stages of the questionnaire. Its simplicity makes it most suitable for the opening section, effectively stimulating respondent engagement and encouraging their commitment to answering subsequent questions.

Section B focuses on the dependent variable, leadership intention. It comprises 10 items measured using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale is widely recognized for its validity in measuring attitudes, cognition, and behavioral intentions (Joshi et al., 2015). The questions in this section aim to capture students' willingness to assume leadership roles in both academic and extracurricular activities. Section C measures the independent variables, self-efficacy, and subjective norms. Each comprises 10 items for a total of 20 items. These also utilize a five-point Likert scale.

3.4.2 Pilot Studies

After the questionnaire was finalized, it was distributed to students from private universities in Malaysia. In total, 160 responses were collected. Before participating, all respondents provided informed consent through the Google Form.

The distribution of the questionnaire began on 5 February 2026. It was sent to students from private universities in Malaysia, who were identified as the target respondents. The survey link was shared through different channels, including face-to-face sharing and social media platforms such as WhatsApp, Facebook, and Instagram. These channels were used to increase accessibility and improve the response rate. The data collection process took around two months. After the collection was completed, all responses were compiled and the data analysis was conducted on 3 March 2026.

Data analysis was performed using SPSS version 26.0. Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the internal consistency of the measurement items. A

reliability value between 0.80 and 0.90 is generally considered good based on the rule of thumb. The dependent variable, leadership intention, recorded a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.896. The independent variables, self-efficacy ($\alpha = 0.884$) and subjective norms ($\alpha = 0.891$), also showed good reliability. Overall, all constructs demonstrated acceptable internal consistency and were suitable for further analysis.

Table 3.2 Cronbach's Alpha Rule of Thumb

Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
$\alpha \geq 0.90$	Excellent
$0.80 \leq \alpha < 0.90$	Good
$0.70 \leq \alpha < 0.80$	Acceptable
$0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.70$	Questionable
$0.50 \leq \alpha < 0.60$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.50$	Unacceptable

Source: Sekaran and Bougie (2016)

Table 3.3: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Test

Type of the Variable	Name of the Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Test
Dependent Variable	Leadership Intention	10	0.896	Good
Independent Variable	Self-Efficacy	10	0.884	Good
Independent Variable	Subjective Norms	10	0.891	Good

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

3.5 Construct Measurement

Construct measurement aims to ensure research findings align with intended constructs by clearly defining theoretical concepts and employing reliable and valid measurement methods (Crook et al., 2009). In this study, construct measurement is crucial for minimizing potential measurement errors and

generating accurate analytical results.

3.5.1 Scale of Measurement

Measurement scales can be defined as the manner in which data is grouped based on its type and characteristics (Mishra et al., 2018). This study employs three measurement scales: nominal, ordinal, and interval (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019).

3.5.1.1 Nominal Scale

On nominal scales, numbers or other markers serve solely as identifiers, carrying no numerical or ordinal meaning (Idika et al., 2023). In such scales, data are divided into mutually exclusive and exhaustive categories to ensure each response belongs to only one category (Joshi et al., 2015). According to Arsenijevic and Borik (2020), gender falls under the nominal scale category because it defines grammatical agreement patterns and latent category expressions through noun classification, thereby establishing a classification system within the noun domain. Therefore, gender is measured using a nominal scale.

Example of nominal scale:

Gender:

() Male

() Female

c

3.5.1.2 Ordinal Scale

An ordinal scale is a measurement scale that ranks data in order or hierarchy, but the categories are not equally spaced (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). This means that while it can distinguish between the relative strengths or weaknesses of categories, it cannot precisely quantify the differences between them (Forrest & Andersen, 1986). The numbers themselves do not represent values as such but rather assign data within a group to a specific rank or sequence based on particular characteristics. According to Warner (2008), age groups are measured using an ordinal scale. Therefore, age groups are measured using an ordinal scale.

Example of ordinal scale:

- Age:**
- () 18 – 20 years old
 - () 21 – 23 years old
 - () 24 – 26 years old
 - () 27 years old and above

3.5.1.3 Interval Scale

In addition to nominal and ordinal measurement levels, this study uses a five-point Likert scale, which is classified as an interval-level measurement. Compared with ordinal scales, interval scales assume equal spacing between response options, which allows for more precise interpretation of respondents' attitudes (Brown, 2011).

The Likert scale is commonly used to capture both categorical responses and variations in intensity toward a particular construct (Brace, 2018). In this study, the scale consists of five response options: "1 = Strongly Disagree," "2 = Disagree," "3 = Neutral," "4 = Agree," and "5 = Strongly Agree." This measurement scale is used in Sections B and C of the questionnaire to measure both dependent and independent variables.

Example of interval scale:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I intend to take on leadership roles in the future.	1	2	3	4	5

3.5.2 Measurement of Dependent Variable and Independent Variables

3.5.2.1 Leadership Intention (Dependent Variable)

Leadership intention is defined as a student's willingness to assume a leadership role and their planned effort to do so, serving as the most direct indicator for predicting whether they will become leaders (Gatari & Arbiyah, 2018). It reflects a student's proactive approach to influencing,

directing, and managing others, often shaped by personal confidence and external encouragement. We assessed leadership intention through a 10-item scale adapted from multiple authors, including Ajzen (2006), Chan and Drasgow (2001), and Kirpik (2020). The questionnaire items are as follows: 'I intend to take on leadership roles in the future.', 'I will try to become a student leader during my studies.', 'I expect to participate in leadership positions at my university.', 'Becoming a leader is something I plan to pursue.', 'Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.', 'I am the type of person who likes to lead others.', 'I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.', 'I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.', 'I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.', 'I am willing to be the leader of a group.'

3.5.2.2 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as a person's belief in their capability to organise and perform the actions required to reach intended outcomes. In other words, it reflects an individual's confidence in their ability to successfully handle tasks and challenges (Bandura, 1997). Build confidence in students' ability to take on leadership responsibilities, solve problems, and inspire their peers, which strengthens their willingness to lead. We assessed the impact of self-efficacy on leadership intention using 10 questions drawn from the study by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The questionnaire items are: 'I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my leadership role if I try hard enough.', 'If someone opposes me in a leadership context, I can find the means and ways to achieve my goals.', 'It is easy for me to stick to my leadership aims and accomplish my goals as a student leader.', 'I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my leadership responsibilities.', 'Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my role as a leader.', 'I can solve most leadership-related problems if I invest the necessary effort.', 'I can remain calm when facing leadership difficulties because I can rely on my abilities.', 'When I am confronted with leadership problems, I can usually find several solutions.', 'If I face trouble in my leadership role, I can usually think of a solution.', 'I can usually

handle whatever leadership challenges come my way.’

3.5.2.3 Subjective Norms

Subjective norms refer to the social norms that individuals perceive as coming from significant others and that require them to take or not take certain actions (Ajzen, 1991). When students perceive that their social environment values and supports their participation in leadership roles, they are more likely to have a stronger desire to participate in student leadership activities. We assessed the impact of subjective norms on leadership intention using 10 questions drawn from studies by Ajzen (2006), Fenech et al. (2019), Jaipong and Siripipatthanakul (2025), and Jalalian et al. (2010). The questionnaire items are as follows: ‘Most people who are important to me think that I should take on leadership roles during my university studies.’, ‘People whose opinions I value believe that I should assume leadership responsibilities in student activities.’, ‘My close friends expect me to participate in student leadership.’, ‘My family thinks I should take on leadership responsibilities at university.’, ‘Most students like me have taken leadership roles during their time at university.’, ‘Many of my peers are involved in student leadership activities.’, ‘I feel a sense of belonging when I participate in leadership activities that my peers are also involved in.’, ‘I feel under social pressure to take on leadership responsibilities.’, ‘I am expected to be involved in student leadership.’, ‘People who are important to me want me to step into leadership roles.’

3.6 Data Processing

Data processing refers to the process of collecting raw information from a survey and converting it into usable information (Duggal, 2024). To maintain the accuracy and completeness of the data, all collected responses are reviewed and screened for consistency. After that, the data are prepared through editing and coding to make them suitable for analysis. Finally, the processed data are used for hypothesis testing.

3.6.1 Data Checking

Data checking is important for ensuring research data quality. It involves verifying that dataset entries are correct, complete, and free of duplication,

misinterpretation, or errors, which help prevent incompatible or misleading results (Barchard et al., 2019; Barchard & Verenikina, 2013). After survey data collection is complete, the verification process confirms that data originates from the appropriate respondents, detects missing or irrelevant entries, and removes duplicate or erroneous information before analysis. While thorough verification can be time-consuming, it is essential to minimize errors, maintain the meaning of the findings, and safeguard the integrity of the research objectives. For example, copying, visual inspection, or reading aloud (Vale, 2023).

