Cape Peninsula
University of Technology

THE RELEVANCE OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS TO JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS AT A UNIVERSITY

by

JASON STOFFBERG

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Master of Technology: Business Administration

in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Supervisor: Prof IW Ferreira

District Six, Cape Town
August 2022

DECLARATION

I declare that the content of this dissertation represents my own unaided work and that the dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

03 August 2022

Signed Date

JASON STOFFBERG

Student Number: 197027733

Master of Technology: Business Administration

Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

ABSTRACT

Education has been considered a key predictor of job performance. The impact of educational qualifications on the job performance of academic administrative staff at a university in the Western Cape province of South Africa is, however, not understood by administrative managers of the University. This study aims to determine the relationship between educational qualifications and job performance among staff in academic administrative positions at the University and to make recommendations to improve the current situation. As job performance and employability are both latent variables, the study utilised a model that indirectly measured these variables by employing a set of observable indicators that can be directly measured using a survey method, utilising the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ)—a 47-item generic questionnaire developed to measure work performance at the individual level. After defining job performance into four dimensions (Contextual Performance Behaviour, Adaptive Performance Behaviour, Task Performance Behaviour, and Counterproductive Work Behaviour), the results indicate no significant correlations between job performance and the level of NQF qualifications held by employees. Spearman's Rho tests were employed to determine the relationship between respondents' NQF level of qualifications and their performance ratings. A moderately significant positive correlation ($p=0.056$) between the NQF level and job performance ratings that 'exceed the requirements' of the job was observed. The research helps to determine the preferred educational levels for academic administrative positions of varying complexity and provides the University with additional guidelines to recruit staff who are most likely to impact organisational objectives positively.

Keywords: Academic background, educational background, job performance, employee performance, performance dimensions, performance behaviours, job behaviours, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, occupational success, vocational success, and job performance measurement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

بسم†الله†الرحمن†الرحيم

In the name of God, Most Beneficent, Most Merciful. All praise and thanks to God Almighty for granting me perseverance, strength and guidance during my studies.

I want to thank the following people for their contribution and role played during this study:

- My supervisor, Professor Naas Ferreira, for your supervision, continuous support, guidance and encouragement. Without you, this dissertation would not have been possible.
- To Professor Stephen Hosking for your encouragement and for sacrificing your time to support me in this endeavour.
- To my wife Razia and daughter Sara, thank you for your love, support, understanding, patience and sacrifice during this time.
- To my family, friends and colleagues, thank you for your endless support and words of encouragement.
- To Dr Liezel Korf, thank you for your advice and assistance with the statistical analysis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

APPENDICES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

APB	Adaptive Performance Behaviour
CPB	Contextual Performance Behaviour
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviour
DBE	Department of Basic Education and Training
DD	Development Dialogue
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DOE	Department of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HEQSF	Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework
HRD	Human Resource Development
IWPQ	Individual Work Performance Questionnaire
KPA	Key Performance Area
NDP	National Development Plan
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSC	National Senior Certificate
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PASS	Professional and Administrative Staff
PIP	Performance Improvement Plan

TPB	Task Performance Behaviour
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training

KEYWORDS

The following keywords relate to this study: Academic background, educational background, job performance, employee performance, performance dimensions, performance behaviours, job behaviours, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, occupational success, vocational success, and job performance measurement.

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provides the reader with an overview of the study.

A discussion on the background of the study provides the context for the research. The problem statement, the study's purpose, significance, and delineation are discussed.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 HUMAN CAPITAL

During a person's career, they are most likely to develop two forms of human capital: education and work experience.

Individuals with more human capital have more opportunities to work in higher-paying professional positions because human capital indicates to employers their abilities and expertise (Ng and Feldman, 2009).

Foko and Kayizzi-Mugerwa (2015) suggest that the number of people with higher education qualifications in the South African workforce is lower than in countries with comparable economic development levels. They state further that the country has a quantitative shortage in higher education level skills of approximately 25 per cent, supporting previous arguments that the labour force's work-related abilities do not meet the demands of employers and the economy.

In 2015, 5.1 per cent of South Africans had no formal education, 2 per cent of adults had matric with access to tertiary education, while 39 per cent had undertaken limited high school education or non-tertiary education (National Planning Commission: The Presidency, 2015).

Economists refer to this mismatch as “an imbalance between the supply and demand of human capital” (Handel, 2003).

An imbalance of this nature has negative implications for the economy. For example, South Africa recorded a Gini coefficient of 63.4 in 2011, ranking the country among those with the most significant income inequality worldwide (National Planning

Commission: The Presidency, 2012). Referencing the Gini coefficient recorded in 1996 (61.0), this signals increasing inequality over 15 years (Amnesty International, 2020). Education is understood to be a significant contributing factor to the high level of inequality. With an abundance of potential employees on the job market, companies' hiring decisions are heavily influenced by education levels (Human Capital and Labour Research Report: South Africa, 2017).

1.2.2 EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AS PATHWAYS TO EMPLOYMENT

The primary goal of postsecondary education is to equip students for careers and the workforce (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017). However, recent studies in South Africa have found increased unemployment rates among graduates, with the most usually cited cause being a chronic skills shortage (Dias and Posel, 2011).

In other countries, the overall link between educational credentials and work opportunities is also weak. The phenomenon occurs in Anglophone countries, including Australia, New Zealand, England, Canada, and the United States (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017).

How labour markets are organised, the nature of social welfare systems and family dynamics also impact the processes and outcomes of people's transitions from the education system to jobs. These structures are called education transition systems (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017).

There are two types of education transition systems: those with an “employment logic” and those with an “educational logic” (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017).

In nations with significant ties between education and the labour market, the transition system is controlled by an employment rationale. Significant institutional networks can help people move from school to work, and education and labour market institutions interact often. Employers are given a more significant role in planning, modifying, delivering, and grading vocational programmes and industry requirements are communicated to the education system. In contrast, education has poor linkages with employers in transition systems characterised by an “education logic” (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017).

Most explanations for the differences in the educational system's role in preparing graduates for employment are found in the labour market's structure and how

employers select graduates for entry and advancement in employment, not in the nature of education or its qualifications (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2017).

1.2.3 EDUCATION AS A PREDICTOR OF JOB PERFORMANCE

Education has long been considered a key predictor of job performance. For many years, university graduates with bachelor's or master's degrees have been in high demand in the employment market.

A literature review demonstrates conflicting conclusions about the connection between educational attainment and job performance.

Aris and Timmins (1989) claim that the kind and degree of education acquired by non-technical employees has no bearing on their level of performance (Ng and Feldman, 2009). In a review of Berg's well-known research, Cvanagh (1970) reported that there was no evidence to support the idea that higher levels of education resulted in improved job performance.

Other research suggests that higher levels of education positively influence the performance of core tasks, creativity and constructive behaviour in employees (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

A study of 51 diverse employers found that employers required only basic academic skills in Mathematics and English for entry-level positions and that workers who had completed only high school did not have these essential skills. In cases where basic academic skills in Mathematics and English were not required for entry-level jobs, employees would require these skills if they wanted to progress to higher-level jobs in their organisations (Rosenbaum & Binder, 1997).

In a study of over 1000 employers in 2016, Bentley University found that 78 per cent of employers felt that recent graduates were well prepared for a career after completing an undergraduate degree. In addition, more than 90 per cent of employers agreed that recent graduates have the necessary communication abilities and the capacity for critical thinking and collaboration in the workplace (Bentley University, 2016).

Hiring graduates remains a crucial source of new employees and forms a core recruitment strategy for many organisations (Cabellero et al., 2011).

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT

The impact of educational qualifications on the job performance of academic administrative staff at a university in the Western Cape province of South Africa (referred to in this study as "the University") is not understood by managers of the University's academic administration units.

Numerous sub-problems arise as a result of this introductory statement. Those are explained below.

Sub-Problem 1: Educational requirements are not clearly defined for academic administrative positions at the University

Teachers are at the heart of educational endeavours. Educational institutions need a sufficient number of adequately trained and competent educators with subject-matter competence to deliver their educational programmes (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2013). To ensure that academic staff possess the required knowledge and skills to teach and conduct research, clear educational qualifications are defined and applied when recruiting academic staff. South Africa's National Development Plan supports this, the objective of which is to increase the number of PhD graduates per year from 1 421 in 2010 to 5 000 by 2030 (National Planning Commission: The Presidency, 2012).

Suppose sufficient, appropriately qualified and competent lecturers are required for educational institutions to deliver on their mandate. In that case, it can be argued that sufficient, appropriately qualified and competent staff are also required to perform administrative tasks that support the institution's core teaching, learning, and research functions. These requirements are, however, not clearly defined by the University's recruitment and selection policies. As a result, the minimum academic qualification requirements for applicants to positions that are equal in payclass (grade) vary among departments.

Sub-Problem 2: Appointing academic administrative staff to positions for which they may be ill-prepared

Previous research suggests that higher levels of education positively influence employees' core task performance, creativity and citizenship behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Therefore, neglecting to include appropriate minimum education

levels for academic administrative positions may result in appointing staff to positions for which they are not adequately prepared.

Sub-Problem 3: Limited levels of production among academic administrative offices

The extant research establishes links between a workforce's skill makeup and labour productivity.

Organisations engage in employee learning and development to generate a return on their investment, which is often measured in terms of the organisation becoming more productive and competitive. Furthermore, on-the-job training enhances an employee's initial production by 9.5 per cent but has little lasting impact, but prior, off-the-job education has more significant lasting advantages and raises current output by 16 per cent (Blundell et al., 2005). Therefore, by neglecting off-the-job education, organisations risk operating at limited levels of production.

Sub-Problem 4: Inconsistency in setting the minimum educational requirements of similar jobs

Arvey & Murphy (1998) analysed research studies on performance evaluation and reported that job performance has become embedded within staff selection systems. Ng & Feldman (2009) also noted that education is the most frequent predictor of a potential employee’s skill level or productivity.

Educational prerequisites are therefore included in job specifications and used as a proxy for determining a person’s level and range of skills and abilities.

The University currently sets different educational qualifications for administrative positions that have been graded at the same payclass (or pay grade). These positions (at the same payclass) are therefore, (i) equal in the level of responsibility required for the post, and (ii) require tasks that have an equal level of complexity. Despite being equal in this regard, different minimum educational qualifications are required when vacancies for these positions are advertised. An inconsistency, therefore, exists in the minimum educational qualifications for academic administrative positions of equal payclass (grade).

If a clear and shared understanding of the relevance of educational qualifications to job performance is not agreed upon within an organisation, then the consistent

application of minimum educational requirements for jobs of similar type and complexity will be difficult to achieve.

1.3.1 KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research study answers one primary question: What is the relationship between the level of educational qualifications and the job performance of academic administrative staff at the University?

The following sub-questions arise from the initial primary question:

- Do academic administrative staff with higher educational qualifications achieve higher performance ratings than staff with lower educational qualifications?
- Are staff with higher educational qualifications placed on performance improvement plans less often than staff with lower educational qualifications?

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In this research study, the following hypotheses are tested:

Hypothesis 1: There is no correlation between educational qualifications and core task performance among staff in academic administrative positions at the University.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive correlation between educational qualifications, contextual performance, and adaptive work behaviour.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative correlation between educational qualifications and counterproductive work behaviour patterns among staff in academic administrative positions at the University.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

This study aims to determine the relationship between educational qualifications and job performance among University employees who hold academic administration roles and to offer recommendations for addressing the inconsistent minimum educational requirements for these jobs, as outlined in the problem statement.

The objective of this research study is twofold:

- To analyse primary data on the job performance of staff in academic administrative positions at the University, and

- To make recommendations to improve the current inconsistency in the minimum educational qualifications required for academic administrative positions of equal payclass (grade), as outlined in the problem statement.

1.6 DELINEATION OF THE STUDY

The University employs administrative staff in various departments, including Academic Administration, Human Resources, Information and Communication Technologies, Marketing and Communications, and Properties and Services. This study will focus on the job performance and employability of staff in academic administration positions.

The research will include 66 staff members in pay classes 5 to 12 employed in Academic Administration at five faculties across the university: Commerce, Law, Science, Engineering and the Built Environment, Health Sciences and Humanities.

The academic literature in the field of job performance abounds with research that studies the relationship between job performance and variables such as personality traits, level of education, academic performance, organisational culture, organisational climate, leadership style, communication competence, general mental ability, job knowledge, cognitive ability, cognitive aptitude, work behaviour, and social skills (Barros et al., 2014; Hunter, 1986; Ng & Feldman, 2009; Payne, 2005; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Williams & Anderson, 2001).

This research study will investigate the impact of educational qualifications on the job performance and employability of existing staff in the Academic Administration units of the University.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

For departments that employ academic administrators, such as those at the University, the study is significant for the following reasons.

First, workers with higher levels of education command higher salaries in comparison to people with a lesser degree of education. To justify the higher salaries commanded by workers with higher levels of education, it is essential to understand whether they contribute more to the effectiveness of their organisations than workers with lower levels of education.

Current employees of the University benefit from significant reductions in tuition fees.

The return on these investments (for example, improved job performance or increased occupational commitment by workers) is not measured.

Second, a significant body of literature focuses on the effects of educational level on core task performance. However, as discussed in Chapter 2, numerous behavioural patterns lie squarely under the purview of work performance. Therefore, it is also essential to study the relevance of educational qualifications to these dimensions of job performance within academic administration environments.

Third, the extent to which education improves job performance and productivity can impact the financial support universities receive from the government and the private sector. For example, if education does not result in benefits (such as increased GDP, higher rates of innovation and increased competitiveness in the knowledge economy), the appetite for investment in education will be reduced. The benefits of employing workers with higher levels of education must therefore be proportionate to the expenses incurred in their employment.

Fourth, higher education institutions in South Africa rely on financial support from the government in the form of subsidies; however, the government has significantly reduced the amount of public financing dedicated to higher education (Van Vuuren & Heymans, 2014). In recent years, the University's block grant from the government has increased by 3 per cent annually, while its average costs increased by 7 per cent to 8 per cent (Petersen, 2015). As a result, the growing problem of funding higher education in South Arica has reached critical proportions (Price, 2016).

During the first half of 2016, the University implemented austerity measures to improve its financial sustainability (Price, 2016). Austerity measures have been accompanied by recommendations that departments improve their efficiency through staff restructuring, increasing and diversifying revenue streams, and improving processes.

Student protests in South Africa, following the #FeesMustFall protest action in 2015, continue to highlight the severe challenges faced by the higher education sector in the country. Universities have been struggling to find solutions to very complex challenges, which include severe underfunding by the state.

COVID-19 is having a significant negative impact on the South African economy, which contracted by 7% in 2020, as the government implemented measures to contain the rate of infection in the country (The World Bank, 2021). In addition, the negative

economic growth will increase pressure on government budgets, which is likely to further impact the funding of higher education institutions.

Fifth, the virus has facilitated the radical transformation of people's work. Organisations have been forced to adopt new ways of working that enforce social distancing and compliance with government regulations that restrict face-to-face contact in places of work. This includes re-thinking business processes and models facilitated by the forced adoption of digital technologies. The current situation has resulted in radical changes to how individuals work. Concepts such as ‘teamwork’, ‘colleagues’ and ‘organisation’ are changing. Despite the increase in remote working since the 1990s, there is limited research on how remote workers manage their work lives and whether the skills and characteristics common among individuals with higher education qualifications are better prepared for remote work (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2020). Telecommuting has, however, been shown to be favourably correlated with task and context-specific performance (Gajendran, Harrison and Delaney-Klinger, 2015).

The current environment requires university staff in academic administrative positions to cope with significant changes in the higher education sector, increasing workloads, diminishing budgets and other such challenges. In addition, African universities are now operating in very tough conditions regarding the continent's social, economic, and political difficulties and globalisation (Teferra & Altbach, 2004).

The research serves as the first step in addressing the challenge described in the Problem Statement section of this proposal by investigating the relevance of educational qualifications to the job performance of academic administrative staff at the University.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

The research is structured into the following chapters:

Chapter 1: provides the reader with an overview of the study. The problem statement, the purpose of the study, its significance, and its delineation are discussed. The chapter also introduces concepts such as job performance, employability, education and training to give context to the study.

Chapter 2: discusses the theoretical criteria used for the study. The concept of job performance is explained from both a task level and contextual dimension. Various

behaviour patterns are identified, some of which contribute positively and others negatively to an individual's job performance.

Chapter 3: informs the reader of the research method used for the study. The reasons for selecting the chosen research methodology are provided, and the research philosophy, data collection instrument and data collection procedure are described.

Chapter 4: explains the findings of the proposed research study and links these findings to the research aims.

Chapter 5: follows up the study's findings with recommendations and provides a conclusion to the study.

1.9 SUMMARY

The establishment of an effective education system in a country has been shown to have a positive impact on the economy and society. For example, in South Africa, the National Development Plan describes education as the key to addressing the current inequalities in the country and proposes a strategy for improving education to achieve this.

Education has long been considered a key predictor of job performance.

Individuals with advanced educational credentials are more inclined to find a job and succeed in their chosen fields, which advantages them, the workforce, the society, and the economy.

There remains, however, a shortage in the workforce of workers with higher level qualifications, which needs to be addressed.

