



**EMPLOYEES' SELF-EVALUATION OF WORK-FROM-HOME PERFORMANCE
DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC LOCKDOWN PERIOD AT A SELECTED
UNIVERSITY IN CAPE TOWN**

BY

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Signed

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Date

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to explore academic administration employee's perception of work-from-home performance during the epidemic of the COVID-19 lockdown period at a selected university in Cape Town. The focus of the study was based on the performance and motivations in the work environment during the lockdown. The study unveils their perception of working from home as compared to the normal working place.

The research evaluated the implications of working from home for employees, employers, and organisations. Simultaneously identify challenges for future research and gain insights to help make decisions about working from home. The study analysis integrates several issues such as job security, organisational performance, personal motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The traditional work pattern before the COVID-19 pandemic involved fix work hours starting at specific hours and closing at specified times. This also involved people coming to work at one place and in the proximity of each other under a supervisor or manager. The presence at the work place itself and the presence of colleagues and the line managers instilled a sense of working together which needed little self-discipline as everyone was at work. The advent of COVID-19 resulted in national shutdowns, and specifically so in South Africa, where restrictions included criminalisation of any form of social gathering. Depending on the responsibilities and the nature of the business, many organisations including government departments had most if not all office bound employees work from home. The sudden change of working patterns meant that employees worked away from coworkers, supervisors, and the ergonomic conditions prescribed by law for the work environment. The study focused on how the employees now working from home perceived their own performance working aware from colleagues and managers. Questionnaires were emailed to employees and other departments within the selected institution of higher learning where the survey was conducted. The general response is that employees claimed that they worked diligently and too often exceeded their performance under normal traditional work methods. There was a 60% response rate to the survey and the research opened areas that may need to be explored further.

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DEDICATION

To the late Mr. Martin Mayongo

The day you left us you told me that you have done your part and it is my turn to make you proud.

Today I am a graduate holding one Diploma, two BTech, and one Master's degree.

This is my way of paying tribute to you and thanking you for never giving up on me and for reminding me that nothing would be simple.

I am still studying now because of your last words, and I will keep doing my best to make you proud.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease Of 2019
CVF	Cultural Values Framework
CVM	Value Chain Model
EMDE	Emerging Markets and Developing Economies
FQM	Foundation for quality management
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPS	Global Positioning System
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ILO-OSH	International Labour Organisation Guidelines on Occupational Safety and Health Management Systems
KPIs	Key Performance Indicators
OSH	Occupational Safety Health
PPE	Personal Protective Equipment
RBT	Resource Base View
RBV	Resource Base View Theory
SARS-CoV-2	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2
SEM	Self-Evaluation Maintenance
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for The Social Sciences
TQM)	Total Quality Management
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNISA	University Of South Africa
USAF	Universities South Africa
WFH	Work-From-Home
WHO	World Health Organization

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the subject and briefly discusses employees, self-perception, self-confidence – sources, value systems, and work ethic during the COVID-19 pandemic in the administration field. The world has witnessed the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infection pandemic, also known as COVID - 19, which has triggered radical international shifts in various dimensions of people's social lives, as well as the health and economic affairs (Alon et al., 2020:152-160). The World Health Organization (WHO) announced a novel coronavirus outbreak as a public health emergency of international concern in January 2020 during an outbreak of respiratory illness cases in China's Wuhan City (Sohrabi et al., 2020:71-76). Due to the extreme nature of COVID-19's contagiousness, the world implemented severe containment measures such as restrictions on gatherings and movements in the form of a national lockdown, which forced people to work from home (Brodeur et al., 2021:1007-1044).

According to Czerniewicz et al. (2020:946-967), this has affected many sectors in South Africa, and the higher education sector was no exception. For example, in South Africa, 25 of the 26 state universities use contact learning with an average of over 1 093 353 internal stakeholders at different levels and an estimated 737343 administrators countrywide, including those of UNISA, the only non-contact state university planned full-time equivalent internal stakeholder and staff numbers. In addition, administrators and related employees had to work from home for the duration of the lockdown, a sudden shift from the traditional workplace situation (Moosa:2020:73-84).