3.6.2 Data Editing

The following procedure after data checking is data editing, which involves verifying, revising, and correcting erroneous or missing responses to ensure data quality and thus enhance the validity and credibility of the research (Kumar, 2023). The primary goal of data editing is to ensure the accuracy, consistency, and comprehensiveness of the dataset, thereby minimizing unsatisfactory or incomplete responses (Hoogland et al., 2011). Editing can be performed at various stages of data collection or analysis, such as correcting obvious errors, filling in missing data using patterns among respondents, and removing duplicate or irrelevant entries. This process can improve the reliability of the dataset and prevent errors that could negatively impact research findings.

3.6.3 Data Coding

Data coding is the process of categorizing or classifying data by assigning numbers or symbols to each response according to its corresponding category (Koo & Yang, 2025). This process simplifies data entry for researchers and facilitates statistical analysis. For example, in Section A, each question was assigned a specific numeric code for ease of processing. Besides, in Sections B and C, Likert-type responses were coded using a five-point scale, where “1” indicates “strongly disagree” and “5” indicates “strongly agree.” After the responses were coded, the dataset was prepared for statistical analysis using appropriate software to examine the research hypotheses.

The answers to questions under Section A are coded as:

Self-efficacy And Subjective Norms Toward Student Leadership Intention In
Private Universities In Malaysia

Q1	Gender	“Male” = 1 “Female” = 2
Q2	Age	“18 – 20” = 1 “21 – 23” = 2 “24 – 26” = 3 “27 above” = 4
Q3	Year of Study	“Year 1” = 1 “Year 2” = 2 “Year 3” = 3 “Other” = 4
Q4	Current University	“Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)” = 1 “Tunku Abdul Rahman University of Management and Technology (TAR UMT)” = 2 “Sunway University” = 3 “Taylor’s University” = 4 “INTI International University & Colleges” = 5 “UCSI University” = 6 “HELP University” = 7 “Other” = 8
Q5	Programme of Study	“Business, Management, Accounting & Finance” = 1 Engineering & Built Environment” = 2 “Information Technology & Computer Science” = 3 “Social Sciences, Psychology & Communication” = 4 “Arts, Design, Creative Media & Music” = 5 “Law” = 6 “Other” = 7

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a systematic process of examining, transforming, and modeling collected data using logical and statistical techniques to generate meaningful interpretations and answers to research questions (Mohan & Elangovan, 2011). The results are presented in tables, graphs, and charts to improve clarity and support the interpretation of findings. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) will be utilized as the primary analytical tool in this study. The analysis conducted included: summarizing demographic data using descriptive statistical methods, assessing internal consistency through reliability tests, ensuring data suitability via preliminary analysis, and employing inferential analysis to test research hypotheses and examine relationships between variables (Cook et al., 1990).

3.7.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is employed to summarize and present the characteristics of collected data, enabling researchers to describe the sample profile and the measurement methods used (Singh, 2016). By converting raw data into frequencies, percentages, tables, and charts, this analysis more clearly reveals patterns and distribution trends within the dataset, thereby making the information easier to interpret (Zikmund, 2003). This study employs descriptive statistics to present respondents' demographic characteristics, which cover gender, age, year of study, current university, and academic programme. Furthermore, descriptive analysis ensures clarity and objectivity in data interpretation, helping researchers accurately identify key patterns and enhancing the reliability of subsequent analyses (Kemp et al., 2018; Lawless et al., 1999).

3.7.2 Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis is to ensure that the data collected via questionnaires are both consistent and dependable. As questionnaires serve as the primary measurement tool in this study, it is necessary to examine their internal consistency to minimize potential weaknesses inherent in relying solely on self-reported data (Beek & Dresen, 1998). For example, questionable reliability. To this end, Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) is employed for measurement. This coefficient assesses the consistency of items within

each construct, revealing whether items collectively measure the same underlying factor (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). A higher α value indicates stronger reliability, signifying that the scale produces stable and consistent results across different subjects. This study will employ SPSS statistical software for reliability analysis, which generates reliability statistics through a structured process.

Table 3.4 Cronbach's Alpha Rule of Thumb

Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
$\alpha \geq 0.90$	Excellent
$0.80 \leq \alpha < 0.90$	Good
$0.70 \leq \alpha < 0.80$	Acceptable
$0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.70$	Questionable
$0.50 \leq \alpha < 0.60$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.50$	Unacceptable

Source: Sekaran and Bougie (2016)

3.7.3 Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis is a statistical method that enables researchers to draw conclusions about a population based on sample data, thereby facilitating predictions, hypothesis testing, and the examination of relationships between variables (Monsen, 2024). This process primarily focuses on two aspects: estimating population parameters and testing hypotheses along with their significance (Singh, 2016). Estimation involves generalizing findings from sample data to a broader population, assuming similar conditions hold. Hypothesis testing proposes a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis. When the calculated test statistic is greater than the critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected, which provides support for the alternative hypothesis.

Common statistical techniques used in inferential analysis include chi-square tests, independent samples t-tests, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple regression analysis, with each method serving different analytical purposes.

In this study, multiple regression analysis is applied to investigate how self-efficacy and subjective norms affect leadership willingness among undergraduate students in private universities in Malaysia.

3.7.3.1 Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is used when researchers need to analyse the predictive effects of two or more independent variables on one dependent variable. This method extends simple linear regression, which assesses only the relationship between one independent variable and one dependent variable, by allowing researchers to simultaneously explore the combined and individual effects of multiple predictor variables (Bobbitt, 2021; Grant, 2023). This study employs multiple regression analysis to uncover how self-efficacy and subjective norms jointly and independently influence leadership intentions among students at Malaysian private universities. This method is used to assess how strongly and in what direction the variables are related, as well as how much of the variation in leadership intention can be explained by the predictors. Analyses will be conducted using the SPSS statistical software package, which provides estimates, significance levels, and model fit statistics, ensuring reliable interpretation of research findings (Schroeder et al., 2017).

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \epsilon$$

Where:

y = dependent variable

β_0 = y-intercept

β_k = coefficient of independent variables

X_k = independent variables

ϵ = error term

Where should this formula have adapted into this research:

$$TR = \beta_0 + \beta_1 IC + \beta_2 IS + \beta_3 IM + \beta_4 II + \epsilon$$

3.8 Conclusion

Chapter 3 concludes by presenting the research methodology and analytical tools used in this study. It covered the data collection procedures, sampling design focusing on students in private universities, the questionnaire as the research instrument, as well as the procedures for data processing and analysis. These methods were carefully selected to examine how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence student leadership intention. The analysis of the collected data

and the results obtained from the respondents' survey will be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data gathered from 160 respondents studying at private universities in Malaysia through a questionnaire survey. The collected data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The analysis consists of descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and inferential analysis to investigate the relationships between self-efficacy, subjective norms, and leadership intention. The results are presented using tables and figures for clearer interpretation.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is applied to summarize and present the main characteristics of the collected data. It offers an overview of the respondents' demographic profiles, including gender, age, and other relevant background information. This analysis helps to identify general patterns within the sample. In addition, the results are presented in the form of tables and figures to improve clarity and provide a better understanding.

4.1.1 Respondent's Demographic Profile

The respondents' demographic profile includes gender, age group, year of study, current university, and programme of study. This provides a general overview of the sample and helps to better understand its composition.

4.1.1.1 Gender

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent (%)
Male	70	43.8	43.8	43.8
Female	90	56.3	56.3	100.1

Total	160	100.1	100.1
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Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

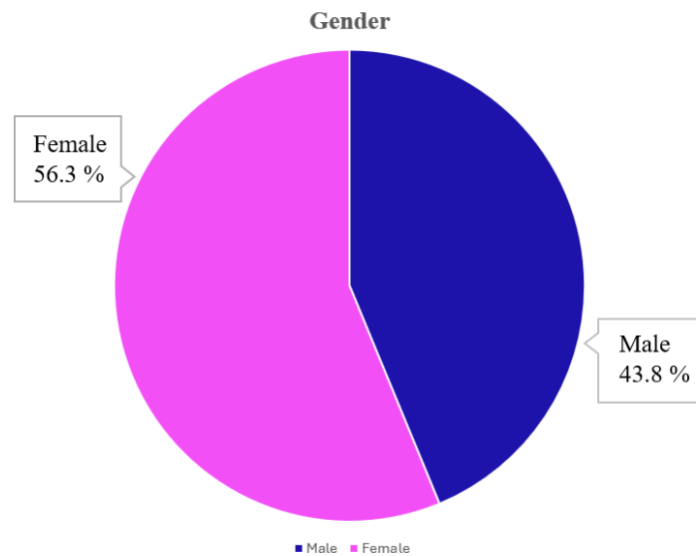


Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Based on Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, out of the 160 respondents, females make up 56.3% (90 participants), whereas males account for 43.8% (70 participants). This indicates that the sample is slightly dominated by female respondents rather than male respondents.