The attainment of educational qualifications has a positive impact on an individual's employability. This is because organisations perceive individuals with higher educational qualifications to have more of the skills and attributes they want in their workforce and are prepared to pay higher salaries to secure those skills and attributes.

This chapter outlined the problem statement, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study and its delineation. In addition, concepts important for establishing the background of the study were also introduced.

CHAPTER 2:
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 will focus on a discussion of the theoretical criteria used for the study.

The concept of job performance is explained from both a task level and contextual dimension. Various behaviour patterns are identified, some of which contribute positively and others negatively to an individual's job performance.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

The theoretical criteria for this research study are (a) Liberal Education Theory and (b) Credentialist Theory.

These theories were selected because they allow opposing approaches to the research problem for the study's focus. On the one hand, Liberal Education Theory holds the view that education produces a person who possesses knowledge about the world and the ability to apply that knowledge to everyday life (Mulachy, 2008). On the other hand, Credentialist Theory implies that formal qualifications are more relevant than skills and ability. Furthermore, it supports the view that education merely facilitates access to economic freedom, political freedom and the protection that rising income and education provide (Miller, 1967).

2.2.1 LIBERAL EDUCATION THEORY

Prior research indicates that more education has a favourable effect on production. For example, in the United Kingdom, increased average labour productivity in manufacturing facilities was strongly correlated with increased worker skills and knowledge.

Furthermore, broad and general education has impacted productivity more than on-the-job training in a specific area. For example, according to research conducted in the United States, on-the-job training enhances initial productivity by 9.5 per cent but has no lasting impact. However, prior off-the-job training has more significant lasting advantages and raises current production by 16 per cent (Blundell et al., 1999).

These findings are supported by liberal education theory, which provides a framework for this research.

“The Idea of a University: Defined and Illustrated”, John Henry Newman's famous nineteenth-century text still dominates debates over liberal education philosophy and is regularly referenced as both an ideal and a reason for general or liberal education programmes.

This theory is defined by its central emphasis on intellectual growth, reliance on widely grounded theoretical knowledge, freedom from moral and religious constraints, self-contained nature, and applicability to prepare for future study and vocation.

Liberal education produces a person who possesses knowledge about the world and the ability to apply that knowledge to everyday life (Mulcahy and Newman, 2008).

2.2.2 CREDENTIALIST THEORY

Credentialist theory implies that formal qualifications are more valued than skills and ability. It is built on the premise that education facilitates access to economic freedom, political freedom and the protection that rising income and education provide (Miller, 1967).

The educational credentialist view argues that formal education results in socioeconomic success not because the more highly educated have better talents and knowledge but because they have the power to control access to top employment. Consequently, employers do not analyse their inclination to recruit more highly educated individuals; instead, they depend on widely held societal views about the link between education and job assignment (Bills, 2003).

Researchers have levelled several objections to credentialist theory. This includes assertions that, rather than hiring the most productive people based on their competencies, companies make judgments that are irrational, self-defeating, and harmful (Bills, 2003). It is also argued that employers lose out on latent talent by overlooking job applicants who do not have formal qualifications (Fallows, 1986). Credentialism has also been criticised for setting excessively high hiring standards for less-skilled jobs (Diamond & Bedrosian, 1972). As a result, unreflective employers have begun to raise the stakes in hiring standards over time in a process known as "credential inflation" (Bills, 2003). Furthermore, it is stated that the most fundamental criticism of credentialism theory's logic is that it provides no means for employers to

amend their errors. Employers that recruit job applicants with higher educational levels than their actual competence levels will almost certainly compensate for this over time by providing fewer promotions and pay increases to the "mismatched" workers (Bills, 2003).

Pitirim Sorokinmade claimed in the 1927 book *"Social and Cultural Mobility"* that many occupations are closed to individuals without the required education and that graduates are frequently paid more than non-graduates in the same position. However, Sorokinmade's work has been criticized for being based on a haphazard and unsystematic collection of evidence with no scientific backing (Bills, 2003).

Bills (2003) claims that after an examination of the historical record between 1870 and 1930, Brown (1995) concluded: "Credentialism was produced by several factors, including educators' conscious (and sometimes unwitting) expansion of higher education, changes in labour market recruitment patterns, and other circumstances with less direct bearing on the job training, such as land speculation interests tied to college-founding and the initial absence of government regulation of education".

In Berg's "*Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery"*, published in 1971, further criticism was levelled at the notion that ever-increasing levels of education and training were necessary for economic progress and prosperity (a view still maintained by policymakers today). He contended that an undue emphasis on educational qualifications defined the employment market. According to Berg, employers' choices to utilise educational credentials as selection criteria were not based on research linking them to actual skill needs, worker productivity or turnover (Bills, 2003).

2.3 THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Formal education in South Africa began in the late 1600s with the church's establishment of mission schools. Small rural schools with one or two teachers, district schools that supplied primary education to multiple towns in an area, and a few secondary schools in larger cities arose by the late 1800s. Some of the most prestigious private schools today were founded during this time.

By the turn of the century, almost all provinces had eliminated the enrolment of black African children in government schools, leaving them dependent on mission schools with little official assistance.

“In 1948, English became the official language of instruction in schools. Eight departments of education were formed under the apartheid policy. These used various curricula and established educational standards for blacks, coloured (multi-ethnic) people, and Indians, in addition to a department for independent schools and provincial departments for whites. In addition, certain Bantustans (areas governed by black Africans) had their own education ministries” (Amnesty International, 2020).

In the 1950s, state policies continued to enforce these discriminatory practices. For example, the 1953 Bantu Education Act mandated racially segregated educational facilities, and the 1959 Extension of University Education Act prohibited universities from accepting black students unless special permission was obtained from a cabinet minister.

During the 1970s, government expenditure on black education was a fraction of what was spent on white education. Consequently, black schools lacked the infrastructure, personnel, and texts that white schools had. Even though black people constituted 70% of the population, black students enrolled in universities accounted for only 20% of the total university student population.

Today, the Bill of Rights ensures the right to primary education for all South Africans, and the government is responsible for “making education available and accessible through reasonable measures to all people” (National Planning Commission: The Presidency, 2012).

A 2020 report by Amnesty International, South Africa: *“Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa”*, however, reflects that the current democratically elected administration has failed to rectify the old apartheid regime's design and implementation of educational inequities. From affluent private schools built during the colonial period on the emergence of religious organisations to schools established under apartheid regulations, South Africa’s history continues to affect the current education system (Amnesty International, 2020).

This spatial divide negatively affects the quality of school education, limiting the life opportunities of many people (National Planning Commission: The Presidency, 2012). The school system in South Africa is one of the world's most inequitable, with the most significant difference between the top 20% of schools and the remainder visible in their test results. Students in the top 200 schools get more distinctions in mathematics than

the following 6,600 schools combined. Out of every 100 pupils who enter school, 50-60 students will make it to Grade 12, 40-50 students will pass Grade 12, and just 14 students will attend university. The government's international human rights obligations are breached, and even its “Minimum Norms and Standards for Educational Institutions” are neglected (Amnesty International, 2020).

In response to the state’s inability to provide sufficient education, the private education sector in the country currently accounts for 4-5 per cent of total provision and is growing. New corporate educational providers have emerged, backed by multinational corporations, equity funds, local firms, and private investors. One of the country’s largest private education groups was established in 1978 and operated in both the school and higher education arenas. For the period 2019 to 2020, it reported revenue of nearly R5,5bn - an increase of 8% from the previous year. Revenue from its school operations increased by 4%, while revenue from its university operations increased by 9% (ADvTECH, 2020). The country has 88 registered and 27 provisionally registered private institutions registered with the Department of Higher Education to confer specific degrees and diplomas (Moloi *et al.*, 2014).

The National Development Plan (NDP) envisions a society free of poverty and inequality by 2030 in which “opportunity is determined not by birth, but by ability, education and hard work” (National Planning Commission: The Presidency, 2012).

2.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

South Africa's education system comprises two general categories: (a) primary education and (b) secondary education and training.

In 2009, the former Department of Education was divided into two departments: (a) the Department of Basic Education (DBE); and (b) the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) (DHET). The DBE is responsible for the primary and secondary school systems in South Africa, which includes 13 years of official education from Grade R (ages 5-6) to Grade 12 (ages 17-19). At the same time, the DHET is responsible for post-school education and training at universities, colleges, and adult education centres (Amnesty International, 2020).

The higher education sector, for which DHET is responsible, consists of two main systems: (a) Institutions of Higher Learning comprising universities, and (b) Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) comprising TVET colleges.

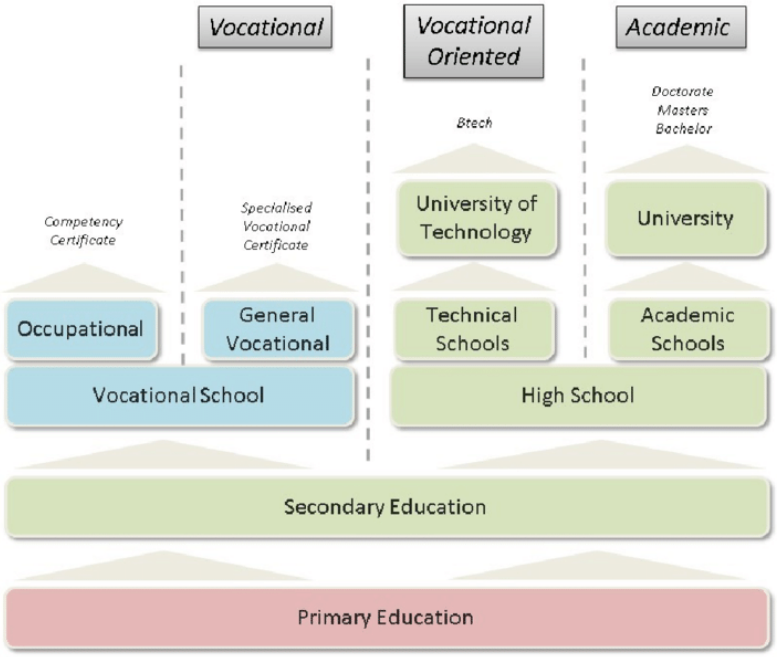


Figure 2.1: Structure of the education system in South Africa

Source: Lloyd, Warren. (2020). Motivated to Achieve: Socio-economic Influences on Achievement Need Motivation in the Context of Developing and Developed Environment Cultural groups.

2.4.1 INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING (UNIVERSITIES)

education system that will generate a skilled and capable workforce. Graduates of the post-school system should possess the skills and knowledge that allow them to The higher education landscape in South Africa includes 28 universities, referred to as institutions of higher learning (South African Government, 2020). These universities play a critical role in developing effective academic systems and enabling the country to compete in complex knowledge economies (Altbach, 2020).

While the state funds universities, each university is independent, reporting to its council rather than the government.

Numerous universities in South Africa are world-class academic institutions at the leading edge of research in various fields. The University of the Witwatersrand was ranked first in Africa in the 2020 Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) and placed in the 200-300 band globally. There are approximately 25 000 universities worldwide (University of the Witwatersrand, 2020). The University of Cape Town has been ranked 226th in the world by the Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) World University

Rankings in 2022, placing it among the top 18% of universities worldwide and is tied with Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität Bonn (Germany), the University of Sussex (United Kingdom) and the University of Virginia (United States) (University of Cape Town, 2022).

Much has been done in South African higher education to address the disparities left over from the Apartheid period. According to the Council on Higher Education (CHE), “South Africa's public higher education institutions enrolled 892 936 students (726 882 undergraduates and 138 610 postgraduates) in 2010. However, student engagement, or the proportion of 18- to 24-year-olds engaged in postsecondary education, is a paltry 16%. Equity is a work in progress: more than 58.5 per cent of whites and around 51 per cent of Indians attend college. Coloured people account for 14.3 per cent of the population, whereas black people account for barely 12 per cent”.

New problems in South Africa’s higher education system are emerging due to the new and daunting demands for competitiveness engendered by globalisation, internationalisation, and technological advancements, as well as the requirement to address the socioeconomic, cultural, and intellectual life of a rapidly changing society. Among the difficulties confronting the industry is a discontinuity in knowledge gaps between secondary and higher education and between higher education and the labour market (Moloi *et al.*, 2014).

“The NDP envisages that by 2030, South Africans should have access to a post-school meet the current and future needs of society and the economy” (South African Government, 2020).

2.4.2 TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING INSTITUTIONS (TVET COLLEGES)

Technical institutes and formal apprenticeship training were formed in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to meet the rapidly growing needs of South Africa's mining industry, railroads and other developing industries. The primary objective was to train artisans. As with school and university education, technical and vocational training was primarily reserved for white South Africans (Kuehn, 2019).

The South African labour market needs intermediate skills supplemented by practical training. This higher education category is offered through the Technical and

Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges and encompasses vocational, occupational and artisan education and training (South African Government, 2020).

This education and training segment is sometimes called 'post-school,' referring to education and training that occurs after high school, even if only with a Grade 9 certificate (South African Government, 2020). The National Senior Certificate (NSC) is a form of entrance to higher education for most South African learners who successfully finish Grade 9 (Centre for Development and Enterprise, 2012). Regrettably, the reality is different, with only 14% of school leavers entering a university.

According to a recent survey, approximately one million South Africans aged 18-24 with a minimum of Grade 10 or comparable education did not finish their Grade 12 education, leaving them jobless and unable to enrol in university (Amnesty International, 2020). Despite this, a reluctance to enrol in technical and vocational training institutes seems to exist as certain other sorts of post-secondary education have been linked to fast upward mobility among various South African communities. This viewpoint frequently works against vocationally focused and vocational education because many black parents and students believe the apartheid legacy has stigmatized this education category as "poorer" (Kuehn, 2019).

“There are 50 registered and accredited public TVET colleges in South Africa operating on more than 264 campuses spread across the rural and urban areas of the country” (South African Government, 2020).

2.5 QUALIFICATION TYPES IN SOUTH AFRICA

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is an integrated system for classifying quality-assured national qualifications in South Africa.

As indicated in the NQF Act, 2008 (Act No 67 of 2008), the NQF aims to:

a) Facilitate access to mobility and progression within education and training paths

b) Enhance the quality of education and training

c) Accelerate the redress of past discrimination in education opportunities

The NQF comprises three qualifications sub-frameworks:

a) General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework
b) Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework (HEQSF)
c) Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework

These sub-frameworks list the qualification types along ten NQF levels as depicted in National Qualifications Sub-Framework:

Table 2.1: National Qualifications Framework

NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK			
SUB-FRAMEWORK AND QUALIFICATION TYPE			
NQF LEVEL	**HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS SUB-FRAMEWORK**	**GENERAL AND FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING QUALIFICATIONS SUB-FRAMEWORK**	**OCCUPATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS SUB-FRAMEWORK**
10	Doctoral Degree		
9	Master's Degree		
8	Bachelor Honours Degree/ Postgraduate Diploma/ Bachelor's Degree		
7	Bachelor's Degree Advanced Diploma		
6	Diploma Advanced/ Certificate		Occupational Certificate (Level 6)
5	Higher Certificate		Occupational Certificate (Level 5)
4		National Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 4)
3		Intermediate Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 3)
2		Elementary Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 2)
1		General Certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 1)

Source: Council on Higher Education (Higher Education Qualifications Sub-Framework)

2.6 THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION TO SOCIETY AND INDIVIDUALS

A defining feature of the previous century has been the enormous worldwide spread of university education. In 1900, nearly one-hundredth of the world's population was enrolled in universities. Over the twentieth century, this proportion climbed to one in five persons.

In a study of 15 000 universities across 78 countries between 1950 and 2010, Valero and Van Reenen (2019) argue that the number of universities in a country is positively correlated with future increases in the country's GDP per capita. For example, a 10 per cent increase in the number of universities per capita resulted in a 0.4 per cent higher future growth of GDP per capita.

Their findings support earlier research by Walters (2004), which showed that the period between 1950 and 1970 saw the rapid development of education as policy decisions were guided by research that showed a positive correlation between education and economic growth.

The presence of historical universities in a country is also associated with deeper pro-democratic attitudes among its people as beliefs that higher education is essential for economic and social progress become more widespread over time (Valero and van Reenen, 2019).

In addition to the benefits education brings to the economy and society, the benefits of education to individuals have also been well-documented. For instance, education serves as an indicator of an individual’s abilities and accumulated knowledge. An additional year of education yielded a net increase of 11.5 per cent in an individual’s annual earnings (Ng and Feldman, 2009).

Compared to the number of workers who completed only secondary education, the number of workers with higher education qualifications in the South African workforce has risen rapidly over the past ten years.

However, the number of workers with higher education qualifications in the South African workforce remains lower than in countries with economic development levels comparable to that of South Africa. The country has a quantitative shortage in higher

education level skills of approximately 25 per cent (Foko and Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2015), despite the various benefits of education to society and individuals.

2.7 HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT

Human Resource Development (HRD) is a systematic method for developing individual and group skills via training and development, career development, and organisational development strategies to achieve better performance. It is a collection of organised and unstructured learning and performance-based activities designed to enhance individual and organisational capabilities to address particular business issues (Kareem and Hussein, 2019).

Organisations invest money in developing training programmes typically created and delivered in-house to develop organisation-specific competencies, thereby rapidly reinforcing firm-specific human capital (Sung and Choi, 2014).