1.2 Rationale and Significance of the Study

Hempe, (2013:85) defines rationale as a set of reasons or a logical basis for a course of action or belief. Over centuries, humanity has developed a work pattern that has become the norm for all operations related to business and socialisation. Occasionally,

some organisations have had freelancers working from home, obviously unsupervised and at their own will, too often without face-to-face overseers. Moreover, the pandemic has forced lockdowns which have forced the isolation of the people amidst the demand for work to be done and to maintain people's livelihoods (Sudheesh, Duggappa, and Nethra, 2016:631). This study will considerably point out potential ways to work effectively apart from a regular place of employment. This may assist in cutting business start-up and operational costs and provide or identify new norms that may enable or enhance livelihoods without having large buildings to work from. This might also introduce a new concept of motivating people to perform away from direct supervision and still meet or exceed performance expectations.

A knowledge gap exists in understanding how organisations and businesses operate during an international health crisis. This dimension is conspicuously missing from most studies on business operations, employee self-motivation, and business performance in South Africa (Elbaz, 2020:375-389). As much work was done at home during the COVID-19 pandemic, the idea of employees striving in times of a global health crisis has not been theorised or put forward as the main driver to comprehend employees' self-evaluation (Andel et al., 2021:276).

This study seeks to explore employees' perceptions of the performance of working from home during the outbreak of the COVID-19 lockdown period at the selected university in Cape Town. The study will further evaluate the implications of working from home for employees, employers, and organisations to find conclusive solutions. The study analysis will integrate job security, organisational performance, personal motivation, and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The finding explores whether organisations should continue working from home or their usual working place given the significant direct and indirect effects predicted on the productivity of employees in their workplace during the lockdown.

1.3 Literature Review

1.3.1 Introducing the deadly virus (COVID-19)

Coronaviruses are a large family of viruses that cause respiratory illnesses ranging from the common cold to more severe diseases such as Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) and Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) (Jain, and

Barhate, 2020:204-210). Coronaviruses are zoonotic and transmitted between animals and people (Contini et al., 2020:254-264). SARS-CoV-2 is a new strain of coronavirus that has not been previously identified in humans. However, COVID-19 was identified as the cause of an outbreak of respiratory illness firstly detected in Wuhan, China (Sohrabi et al., 2020:71-76).

Maurin et al. (2021:868) stipulated that the virus is thought to be of natural animal origin, most likely through spill over infection. There are several theories about where the index case originated, and investigations into the origin of the pandemic are ongoing. According to Pekar et al. (2021:412-417), phylogenetic estimates that SARS-CoV-2 occurred in October or November 2019. A phylogenetic algorithm analysis suggested that the virus may have been circulating in Guangdong. The study of evolutionary relationships among biological things, most frequently between species, people, or genes, is known as phylogenetics. The World Health Organization (WHO) declared a Public Health Emergency of International Concern on 30 January 2020 and a pandemic on 11 March 2020 (Ienca and Vayena 2020:463-464).

1.3.2 Effects of COVID-19 on the world economy

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on the world's economic and financial markets and has become a public health emergency worldwide. The effects of the disease mitigation measure that have been put in place in many nations include significant income decreases, an increase in unemployment, and disruptions in the transportation, service, and industrial industries.

The COVID-19 outbreak has triggered a world economic disruption of significant magnitude with an escalating pace, resulting in steep recessions in many countries (Ku et al., 2020:113-135). Despite exceptional policy support, the baseline forecast envisages a 5.2 percent decline in global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2020, the deepest global recession in eight decades. With the widespread social-distancing initiatives, sharp contractions of financial conditions, and a drop in foreign demand, depressed activity has been observed (Shivakoti, 2021:1-22). New findings present a dismal picture of the number of affected supply chains. With more than 90 percent of EMDEs encountering income contractions per capita this year, several thousands of

people are likely to fall into poverty. The global economy is undoubtedly leading to a halt with the coronavirus outbreak (Goldberg and Reed, 2020:161-235).