4.1.1.2 Age

Table 4.2: Age Group of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent (%)
18-20 years old	27	16.9	16.9	16.9
21-23 years old	67	41.9	41.9	58.8
24-26 years old	49	30.6	30.6	89.4
27 years old and above	17	10.6	10.6	100.0
Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

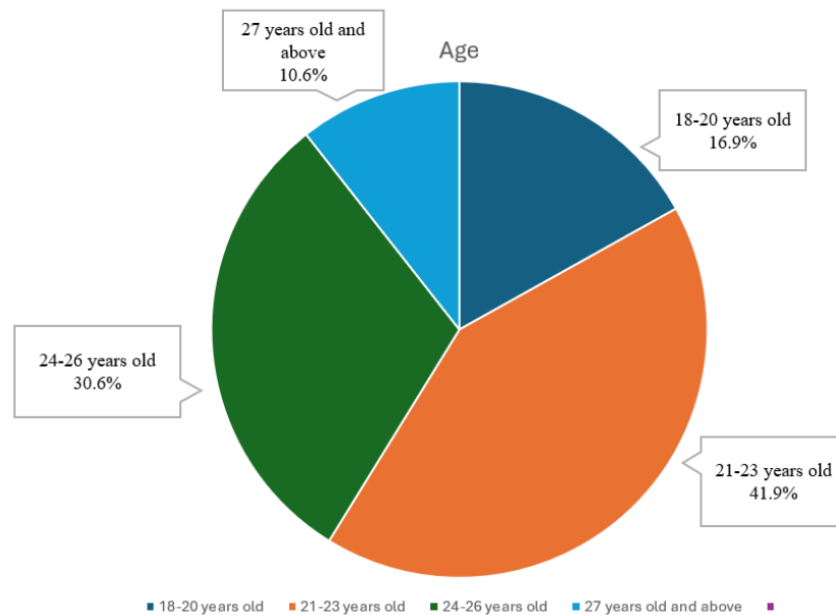


Figure 4.2. Age Group of Respondents

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 show the age distribution of the 160 respondents, which is grouped into four categories. The largest proportion of respondents falls within the 21–23 age group, accounting for 41.9% (67 respondents). This is followed by those aged 24–26, who represent 30.6% (49 respondents). Respondents aged 18–20 make up 16.9% (27 respondents), while respondents aged 27 years and above make up the smallest group at 10.6% (17 respondents). Overall, the findings indicate that most respondents are aged 21–23, whereas the least represented group is those aged 27 and above.

4.1.1.3 Year of Study

Table 4.3: Year of Study of Respondents

Year	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent (%)
Year 1	34	21.3	21.3	21.3
Year 2	79	49.4	49.4	70.7
Year 3	47	29.4	29.4	100.1

Total	160	100.1	100.1
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Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

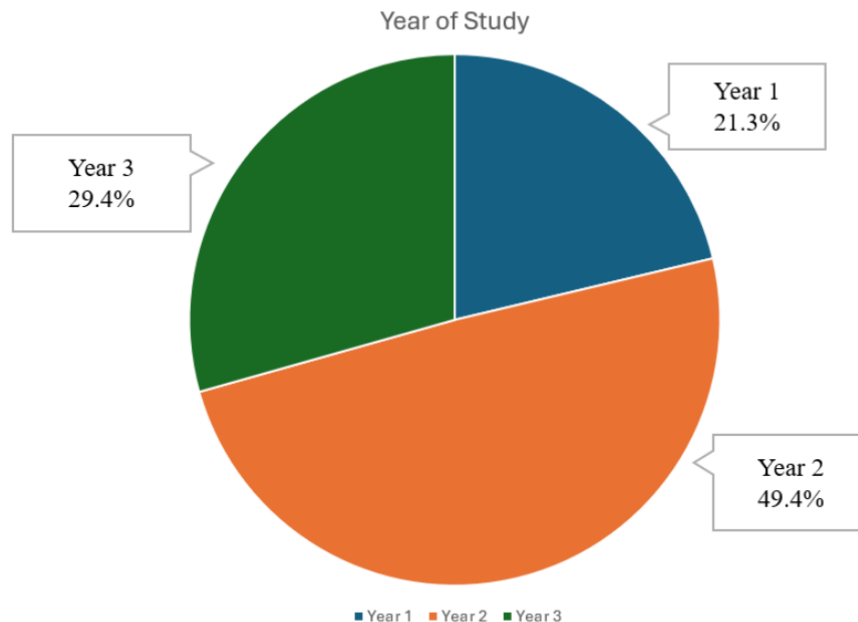


Figure 4.3. Year of Study of Respondents

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 illustrate the distribution of respondents according to their year of study. Most respondents are from Year 2, accounting for 49.4% (79 respondents). This is followed by Year 3 students, who make up 29.4% (47 respondents). Meanwhile, Year 1 students represent the smallest proportion at 21.3% (34 respondents). Overall, the findings indicate that nearly half of the respondents are Year 2 students, making it the dominant group in this study.

4.1.1.4 Current University

Table 4.4: University of Respondents

University	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent (%)
Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	57	35.6	35.6	35.6
Tunku Abdul Rahman	61	38.1	38.1	73.7

**University of
Management
and Technology (TAR
UMT)**

Sunway University	6	3.8	3.8	77.5
Taylor's University	11	6.9	6.9	84.4
INTI International	7	4.4	4.4	88.8
University & Colleges				
UCSI University	11	6.9	6.9	95.7
HELP University	7	4.4	4.4	100.1
Total	160	100.1	100.1	

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

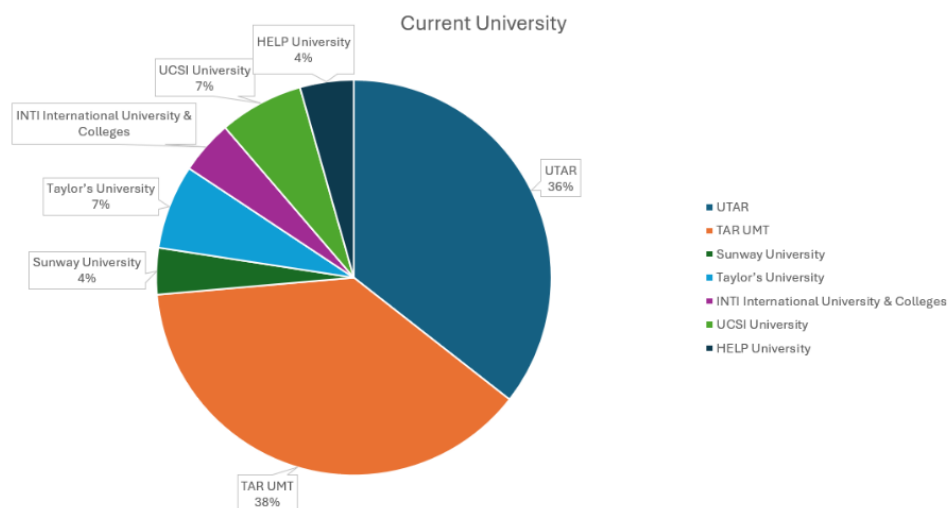


Figure 4.4. University of Respondents

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 illustrate the distribution of respondents according to their universities. The highest proportion of respondents comes from TAR UMT, accounting for 38%, followed closely by Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman at 36%. Taylor and UCSI each account 7% of the respondents. Meanwhile, Sunway University, INTI, and HELP each account for 4%. Overall, the results indicate that respondents are primarily concentrated in TAR UMT and UTAR, while other universities contribute smaller proportions to the sample.