Organisations have long seen human resource development as a critical strategic objective for encouraging good behaviour in employees and influencing their knowledge, skills, and attitudes, enhancing their productivity and performance. Therefore, universities should emphasise HRD methods such as training and development to attain higher performance (Kareem and Hussein, 2019).

2.8 DISTINCTION BETWEEN EDUCATION AND HUMAN RESOURCES TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The terms training and education have been used interchangeably for years. However, Beyhan (2005) distinguishes the concept of education and training. He refers to training as studying a specific field to prepare one for a specific profession. On the other hand, he considers education a broader concept that prepares one with broader skills, knowledge, values and attitudes.

While training is critical for onboarding new workers and introducing new programmes or technology to current employees, education is a continuous activity that enables professional and personal growth (Todd, 2014).

Participation in training programmes has been proven to contribute to an employee's "firm-internal employability", in other words, an employee's ability to transition between jobs within the same organisation. However, it had no significant impact on an

employee's "firm-external employability" or ability to transition between jobs across organisations (Sanders and de Grip, 2004).

On the other hand, education often signals to organisations that a potential employee possesses personal attributes such as diligence and self-motivation, which are commonly desired by organisations and for which they are prepared to pay in the form of higher salaries (Ng and Feldman, 2009).

2.9 EMPLOYABILITY: DEFINITIONS AND MODELS

Various terms have been used in previous research to define the concept of employability. These terms include 'job preparedness', 'job readiness', 'graduate employability and 'graduateness', all of which refer to the same skills and attributes.

Employability has been linked to acquiring skills and attributes that prepare graduates for success later in life. These include communication skills, numeracy, information technology, problem-solving and teamwork, all of which will be useful in various job positions (Cole and Tibby, 2013). In addition, Sanders and De Grip (2004) add that the learning capacity is considered part of an employee's employability.

On the other hand, employability should focus on training graduates to succeed in the labour market and preparing them to contribute to society. It includes "a set of knowledge and personal traits that make graduates more likely to contribute positively to the economy" (Carol and Mashigo, 2014).

Knight and Yorke (2003) suggested a widely accepted and commonly referenced definition for employability: "A set of achievements - skills, understandings and personal attributes - that make individuals more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy." The extent to which graduates possess these skills and attributes contributes to their employability (Carol and Mashigo, 2014).

2.9.1 USEM EMPLOYABILITY MODEL

Cole and Tibby (2013) summarise the USEM model of employability as comprising four inter-related components:

- Understanding of disciplinary subject matter;
- Skilful practices concerning academic work, employment, and life in general;

- Efficacy beliefs, which include self-concept, self-belief, and the potential for self-improvement and growth;
- Metacognition is a term that refers to the processes used for learning, reasoning, and problem-solving. Metacognition promotes lifelong learning.

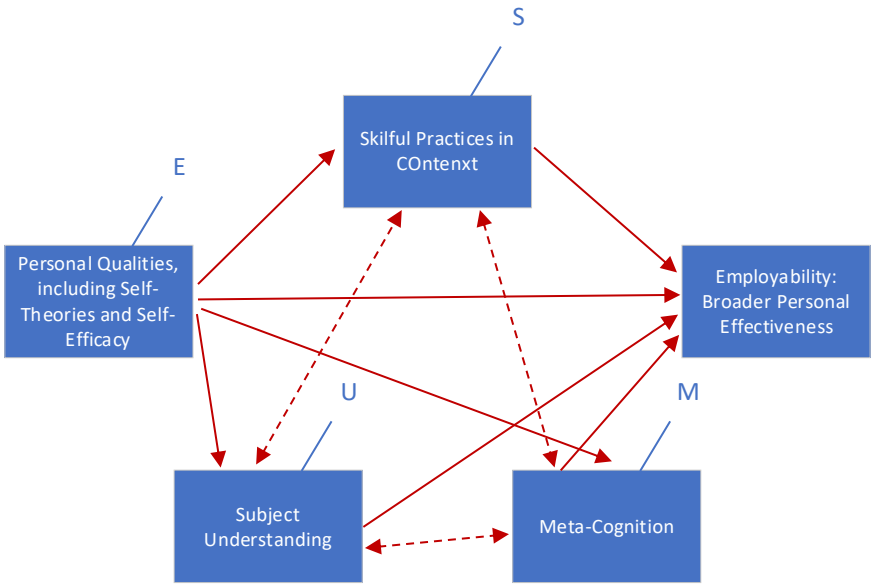


Figure 2.2: The USEM model of Knight and York (2003)

Source: Adapted from Cole and Tibby, 2013

2.9.2 CAREEREDGE EMPLOYABILITY MODEL

The Career EDGE model of employability examines career development and learning along four dimensions:

- Experience (professional and general life experience)
- Degree in subject knowledge, understanding and skills
- Generic skills
- Emotional intelligence

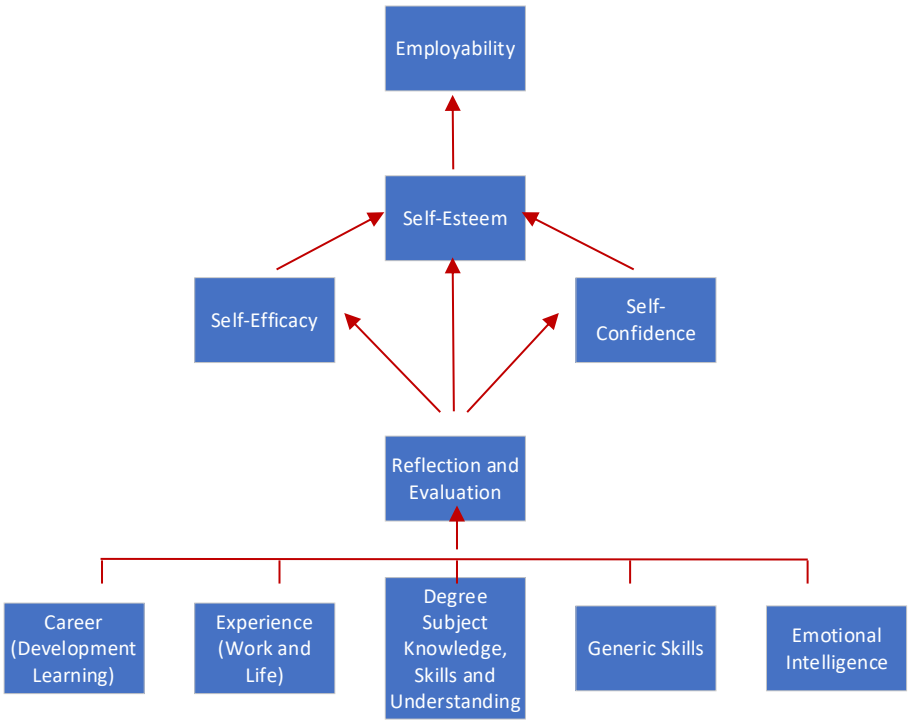


Figure 2.3: The CareerEDGE model of Employability

Source: Dacre Pool and Sewell (2007)

2.10 EMPLOYABILITY AMONG UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

Previous efforts to study the extent of employability among university administrators have been limited. Most previous research studies focus on the preparedness of university staff in senior leadership positions such as academic deans, directors, associate deans, and department chairs. Previous research studies have not focussed on the work readiness of academic administrative staff at the level of faculty office managers, administrative assistants and secretaries, which comprise the focus of this study. Nonetheless, it is helpful to consider the findings of previous research in this area to provide the context for this study.

Luedtke-Hoffmann et al. (2010) found that the primary method of preparation for senior academic administrative roles related to the management of academic programmes (specifically in the physiotherapy discipline) offered by universities in the US was on-the-job training and that previous work experience in academic administration was crucial to work readiness. Typically, the senior academic administrative staff who participated in the study were over 50 years old, held a PhD, and had worked in the

faculty for 21 years after entering the physiotherapy profession with a bachelor's degree. Few had post-professional education in academic administration focused on human resource management, financial and budgeting skills, and conceptual and contextual information specific to higher education. These skills have been recommended for improved work readiness in academic administration roles.

In a later study, Morris & Laipple (2015) studied the preparedness of 1515 senior academic administrative staff within US research-led universities. Their findings support previous research, which indicated that most leadership roles involving academic administration functions (academic deans, directors, associate deans, and department chairs) were occupied by staff with academic backgrounds unrelated to academic administration. They discovered that participants were often unprepared in the areas of commercial income development, defining metrics to track success, and dealing with appeals, grievances, and complaints. Academic administrative leaders who had completed courses in business administration, human resources, leadership, organisational psychology, and behavioural psychology enjoyed higher levels of work readiness than those who had completed courses in other fields. However, most participants had become less passionate about their work after commencing academic administrative roles. Around half of respondents said that administrative chores negatively affected their well-being and quality of life, while only 20.5 per cent reported feeling happy about their work daily.

Deans, directors, and department chairpersons are accountable for decisions affecting all teachers, students, and staff. However, the majority have no previous formal business, management, or leadership training. Leaders in these senior academic administrative positions are required to set the tone and create an environment for the faculty to be competitive in terms of increased rankings and external and donor funding. A systematic approach to training, development, and coaching is required for academic leaders to succeed in these roles. Leaders in academic administration with poor work readiness levels may impede their organisation's progress and negatively affect productivity and morale. The poor focus on leadership development in higher education institutions stands in contrast to that of the corporate sector, which spent more than $15 billion on leadership training in the US in 2013 (Morris & Laipple, 2015).

Work readiness has developed as a selection criterion for predicting the job performance potential of graduates. However, previous research studies reflect

conflicting views on education and work readiness. On the one hand, economists hold that employers seek to recruit workers who can maximise productivity and that workers are paid according to their level of skills and productivity. On the other hand, sociologists believe that access to jobs is limited by employers who set prerequisite educational requirements that are not required for their jobs (Rosenbaum & Binder, 1997).

2.11 JOB PERFORMANCE

Job performance is defined as the entire value contributed to an organization by an individual's behaviour patterns over a specific period (Motowidlo, 2003). It indicates how well employees do their jobs, take the initiative and demonstrate resourcefulness (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Job performance refers to the measurable activities, behaviours, and results that workers participate in or achieve that are related to and contribute to the organisation's objectives (Hafidz et al., 2012). It is considered critical to organisational success (Barros et al., 2014).

In industrial psychology, job performance is a critical concept. Personnel selection is predicated on the notion that people are picked from a pool of candidates more likely to perform effectively on the job. Individuals that do well are promoted, recognised, and honoured. Individuals who do well have far more career prospects than those who achieve moderately or poorly. Many training programmes are meant to help employees perform better on the job. Employee performance data is used in performance appraisal, feedback, and merit pay systems. In a nutshell, job performance is a concept that underpins much of work psychology (Ng and Feldman, 2009).

The turbulent context of today’s world forces organisations to focus on the job performance of their employees (Carlos & Rodrigues, 2016). This is particularly relevant for higher education institutions such as the universities, given the turbulent environment in which they have been forced to operate, which includes challenges such as declining state subsidies, rising fee debt, under-preparedness of school-leavers and the transition to emergency remote online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic.

2.11.1 MEASURING JOB PERFORMANCE

The measurement of job performance is an essential activity for organisations as many important decisions are taken based on job performance (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000).

Job performance is, however, referred to as a latent construct that cannot be measured by observation, and psychologists have given considerable attention to performance within work contexts (Arvey & Murphy, 1998).

Two properties are implied by the term latent concept. First, job performance cannot be defined by pointing to anything physical and concrete. Only the manifestations of this concept may be identified. Second, there are a variety of signs that could point to poor job performance.

As a consequence, although the particular manifestations may vary between jobs, the dimension of the construct may remain similar between employment (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000). Various proxies have therefore been used for measuring job performance (Zikmund et al., 2013). These include awards received, letters of commendation, peer nomination and performance evaluation scores, supervisor rating scales, job knowledge assessments, hands-on job samples, and archival data such as sales figures and production records. Performance ratings, such as peer and supervisor evaluations, are the most common technique for gauging job performance among these alternatives (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000).

2.11.2 TASK PERFORMANCE AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

Performance is viewed as a multi-dimensional notion by researchers. However, the behavioural and result aspects of performance can be distinguished on the most basic level.

The behavioural aspect pertains to what people do at work, such as teaching a statistics course to undergraduate students. On the other hand, the outcome aspect relates to the results of an individual's actions, such as a student's statistical knowledge after attending the course.

Other determinants impact the outcome, in addition to the behavioural aspect. Using the previous example, a teacher who delivers a great statistics session that meets all

of the learning objectives (behavioural aspect) may not be able to supply students with knowledge (outcome aspect) if the students lack the desire to learn or the cognitive ability (Ahadzie, Proverbs and Olomolaiye, 2008).

Task dimensions refer to an employee's performance in tasks related to the key performance areas listed in their job description (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000). They are directly or indirectly related to the technical function, often vary amongst professions within the same company, and are role-prescribed duties that incumbents must execute on time to be remunerated. Variances in task behaviour result from human characteristics such as understanding of a subject, the expertise required to perform a task and other abilities (Ahadzie, Proverbs and Olomolaiye, 2008).

It is contended that simply carrying out the core tasks of a job, however, does not constitute a high level of performance and that work is needed outside of core tasks.

Contextual dimensions refer to those tasks that do not directly contribute to core job functions but contribute to overall organisational goals (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000). Contextual performance benefits a technical function. It is frequent in most jobs, is not role-specific, and is usually not part of an employee's formal responsibilities and obligations to the company. Predisposition, rather than proficiency, is the primary source of diversity in the contextual performance of staff.

It encompasses discretionary work-related behaviours such as diligence and a helpful attitude that contribute indirectly to an organization's performance but are not recognised as job requirements. When analysing job performance, it is critical to remember that employees contribute to organisational success in ways that extend beyond the primary work for which they are contracted.

According to previous research, contextual performance may account for around 30% of the difference in management performance across managers. Individual variations in cognitive capacity, work knowledge, task competence, and job experience are the strongest predictors of task performance, but individual differences in job devotion and interpersonal facilitation are the best predictors of contextual performance (Ahadzie, Proverbs and Olomolaiye, 2008).

2.12 JOB PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Recent years have seen an expansion of the idea of work performance to encompass core task behaviour patterns, citizenship behaviour patterns, and counter-productive behaviour patterns (Ng & Feldman, 2009; Sackett, 2002).

2.12.1 CORE TASK BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Core task behaviour patterns refer to the performance of the basic required duties of a particular job.

2.12.2 CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Citizenship behaviour patterns refer to behaviour patterns over and above the core task requirements, which promote the organisation's effectiveness (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to employees' actions that do not form part of their core task functions but contribute to the organisation's overall success in achieving its goals. Literature on the topic describes OCB as positive behaviour such as "co-operation, altruism, compliance, punctuality, housecleaning, protecting company property, following company rules, dependability, helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development" (Hafidz et al., 2012).

2.12.3 COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

The term "counterproductive workplace behaviour patterns" refers to any purposeful behaviour on the part of an organisation member that is considered adverse to the organisation's legitimate objectives (Sackett, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2009).

2.12.4 ADAPTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

The changing nature of work environments has resulted in employees becoming more flexible. Adaptive work behaviour has been reported along eight dimensions:

a) Handling emergencies or crises

b) Handling work stress

c) Solving problems creatively

d) Dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations

e) Learning work tasks, technologies and procedures

f) Demonstrating interpersonal adaptability

g) Demonstrating cultural adaptability

h) Demonstrating physically oriented adaptability

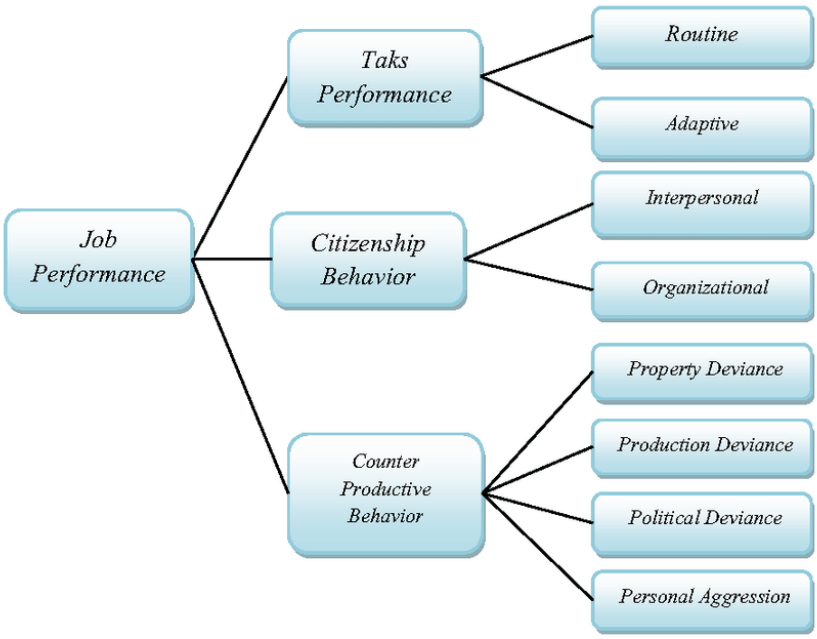


Figure 2.4: Job Performance Model

Source: Colquitt, LePine dan Wesson, 2000: 51 Organization Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

2.13 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB PERFORMANCE

2.13.1 EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Educational variables, including admissions test scores (such as SAT scores), subject majors, grade point average (GPA), type of higher education institution attended, length of academic career, teaching area (field/discipline) and qualification, have long been used to describe academic background (Allen, 1990). In addition, most organisations use education as a proxy for a person's skill set or productivity (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

While academic background has been used as a predictor of job performance in many settings, it has recorded varied outcomes. For example, Beatty (1999) used academic background characteristics such as university quality, academic performance and level of education to demonstrate that these characteristics did not significantly impact the performance of recent engineering graduates. Ng & Feldman (2009), however, argue that education level positively influences core task performance and improves creativity and citizenship behaviour in employees.