1.3.3 Impact of COVID-19 on shocks and spillovers on the world economy

Supply bottlenecks, often known as strains in global industrial networks, are a complex issue. Due to the massive shifts in demand and supply brought on by the closing and reopening of economies, as well as significant monetary and fiscal stimulus and high levels of accumulated savings, especially in advanced economies, the decline in economic activity and subsequent recovery during the COVID-19 pandemic have been unprecedented (Eren et al., 2020:1-7). The spillovers on the world economy include the following criteria:

Disruption in supply: According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), Kabeer et al., (2021:1-29), labour supply has decreased due to travel and human interaction restrictions, employees' and family members' illnesses, and school closures. Staff employed at home have been encouraged or advised to do so in many nations. Still, in EMDEs, fewer jobs have been performed remotely than in advanced economies, partially due to more restricted internet access. Operational challenges for companies have been caused by delays in input deliveries and limited access to finance, compounded by increased reliance on global supply chains (Zhu et al., 2020:5858).

Global spillovers to EMDEs: These disruptive demand and supply fluctuations have resulted in multi-channel cross-border spillovers of EMDEs-real channels, including disturbances in global trade, supply chains, travel, tourism, and financial media, including steep declines in remittance flows and massive outflows of capital amid a March flight to protection (Goldberg and Reed, 2020:161-235). The sudden drop in demand, with oil the most affected, has depressed commodity prices. By plunging confidence and confusion, these cross-border spillovers have been exacerbated (Tröster and Küblböck 2020:1430-1449).

Demand shortfalls – Although initiatives adopted by the government, consumers, and enterprises to minimise social interaction have been crucial in reducing the spread of the virus. The first quarter of the COVID-19 crisis witnessed a substantial disruption in economic activity while a significant portion of private consumption involving social

connections was eliminated (Olivia, et al., 2020:143-174). In several model-based projections of the pandemic's impact, declining consumption of goods and services has been a critical driver of lost production and employment (Verity et al., 2020:669-677).

1.3.4 Impact of a pandemic on primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a negative impact on both industrialised and developing countries' social, economic, and political spheres. Each sector has been covered below.

Primary sectors

Agriculture: A global market downturn for hotels, and restaurants has seen agricultural product prices plunge by 20 percent in 2020. The supply chains have failed to operate accurately, and vast amounts of food have started to be wasted, resulting in substantial losses for farmers Mesterházy et al., (2020:2342).

Petroleum and oil: The oil-price war is expected to have significant consequences for the global economy in light of the pandemic, which is already dampening oil demand (Hasan et al., 2021:200).

Secondary sectors:

Manufacturing industry: Due to the instability of supply chains and self-isolation policies, import problems and personnel shortages stood out as the main challenges for companies (Nicola et al., 2020:185-193)

Tertiary sectors:

Education: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) reported that closing educational institutions has affected up to 900 million internal stakeholders. COVID-19 has affected social mobility, with higher education institutions no longer being able to afford free school meals, social exclusion, and school dropout rates for internal stakeholders from low-income families (Bartfeld, Berger, and Men, 2020:210-218).

Healthcare: The healthcare systems worldwide faced one of the most significant drawbacks to healthcare staff being sick or testing positive for the virus, meaning they cannot assist or operate on patients (De Simone et al., 2020:323-332.).

Hospitality, tourism, and aviation: Currently, the tourism sector is one of the hardest hit by the COVID-19 outbreak, affecting travel supply and demand (Melas and Melasova, 2020:38-44). The World Travel and Tourism Council has warned, as a direct consequence of COVID-19, that 50 million jobs in the global travel and tourism sector could be at risk (Kumar, 2020:1-15). Furthermore, it was projected that if the COVID-19 pandemic continues into the second quarter of 2020, the tourist industry may experience substantial financial loss, which could be challenging to recover in the long run (Ceylan, Ozkan, and Mulazimogullari, 2020:817-823).

Although in 2021, current vaccine arrangements raised expectations of a turnaround concerning the economic impact. However, renewed surges, as well as the new variants of the virus, pose problems for the viewpoint. Amid the sparse uncertainty, the global economy was forecasted to rise by 5.5 percent in the year 2021 and to 4.2 percent in 2022 (Masten, 2021:1-11).

1.3.5 The impact of COVID-19 in Southern African countries

Southern African countries rely heavily on petroleum products made from imported crude oil, particularly in the transport sector (Yu et al., 2022:1-11). Most of these countries are net importers of these petroleum products, with Angola being an exception. Lower oil prices have helped level the high balance of payments deficit in Malawi, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, for example, while undermining the Angolan economy, which is heavily dependent on the oil sector (Allen and Giovannetti 2011:1-27). Unfortunately, due to reduced economic activity during the COVID-19 lockdown pandemic, the benefits from lower oil prices decreased oil prices to zero dollars (Abbasi, 2021:48-58).