4.1.1.5 Programme of Study

Table 4.5: Programme Study of Respondents

Programme	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent (%)
Business, Management, Accounting & Finance	18	11.3	11.3	11.3
Engineering & Built Environment	34	21.3	21.3	32.6
Information Technology & Computer Science	27	16.9	16.9	49.5
Social Sciences, Psychology & Communication	41	25.6	25.6	75.1
Arts, Design, Creative Media & Music	29	18.1	18.1	93.2
Law	10	6.3	6.3	99.5
Other	1	0.6	0.6	100.1
Total	160	100.1	100.1	

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

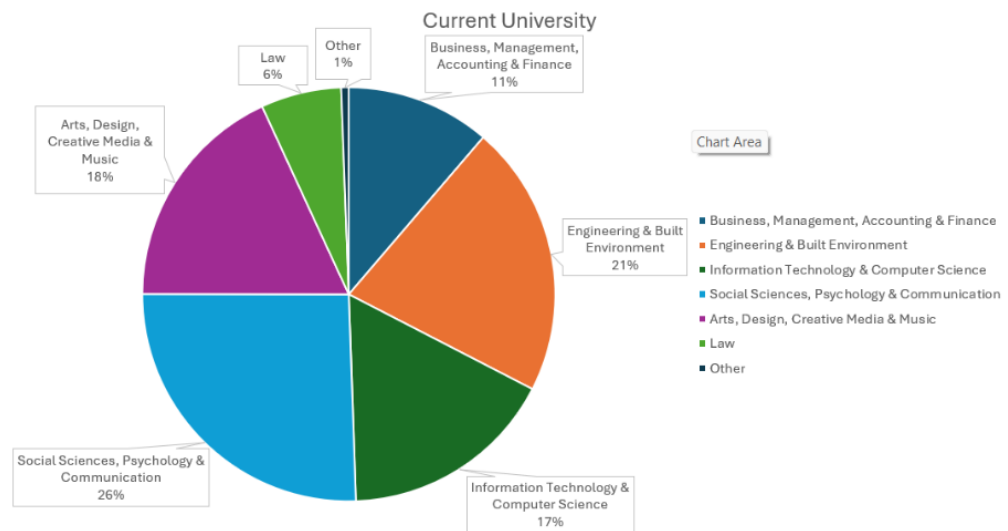


Figure 4.5. Programme Study of Respondents

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 illustrate the distribution of respondents according to their programme of study. The largest proportion of respondents is from Social Sciences, Psychology & Communication, accounting for 26%. This is followed by Engineering & Built Environment at 21%, and Arts, Design, Creative Media & Music at 18%. Information Technology & Computer Science represents 17% of the respondents, while Business, Management, Accounting & Finance accounts for 11%. Meanwhile, Law students make up 6% of the sample, and the smallest group falls under Other programmes at 1%. Overall, the results show that respondents are primarily concentrated in Social Sciences-related fields, while other disciplines are comparatively less represented.

4.1.2 Central Tendencies Measurement of Construct

4.1.2.1 Leadership Intention

Table 4.6: Central Tendencies Measurement of Leadership Intention

Question	Statement	Sample Size (N)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Ranking	Standard Deviation Ranking
LI 1	I intend to take on leadership roles in the future.	160	3.86	1.165	9	4
LI 2	I will try to become a student leader during my studies.	160	3.95	1.154	4.5	5
LI 3	I expect to participate in leadership positions at my university.	160	4.01	1.082	2	8
LI 4	Becoming a leader is something I plan to pursue.	160	3.94	1.114	6.5	7
LI 5	Most of the time, I	160	3.99	1.149	3	6

	prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.					
LI 6	I am the type of person who likes to lead others.	160	3.91	1.168	8	3
LI 7	I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.	160	3.82	1.192	10	1
LI 8	I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.	160	3.95	1.170	4.5	2
LI 9	I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.	160	3.94	1.048	6.5	9
LI 10	I am willing to be the leader of a group.	160	4.08	1.037	1	10

As shown in Table 4.6, the results of the analysis show the central tendencies of Leadership Intention among the 160 respondents. The highest mean score is LI10 (4.08), indicating that strong willingness among respondents to take on leadership roles. This is followed by LI3 (4.01), LI5 (3.99), and LI2 (3.95), respectively.

In contrast, LI7 records the lowest mean score of 3.82, suggesting relatively lower agreement compared to other items. Other items such as LI1, LI4, LI6, and LI9 show moderate mean scores ranging from 3.86 to 3.94.

Regarding standard deviation, LI7 shows that the highest value is 1.192, indicating greater variation in responses. It is followed by LI1 (1.165), LI8

(1.170), and LI6 (1.168), respectively, while LI10 records the lowest level of standard deviation of 1.037, which indicates more consistent responses among respondents.

4.1.2.2 Self-Efficacy

Table 4.7: Central Tendencies Measurement of Self-Efficacy

Question	Statement	Sample Size (N)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Ranking	Standard Deviation Ranking
SE 1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my leadership role if I try hard enough.	160	3.96	1.051	7.5	6
SE 2	If someone opposes me in a leadership context, I can find the means and ways to achieve my goals.	160	3.96	1.123	7.5	2
SE 3	It is easy for me to stick to my leadership aims and accomplish my goals as a student leader.	160	3.89	1.114	10	5
SE 4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my leadership responsibilities.	160	4.01	1.127	4	1
SE 5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my role as a leader.	160	3.99	1.037	5.5	7
SE 6	I can solve most leadership-related problems if I invest the necessary effort.	160	3.93	1.122	9	3
SE 7	I can remain calm when facing leadership difficulties because I can rely on my abilities.	160	4.08	1.003	2	9
SE 8	When I am confronted with leadership problems, I can usually find several solutions.	160	4.02	1.031	3	8

SE 9	If I face trouble in my leadership role, I can usually think of a solution.	160	4.16	0.962	1	10
SE 10	I can usually handle whatever leadership challenges come my way.	160	3.99	1.119	5.5	4

The results in Table 4.7 illustrate the central tendencies of Self-Efficacy among the 160 respondents. The highest mean value is SE9 (4.16), indicating strong confidence among respondents in finding solutions when facing leadership-related problems. This is followed by SE7 (4.08), SE8 (4.02), and SE4 (4.01), respectively.

In contrast, SE3 records the lowest mean value of 3.89, suggesting relatively lower agreement compared to other items. Other items such as SE1, SE2, SE5, SE6, and SE10 show moderate mean scores ranging from 3.93 to 3.99.

In terms of standard deviation, SE9 has the lowest value of 0.962, indicating more consistent responses among respondents. It is followed by SE7 (1.003), SE8 (1.031), and SE5 (1.037), respectively, while SE4 records the highest standard deviation of 1.127, indicating greater variation in responses.

4.1.2.3 Subjective Norms

Table 4.8: Central Tendencies Measurement of Subjective Norms

Question Statement	Sample Mean	Standard Size (N)	Standard Deviation	Mean Ranking	Standard Deviation Ranking
SN 1 Most people who are important to me think that I should take on leadership roles during my university studies.	160	3.89	1.174	10	1
SN 2 People whose opinions I value believe that I should	160	3.98	1.061	6	5

	assume leadership responsibilities in student activities.					
SN 3	My close friends expect me to participate in student leadership.	160	4.13	1.010	1	8
SN 4	My family thinks I should take on leadership responsibilities at university.	160	4.05	0.970	3.5	9
SN 5	Most students like me have taken leadership roles during their time at university.	160	4.06	1.020	2	7
SN 6	Many of my peers are involved in student leadership activities.	160	3.91	1.109	9	3
SN 7	I feel a sense of belonging when I participate in leadership activities that my peers are also involved in.	160	4.05	0.937	3.5	10
SN 8	I feel under social pressure to take on leadership responsibilities.	160	3.94	1.142	8	2
SN 9	I am expected to be involved in student	160	3.97	1.090	7	4

leadership.						
SN 10	People who are important to me want me to step into leadership roles.	160	4.01	1.049	5	6

The results in Table 4.8 present the central tendencies of Subjective Norms among the 160 respondents. The highest mean score is SN3 (4.13), indicating that close friends strongly expect respondents to participate in student leadership. This is followed by SN5 (4.06), SN4 and SN7 (both 4.05), respectively.

In contrast, SN1 records the lowest mean value of 3.89, suggesting relatively lower perceived agreement from important individuals regarding leadership involvement. Other items such as SN2, SN6, SN8, SN9, and SN10 show moderate mean scores ranging from 3.91 to 4.01.

In terms of standard deviation, SN7 has the lowest value of 0.937, indicating more consistent responses among participants. It is followed by SN4 (0.970) and SN3 (1.010), while SN1 records the highest standard deviation of 1.174, indicating greater variation in responses.

4.2 Scale Measurement

4.2.1 Reliability Test

Table 4.9: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Test

Type of the Variable	Name of the Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Test
Dependent Variable	Leadership Intention	10	0.896	Good
Independent Variable	Self-Efficacy	10	0.884	Good
Independent Variable	Subjective Norms	10	0.891	Good

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

Table 4.9 presents the Cronbach's Alpha values for all variables in this study. For the dependent variable, Leadership Intention, the reliability coefficient is 0.896, while the independent variables Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms record values of 0.884 and 0.891 respectively.

Based on the reliability classification, all variables fall within the "good" range, as each Cronbach's Alpha value exceeds 0.80. Therefore, it can be concluded that the questionnaire used in this study demonstrates good internal consistency and is reliable for further analysis.

4.3 Preliminary Data Screening and Data Analysis

Preliminary data screening and data analysis were conducted prior to inferential analysis to ensure the reliability and validity of the data. This step is essential in preparing, organising, and examining the dataset to avoid inaccurate interpretations and misleading research findings (Pulka, 2022).

In this study, the preliminary analysis includes tests of normality and multicollinearity. The normality test is assessed using skewness and kurtosis values to determine whether the data distribution is approximately normal. Meanwhile, the multicollinearity test is examined using tolerance values and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) to ensure that there is no high correlation among the independent variables.