2.13.2 COGNITIVE ABILITY

Strong correlations have been recorded between job performance and cognitive ability test scores (Richardson & Norgate, 2015). Moreover, a moderate to strong correlation exists between cognitive ability and educational achievement, resulting in cognitive ability tests being frequently used as selection tools for educational programmes and occupational selection (Deary et al., 2006).

2.13.3 PERSONALITY TRAITS

A review of the literature indicates that industrial psychologists have long studied the relationship between personality traits and job performance. The Five-Factor Model of Personality, often referred to as The Big Five, is used to classify personality into five dimensions. These dimensions are “neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness” (Rothmann and Coetzer, 2003).

Of these dimensions, (low levels of) neuroticism (emotional stability), extraversion, and openness to experience have been shown to contribute positively to job performance (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003).

2.13.4 LEADERSHIP STYLE

Leadership is crucial to achieving organisational objectives and improving employee performance. Where efforts to improve employees' job performance have been unsuccessful, earlier studies have linked the lack of improvement to unsatisfactory leadership (Mahdinezhad *et al.*, 2013).

Leadership style refers to a consistent pattern of behaviour and attitudes exhibited by a leader. It has long been categorised into two broad categories: transactional and transformational.

A transactional leadership style is predicated on the leader doing particular actions, such as compensating staff for meeting goals.

On the other hand, the transformational leadership style involves the leader inspiring and motivating a team to work toward a desirable, shared vision of the future that motivates followers to sacrifice their self-interests and apply exceptional effort to the objectives advocated by the leader.

More recently, new styles of leadership have been proposed. These include “ideological leadership, pragmatic leadership, authentic leadership, ethical leadership,

spiritual leadership, distributed leadership, and integrative public leadership" (Anderson and Sun, 2017).

2.14 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY

The University has adopted the Development Dialogue (DD) as its performance management system for permanently employed PASS staff. The system requires a formal Development Dialogue between a line manager and individual staff members each year and ongoing informal Development Dialogues.

The formal Development Dialogue requires the line manager to evaluate the staff member's overall achievement against the key performance objectives. Based on this overall evaluation, the staff member is placed in one of the categories on the following rating scale:

- Exceeding Requirements
- Meeting Requirements
- Not Meeting Requirements
- Unrated

Exceeding Requirements

Staff are placed in this category if they consistently exceed the objectives and position requirements for the performance cycle, demonstrate competence at or above the required level for the role, and exceed the set standards of the position.

Staff who exceed the requirements of their positions may be rewarded with an 'Exceeds Award'. There are two categories of Exceeds Awards:

Exceeds 1 Awards

Exceeds 1 Awards may only be considered for PASS staff who have been rated on the 'Exceeding Requirements' performance category. Staff in this category exceed most objectives and position requirements and exhibit a degree of ability, competence, and understanding that exceeds the requirements for the function. They often exceed set standards and would have conducted uncommon tasks above the position's requirements to benefit the department or faculty. They contribute significantly to the

faculty, department, or university's operation in ways that go beyond the obligations of the post within a specific performance cycle.

Exceeds 2 Awards

Exceeds 2 Awards may only be considered for PASS staff who have met all the preceding requirements described in the 'Exceeds 1' category. They greatly surpass the position's goals and criteria, demonstrating ability, competence, and knowledge far beyond the role's minimum needs. They frequently exceed standards set and would have performed an unusual activity over and above the requirement of the position to benefit the University. They contribute extensively and meaningfully to the functioning of the faculty, department, or university.

Meeting Requirements

Staff are placed in this category if they consistently meet and occasionally exceed the objectives and position requirements, demonstrate competence at or above the required level for the role, and meet the standards set for the position.

Not Meeting Requirements

Staff are placed in this category if they do not meet all the objectives and requirements of the position and demonstrate little competence at the required level for the position. Staff in this category frequently underperform and do not meet the set standards for the position; they require frequent supervision, show limited initiative, and their work usually hinders others.

Unrated

Staff in this category are new in the position and have not yet had time to perform all the functions of the position, and as a result, cannot be adequately rated.

The Development Dialogue performance management system provides a framework for evaluating the performance of PASS staff in a manner that the university deems fair and ensures consistency across faculties and departments in the University (University of Cape Town, 2016).

2.15 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the education system in South Africa and the importance of education to society and individuals. In addition, previous research on

the relationship between educational achievement and job performance was explained.

Definitions of employability were provided, and various employability models were introduced.

The concept of job performance as a multidimensional construct influenced by numerous factors was discussed. The multidimensional nature of job performance was explained, and behaviour patterns were identified.

Some factors that influence job performance were described, and the challenges with measuring job performance were highlighted.

Chapter 3 will focus on the research design and methodology employed in this study. Reasons for selecting the research method and the data collection instrument employed will be provided. The ethical considerations that were taken into account will also be described.

CHAPTER 3:
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter contextualised the concepts of education, employability and job performance, highlighting the importance of each to the individual, the organisation and society.

It suggested that the attainment of educational qualifications positively impacts the job performance of individual staff members.

The objectives of this research study were noted in previous chapters as being:

- to analyse primary data on the job performance and work readiness of staff in academic administrative positions at the University, and
- to make recommendations to improve the current inconsistency in the minimum educational qualifications for academic administrative positions of equal payclass (grade), as outlined in the problem statement.

This chapter will describe the research methodology employed to achieve the primary objectives. In addition, the research philosophy, research design, reasons for selecting the chosen methodology, the population and sampling techniques, data collection procedure, data collection instrument, ethical considerations and data analysis will be discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research philosophy is an interpretation of what comprises truth, reality, and knowledge by the researcher. It demonstrates how philosophical concepts influence the design of a research project, as well as data collection and analysis, and how these choices support philosophical principles.

The study was grounded in the positivist research philosophy, commonly associated with experiments and quantitative research. It is based on the idea that knowledge should be impartial and free of bias based on the researcher's views and opinions (Ryan, 2018).

This required the research to be undertaken value-free, with the researcher remaining independent from the data and maintaining an objective position.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

As job performance and employability are both latent variables, meaning that they cannot be directly measured or observed, the study sought to utilise a model that would indirectly measure these latent variables by employing a set of observable indicators that can be directly measured using a survey method (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

The observable indicators employed for this research study included, among others:

- the annual key performance area ratings of academic administrative staff
- the number of ratings classified as ‘exceeding the requirements of the job’
- the number of ratings classified as ‘not meeting the requirements of the job’
- the number of official performance improvement plans initiated against staff members

In addition to using the preceding observable indicators, the job performance of participants would be rated along the four dimensions of job performance previously discussed in this proposal, i.e., task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour.

Dudovskiy (2018: 89-90) explains that the survey method can be divided into three broad categories, namely, questionnaires, interviews, and documentation reviews.

The documentation review method was preferred for this research study as secondary data on the job performance of academic administrative employees at the University was well documented and recorded as part of the University’s performance management process. Unfortunately, the Human Resources Department refused access to the existing secondary data on privacy concerns, disqualifying the documentation review as a viable survey method.

Primary data, therefore, had to be collected directly from individual staff members in the research sample using one of the remaining survey methods: questionnaires or interviews.

3.4 REASONS FOR SELECTING A SURVEY RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The survey technique is primarily used to test hypotheses concerning the nature of connections within a population. It is well suited to applications requiring the collection of large sizes of data in short periods.

The survey method has several advantages over other research methods. For example, surveys can be conducted more quickly and cost-effectively than observation, experiments and other forms of primary data collection and the primary data collected can be analysed relatively easily (Dudovskiy, 2018: 89-90).

Each of the survey methods (i.e. questionnaires, interviews, and documentation review) has advantages and disadvantages as regards: “(i) response rates, (ii) ability to produce representative samples, (iii) limitations on questionnaire design, (iv) quality of responses, and (v) implementation problems”.

Questionnaires are the most common data gathering method in surveys. They offer a quick and easy way to create the data matrix needed for analysis and can be implemented in different ways, including face-to-face, over the phone, or through the mail (nowadays electronically as email).

They enable researchers to identify and describe the variability in different phenomena and therefore tend to be used for descriptive research. Questionnaires may require less skill and understanding to administer than semi-structured or in-depth interviews, and mail surveys do not introduce any interviewer bias.

However, the survey method (and the questionnaire) has several challenges. These include low response rates and an associated bias.

These drawbacks may be overcome using good questionnaire design techniques, and the benefits much exceed the drawbacks in the case of this study. First, the entire sample group can be invited to participate in the study. Second, for the same sample size, email questionnaires are typically much less expensive (in terms of both time and money) than face-to-face interviews and other methods (Roberts, 1999).

For these reasons, the questionnaire was selected for this study's survey method.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

The data collection instrument (questionnaire) employed for the study would have to evaluate each participant according to the four dimensions of job performance

discussed in this proposal, i.e., task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour.

Rather than develop a questionnaire from scratch, the researcher sought to utilise the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ). The IWPQ was developed by researchers at the Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam and Utrecht University in The Netherlands. It was designed as a 47-item generic questionnaire to measure work performance at the individual level.

3.6 DIMENSIONS OF JOB PERFORMANCE EMPLOYED BY THE FRAMEWORK

The IWPQ was based on a four-dimensional conceptual framework, in which individual work performance consisted of four dimensions. These dimensions are congruent with the literature review findings (more specifically, the findings on the measurement of job performance and the notion of job performance being a multi-dimensional construct) as outlined in Chapter 2. These dimensions are described below.

3.6.1 DIMENSION ONE: TASK PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOUR (TPB)

The performance of an individual in tasks relevant to the key performance areas stated in his or her job description is referred to as the task dimension (Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000).

They are role-prescribed tasks that incumbents must complete on time to be compensated. They are related to the technical function either directly or indirectly, frequently vary between different occupations within the same organisation, and are role-prescribed tasks that incumbents must promptly complete to be compensated. Human qualities that change with task proficiency, such as knowledge, skills, and capacities, are a significant source of task behaviour variation (Ahadzie, Proverbs and Olomolaiye, 2008).

3.6.2 DIMENSION TWO: CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOUR (CPB)

Contextual performance refers to those job-related discretionary actions such as working hard and assisting others, which contribute informally to organisational success but are not technically recognised as part of the job. When analysing job performance, it is critical to remember that employees contribute to organisational success in ways that extend beyond the primary work for which they are contracted

(Sonnentag, Volmer and Spychala, 2000). This dimension is also referred to as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

3.6.3 DIMENSION THREE: ADAPTIVE PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOUR (APB)

Adaptive performance is the capacity of a person to modify their behaviour in response to the demands of a new environment. It is considered a component of an employee's overall performance (Charbonnier-Voirin and Roussel, 2012).

3.6.4 DIMENSION FOUR: COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR (CWB)

Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) may be the opposite of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). While OCB contributes positively to job performance and organisational objectives, CWB contributes negatively.

A significant negative correlation has been found between counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). This implies that the same variables that cause high amounts of one cause low levels of the other (Fox *et al.*, 2012).

The preceding dimensions will be from the job performance scales that will be tested for correlation with academic qualifications in the data analysis under Chapter 4.

3.7 RELIABILITY OF THE FRAMEWORK

Koopmans et al. (2012) reported that “the reliability of the framework was tested as follows: (i) factor analysis was used to determine whether the four-dimensional conceptual framework could be confirmed among a sample of 1 181 Dutch workers, (ii) Rasch analysis was used to examine the functioning of the items and (iii) the framework was examined to determine whether generic scales could be constructed”.

The results established the feasibility of using a generic questionnaire to assess individual job performance across occupational sectors (Koopmans et al., 2012).

The IWPQ was therefore recognised as an ideal tool for this purpose.

In addition to the 47-item IWPQ, additional items were added to the questionnaire to elicit feedback from participants in the following areas of their performance appraisals:

- the annual key performance area ratings of academic administrative staff
- the number of ratings classified as ‘exceeding the requirements of the job’

- the number of ratings classified as ‘not meeting the requirements of the job’
- the number of official performance improvement plans initiated against staff members

3.8 DATA COLLECTION METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The respondents usually complete self-administered questionnaires, and it is increasingly common for these to be administered electronically using the internet. Therefore, using the internet to administer a survey is ideally suited to the research study if the study population has easy access to the Internet (Saunders et al., 2009).

The research study utilised a self-administered questionnaire for collecting data. The questionnaire was internet-mediated using the LimeSurvey software application—an advanced open-source online survey system that is highly reliable and used by more than 10 000 organisations and individuals every month.

The 47-item Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) was transposed into LimeSurvey so that participants could access it via the internet.

The online survey was then delivered to participants via their work email addresses managed by the University. Each staff member in the sample population uses a unique email address to which only they have access. A list of the staff members and their respective email addresses was obtained from the Human Resources Department, which ensured that the survey was sent to the correct recipient. Each staff member also had access to the internet via their University-issued computers, making it easy for them to access the online survey.

3.9 POPULATION AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Population sampling is the processing of selecting a subset of the total population. Where the population is large, it may be too costly or too impractical for the researcher to study all the members of a population. Reliable sampling methods are therefore required to identify a subset of the population that will yield statistically reliable results and representative of the total population.

In the case of this study, the total population included all staff in academic administration positions across the University’s six faculties: Commerce, Engineering and the Built Environment, Health Sciences, Humanities Law, and Science.

The total population comprised 77 individuals. This is a relatively small total population that could be engaged easily. No population sampling was therefore required.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The Cape Peninsula University of Technology conducted the research study among academic administrative staff at the University.

Approval for the research study was sought and received from the following Ethics Committees:

a) Faculty of Business and Management Sciences Ethics Committee at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology
b) Faculty of Health Sciences Ethics Committee at the University

One of the conditions of the approval was that the participants would remain anonymous. Therefore, personal identifiers such as names, staff numbers and identity numbers were not collected, and the survey was completely anonymised.

Respondents participated in the research study voluntarily. The expected benefits and purpose of the study were shared with participants at the outset. In addition, any aspect of the study that participants found to be unclear was clarified.

The research conformed to the ethical standards set by the University and of research in general.

3.11 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research paradigm was described as being grounded in the positivist research philosophy.

It explains how the study utilised a model that indirectly measured job performance due to the nature of employability and job performance as latent variables. The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) was introduced as the data collection instrument used in the study. The data collection procedures and ethical considerations were also highlighted.

Chapter 4 analyses and interprets the data collected in the study.

CHAPTER 4:
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 described the research methodology employed by the study and provided details on the data collection instrument (a self-administered questionnaire) that was used.

In Chapter 4, the findings of the research study will be presented and linked to the research aims.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS

Of the total population of 77 individuals, 60 complete responses to the questionnaire were received. No sampling was required due to the relatively small size of the population.

The data analysis aimed to:

a) Measure the differences between groups within the population

b) Assess relationships between the variables

c) Test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 2

The data collected through the questionnaire were analysed using the IBM SPSS software application. SPSS was selected as the preferred data analysis software for this research as it enables extensive statistical analysis, a comprehensive library of machine learning algorithms, text analysis, open-source extensibility, interaction with big data, and rapid application development.

The data was analysed using T-test analysis and ANOVA tests. In addition, Spearman's Rho Calculator (Correlation Coefficient) was used to measure the strength of association between variables.

4.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the population. The following questions were asked to collect statistics describing the population that formed the research subject:

a) What is your age?

b) At what payclass are you employed?

c) Are you employed on a permanent or fixed-term basis?

d) Do you have a high school qualification?

e) Please indicate the type of high school qualification you obtained

f) Do you have a post-school qualification?

g) What is your gender?

h) How much total work experience do you have?

i) How much work experience do you have in academic administration?

The following tables summarise the findings of the responses to these questions.

4.2.1.1 AGE

Respondents were asked to indicate their age by answering the following question:

What is your age? Please specify in years.