Depreciating Exchange Rates

The depreciation of the local exchange rate might result in accelerating price increases for imported products, including medicines and medical equipment required to fight COVID-19. In addition, it may increase foreign currency-denominated debt burden,

making debt management and servicing more challenging and increasing the probability of default (Dincer and Kandil, 2011:809-837). Currency instability may also lead to higher costs for cross-border transactions. The depreciating trend of currencies in Southern Africa might worsen since the pandemic hit the region (Clapp and Moseley, 2020:1393-1417). Before the onset of the pandemic, many currencies in Southern Africa were already on the downward trend, pushed down by twin deficits in fiscal and current accounts in the region. This trend has worsened as currencies from high-yielding emergency markets come under significant pressure as investors flock toward the US dollar, considered the most liquid currency and the haven of choice (Boehmer-Christiansen, 2014:195-302).

High unemployment

The public sector may retrench and lay off workers or defer the recruitment of new staff as the economies shrink further in the face of mounting debt stocks and debt service-related payments, falling tax revenues from the private sector, and lower consumption tax revenues (Howlett et al., 2022:27). Although recruitments in the health sector are expected to improve, the overall impact on jobs may be negative in the regional economies during COVID-19 (Brodeur et al., 2021:1007-1044). How long the fiscal crisis lasts and how successful governments manage their fiscal crisis may have a bearing on the size of the disease-related unemployment that ensues. Other effects on the job market may include the potential lowering of formal wages to absorb the economic impacts of the shock and as prices rise, even more so as exchange rates depreciate heavily (Alagidede and Ibrahim, 2017:169-193).

The quality of jobs may also deteriorate if the private sector responds to the shock, for instance, not only by laying off workers but also by changing contractual arrangements to replace full-time workers with part-time and temporary labour in a bid to lower their obligatory social security and pensions contributions toward workers (Rubery et al., 2016:235-251). Given this, there is scope for regional member states to cushion the impacts of COVID-19 on unemployment levels, real wages, and the ensuing poverty levels through appropriate and unorthodox policy responses. Fiscal and monetary stimulus packages introduced by member states have also focused on addressing these issues (Nasir, 2022:123-145).

1.3.6 Impact of COVID-19 on Southern Africa education system

High education has lost what should have been a time of establishing more independence which shelter-in-place recommendations have hampered. Graduations, proms, athletic events, college visits, and many other social and educational events have been altered or lost and cannot be recaptured (Hoofman and Secord, 2021:1071-1079). Adolescents reported higher rates of depression and anxiety during the pandemic, and in one study, 14.4 percent of internal stakeholders reported post-traumatic stress disorders, whereas 40.4 percent reported having depression and anxiety (Tee et al., 2020:379-391). The decreasing access to mental health services because of the pandemic restrictions caused complicated matters for parents in addressing their educational needs (Fegert et al., 2020:1-11).

A study by Lewis et al. (2021:1-11) reported that South Africa measured adolescents' socialisation and mood changes during the pandemic. The opportunity for prosocial action was rated on a scale of 1 (not at all) to 6 (very much) based on how well specific phrases applied to them, for example, "I comforted a friend yesterday," "Yesterday I did my best to care for a friend," and "Yesterday I sent a message to a friend." They also ranked mood by rating items on a scale of 1 (not at all) to 5 (very well) as items reflected their mood. They found that adolescents showed an overall decrease in empathic concern and opportunity for prosocial actions and a decrease in mood ratings during the pandemic.

Another primary concern is the length of isolation many internal stakeholders have had to endure since the pandemic began and what effects it might have on their ability to socialise. The academic performance of internal stakeholders without access to resources also declined, and they may never recover (Tate and Warschauer, 2022:1-15). Predictions from data analysis of university absenteeism, summer breaks, and natural disaster occurrences are imperfect for the current situation, but all indications are that we should not expect all internal stakeholders to be affected equally (Kuhfeld et al., 2020:549-565). Although some internal stakeholders likely suffer no long-term consequences, COVID-19 is expected to widen the existing educational gap from socio-economic differences, and internal stakeholders with learning differences are expected to suffer more losses than neurotypical internal stakeholders (Hoofman and Secord, 2021:1071-1079).