Overall, this stage of analysis is crucial in confirming that the dataset is appropriate for further inferential statistical analysis.

4.3.1 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity refers to a situation in which independent variables are highly correlated with one another, which may lead to biased regression estimates and inflated standard errors. In this study, multicollinearity is assessed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance values.

Research by Menard (2001) indicates that a VIF value greater than 5 suggests potential multicollinearity issues. Similarly, James et al. (2013) also recommend that VIF values above 5 may signal problematic collinearity among predictors. Given that tolerance is defined as the reciprocal of VIF, a tolerance value below 0.2 is equivalent to a VIF exceeding 5. Therefore, this study applies a more conservative criterion,

where VIF values below 5, together with tolerance values above 0.2, are deemed acceptable, to ensure that multicollinearity does not compromise the reliability of the regression results.

Table 4.10: Tolerance Value and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

Independent variables	Collinearity statistics	
	VIF	Tolerance
Self-Efficacy	4.27	0.243
Subjective Norms	4.27	0.243

All independent variables have VIF values less than 5, as Table 4.10 shows. Their tolerance levels are therefore higher than 0.2. As a result, there is no multicollinearity problem among the independent variables.

4.3.2 Normality Test

A normality test is performed to find out whether the sample data has a distribution that is normal to conclude the population (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). To ascertain whether the data distribution is normal, a few tests are performed.

Table 4.11 Normality Test Result

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Dependent Variable:		
Leadership Intention	-0.912	-0.729
Independent Variable:		
Self-Efficacy	-0.10	-0.507
Subjective Norms	-0.776	-0.921

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

First, table 4.11 presents the skewness and kurtosis values for the dependent variable Leadership Intention and the independent variables Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms. The results show that Leadership Intention records a skewness value of -0.912, indicating a moderately left-skewed distribution, with a kurtosis value of -0.729, which remains within an acceptable range.

For the independent variables, Self-Efficacy shows a skewness value of -0.10, suggesting an approximately symmetrical distribution, while its kurtosis value of -0.507 indicates no severe deviation from normality. Similarly, Subjective Norms exhibits a skewness value of -0.776, reflecting a mild left-skewed distribution, and a kurtosis value of -0.921, which is still within the acceptable range.

Overall, all variables demonstrate skewness and kurtosis values within the acceptable threshold, suggesting that the data are normally distributed and appropriate for further inferential analysis.

Histogram

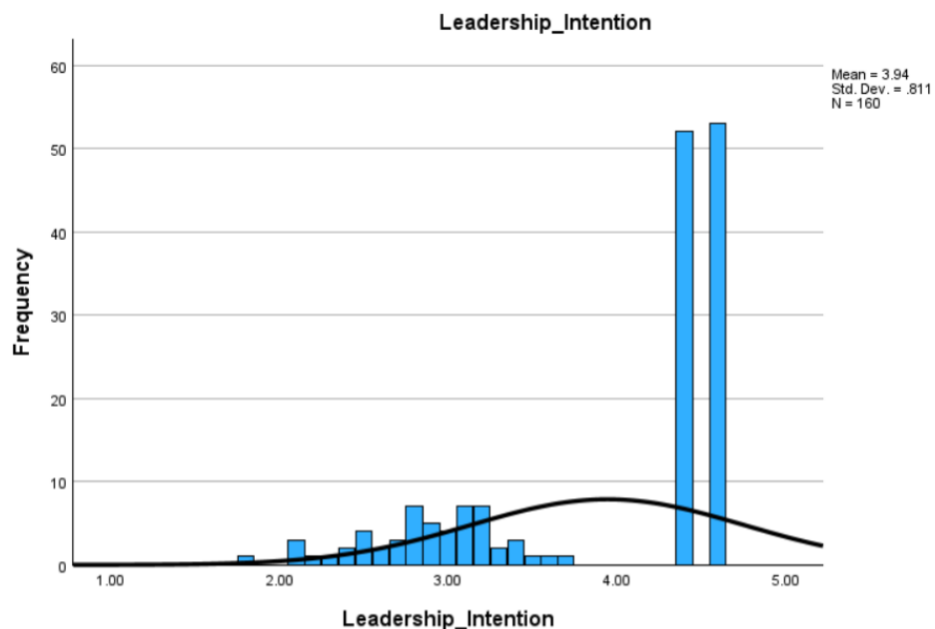


Figure 4.6: Normality Test

Second, to confirm whether the data meets the normality assumption, a histogram is used. A histogram is commonly applied to summarize quantitative data in research studies and reports. Figure 2.6 illustrates the histogram generated from the data of the dependent variable, leadership intention. The histogram is plotted alongside a normal distribution curve to assess the shape of the data distribution.

Based on the visual inspection, the distribution does not perfectly follow a normal curve. Although a portion of the data appears concentrated around the middle values, there is a noticeable clustering of responses towards the higher end of the scale (around 4.0–4.5). This suggests a slight negative

skew (left-skewed distribution), where the tail extends more toward the lower values.

Furthermore, the frequency is not evenly distributed, as a large number of observations are grouped within a narrow range, rather than forming a smooth bell-shaped curve. Therefore, the data deviates from a perfectly symmetrical normal distribution pattern. However, given the relatively large sample size ($N = 160$), the distribution may still be considered acceptable for parametric analysis under the central limit theorem.

4.4 Inferential Analysis

4.4.1 Result of Inferential Analysis

Table 4.12: R-square Value's Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.921 ^a	0.848	0.847	0.3786

Predictors: (Constant), SE, SN

Source: Developed from SPSS software for research purposes.

The R Square value reflects the proportion of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables in the model. Table 4.20 shows that the IV (Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms) explain 84.8% of the variance in Leadership Intention. This suggests that a large proportion of the variation in Leadership Intention is accounted for by the predictors in this study, while the remaining 15.2% is explained by other factors not considered in the model.

In addition, the Adjusted R Square value of 0.847 reflects that the model remains robust even after controlling the number of predictors. The R value of 0.921 further suggests a high degree of correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Meanwhile, the Standard Error of the Estimate is 0.3786, indicating a relatively low level of prediction error in the model.

Table 4.13: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Model	Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.
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	Squares		Square		
1 Regression	88.793	2	44.396	439.423	<0.001 ^b
Residual	15.862	157	0.101		
Total	104.655	159			

a. *Dependent Variable: Leadership Intention*

b. *Predictors: (Constant), SE, SN*

Based on the ANOVA results, the F-test is used to assess the overall significance of the regression model. The findings suggest that the regression model is statistically significant, reflected by the Sum of Squares for Regression of 88.793 and a Mean Square of 44.396. The Residual Mean Square is 0.101, suggesting a fairly low level of unexplained variance in the model.

The analysis further indicates that the model is statistically highly significant, with a significant value of $p < 0.001$. This indicates that the IV (Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms) significantly predict Leadership Intention. Overall, the results confirm that the regression model provides a good fit for the data.

Table 4.14: The Estimate of Parameter (Coefficients)

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
1	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-0.168	0.141		-1.193	0.235
Self-Efficacy	0.451	0.070	0.416	6.475	<0.001
Subjective Norms	0.578	0.069	0.535	8.334	<0.001

Dependent Variable: Leadership Intention

The multiple regression model for this study can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Leadership Intention} = -0.168 + 0.451(\text{Self-Efficacy}) + 0.578(\text{Subjective Norms})$$

Based on Table 4.14, the relationship between the independent variables

(Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms) and the dependent variable (Leadership Intention) was examined. The results indicate that both independent variables are statistically significant, as their p-values are less than 0.001.

The first independent variable, Self-Efficacy, shows a significant positive relationship with Leadership Intention ($B = 0.451$, $\beta = 0.416$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that an increase of one unit in Self-Efficacy will lead to an increase of 0.451 units in Leadership Intention, assuming other variables remain constant.

Similarly, Subjective Norms also demonstrate a significant positive effect on LT ($B = 0.578$, $\beta = 0.535$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that a one-unit increase in SN will result in a 0.578-unit increase in LT, holding other factors constant. Among the two predictors, SN has a stronger influence on Leadership Intention, as indicated by its higher standardized beta value.

In contrast, the constant term is not statistically significant ($p = 0.235$), implying that its contribution to the model is not significant.

Overall, the findings suggest that both SE and SN significantly and positively influence Leadership Intention, with SN as the most influential predictor.

4.4.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Table 4.15: Multiple Regression Analysis

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	t-statistics	P-value
(Constant)	-0.168	0.141		-1.193	0.235
Self-Efficacy	0.451	0.070	0.416	6.475	<0.001
Subjective Norms	0.578	0.069	0.535	8.334	<0.001
R-squared					0.848
Adjusted R-squared					0.847
F-test					439.423

P-value	0.000
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In this study, the relationship between the dependent variable, Leadership Intention, and the independent variables, Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms, is examined. Based on Table 4.15, both independent variables are statistically significant, as their p-values are less than 0.001.