21-25
26-30
31-35
36-40
41-45
45-50

51-55
56-60
Over 60

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.1: Age Standard Deviation

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
60	21	64	39.75	11.294

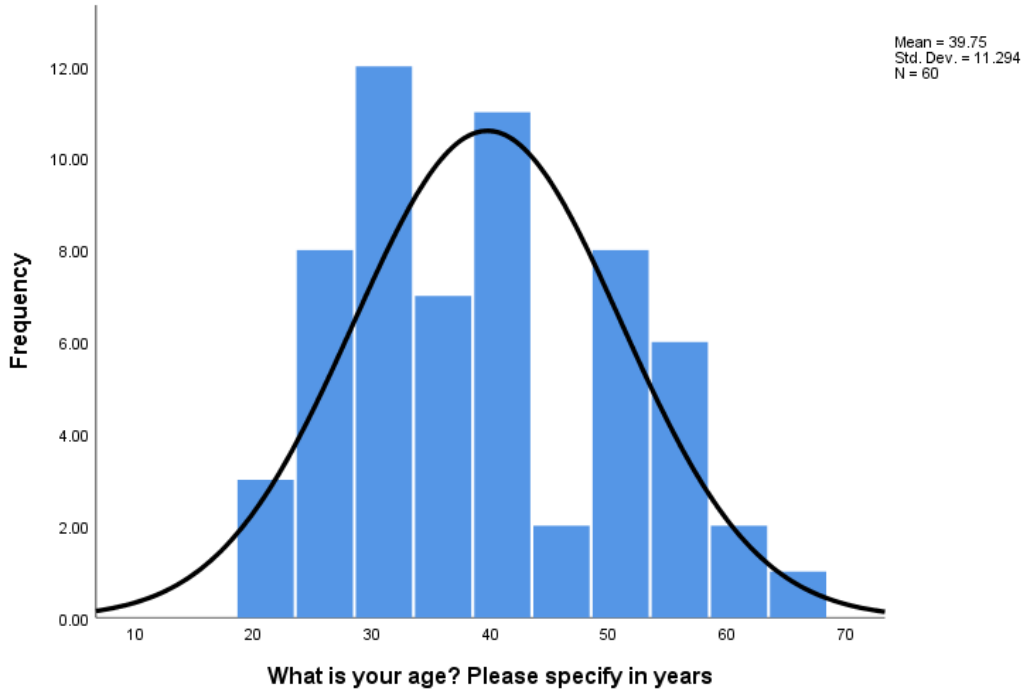


Figure 4.1: Age Frequency

The age distribution follows a normal curve with a standard deviation of 11.294, showing that most respondents are between 30 and 40 years old (mean = 39.75).

4.2.1.2 PAYCLASS

Respondents were asked to indicate their payclass by answering the following question:

At what payclass are you employed?

6
7
8
9
10
11
12

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.2:Payclass Frequency and Cumulative Percentage

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Payclass	6	10	16.7	16.7	16.7
	7	15	25.0	25.0	41.7
	8	20	33.3	33.3	75.0
	9	5	8.3	8.3	83.3
	10	4	6.7	6.7	90.0

	11	1	1.7	1.7	91.7
	12	5	8.3	8.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

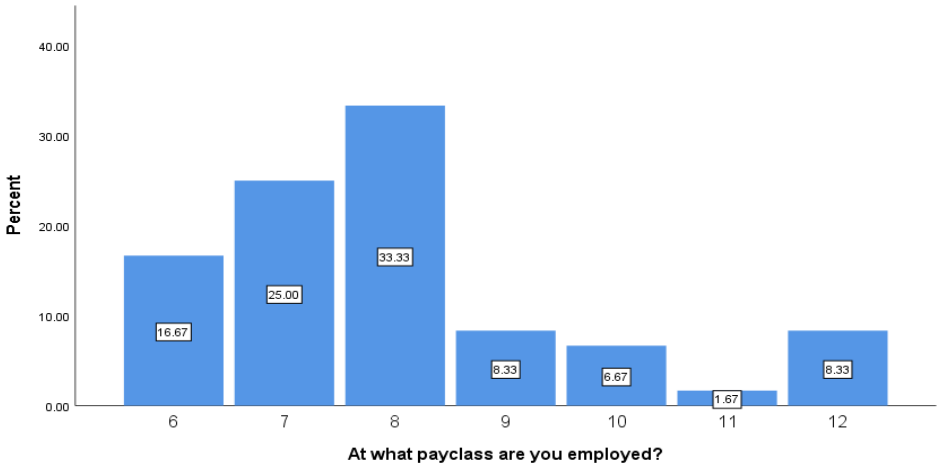


Figure 4.2: Payclass Distribution

Professional and Administrative staff (PASS) positions are graded according to a payscale that comprises seven grades (grades 6 to 12). When determining the grade of a job position, the following factors are taken into account:

a) The level of complexity of the job

b) The impact of the job on the organisation, specifically, the negative impact that may be realised if the job was not performed to the required standards

Entry-level positions with the least complexity and potential impact on the organisation are graded at level 6, while those with the highest level of complexity and potential impact on the organisation are graded at level 12.

The results indicate that 33.33% of the participants are employed in grade 8 positions, compared to 1.67% in grade 11 and 8.33% in grade 12. This suggests that most of the PASS positions in academic administration involve a moderate level of complexity with a moderate impact on the organisation.

The results also indicate that a relatively small number of staff in senior positions are responsible for managing a larger group of subordinates.

4.2.1.3 EMPLOYMENT TERM

Respondents were asked to indicate the term of their employment by answering the following question:

Are you employed on a permanent or fixed-term basis?

Fixed-term
Permanent

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.3: Employment Term Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Permanent	54	90.0	90.0	90.0
Fixed-term	6	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

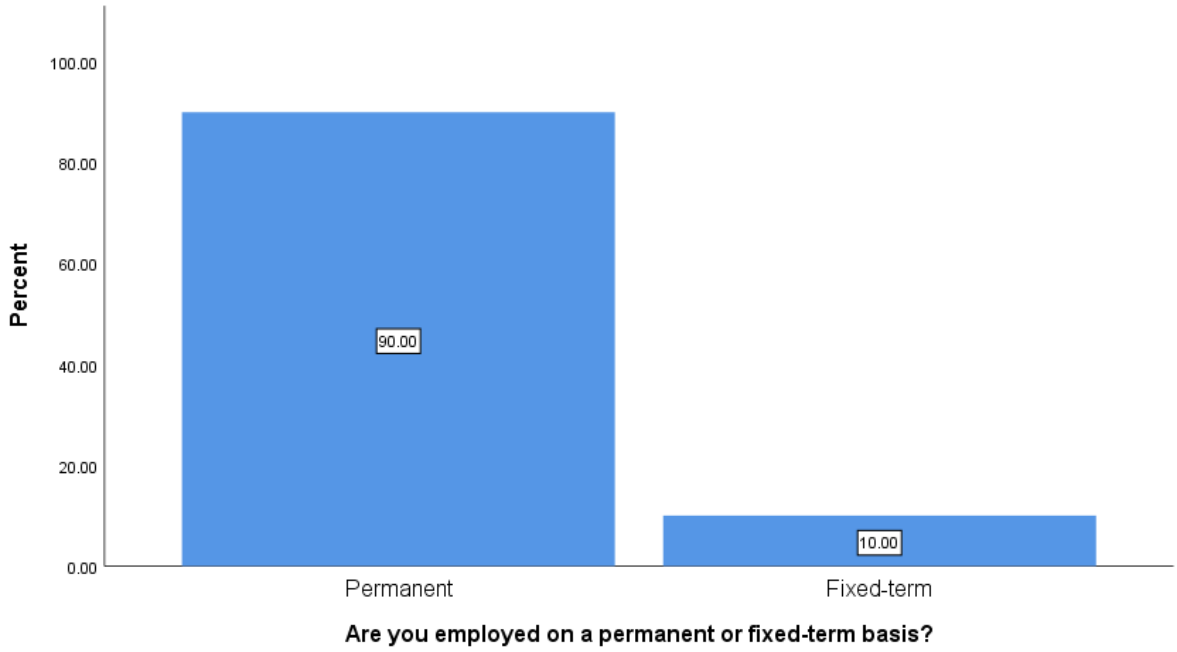


Figure 4.3: Employment Term Distribution

The results indicate that 90% of respondents are employed permanently, with 10% employed on a fixed-term basis. This suggests a level of stability in the employment of PASS staff in academic administration positions.

4.2.1.4 TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL QUALIFICATION

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of high school certificate they hold by answering the following question:

Please indicate the type of high school qualification you obtained

Senior Certificate (Matric up to 2008)
National Senior Certificate (Matric after 2008)
International Baccalaureate

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.4: Type of High School Qualification Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Senior Certificate (Matric up to 2008)	50	83.3	87.7	87.7
	National Senior Certificate (Matric after 2008)	7	11.7	12.3	100.0
	Total	57	95.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	5.0		
Total		60	100.0		

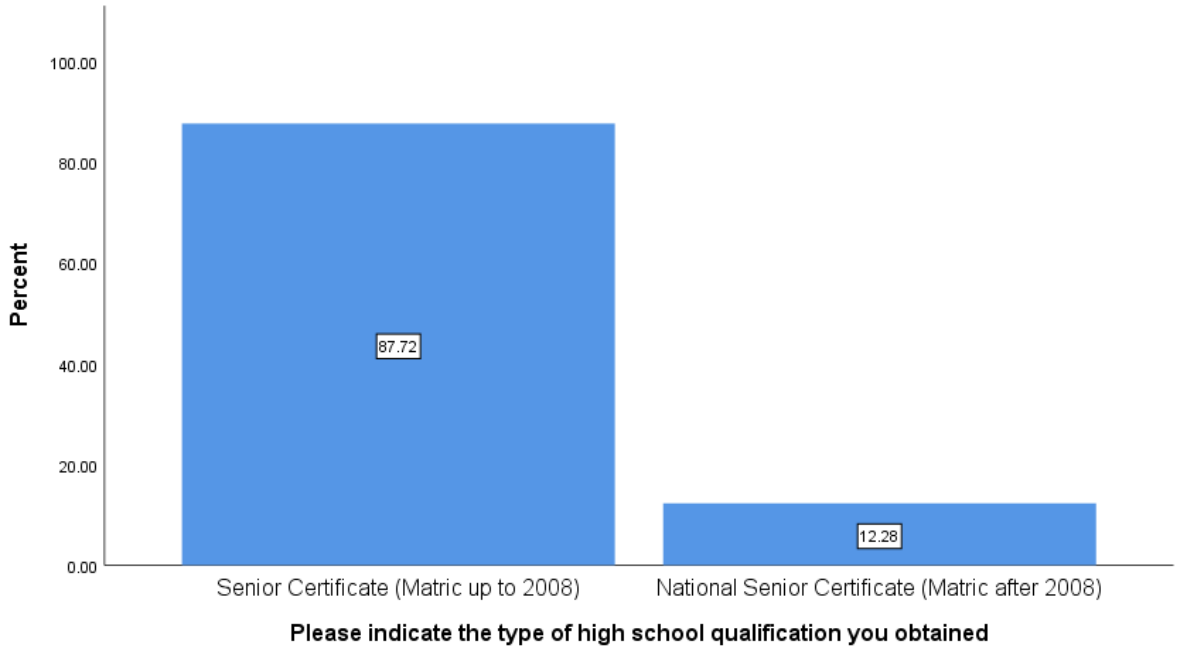


Figure 4.4: Type of High School Qualification (Distribution)

Of the respondents possessing a high school certificate, 87.72% completed Matric before 2008, while 12.28% completed Matric after 2008. This appears to be in line with the average age of respondents (39 years).

4.2.1.5 Post-School Qualification

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they held a post-school qualification by answering the following question:

Do you have a Post-School Qualification?

Yes
No

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.5: Post-School Qualification Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
	Yes	42	70.0	70.0	70.0
	No	18	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

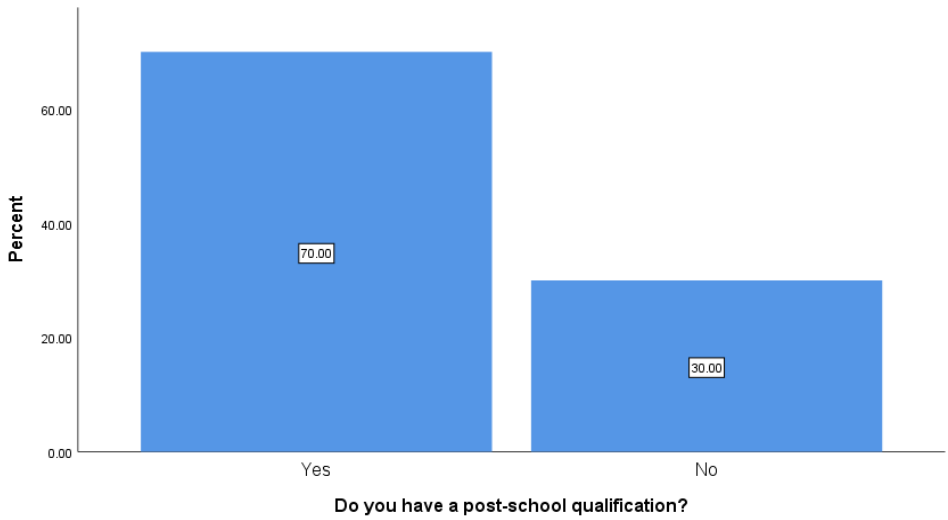


Figure 4.5: Post-School Qualification Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

The results indicate that 70% of respondents have a post-school qualification while 30% do not have a post-school qualification. This question will help to answer the following research questions, as outlined in Chapter 1:

- Do academic administrative staff with higher educational qualifications achieve higher performance ratings than staff with lower educational qualifications?
- Are staff with higher educational qualifications better prepared for academic administrative positions than staff with lower educational qualifications?
- Are staff with higher educational qualifications placed on performance improvement plans less often than staff with lower educational qualifications?

4.2.1.6 HIGH SCHOOL QUALIFICATION

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they completed high school by selecting by answering the following question:

Do you have a high school qualification?

Yes
No

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.6:High School Qualification Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	60	100.0	100.0	100.0

Figure 4.6: High School Qualification Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

All PASS job positions in academic administration include matric (or equivalent qualification) as a minimum requirement. Applicants without matric are excluded from the selection process. The survey results indicate that all participants have a high school qualification.

4.2.1.7 GENDER

Respondents were asked to indicate their gender by answering the following question:

What is your gender?

Male
Female
Prefer not to say

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.7:Gender Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Male	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
Female	56	93.3	93.3	98.3
Prefer not to say	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

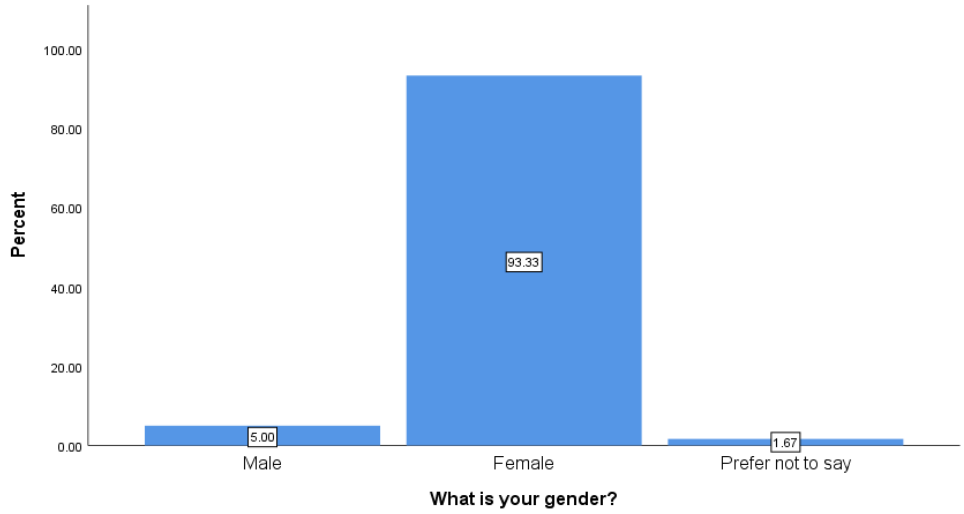


Figure 4.7:Gender Frequency and Cumulative Per cent

The survey results indicate that females dominate PASS positions in academic administration. Of the respondents to the survey, 93.33% were female, while 10% were male.

4.2.1.8 TOTAL WORK EXPERIENCE

Respondents were asked to indicate the amount of total work experience they accumulated by answering the following question:

How much total work experience do you have?