1.3.7 Impact of online learning on internal stakeholder performance

Online learning is a form of distance education which mainly involves internet-based education where courses are offered synchronously (i.e., live sessions online) and/or asynchronously (i.e., internal stakeholders access course materials online in their own time, which is associated with the more traditional distance education (Murphy et al., 2011:583-591). On the other hand, traditional face-to-face learning is real-time or synchronous learning. In a physical classroom, instructors engage with the internal stakeholders in real-time, while in the online format, instructors can offer real-time lectures through learning management systems (e.g., Blackboard Collaborate) or record the lectures for the internal stakeholders to watch later. Purely online courses are offered entirely over the internet, while blended learning combines traditional face-to-face classes with learning over the internet and learning supported by other technologies (Rasheed, Kamsin, and Abdullah, 2020:103701).

Moreover, designing online courses required several considerations during the lockdown. Instructor support, peer interaction, class participation, assessments, and training are essential for successful online learning (Martin and Bolliger, 2018: 205-222). In online learning during the lockdown, instructors were more facilitators of learning; hence, internal stakeholders' performance decreased (Ma et al., 2021:6675-6697). On the other hand, traditional face-to-face classes used to be structured in such a way that the instructor delivers knowledge, is better able to gauge the understanding and interest of internal stakeholders, can engage in-class activities, and can provide immediate feedback on clarifying questions during the class which promoted for better results for internal stakeholders before COVID-19 (Rasmitadila et al., 2020: 90-109).

As mentioned above, internal stakeholders' performance was affected after transitioning from face-to-face to online learning due to the Covid-19 pandemic. There was a big difference in the average assessment grades between pre-lockdown and post-lockdown at South African basic education and universities (Chisadza et al., 2021:114-S125). We find that internal stakeholders' performance has been positively associated with good WIFI access and relative to using mobile internet data. However, it has also been observed that there is a lower academic performance for internal stakeholders who found transitioning online difficult and who expressed a preference

for self-study (i.e. reading through class slides and notes) or over-assisted study (i.e. joining live lectures or watching recorded lectures) (Lapitan et al., 2021:116-131).

1.3.8 The role played by COVID-19 on staff performance in universities

The migration by universities to emergency remote learning has sharpened the existing socio-economic fault lines in higher education and society (Wangenge-Ouma and Kupe, 2022:17-37). This is mainly due to varying institutional resources and internal stakeholders' socio-economic circumstances. These hamper internal stakeholders' experience of the benefits of online education. Several universities were struggling with this transition hence negatively affecting the staff performance. This is mainly due to inadequate information technology infrastructure and the inability of institutions to provide computers and data to staff (Sultan, 2010:109-116). The pandemic has highlighted the need for a hybrid strategy aligned with the country's reality.

Overall the COVID-19 pandemic significantly influenced the South African economy and higher education and work performance in higher education. Empirical evidence showed that most of the higher institutions and South Africa at large have been affected by COVID-19 (Matsolo et al., 2018:64-80). In addition, COVID-19 brought poverty and food insecurity to South African communities (Wegerif, 2020:797-800). This international crisis hit the globe in the shape of the COVID-19 pandemic at the beginning of 2020.

1.4 Problem Statement

The World Health Organization (WHO) announced a novel coronavirus outbreak as a public health emergency of international concern in January 2020 during an outbreak of respiratory illness cases in China's Wuhan City (Sohrabi, 2020:76). Due to the extreme nature of its contagiousness, the world implemented severe containment measures such as restrictions on gatherings and movements in the form of national lockdown, which forced people to work from home. This has affected many sectors in South Africa, and the higher education sector was no exception. In South Africa, Universities are well known for contact learning and administration. However, all academic and administrative activities were forced to be online during the pandemic. This affected the performance of many university administrative staff members who were not digitally active.

1.4.1 Sub problem is as follows:

- **Subproblem 1:** The influence of the new working arrangements on the performance of (senior to junior) management is unknown.
- **Subproblem 2:** Administrative employees are experiencing challenges in juggling work and home responsibilities with the challenge of limited resources.
- **Subproblem 3:** The impression of the new working arrangements on the performance of employees is not known.