Self-Efficacy, the first independent variable, shows a significant positive relationship with Leadership Intention, with a t-value of 6.475 and a p-value of less than 0.001. The unstandardized coefficient ($B = 0.451$) indicates that a one-unit increase in Self-Efficacy will lead to a 0.451-unit increase in Leadership Intention, assuming other variables remain constant. Similarly, Subjective Norms, the second independent variable, is also statistically significant with a t-value of 8.334 and a p-value of less than 0.001. The unstandardized coefficient ($B = 0.578$) suggests that a one-unit increase in Subjective Norms will result in a 0.578-unit increase in Leadership Intention, holding other variables constant. Among the two predictors, Subjective Norms has a stronger influence on Leadership Intention, as indicated by its higher beta value.

In summary, the findings confirm that both Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms have significant and positive effects on Leadership Intention among respondents.

4.5 Conclusion

The findings in this chapter are based on questionnaire data analyzed using SPSS, including reliability, normality, multicollinearity, and regression analyses.

Results show that all constructs are reliable, and the data meets statistical assumptions. Both SE and SN significantly and positively influence LT, with Subjective Norms having a stronger effect.

Overall, the proposed model is statistically supported and suitable for explaining leadership intention among university students.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the main findings from Chapter 4 are discussed in detail. The section also explains the implications of the results. Furthermore, the limitations of the study are identified and discussed. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research and readers.

5.1 Discussion of Major Finding

Based on the findings from SPSS, researchers have determined the results for each hypothesis.

Table 5.1: Overview of Statistical Analysis

Test	Hypothesis	T-statistics	P-value	Result
Self-Efficacy	H1: Self-efficacy has a significant relationship with student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia.	6.475	<0.001	Significant
Subjective Norms	H2: Subjective norms have a significant relationship with student leadership intention in private universities in Malaysia.	8.334	<0.001	Significant

5.1.1 H1: Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Leadership Intention.

The findings of this study provide empirical support for the positive relationship between self-efficacy and leadership intention among students in private universities in Malaysia. Specifically, students with stronger self-efficacy are more inclined to exhibit higher leadership intention. This outcome reinforces existing theoretical assumptions and is consistent with prior empirical research in the field.

This finding can be explained by Social Cognitive Theory, which suggests that individuals with strong self-efficacy are more likely to engage in goal-directed behavior as a result of their heightened belief in personal competence. In this context, students who perceive themselves as capable of managing tasks and overcoming challenges are more likely to develop intentions to pursue leadership roles.

This relationship suggests that people with stronger self-efficacy are more proactive in identifying and pursuing opportunities, and they are also more resilient when facing challenges. As leadership roles often involve responsibility, decision-making, and interpersonal influence, students with stronger self-belief are more willing to step forward and assume such roles.

The result is also supported by previous empirical studies. Polatcan (2023) reported that leadership self-efficacy significantly predicts students' leadership-related outcomes, while Wu and Jugovac (2024) found that higher self-efficacy increases motivation to lead. Amadi et al. (2025) emphasized that self-efficacy plays an important role in shaping students' intention to take leadership roles. This relationship is further supported by Paglis and Green (2002), who found that self-efficacy is positively associated with leadership behavior and willingness to lead.

Taken together, the findings show that self-efficacy not only enhances students' confidence in completing tasks but is also associated with a greater inclination to pursue leadership positions. This implies that strengthening students' self-efficacy could be a key factor in fostering

leadership intention.

5.1.2 H2: Relationship between Subjective Norms and Leadership Intention.

The result from the analysis suggests a positive relationship between subjective norms and leadership intention among Malaysian private university students. This implies that stronger perceived social influence from important referents is linked to a higher level of leadership intention. The result is in line with existing empirical evidence and theoretical framework.

This finding can be explained using the Theory of Planned Behavior, which suggests that behavioral intention is influenced by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Among these factors, subjective norms are defined as the perceived expectations of important others that can influence behavioral intentions. In this case, when students perceive greater approval or encouragement from people in their social environment, they are more likely to develop an intention to pursue leadership roles.

This is because social influence significantly affects how individuals make decisions, particularly when they place high value on the views of family members, peers, and mentors. When students perceive support or expectations from important others regarding leadership, they are more motivated to pursue leadership opportunities.

The result is also supported by previous empirical studies. Flanagan and Palmer (2021) found that subjective norms significantly predict students' intention to pursue leadership-related roles. Similarly, Gatari and Arbiyah (2018) reported that social pressure from significant others strongly influences students' intention to lead student organizations. These findings point to the importance of normative influence in affecting individuals' intentions related to leadership.

In summary, subjective norms are demonstrated to have a significant influence on leadership intention among students in this study. The

perceived expectations and encouragement from significant others contribute to a stronger willingness to engage in leadership roles.

5.2 Implications of Study

5.2.1 Practical Implications

The results of this study have several practical implications for higher education institutions, educators, and policy-related stakeholders in Malaysia. The results show that both Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms show a significant positive impact on LT among private university students. This suggests that students' confidence in their own abilities, as well as the social influence from important individuals, play a significant role in shaping their willingness to become future leaders.

Firstly, universities and higher education institutions should focus on enhancing students' self-efficacy through structured leadership development programmes. This may include leadership workshops, experiential learning activities, group projects, and student-led initiatives that allow students to gain confidence in decision-making, communication, and skills in problem solving. According to Social Cognitive Theory, self-efficacy is a key determinant of behavioral intention, as individuals are more likely to engage in behaviors when they believe they are capable of performing them successfully (Bandura, 1986).

Secondly, the findings emphasise the importance of subjective norms in influencing leadership intention. This indicates that encouragement and support from peers, lecturers, and family members can significantly shape students' leadership aspirations. Therefore, universities should cultivate a supportive social environment that actively encourages students to take up leadership roles in clubs, societies, and academic activities. This is consistent with the Theory of Planned Behavior, which emphasizes that perceived social pressure from important referents can influence behavioral intention (Ajzen, 1991).

In addition, educators and academic staff can play a key role in shaping students' leadership intentions by acting as role models and providing continuous encouragement. Lecturers can integrate leadership-related tasks into coursework and provide constructive feedback to help students develop confidence in their leadership abilities.

Finally, student affairs departments and university management may consider implementing mentorship programmes, where senior students or alumni guide junior students in leadership development. Such initiatives can strengthen both self-efficacy and subjective norms, ultimately increasing students' leadership intention and preparing them for future leadership roles in their careers.

Overall, the study's practical implications show that leadership intention among university students can be effectively enhanced through a combination of personal capability development and supportive social influence.

5.2.2 Theoretical implications

This study is grounded in the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997), which explain how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence individuals' behavioral intentions. The findings from this study yield further research-based support for these theoretical frameworks in explaining leadership intention among university students.

Firstly, the results confirm that both SE and SN are significant predictors of LT. This supports the core assumption of Social Cognitive Theory that individuals' beliefs in their own capabilities influence behavioral motivation (Bandura, 1997), as well as the Theory of Planned Behavior, which emphasizes the role of subjective norms in shaping intention formation (Ajzen, 1991).

Secondly, this study extends the application of these theories by examining them in the context of LT among private university students in Malaysia. Most prior studies have focused on general behavioral intentions or organizational leadership settings, whereas this study provides evidence within a student leadership development context.

In addition, the findings reinforce the relevance of both internal cognitive factors (SE) and external social influences (SN) in shaping leadership intention, highlighting the integrated explanatory power of both theories.

Overall, this study makes a contribution to the literature by strengthening the empirical validity of Social Cognitive Theory and the Theory of Planned Behavior in predicting leadership intention, particularly within the higher education context.

5.3 Limitations of Study

5.3.1 Sample Size and Generalizability

A major limitation of this study lies in its modest sample size, which may limit the extent to which the findings can be generalized to a broader population, with a total of 160 private university students in Malaysia participating in the survey. Although this sample size is adequate for multiple regression analysis using SPSS and provides meaningful statistical results, it remains relatively limited when compared to the large population of private university students in Malaysia.

Therefore, the findings may not fully represent the perceptions of all private university students across different institutions, academic disciplines, and regions. A bigger and more heterogeneous sample in future studies would improve the generalizability of the findings and increase the external validity of the research model.

5.3.2 Sampling Method and Potential Bias

This study employed a non-probability convenience sampling technique due to limitations in time and accessibility. Although this approach enabled efficient data collection, it may have introduced sampling bias, as participants were chosen based on their availability rather than through random selection.

Consequently, some categories of students may be excessively represented, whereas others may be inadequately represented. This limitation may affect the representativeness of the sample and should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings of this study.