Less than one year
1-5 years
6-10 years
11-19 years
20-29 years
30 years and more

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.8: Total Work Experience Mean

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
How much total work experience do you have? (please specify in years)	60	1	46	18.61	11.081

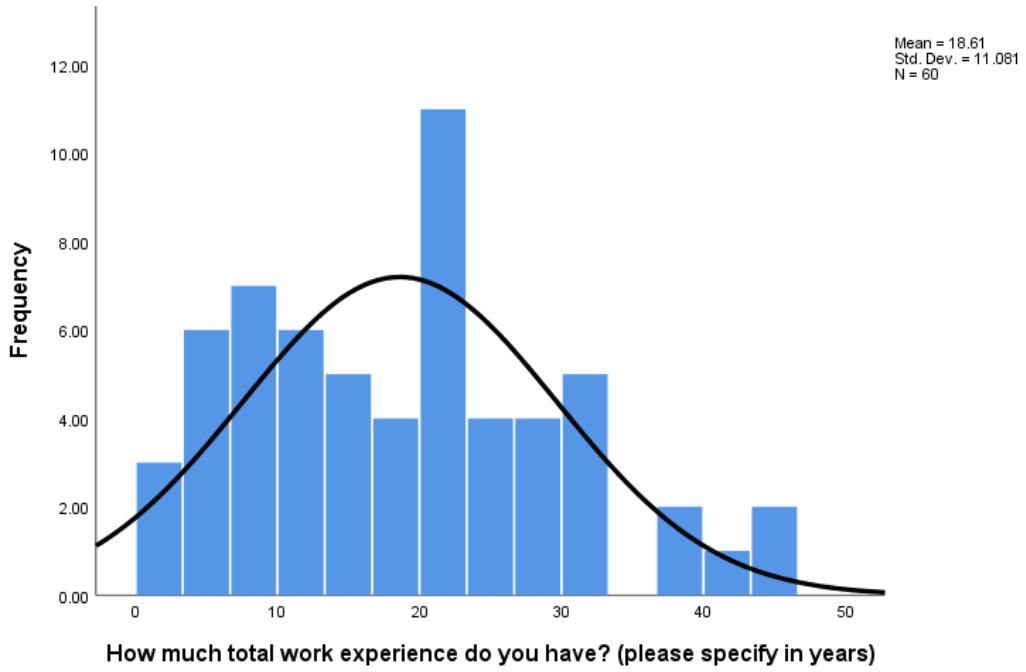


Figure 4.8: Total Work Experience Distribution

Work experience distribution follows a normal curve with a standard deviation of 11.081, showing that most respondents have approximately 20 years of total work experience (mean = 18.61).

4.2.1.9 WORK EXPERIENCE IN ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION

Respondents were asked to indicate the amount of work experience they accumulated, specifically in academic administration, by answering the following question:

How much work experience do you have in academic administration?

Less than one year
1-5 years
6-10 years
11-19 years

20-29 years
30 years and more

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.9:Work Experience in Academic Administration Mean

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
How much work experience do you have in academic administration? (please specify in years)	60	1	35	9.60	7.081

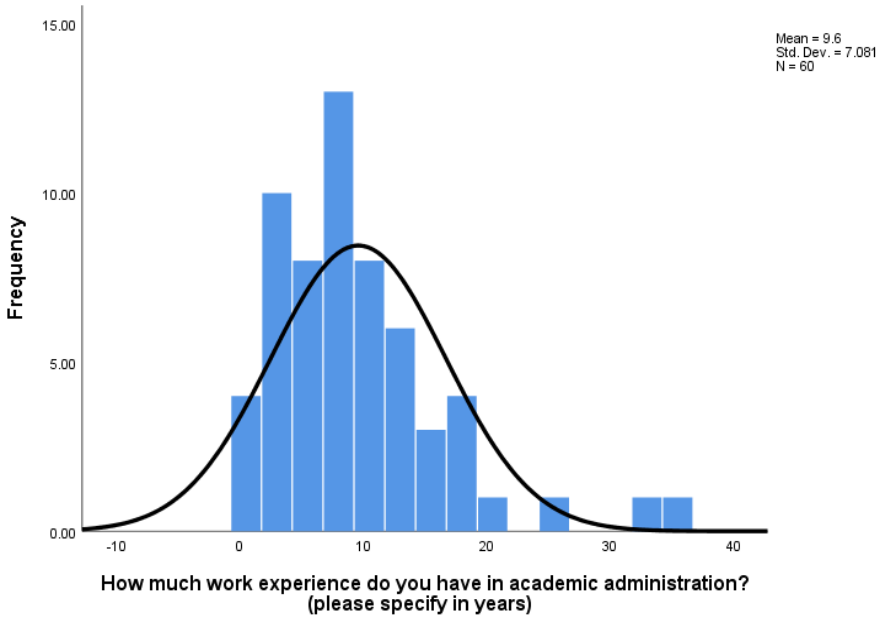


Figure 4.9: Total Work Experience in Academic Administration (Distribution)

Work experience distribution, specifically in academic administration, follows a normal curve with a standard deviation of 7.081, showing that most respondents have approximately 18 years of total work experience in this area (mean = 18.61).

4.2.2 MULTIPLE RESPONSE VARIABLES

4.2.2.1 POST-SCHOOL QUALIFICATION

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of post-school qualification they possessed. Respondents with more than one post-school qualification were asked to indicate the highest.

If you have a post-school qualification, please indicate the type of qualification you obtained.

Certificate
Diploma
National Diploma
Bachelor’s Degree
B-Tech
Honour’s Degree
Postgraduate Diploma
Master’s Degree
Doctoral Degree

The responses received are summarised in the tables below:

Table 4.10: Post-School Qualification Frequencies

		Responses		Per cent of Cases
		N	Per cent	
Qualification	Certificate	4	8.5%	9.8%
	Diploma	10	21.3%	24.4%
	National Diploma	1	2.1%	2.4%
	Bachelor's Degree	7	14.9%	17.1%
	B-Tech	2	4.3%	4.9%
	Honour's Degree	8	17.0%	19.5%
	Postgraduate Diploma	8	17.0%	19.5%
	Master's Degree	5	10.6%	12.2%
	Doctoral Degree	2	4.3%	4.9%
Total		47	100.0%	114.6%

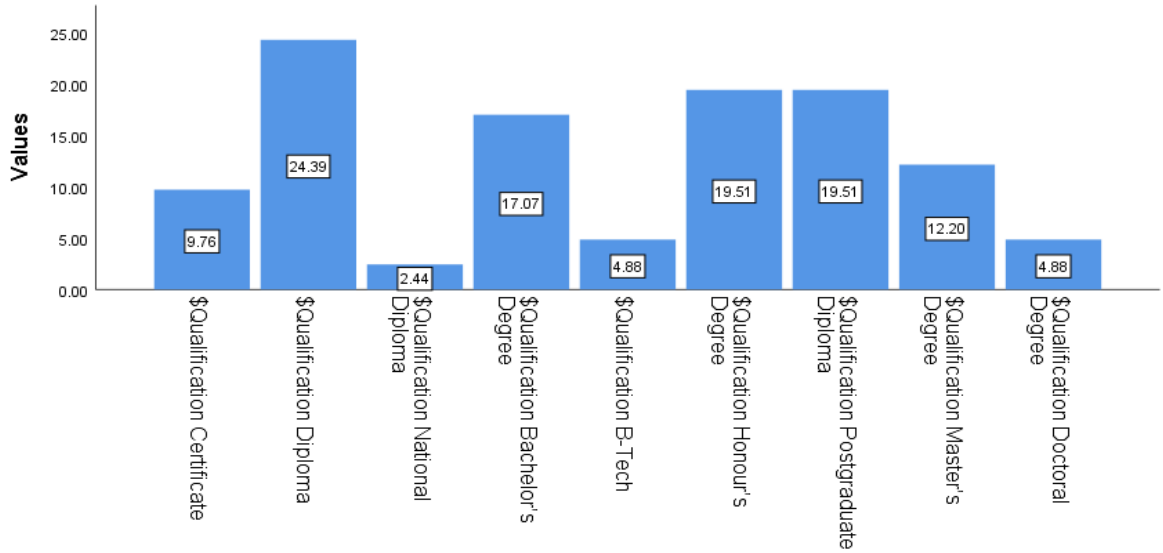


Figure 4.10: Post-School Qualification Frequencies

The results indicate that 24.39% of respondents have a diploma qualification (highest frequency), while 4.68% possessed a doctoral qualification (lowest frequency). This result is expected as a doctoral qualification is seldom a requirement for PASS positions in academic administration. On the other hand, postgraduate Diplomas and Honour's degrees showed relatively high frequency at 19.51% each.

4.2.2.2 ACADEMIC AREA OF STUDY

Respondents were asked to indicate their academic area of study by selecting from a list of academic disciplines.

If you have a post-school qualification, please indicate the academic area of your qualification(s)

Commerce
Humanities
Science
Engineering
Law
Health Sciences

The results of the responses are summarised below:

Table 4.11: Academic Area of Study (Case Summary)

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Per cent	N	Per cent	N	Per cent
Qualification	41	68.3%	19	31.7%	60	100.0%
Academic Area	34	56.7%	26	43.3%	60	100.0%

Table 4.12: Academic Area of Study (Case Summary)

		Responses		Per cent of Cases
		N	Per cent	
Academic Area	Commerce	14	32.6%	41.2%
	Humanities	19	44.2%	55.9%
	Science	6	14.0%	17.6%
	Law	2	4.7%	5.9%
	Health Sciences	2	4.7%	5.9%
Total		43	100.0%	126.5%

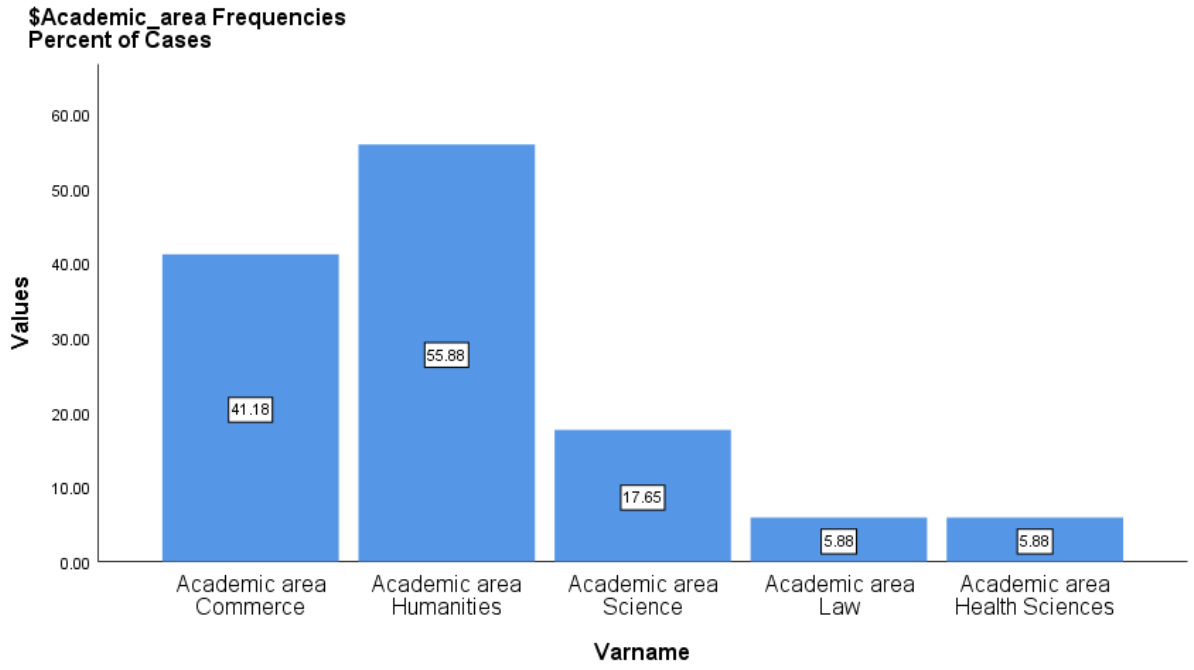


Figure 4.11: Academic Area of Study Distribution

The results indicate that more than half of PASS staff with post-school qualifications studied in the Humanities (55.88%). Other academic areas in which PASS staff held post-school qualifications were: Commerce (41.18%), Science (17.65%), Law (5.88%) and Health Sciences (5.88%). None of the respondents indicated that they studied in the Engineering field. These figures suggest that graduates from the Humanities and Commerce are more inclined to pursue careers of an administrative nature than those from the science and technology disciplines.

4.3 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS WITH JOB PERFORMANCE

4.3.1 MARITAL STATUS

Respondents were also asked to indicate their marital status by answering the following question:

What is your marital status?

The marital status groups were compared with the four dimensions of job performance, namely, Contextual Performance Behaviour (CPB), Adaptive Performance Behaviour (APB), Task Performance Behaviour (TPB) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), using a T-Test.

The tables below provide a summary of the comparison of marital status with the job performance dimensions:

Table 4.13: Correlation of Job Performance with Marital Status

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Contextual Performance Behaviour (CPB)	Single	24	70,4365	22,10143	4,51144
	Married	29	71,3465	16,39085	3,04370

Adaptive Performance Behaviour (APB)	Single	23	83,5598	13,91869	2,90225
	Married	29	82,8664	11,00492	2,04356
Task Performance Behaviour (TPB)	Single	25	59,0909	18,32331	3,66466
	Married	30	55,4545	13,36725	2,44051
Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)	Single	23	16,6304	13,95221	2,90924
	Married	29	13,7931	9,00448	1,67209

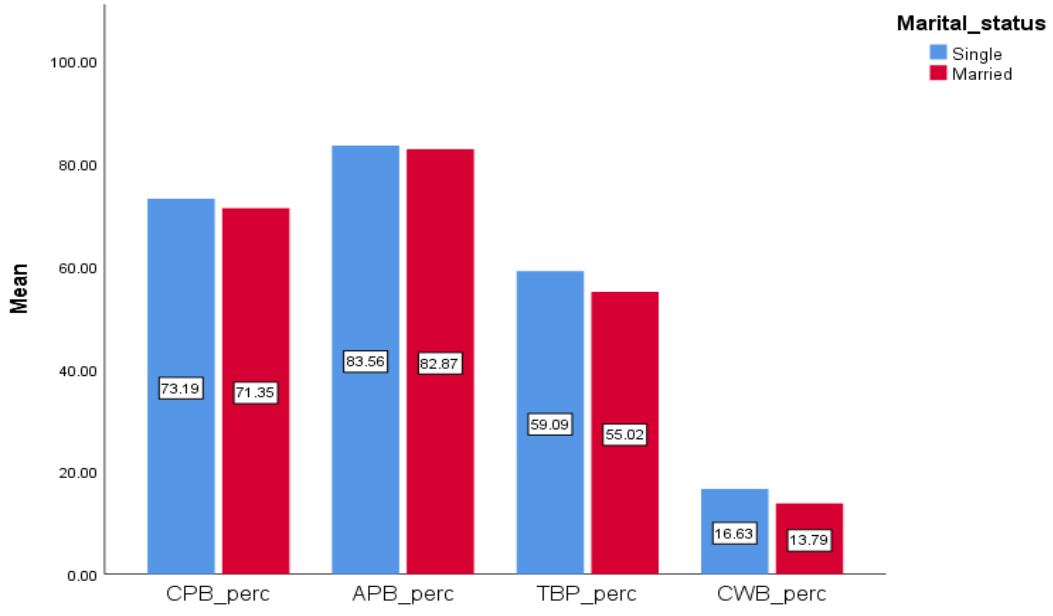


Figure 4.12: Correlation of Job Performance with Marital Status

The Sig value calculated was larger than 0.05, showing no significant correlation between the job performance and the marital status groups.

4.4 CORRELATION OF JOB PERFORMANCE WITH AGE

As with marital status, the age groups were also compared with the four dimensions of job performance, namely, Contextual Performance Behaviour (CPB), Adaptive Performance Behaviour (APB), Task Performance Behaviour (TPB) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), using a T-Test. Again, there was no correlation between the job performance and age of the respondents (the sig value was >0.05).

4.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

4.5.1 INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

In 1960, Professor Howard Levene used the F-test to examine the absolute deviations of observations from their group means. Levene's method is powerful and resistant to non-normality, and it has become a standard technique for determining variance homogeneity (Gastwirth, Gel and Miao, 2009).

The application of Levene's Test for Equality demonstrated that the data collected was reliable.

Table 4.14: Levene's Test for Equality

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper

CPB_perc	Equal variances assumed	0,727	0,398	-0,172	51	0,864	-0,90996	5,29217	-11,53444	9,71452
	Equal variances not assumed			-0,167	41,620	0,868	-0,90996	5,44217	-11,89567	10,07575
APB_perc	Equal variances assumed	1,384	0,245	0,201	50	0,842	0,69340	3,45440	-6,24495	7,63176
	Equal variances not assumed			0,195	41,255	0,846	0,69340	3,54953	-6,47368	7,86048
TBP_perc	Equal variances assumed	5,214	0,026	0,850	53	0,399	3,63636	4,28007	-4,94838	12,22111
	Equal variances			0,826	43,008	0,413	3,63636	4,40294	-5,24296	12,51569

	not assumed									
CWB_perc	Equal variances assumed	1,250	0,269	0,888	50	0,379	2,83733	3,19646	-3,58295	9,25761
	Equal variances not assumed			0,846	35,861	0,403	2,83733	3,35552	-3,96890	9,64356

		What is your age? Please specify in years
CPB_perc		-0,121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,389
		53
APB_perc		-0,176
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,211
		52
TBP_perc		-0,240
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,078
		55

CWB_perc		-0,072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,614
		52

4.6 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE JOB PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS / SCALES

Due to the automatic recoding in SPSS, some variables were coded from 1-4 and others 1-5, depending on the responses received from the respondents. The scores recorded by the respondents were converted to percentages by following these steps:

Step 1

The response options were used to determine a theoretical maximum for each scale/job performance dimension.

Step 2

The theoretical minimum was subtracted so that the scale/job performance dimensions start at zero.

Step 3

A percentage was calculated from the reduced maximum for each scale/job performance dimension.