5.3.3 Self-Reported Data and Common Method Bias

The data in this study were collected using self-administered questionnaires, which may lead to self-report bias. Since the constructs of Self-Efficacy, Subjective Norms, and Leadership Intention are subjective in nature, respondents may have answered based on personal perception rather than actual behavior.

In addition, there is a possibility of common method bias may be present because all variables were obtained using the same instrument at one point in time. This may slightly inflate the observed relationships between variables, even though statistical results show significant relationships.

5.3.4 Multicollinearity Issue

The regression results indicate that both Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms have identical VIF values of 4.27 and tolerance values of 0.243. Although these values are still within an acceptable range, they are relatively close to the commonly used threshold of concern ($VIF = 5$).

This suggests a moderate level of correlation between the independent variables. Since both constructs are theoretically related under SCT and TPB, some degree of overlap is expected. However, this may slightly affect the distinct explanatory power of each independent variable in predicting Leadership Intention.

5.3.5 High Model Fit but Limited Variable Scope

The regression results indicate a strong model fit, with an R Square value of 0.848 and an Adjusted R Square of 0.847, suggesting that 84.8% of the variance in Leadership Intention is explained by Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms. The model also shows a strong overall correlation ($R = 0.921$) and a low standard error of 0.3786, indicating good predictive accuracy.

However, despite the strong explanatory power of the model, only two independent variables were included in this study. Based on Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), leadership intention may also be influenced by other factors such as personal attitude, leadership experience, motivation, or environmental support, which were not examined in this research. This limits the comprehensiveness of the model.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Considering the findings and limitations of this study, several recommendations are put forward for future research.

Firstly, future studies are encouraged to increase the sample size and adopt a more diverse sampling approach. This study involved only 160 private university students in Malaysia, which may limit the generalizability of the findings. Therefore, future research is recommended to include a larger and more representative sample from both private and public universities across different regions of Malaysia in order to improve the external validity of the results.

Secondly, future studies may consider employing probability sampling techniques, such as stratified or random sampling. This would help reduce sampling bias and ensure a more balanced representation of students from different academic backgrounds, years of study, and demographic characteristics.

Thirdly, future research should include other factors based on SCT and TPB, as this study only looked at SE and SN as predictors of LT. For instance, factors including motivation, personality traits, leadership experience, attitude toward leadership, and perceived behavioral control may offer a more thorough knowledge of university students' intentions to lead.

In addition, future studies may also consider adopting a longitudinal research design rather than a cross-sectional approach. This would allow researchers to examine changes in leadership intention over time and provide stronger evidence of causal relationships between variables.

Lastly, qualitative or mixed-method approaches are also recommended in future studies. Conducting interviews or focus groups could provide deeper insights into how self-efficacy and subjective norms influence students' leadership intention, which may not be fully captured through quantitative surveys alone.

5.5 Conclusion

This study aimed to examine the relationship between Self-Efficacy, Subjective

Norms, and Leadership Intention among private university students in Malaysia. With p-values of less than 0.001, the study's results show a strong positive association between Leadership Intention and both Self-Efficacy and Subjective Norms.

With a R Square score of 0.848 and an Adjusted R Square value of 0.847, the regression analysis further demonstrates the model's good explanatory power. This suggests that self-efficacy and subjective norms are powerful predictors of students' leadership intention, since they account for 84.8% of the variance in leadership intention.

Furthermore, with Cronbach's Alpha values above 0.80, which indicate strong internal consistency of the measuring tools, the reliability study verifies that all constructors are very reliable.

Overall, the results of this study are in line with the Theory of Planned Behavior and Social Cognitive Theory, which contend that social influences and personal views have a significant impact on behavioral intentions. Thus, it can be said that among Malaysian private university students, self-efficacy and subjective norms play a significant role in determining leadership intention.

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Section A: Demographic Profile

1. Gender
 - Male
 - Female
2. Age
 - 18 - 20 years old
 - 21 - 23 years old
 - 24 - 26 years old
 - 27 years old and above
3. Year of Study
 - Year 1
 - Year 2
 - Year 3
 - Other
 -
4. Current University
 - Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)
 - Tunku Abdul Rahman University of Management and Technology (TAR UMT)
 - Sunway University
 - Taylor's University
 - INTI International University & Colleges
 - UCSI University
 - HELP University
 - Other:
5. Programme of Study
 - Business, Management, Accounting & Finance
 - Engineering & Built Environment
 - Information Technology & Computer Science
 - Social Sciences, Psychology & Communication
 - Arts, Design, Creative Media & Music
 - Law
 - Other

Following is several statements about how you feel about your immediate superior. Using the response scale below, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement for each statement by circling the appropriate number.

Sample:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Section B&C: Dependent Variable & Independent Variable

Leadership Intention:

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I intend to take on leadership roles in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I will try to become a student leader during my studies.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I expect to participate in leadership positions at my university.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Becoming a leader is something I plan to pursue.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am the type of person who likes to lead others.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.	1	2	3	4	5

9.	I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am willing to be the leader of a group.	1	2	3	4	5

Self-Efficacy:

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my leadership role if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	If someone opposes me in a leadership context, I can find the means and ways to achieve my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	It is easy for me to stick to my leadership aims and accomplish my goals as a student leader.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my leadership responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my role as a leader.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I can solve most leadership-related problems if I invest the necessary effort.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I can remain calm when facing leadership difficulties because I can rely on my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When I am confronted with leadership problems, I can usually find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5

9.	If I face trouble in my leadership role, I can usually think of a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I can usually handle whatever leadership challenges come my way.	1	2	3	4	5

Subjective Norms:

No.	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	Most people who are important to me think that I should take on leadership roles during my university studies.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	People whose opinions I value believe that I should assume leadership responsibilities in student activities.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My close friends expect me to participate in student leadership.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My family thinks I should take on leadership responsibilities at university.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Most students like me have taken leadership roles during their time at university.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Many of my peers are involved in student leadership activities.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I feel a sense of belonging when I participate in leadership activities that my peers are also involved in.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I feel under social pressure to take on leadership responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5

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9.	I am expected to be involved in student leadership.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	People who are important to me want me to step into leadership roles.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 1: TABLE OF DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE

TABLE 1
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
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	310
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
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	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.

APPENDIX 2: RELIABILITY TEST ANALYSIS RESULT FOR PILOT TEST

Pilot Test

Leadership Intention:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.896	.896	10

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LI1	3.86	1.165	160
LI2	3.95	1.154	160
LI3	4.01	1.082	160
LI4	3.94	1.114	160
LI5	3.99	1.149	160
LI6	3.91	1.168	160
LI7	3.82	1.192	160
LI8	3.95	1.170	160
LI9	3.94	1.048	160
LI10	4.08	1.037	160

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	LI1	LI2	LI3	LI4	LI5	LI6	LI7	LI8
LI1	1.000	.570	.621	.434	.577	.499	.457	.632
LI2	.570	1.000	.550	.311	.654	.380	.437	.543
LI3	.621	.550	1.000	.392	.572	.260	.417	.607
LI4	.434	.311	.392	1.000	.270	.542	.655	.355
LI5	.577	.654	.572	.270	1.000	.229	.366	.416
LI6	.499	.380	.260	.542	.229	1.000	.698	.416
LI7	.457	.437	.417	.655	.366	.698	1.000	.436
LI8	.632	.543	.607	.355	.416	.416	.436	1.000
LI9	.684	.555	.695	.417	.647	.222	.455	.598
LI10	.316	.261	.263	.575	.328	.431	.550	.200

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	LI9	LI10
LI1	.684	.316
LI2	.555	.261
LI3	.695	.263
LI4	.417	.575
LI5	.647	.328
LI6	.222	.431
LI7	.455	.550
LI8	.598	.200
LI9	1.000	.322
LI10	.322	1.000

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance
Item Means	3.944	3.819	4.075	.256	1.067	.005
Item Variances	1.274	1.076	1.420	.344	1.319	.015
Inter-Item Correlations	.463	.200	.698	.498	3.490	.021

Summary Item Statistics

	N of Items
Item Means	10
Item Variances	10
Inter-Item Correlations	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
LI1	35.59	51.917	.748	.661	.878
LI2	35.49	53.396	.658	.547	.885
LI3	35.43	53.920	.676	.584	.884
LI4	35.51	54.641	.603	.539	.888
LI5	35.46	54.036	.619	.589	.887
LI6	35.53	54.729	.563	.641	.891
LI7	35.63	52.462	.692	.668	.882
LI8	35.49	53.384	.647	.544	.885
LI9	35.50	53.761	.714	.695	.881
LI10	35.37	57.064	.490	.419	.895

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
39.44	65.821	8.113	10

Self-Efficacy:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	<u>Excluded^a</u>	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.884	.883	10

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SE1	3.96	1.051	160
SE2	3.96	1.123	160
SE3	3.89	1.114	160
SE4	4.01	1.127	160
SE5	3.99	1.037	160
SE6	3.93	1.122	160
SE7	4.08	1.003	160
SE8	4.02	1.031	160
SE9	4.16	.962	160
SE10	3.99	1.119	160

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4	SE5	SE6	SE7	SE8
SE1	1.000	.600	.507	.271	.652	.371	.337	.674
SE2	.600	1.000	.358	.333	.594	.442	.221	.571
SE3	.507	.358	1.000	.617	.413	.719	.627	.314
SE4	.271	.333	.617	1.000	.269	.712	.572	.173
SE5	.652	.594	.413	.269	1.000	.351	.212	.647
SE6	.371	.442	.719	.712	.351	1.000	.513	.202
SE7	.337	.221	.627	.572	.212	.513	1.000	.291
SE8	.674	.571	.314	.173	.647	.202	.291	1.000
SE9	.205	.193	.479	.480	.234	.593	.482	.206
SE10	.347	.295	.565	.449	.320	.556	.567	.333

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	SE9	SE10
SE1	.205	.347
SE2	.193	.295
SE3	.479	.565
SE4	.480	.449
SE5	.234	.320
SE6	.593	.556
SE7	.482	.567
SE8	.206	.333
SE9	1.000	.515
SE10	.515	1.000

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance
Item Means	4.000	3.894	4.156	.263	1.067	.006
Item Variances	1.146	.925	1.270	.345	1.373	.016
Inter-Item Correlations	.431	.173	.719	.546	4.154	.026

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
40.00	56.013	7.484	10

Summary Item Statistics

	N of Items
Item Means	10
Item Variances	10
Inter-Item Correlations	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SE1	36.04	45.961	.628	.622	.872
SE2	36.04	46.118	.566	.530	.876
SE3	36.11	43.831	.742	.670	.863
SE4	35.99	45.409	.614	.577	.873
SE5	36.01	46.698	.581	.561	.875
SE6	36.07	44.052	.718	.721	.865
SE7	35.92	46.704	.606	.541	.873
SE8	35.98	47.415	.531	.599	.878
SE9	35.84	47.994	.532	.440	.878
SE10	36.01	45.377	.623	.471	.872

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
40.00	56.013	7.484	10

Subjective Norms:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	<u>Excluded^a</u>	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.891	.891	10

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SN1	3.89	1.174	160
SN2	3.98	1.061	160
SN3	4.13	1.010	160
SN4	4.05	.970	160
SN5	4.06	1.020	160
SN6	3.91	1.109	160
SN7	4.05	.937	160
SN8	3.94	1.142	160
SN9	3.97	1.090	160
SN10	4.01	1.049	160

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	SN1	SN2	SN3	SN4	SN5	SN6	SN7	SN8
SN1	1.000	.675	.113	.612	.631	.374	.628	.713
SN2	.675	1.000	.237	.545	.472	.367	.653	.653
SN3	.113	.237	1.000	.077	.181	.404	.166	.160
SN4	.612	.545	.077	1.000	.626	.396	.641	.554
SN5	.631	.472	.181	.626	1.000	.244	.523	.538
SN6	.374	.367	.404	.396	.244	1.000	.422	.427
SN7	.628	.653	.166	.641	.523	.422	1.000	.602
SN8	.713	.653	.160	.554	.538	.427	.602	1.000
SN9	.636	.587	.272	.698	.619	.362	.685	.610
SN10	.332	.249	.462	.284	.147	.617	.377	.331

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	SN9	SN10
SN1	.636	.332
SN2	.587	.249
SN3	.272	.462
SN4	.698	.284
SN5	.619	.147
SN6	.362	.617
SN7	.685	.377
SN8	.610	.331
SN9	1.000	.286
SN10	.286	1.000

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance
Item Means	3.999	3.894	4.131	.237	1.061	.006
Item Variances	1.121	.878	1.379	.501	1.570	.025
Inter-Item Correlations	.449	.077	.713	.636	9.291	.034

Summary Item Statistics

	N of Items
Item Means	10
Item Variances	10
Inter-Item Correlations	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SN1	36.09	43.519	.747	.680	.871
SN2	36.01	45.352	.699	.606	.875
SN3	35.86	50.979	.310	.389	.900
SN4	35.94	46.323	.697	.626	.876
SN5	35.93	46.787	.619	.553	.881
SN6	36.08	46.817	.555	.481	.885
SN7	35.94	46.122	.744	.625	.873
SN8	36.05	44.136	.727	.605	.873
SN9	36.02	44.396	.749	.659	.871
SN10	35.98	48.497	.470	.502	.891

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
39.99	56.465	7.514	10

APPENDIX 3: DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS RESULTS

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Statistics

		Gender	Age	<u>Year of Study</u>	Current University	<u>Programme of Study</u>
N	Valid	160	160	160	160	160
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Gender:

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	70	43.8	43.8	43.8
	Female	90	56.3	56.3	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Age:

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-20 years old	27	16.9	16.9	16.9
	21-23 years old	67	41.9	41.9	58.8
	24-26 years old	49	30.6	30.6	89.4
	27 years old and above	17	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Year of Study:

Year of Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Year 1	34	21.3	21.3	21.3
	Year 2	79	49.4	49.4	70.6
	Year 3	47	29.4	29.4	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Current University:

		Current University			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR)	57	35.6	35.6	35.6
	Tunku Abdul Rahman University of Management and Technology (TAR UMT)	61	38.1	38.1	73.8
	Sunway University	6	3.8	3.8	77.5
	Taylor's University	11	6.9	6.9	84.4
	INTI International University & Colleges	7	4.4	4.4	88.8
	UCSI University	11	6.9	6.9	95.6
	HELP University	7	4.4	4.4	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

Programme of Study:

		Programme of Study			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Business, Management, Accounting & Finance	18	11.3	11.3	11.3
	Engineering & Built Environment	34	21.3	21.3	32.5
	Information Technology & Computer Science	27	16.9	16.9	49.4
	Social Sciences, Psychology & Communication	41	25.6	25.6	75.0
	Arts, Design, Creative Media & Music	29	18.1	18.1	93.1
	Law	10	6.3	6.3	99.4
	Other	1	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	160	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX 4: RELIABILITY TEST ANALYSIS RESULT

Leadership Intention:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.



Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.896	.896	10

Self-Efficacy:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.



Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.884	.883	10

Subjective Norms:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	160	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	160	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all
variables in the procedure.



Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.891	.891	10

APPENDIX 5: NORMALITY TEST ANALYSIS RESULT

Descriptive Statistics

	N Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic
Leadership_Intention	160	3.9444	.81130	-.912	.192	-.729
Self_Efficacy	160	4.0000	.74842	-1.000	.192	-.507
Subjective_Norms	160	3.9988	.75143	-.776	.192	-.921
Valid N (listwise)	160					

Descriptive Statistics

Kurtosis

Std. Error

Leadership_Intention	.381
Self_Efficacy	.381
Subjective_Norms	.381
Valid N (listwise)	

APPENDIX 6: PERSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS RESULT

✚

		Correlations				
		IC_AVE	IS_AVE	IM_AVE	II_AVE	TR_AVE
IC_AVE	Pearson Correlation	1	.872**	.875**	.875**	.891**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	229	229	229	229	229
IS_AVE	Pearson Correlation	.872**	1	.864**	.869**	.913**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	229	229	229	229	229
IM_AVE	Pearson Correlation	.875**	.864**	1	.885**	.882**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	229	229	229	229	229
II_AVE	Pearson Correlation	.875**	.869**	.885**	1	.888**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	229	229	229	229	229
TR_AVE	Pearson Correlation	.891**	.913**	.882**	.888**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	229	229	229	229	229

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

APPENDIX 7: MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULT

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Subjective_Norms, Self_Efficacy ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Intention

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	df1
1	.921 ^a	.848	.847	.31786	.848	439.423	2

Model Summary

Change Statistics

Model	df2	Sig. F Change
1	157	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Subjective_Norms, Self_Efficacy

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	88.793	2	44.396	439.423	<.001 ^b
	Residual	15.862	157	.101		
	Total	104.655	159			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Intention

b. Predictors: (Constant), Subjective_Norms, Self_Efficacy

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	-.168	.141		.235
	Self_Efficacy	.451	.070	.416	<.001
	Subjective_Norms	.578	.069	.535	<.001

Coefficients ^a				
Model		95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance VIF
1	(Constant)	-.447	.110	
	Self_Efficacy	.313	.588	.234 4.270
	Subjective_Norms	.441	.715	.234 4.270

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Intention

Collinearity Diagnostics ^a						
Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Constant)	Self_Efficacy	Subjective_Norms
1	1	2.975	1.000	.00	.00	.00
	2	.021	11.822	1.00	.06	.06
	3	.004	26.559	.00	.94	.94

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Intention