The analysis yielded the following results:

Table 4.15: Job Performance Dimensions (Scales)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CPB_perc	53	7.14	100.00	70.9344	18.99810
APB_perc	52	50.00	100.00	83.1731	12.25485
TBP_perc	55	27.27	86.36	57.1074	15.76446

CWB_perc	52	.00	57.50	15.0481	11.42420
Valid N (listwise)	52				

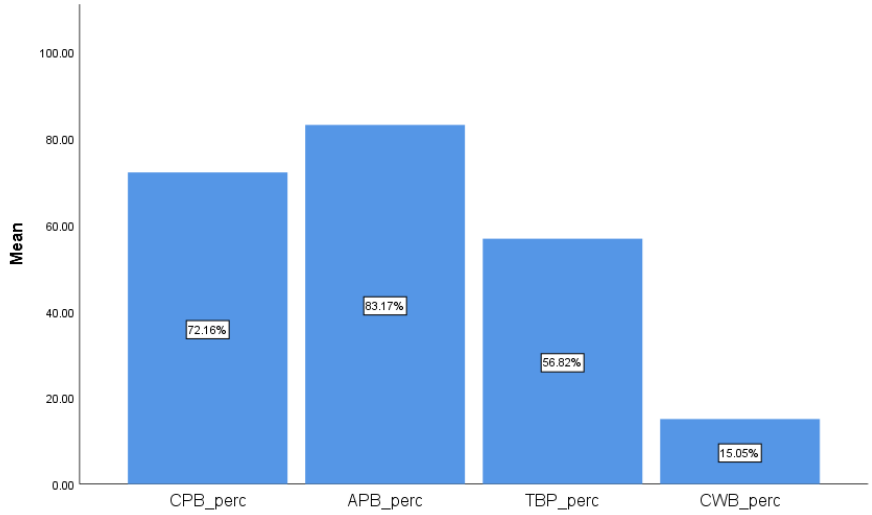


Figure 4.13: Job Performance Dimensions (Scales)

An analysis of the data collected in the study indicated that 72.16% of respondents demonstrated contextual performance behaviour (CPB), 56.82% of respondents demonstrated task performance behaviour (APB), 72.16% of respondents demonstrated contextual performance behaviour (CPB), and 15.05% of respondents demonstrated counterproductive work behaviour (CWB).

Table 4.16: Frequencies of Qualifications by Qualification Type

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Certificate	2	3.3	4.9	4.9
	Diploma	10	16.7	24.4	29.3
	National Diploma	1	1.7	2.4	31.7
	Bachelor's degree	4	6.7	9.8	41.5
	B-tech	2	3.3	4.9	46.3

	Honours degree	7	11.7	17.1	63.4
	Postgraduate Diploma	8	13.3	19.5	82.9
	Master's degree	5	8.3	12.2	95.1
	Doctoral Degree	2	3.3	4.9	100.0
	Total	41	68.3	100.0	
Missing	0	19	31.7		
Total		60	100.0		

Table 4.17: Frequencies of Qualifications by NQF Level

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	5	2	3.3	4.9	4.9
	6	11	18.3	26.8	31.7
	7	6	10.0	14.6	46.3
	8	15	25.0	36.6	82.9
	9	5	8.3	12.2	95.1
	10	2	3.3	4.9	100.0
	Total	41	68.3	100.0	
Missing	System	19	31.7		
Total		60	100.0		

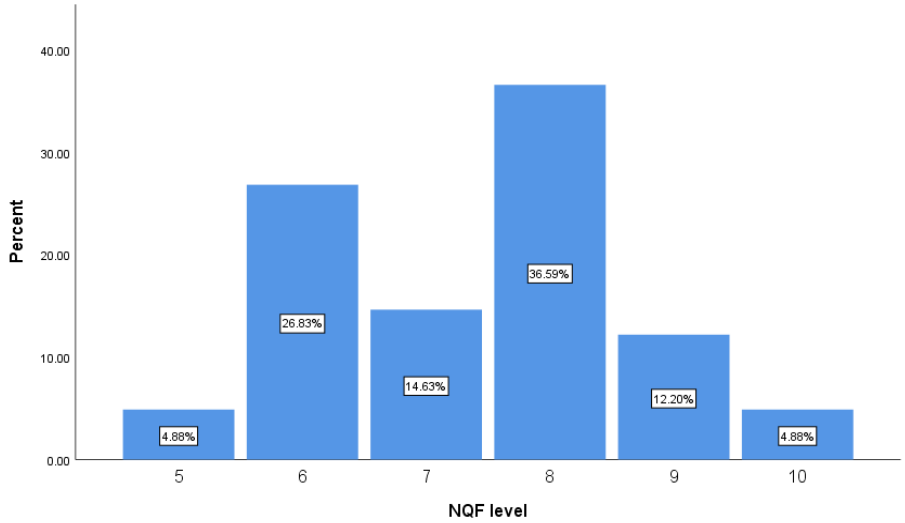


Figure 4.14: Frequencies of Qualifications by NQF Level

Table 4.18: Correlations Between Job Performance Dimensions and NQF Level

			NQF level
Spearman's rho	CPB_perc		.132
			.435
			37
	APB_perc		.078
			.645
			37
	TBP_perc		-.070
			.675
			38
	CWB_perc		.156
			.358
			37

Spearman's Rho is a non-parametric test for determining the strength of a relationship between two variables, with r = 1 indicating a perfect positive correlation and r = -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation.

A sig value of >0.05 indicates an insignificant correlation, while a sig value of <0.05 represents a significant correlation.

This test demonstrated an insignificant positive correlation between CPB and NQF level qualification: Rs (35) = .13, p= .435.

There was an insignificant positive correlation between APB and NQF level qualification: Rs (35) = .07, p= .645, as well as an insignificant positive correlation between CWB and NQF level qualification: Rs (35) = .15, p= .358.

There was also an insignificant negative correlation between TBP and NQF level qualification: Rs (35) = -.07, p = .675.

4.7 PERFORMANCE RATINGS AND NQF LEVEL

As outlined in Chapter 2, the performance management system employed by the University allows academic administrative staff to be rated annually through a performance appraisal. The rating requires line managers to measure the work performance of their staff and to categorise their level of performance into one of the following categories:

a) Unrated – when not enough information is available to conduct a rating (for example, with new employees)

b) Not Meeting Requirements – when an employee is deemed to have failed to meet the key performance areas of the job

c) Meeting Requirements – when an employee is deemed to have met all the key performance areas of the job

d) Exceeding Requirements – when an employee is deemed to have exceeded the requirements of the job

Spearman’s Rho analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the NQF level of the qualification(s) held by respondents and the outcome of the performance ratings agreed between staff members and their line managers.

The outcome of this analysis is summarised in the tables below.

Table 4.19: Performance Rating of 'Exceeds Requirements' Frequency

In the Development Dialogue (performance management) process, how many times have you achieved an 'Exceeds the Requirements of the Job' rating while in an academic administration position?		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Never	25	41,7	49,0	49,0
	Once	17	28,3	33,3	82,4
	Twice	4	6,7	7,8	90,2
	More Than Twice	5	8,3		100,0
	Total	51	85,0	100,0	
Missing	1	9	15,0		
Total		60	100,0		

Table 4.20: Correlation Between NQF Level and Performance Rating of 'Exceeds Requirements

			In the Development Dialogue (performance management) process, how many times have you achieved an 'Exceeds the Requirements of the Job' rating while in an academic administration position?	NQF level
Spearman's rho	In the Development Dialogue (performance management) process, how many times have you achieved an 'Exceeds the Requirements of the Job' rating while in an academic administration position?	Correlation Coefficient	--	
		Sig. (2-tailed)		
		N	51	

	NQF level	**Correlation Coefficient**	0,321	--
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0,056	
		N	36	41

There was a moderate positive correlation between performance ratings of 'exceeds requirements' and the NQF level of qualifications held by respondents: Rs (34) = .32, p = .056.

4.8 USING THE FINDINGS TO ANSWER THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The frequencies and correlations presented above will be used to answer the research questions presented in Chapter 1.

4.8.1 PRIMARY QUESTION

What is the relationship between the level of educational qualifications and the job performance of academic administrative staff at the University?

After defining job performance into four dimensions (Contextual Performance Behaviour, Adaptive Performance Behaviour, Task Performance Behaviour, and Counterproductive Work Behaviour), the data collected indicates that no significant correlations exist between the preceding dimensions of job performance and the level of NQF qualifications held by staff members in academic administrative positions.

The findings are aligned with that of previous research in the discipline. For example, Aris and Timmins (1989) argued that the type and level of educational qualification held by staff in non-technical positions have no effect on their level of performance (Ng and Feldman, 2009), and Cvanagh (1970) reported that there was no evidence to support the idea that higher levels of education resulted in improved job performance.

Previous research has, however, also suggested that higher levels of education positively influence the performance of core tasks, creativity and constructive behaviour in employees (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Unfortunately, an analysis of the data collected in this study does not confirm this within the context of the academic administrative staff at the University.

4.8.2 SUB-QUESTION ONE

Do academic administrative staff with higher educational qualifications achieve higher performance ratings than staff with lower educational qualifications?

An analysis of the data collected in the study did not show any correlation between the NQF level of qualifications held by respondents and their job performance as defined by dimensions of job performance (TPB, CPB, APB and CWB).

A Spearman's Rho test was conducted to determine the relationship between the NQF level of qualification(s) held by respondents and their annual performance ratings (i.e. actual performance ratings as agreed with line managers against the KPAs outlined in their job descriptions).

The results showed a moderately significant positive correlation (p=0.056) between the NQF level of qualification(s) and performance ratings that 'exceed the requirements' of the job.

4.8.3 SUB-QUESTION TWO

Are staff with higher educational qualifications placed on performance improvement plans less often than staff with lower educational qualifications?

Table 4.21: Performance Improvement Plan (PIP) Frequency

How many times have you been placed on a formal performance improvement plan (PIP) while in an academic administration position?					
		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Never	47	78,3	92,2	92,2
	Once	3	5,0	5,9	98,0
	More Than Twice	1	1,7	2,0	100,0
	Total	51	85,0	100,0	
Missing	1	9	15,0		
Total		60	100,0		

There is no evidence that staff with higher educational qualifications are placed on performance improvement plans less often than staff with lower educational qualifications.

4.9 USING THE FINDINGS TO TEST THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were tested in this research study, as outlined in Chapter 1.

4.9.1 HYPOTHESIS ONE

There is no correlation between educational qualifications and core task performance among staff in academic administrative positions at the University.

An analysis of the data collected in this research study supports the hypothesis that the core task performance (defined as TPB – Task Performance Behaviour) of staff members in academic administrative positions at the University does not correlate with differences in the NQF level of the qualifications they hold.

4.9.2 HYPOTHESIS TWO

There is a positive correlation between educational qualifications, contextual performance, and adaptive work behaviour.

This research study confirms no correlation between educational qualifications and contextual performance behaviour (CPB) and adaptive work behaviour (APB). The data collected by this research study, therefore, reject this hypothesis.

4.9.3 HYPOTHESIS THREE

There is a negative correlation between educational qualifications and counterproductive work behaviour patterns among staff in academic administrative positions at the University.

This study does not support the hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between educational qualifications and counterproductive work behaviour patterns (CWB) among staff in academic administrative positions at the University.

4.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the demographic characteristics of the population were described. Multiple response variables enabled the researcher to measure the job performance

of respondents according to four job performance behaviour patterns, namely: Contextual Performance Behaviour (CPB), Adaptive Performance Behaviour (APB), Task Performance Behaviour (TPB), and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB).

An Independent Samples Test was conducted, using Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and t-test for Equality of Means, demonstrating that this study's data and statistical tests were sufficient and valid.

The study's findings were used to answer the research questions and test the research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 5:
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, the data was discussed and linked to the behaviour patterns used to measure job performance.

A summary of the study, recommendations, proposals for further research, and concluding remarks are presented in Chapter 5.

5.2 INTERPRETATION AND ARTICULATION OF THE FINDINGS

Job performance is widely considered imperative to organisations' success, and the topic has received substantial interest from researchers, mainly in the fields of Human Resources, Management, and Psychology. Employee performance has been described as critical to achieving organisational goals (Barros et al., 2014). However, job performance is considered a latent construct and, therefore, very difficult to measure.

A review of the literature on the topic of job performance demonstrates that employee performance can be grouped along four dimensions, namely; contextual performance behaviour (CPB), adaptive performance behaviour (APB), task performance behaviour (TPB), and counterproductive behaviour (CWB).

Several factors are known to influence job performance. Some factors affect job performance positively, while others are understood to reduce levels of job performance.

Factors that are reported to influence job performance include the work environment, organisational culture, educational background and qualifications, and job satisfaction.

Predictors of job performance usually include factors such as education, previous work experience and age. Researchers have attempted to understand the predictors of job performance, and studies in this area have shown mixed results.

If significant financial savings through austerity is an organisational goal for the University, then it can be argued that the University will require staff who can perform their core job functions efficiently (i.e. task performance) and who demonstrate positive

morale, loyalty and conscientiousness (i.e. adaptive performance behaviour and positive organisational citizenship), and do not demonstrate behaviour that is opposite to organisational citizenship, such as excessive absenteeism and negligence (i.e. counterproductive work behaviour).

The research questions were answered using the available literature and the survey results employed by this study, i.e. the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ).

The vast literature in this area demonstrates mixed relationships between educational qualifications and job performance across different industries and countries. However, in the context of staff in academic administrative positions at the University, this study shows no correlation between the level of academic qualification and the dimensions of job performance as defined in the literature on the topic.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 RECOMMENDATION ONE

The knowledge and understanding gained with this research should be used as a basis for determining preferred educational levels for academic administrative positions of varying complexity and will provide the University with additional guidelines for the recruitment and selection of staff who are most likely to have a positive impact on organisational objectives.

5.3.2 RECOMMENDATION TWO

This study has shown educational qualifications on their own to be an unreliable predictor of job performance in the academic administrative staff at the University. Therefore, other predictors, such as competency assessments and achievement in previous roles, should be explored and developed.

5.4 RECOMMENDATION THREE

Provision should be made for applicants to academic administrative positions within the University to be considered for such positions if they have demonstratable experience, skills and knowledge of the job – even if they do not have formal post-school educational qualifications.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The delineation of this study restricted it to the relationship between educational qualifications and job performance of staff members in academic administration positions.

Scope exists for this topic to be further researched. Additional studies in the future may consider the following:

a) Factors other than educational qualifications that may affect job performance

Other factors may influence job performance in these positions in a more statistically significant manner than educational qualifications. These factors include (a) the staff member's cognitive ability, (b) personality traits and (c) the management approach to which staff members are subjected.

b) The relevance of educational qualifications to the job performance of academic administrators at the same job grade

This study discussed the relevance of educational qualifications to the job performance of academic administrators in varying positions and pay classes (grades) in the University. It included staff in various roles ranging from Secretaries to Managers. The study shows no significant correlation between staff performance indicators and their qualification levels.

Further studies may investigate whether a Senior Secretary with a matric only (for example) performs at an equal or better level to one with a master's degree. While the findings of this study suggests that an employee should not be expected to perform in a more exemplary manner on account of higher educational qualifications, further research comparing job performance among employees at the same level may provide a more conclusive outcome.

5.6 APPLICATION OF FINDINGS TO THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Chapter 1, it was noted that Liberal Education Theory holds the view that education produces a person who possesses knowledge about the world and the ability to apply that knowledge to everyday life (Mulachy, 2008), while Credentialist Theory implies that formal qualifications are more relevant than skills and ability. In addition, it supports the view that education merely facilitates access to economic freedom,

political freedom and the protection that rising income and education provide (Miller, 1967).

Based on the findings of this research study, the relationship between educational qualifications and the job performance of academic administrative staff at the University is appropriately aligned with these theories.

Matric is set as a minimum requirement for all academic administrative positions, supporting the view that a liberal education is required for a person to gain knowledge of the world in every life, including work.

In addition to Matric, most academic administrative positions require a post-school qualification. This research study argues that there is no statistically significant correlation between the job performance of staff in these positions and their level of educational qualification. In line with the principles of Credentialist Theory, the study suggests that formal qualifications facilitate access to academic administrative positions and that there is no statistically significant correlation between the credentials held by employees in academic administrative positions and their job performance.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter summarised the study and made recommendations for further research. The research was also linked to Liberal Education and Credentialist Theories.

REFERENCE LIST

ADvTECH (2020) *Annual Integrated Report 2020*. Available at: https://www.advtech.co.za/2018-annual-report (Accessed: August 15, 2021).

Ahadzie, D.K., Proverbs, D.G. and Olomolaiye, P. (2008) "Towards developing competency-based measures for construction project managers: Should contextual behaviours be distinguished from task behaviours?," *International Journal of Project Management*, 26(6), pp. 631–645. doi:10.1016/j.ijproman.2007.09.011.

Altbach, P. (2020) *The role of research universities in developing countries*, *University World News*. Available at: https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20130811091502202.

Amnesty International (2020) *South Africa: Broken and unequal: The state of education in South Africa*. Available at: www.amnesty.org.

Anderson, M.H. and Sun, P.Y.T. (2017) "Reviewing Leadership Styles: Overlaps and the Need for a New 'Full-Range' Theory," *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 19(1), pp. 76–96. doi:10.1111/ijmr.12082.

Bills, D.B. (2003) *Credentials, Signals, and Screens: Explaining the Relationship Between Schooling and Job Assignment*.

Carol, A. and Mashigo, L. (2014) *Factors influencing work readiness of graduates*.

Centre for Development and Enterprise (2012) *Building on what works in education*. Available at: https://www.cde.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Vocational-education-in-South-Africa-Strategies-for-improvement.pdf (Accessed: August 15, 2021).

Charbonnier-Voirin, A. and Roussel, P. (2012) "Adaptive Performance: A New Scale to Measure Individual Performance in Organizations," *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences / Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 29(3), pp. 280–293. doi:10.1002/cjas.232.

Cole, D. and Tibby, M. (2013) “Defining and developing your approach to employability,” *The Higher Education Academy*, p. 22. Available at: https://s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/assets.creode.advancehe-document-manager/documents/hea/private/resources/employability_framework_1568037213.pdf.

Dias, R. and Posel, D. (2011) *Unemployment, Education and Skills Constraints in Post-Apartheid South Africa*, *SSRN Electronic Journal*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.982046.

Dwivedi, Y.K. *et al.* (2020) “Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on information management research and practice: Transforming education, work and life,” *International Journal of Information Management*, 55. doi:10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102211.

Foko, B. and Kayizzi-Mugerwa, S. (2015) “Barometer of Three Major Skills Closing South Africa’s High-Skilled Worker Gap: Higher Education,” *Africa Economic Brief*, 6(7), pp. 1–20.

Fox, S. *et al.* (2012) “The deviant citizen: Measuring potential positive relations between counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour,” *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85(1), pp. 199–220. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02032.x.

Gajendran, R.S., Harrison, D.A. and Delaney-Klinger, K. (2015) “Are Telecommuters Remotely Good Citizens? Unpacking Telecommuting’s Effects on Performance Via I-Deals and Job Resources,” *Personnel Psychology*, 68(2), pp. 353–393. doi:10.1111/peps.12082.

Gastwirth, J.L., Gel, Y.R. and Miao, W. (2009) “The Impact of Levene’s Test of Equality of Variances on Statistical Theory and Practice,” *Statistical Science*, 24(3). doi:10.1214/09-STS301.

Kareem, M. and Hussein, I. (2019) “The Impact of Human Resource Development on Employee Performance and Organizational Effectiveness,” *Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy*, 7(3), pp. 307–322. doi:10.25019/MDKE/7.3.02.

Kuehn, M. (2019) “The South African Technical and Vocational Education and Training System from a German Perspective,” *Balkan Region Conference on Engineering and Business Education*, 3(1), pp. 226–234. doi:10.2478/cplbu-2020-0026.

Mahdinezhad, M. *et al.* (2013) “Transformational, transactional leadership styles and job performance of academic leaders,” *International Education Studies*, 6(11), pp. 29–34. doi:10.5539/ies.v6n11p29.

Moloi, Kholeka Constance *et al.* (2014) “Higher Education in South Africa at the Crossroads,” *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences MCSER Publishing*, 5(2). doi:10.5901/mjss.2013.v5n2p469.

Mulcahy, D.G. and Newman, J.H. (2008) *Newman’s Theory of a Liberal Education: A Reassessment and its Implications*.

National Planning Commission: The Presidency (2012) *National Development Plan 2030*. Pretoria. Available at: http://www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/Executive Summary-NDP 2030 - Our future - make it work.pdf (Accessed: July 5, 2017).

Ng, T. and Feldman, D. (2009) “How Broadly Does Education Contribute to Job Performance?,” *PERSONNEL PSYCHOLOGY*, 62, pp. 89–134.

Roberts, E.S. (1999) “In defence of the survey method: An illustration from a study of user information satisfaction,” *Accounting and Finance*, 39(1). doi:10.1111/1467-629X.00017.

Rothmann, S. and Coetzer, E.P. (2003) “The big five personality dimensions and job performance,” *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(1). doi:10.4102/sajip.v29i1.88.

Ryan, G. (2018) “Introduction to positivism, interpretivism and critical theory,” *Nurse Researcher*, 25(4). doi:10.7748/nr.2018.e1466.

Sanders, J. and de Grip, A. (2004) “Training, task flexibility and the employability of low-skilled workers,” *International Journal of Manpower*, 25(1), pp. 73–89. doi:10.1108/01437720410525009.

Sonnentag, S., Volmer, J. and Spychala, A. (2000) “Job Performance.”

South African Government (2020) *Education*. Available at: https://www.gov.za/about-sa/education (Accessed: December 20, 2020).

Sung, S.Y. and Choi, J.N. (2014) “Do organizations spend wisely on employees? Effects of training and development investments on learning and innovation in organizations,” *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(3), pp. 393–412. doi:10.1002/job.1897.

The World Bank (2014) *The World Bank*, *Gini Index*. Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI?locations=ZA (Accessed: July 25, 2021).

The World Bank (2021) *The World Bank, South Africa Economic Update: South Africa’s Labor Market Can Benefit from Young Entrepreneurs, Self-Employment.* Available at https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/southafrica/publication/south-africa-economic-update-south-africa-s-labor-market-can-benefit-from-young-entrepreneurs-self-employment (Accessed: August 04, 2022)

Todd, N. (2014) “Know the Difference Between Work Experience,” (April), pp. 62–64. Available at: http://www.studentworldonline.com/article/know-the-difference-between-work-experience-internships-/162/.

University of Cape Town (2022) *UCT top in Africa in latest world rankings*. Available at: https://www.news.uct.ac.za/article/-2021-06-09-uct-top-in-africa-in-latest-world-rankings (Accessed: August 15, 2021).

University of the Witwatersrand, J. (2020) *Wits ranked first in Africa*. Available at: https://www.wits.ac.za/news/latest-news/general-news/2020/2020-08/wits-ranked-first-in-africa.html (Accessed: August 15, 2021).

Valero, A. and van Reenen, J. (2019) “The economic impact of universities: Evidence from across the globe,” *Economics of Education Review*, 68(September 2018), pp. 53–67. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2018.09.001.

Viswesvaran, C. and Ones, D.S. (2000) “Perspectives on Models of Job Performance,” *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 8(4), pp. 216–226. doi:10.1111/1468-2389.00151.

Walters, D. (2004) “The Relationship Between Postsecondary Education and Skill : Comparing Credentialism with Human Capital Theory,” *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, XXXIV(2). Available at: http://journals.sfu.ca/cjhe/index.php/cjhe/article/viewFile/183458/183411.

Wheelahan, L. and Moodie, G. (2017) “Vocational education qualifications’ roles in pathways to work in liberal market economies,” *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 69(1), pp. 10–27. doi:10.1080/13636820.2016.1275031.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed Consent Letter

18 May 2018

All Academic Administration Staff

University of Cape Town

Delivered electronically

Dear Sir / Madam / Dr / Prof

RESEARCH STUDY ON THE JOB PERFORMANCE OF STAFF IN ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION POSITIONS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

The attached questionnaire represents a survey, which is to be conducted amongst PASS staff in Academic Administration positions within the University of Cape Town.

It aims to measure the perceptions of staff regarding the extent to which their educational qualifications impact on their job performance.

It is expected that the survey will produce information that could be used by the University to:

a) better understand the impact of educational qualifications on job performance in academic administrative positions at UCT
b) define the educational requirements for academic administration jobs more clearly

c) ensure greater consistency in the setting of minimum educational requirements for academic administration positions

The survey is part of a research project towards the completion of a Master's study, which will be submitted to the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

The contact details for the researcher and research supervisor are listed below:

Researcher

Mr Jason Stoffberg

Email: Jason.Stoffberg@uct.ac.za

Telephone: 071 351 4798

Supervisor

Prof IW Ferreira

Email: naas1942@gmail.com

Telephone: 084 607 3878

Your agreement to complete the questionnaire is voluntary.

The questionnaire does not require you to submit any details that will identify you. You are assured that all information shall be treated confidentially, and your anonymity is guaranteed.

The integrity of the data collected via this survey is guaranteed and will not be used for any other purpose.

Instructions are provided on each page of the questionnaire. Ideally, the questionnaire should take about 15 minutes to complete.

I wish to emphasise that the success of this exercise depends on your willingness to be part of this survey and I encourage you to participate.

Your input is exceptionally valuable, and your input highly appreciated.

Sincerely

JASON STOFFBERG

Student Number 197027733

Graduate School of Business Management

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Appendix B: Questionnaire

SECTION A: Demographic information (independent variables)

DD1	What is your age (in years)?		
DD2	What is your marital status?		
	Single		
	Married		
	Divorced		
DD3	What is your gender?		
	Male		
	Female		

	Undeclared		
DD4	If you have a high school qualification, please indicate the type of high school qualification you obtained		
	Senior Certificate (Matric up to 2008)		
	National Senior Certificate (Matric after 2008)		
	International Baccalaureate		
	Other		Please specify:
DD5	If you have a post-school qualification, please indicate the type of qualification you obtained (if you have more than one qualification, indicate the highest)		
	Certificate		
	Diploma		
	National Diploma		

	Advanced Certificate		
	Bachelor’s Degree		
	Advanced Diploma		
	Postgraduate Certificate		
	B-Tech		
	Honour’s Degree		
	Postgraduate Diploma		
	Professional Qualification		
	Master’s Degree		
	Doctoral Degree		
DD6	If you have a post-school qualification, please indicate the academic area if your qualification(s)		

	Commerce		
	Humanities		
	Science		
	Engineering		
	Law		
	Health Sciences		
DD7	How much total work experience do you have?		
	Less than one year		
	1 – 5 years		
	6 – 10 years		
	11 – 19 years		

	20 – 29 years		
	30 years and more		
DD8	How much work experience do you have in academic administration?		
	Less than one year		
	1 – 5 years		
	6 – 10 years		
	11 – 19 years		
	20 – 29 years		
	30 years and more		
DD9	At what payclass are you employed?		

	5		
	6		
	7		
	8		
	9		
	10		
	11		
	12		
DD10	Are you employed on a permanent or fixed-term contract basis?		
	Permanent		
	Fixed-term contract		

SECTION B: Job performance (dependant variables)

Number	**Items**	**Rating Scale (0-4)**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	Dimension: task performance behaviour						
TPB1	How do you rate the quality of your own work in the past three months?	0 = Insufficient 4 = Very good					
TPB2	Compared to last year, I judge the quality of my work in the past three months to be…	0 = Much worse 4 = Very better					
TPB3	How often was the quality of your work below what it should have been in the past three months?	0 = Never 4 = Often					
TPB4	How do you rate the quantity of your work in the past three months?	0 = Insufficient 4 = Very good					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
TPB5	Compared to last year, I judge the quantity of my work to be…	0 = Much worse 4 = Much better					
TPB6	How often was the quantity of your work less than it should have been in the past three months?	0 = Never 4 = Often					
TPB7	I managed to plan my work so that it was done on time	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
TPB8	I worked towards the end result of my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
TPB9	I kept in mind the results that I had to achieve in my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
TPB10	I had trouble setting priorities in my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
TPB11	I was able to separate main issues from side issues at work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
TPB12	I was able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
TPB13	It took me longer to complete my tasks than intended	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
	Dimension: contextual performance behaviour						
CPB1	I was able to meet my appointments	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB2	I was able to fulfil my responsibilities	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
CPB3	Collaboration with others went well	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB4	Others understood me well when I told them something	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB5	I understood others well when they told me something	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB6	Communication with others led to the desired result	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB7	I came up with creative ideas at work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB8	I took the initiative when there was a problem to be solved	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
CPB9	I took the initiative when something had to be organised	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB10	I started new tasks myself when my old ones were finished	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB11	I asked for help when needed	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB12	I was open to criticism of my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB13	I tried to learn from the feedback I got from others on my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB14	I took on challenging work tasks, when available	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
CPB15	I think students, co-workers and other colleagues were satisfied with my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
CPB16	I took into account the wishes of the students, co-workers and other colleagues in my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
	Dimension: Adaptive performance						
APB1	I worked at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB2	I worked at keeping my job skills up-to-date	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB3	I have demonstrated flexibility	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
APB4	I was able to cope well with difficult situations and setbacks at work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB5	I recovered fast after difficult situations or setbacks at work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB6	I came up with creative solutions to new problems	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB7	I was able to cope well with uncertain and unpredictable situations at work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
APB8	I easily adjusted to changes in my work	0 = Seldom 4 = Always					
	Dimension: Counterproductive work behaviour						

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
CWB1	I complained about unimportant matters at work	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB2	I made problems greater than they were at work	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB3	I focused on the negative aspects of a work situation, instead of on the positive aspects	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB4	I spoke with colleagues about the negative aspects of my work	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB5	I spoke with people from outside the organisation about the negative aspects of my work	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB6	I purposely worked slowly	0 = Never 4 = Often					

Number	Items	Rating Scale (0-4)	0	1	2	3	4
CWB7	I purposely left my work so that someone else had to finish it	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB8	I behaved rudely towards someone at work	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB9	I quarrelled with my colleagues, manager, or students	0 = Never 4 = Often					
CWB10	I purposely made mistakes	0 = Never 4 = Often					

Appendix C: Ethics Approval (Research Ethics Committee: CPUT)

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

P.O. Box 1906 • Bellville 7535 South Africa •Tel: +27 21 4603291 • Email: fbmsethics@cput.ac.za
Symphony Road Bellville 7535

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	Faculty: BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

At a meeting of the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee on **2 November 2017**, Ethics Approval was granted to **Jason Stoffberg (197027733)** for research activities of **MTech: Business Administration** at the University of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Title of dissertation/thesis/project:	THE RELEVANCE OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS TO THE JOB PERFORMANCE OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN Lead Researcher/Supervisor: Prof I W Ferreira

Comments:

Decision: APPROVED

	**1 June 2018**
Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	**Date**

Clearance Certificate No | 2018FBREC540

Appendix D: Ethics Approval (Faculty of Commerce)

Faculty of Commerce
Private Bag X3, Rondebosch, 7701
2.26 Leslie Commerce Building, Upper Campus
Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 4375/ 5748 Fax: +27 (0) 21 650 4369
E-mail: com-faculty@uct.ac.za
Internet: www.uct.ac.za
@Commerce_UCT **UCT Commerce Faculty Office**

20/08/2018

Mr Jason Stoffberg
School of Management Stuidies
University of Cape Town

REF: REC 2018/008/077

Dear Jason Stoffberg,

THE RELEVANCE OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS TO JOB PERFORMANCE AND WORK READINESS AMONG ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN.

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved.
Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid for 1 year and may be renewed upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

Modie Sempu
Administrative Assistant
University of Cape Town
Commerce Faculty Office
Room 2.26 | Leslie Commerce Building

Office Telephone: +27 (0)21 650 4375
Office Fax: +27 (0)21 650 4369
E-mail: modie.sempu@uct.ac.za
Website: www.commerce.uct.ac.za<http://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/

Appendix E: Ethics Approval (Human Resources)

Human Resources

Bremner Building
University of Cape Town Private Bag X3 Rondebosch 7701
Telephone: (021) 650-0911
Website: http://www.uct.ac.za

23 May 2018

I, Margie Tainton, in my capacity as Director Compensation & Benefits at UCT give consent in principle to allow Jason Stoffberg, a student at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), to collect data in this company as part of his Master of Technology research, subject to CPUT providing ethics approval. The student has explained the nature of his research and the nature of the data to be collected.

This consent in no way commits any individual staff member to participate in the research, and it is expected that the student will get explicit consent from any participants. I reserve the right to withdraw this permission at some future time.

In addition, the company's name may or may not be used as indicated below. (Tick as appropriate).

	Thesis	Conference paper	Journal article	Research poster
Yes				
No	x	x	x	x

Margie Tainton

24 May 2018

Appendix F: Editor's Certificate

PROFESSIONAL EDITING SERVICES
Stand out for the Write reasons

Gerald T du Preez
PhD

22 Clivia Avenue
Brantwood, Kuils River, 7580
+27 (21) 903-3145 | +27 (83) 325 1842
geralddu9@gmail.com

Certificate of Editing

This serves to confirm that copy-editing and proofreading services were rendered to

for a master's thesis entitled

THE RELEVANCE OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS TO JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS AT A UNIVERSITY

JASON STOFFBERG

with a final word count of 20 413 on 3 August 2022

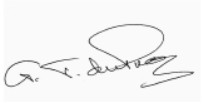
I am a member of the Professional Editors' Guild (member number DUP015) and commit to the following codes of practice (among others):

- *I have completed the work independently and did not sub-contract it out*
- *I kept to the agreed deadlines and communicated changes within reasonable time frames*
- *I treated all work as confidential and maintained objectivity in editing*
- *I did not accept work that could be considered unlawful, dishonest or contrary to public interest*

I uphold the following editing standards:

- *proofreading for mechanical errors such as spelling, punctuation, grammar*
- *copy-editing that includes commenting on, but not correcting, structure, organisation and logical flow of content, formatting (headings, page numbers, table of contents, etc.), eliminating unnecessary repetition*
- *checking citation style is correct, punctuating as needed and flagging missing or incorrect references*
- *commenting on suspected plagiarism and missing sources*
- *returning the document with track changes for the author to accept*

I confirm I have met the above editing standards and professional, ethical practice. The content of the work edited remains that of the student.



Gerald T du Preez, PhD

Membership: Southern African Freelancers' Association and Professional Editors' Guild (Membership #DUP015)