1.5 Underpinning Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework will describe various theories and frameworks that have been chosen because they are related to this study as its focus is on job performance and motivation, work-life, and psychological well-being of Employees' self-evaluation of work-from-home performance during the COVID -19 pandemic lockdown period at a selected university in Cape Town.

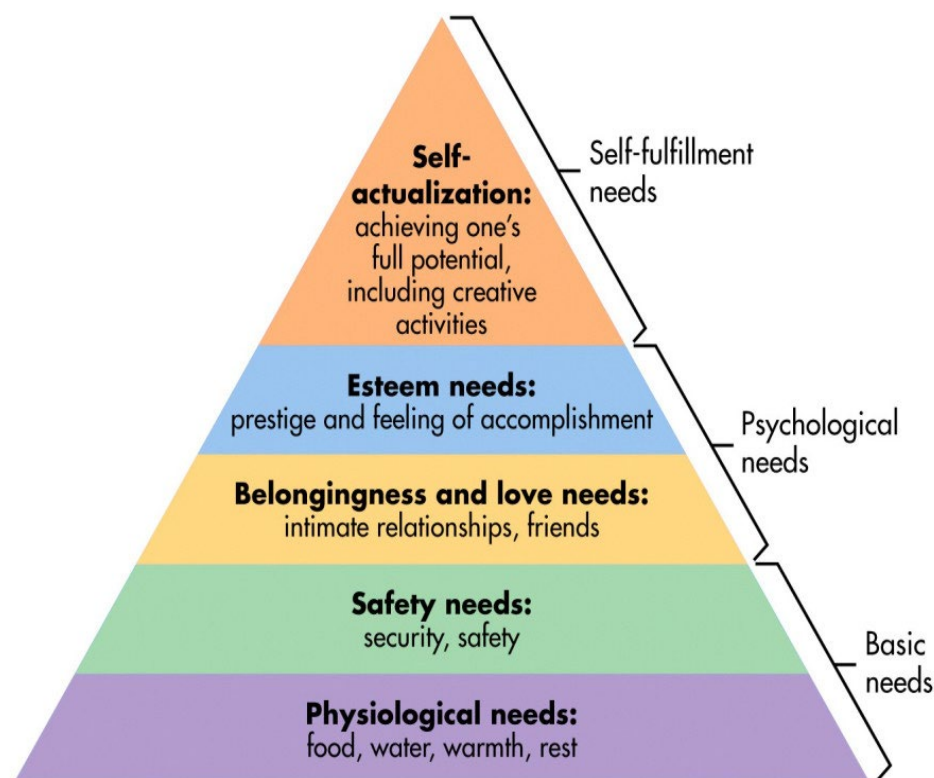
The pandemic has changed how people work, and more people are choosing to work from home. However, this approach of working from home has limitations and has significantly influenced organisations and individuals. A selected university in Cape Town management will need to take advantage of innovations during the crisis to improve employees' work flexibility. This study aims to address the need for employee skill improvement, psychological stress relief, work-family balance, and company culture reinforcement from an administration perspective as an impact of work from homework patterns during the COVID-19 crisis (Feldt, Kinnunen, and Maunao, 2020:461-476).

Maslow's Hierarchy will clearly explain the needs of self-fulfilment, psychological and basic, which may improve work life for administrative staff in Cape Town universities.

Working from home can improve performance due to its flexibility. Working from home can also improve performance as there are no interruptions, employees have fewer breaks, and there is no contact with co-workers. Although information and communication technology can facilitate online interaction and collaboration with colleagues, they lack the enthusiasm for face-to-face interaction, which is key to

developing closer social relationships. Failure to address the lack of interpersonal interaction can ultimately lead to employees feeling disconnected from the corporate culture and work environment (Poister, 2020:98-125).

Figure 1.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: McLeod, (2018:1)

Maslow's theory explains that administrative staff at university institutions consider increasing what they want to achieve in life, and their needs are prioritised according to their importance. Deriving from the Hierarchy of Needs by Maslow, content theories of job satisfaction revolve around employees' needs and the factors that bring them a reasonable degree of satisfaction (Sahito and Vaisanen, 2017:209-230). Based on the fundamental physical, biological, social and psychological needs of human beings, Maslow developed a five-stage theory that places the needs of the individual in different categories and prioritises their attainment. These categories, in order of decreasing priority, are

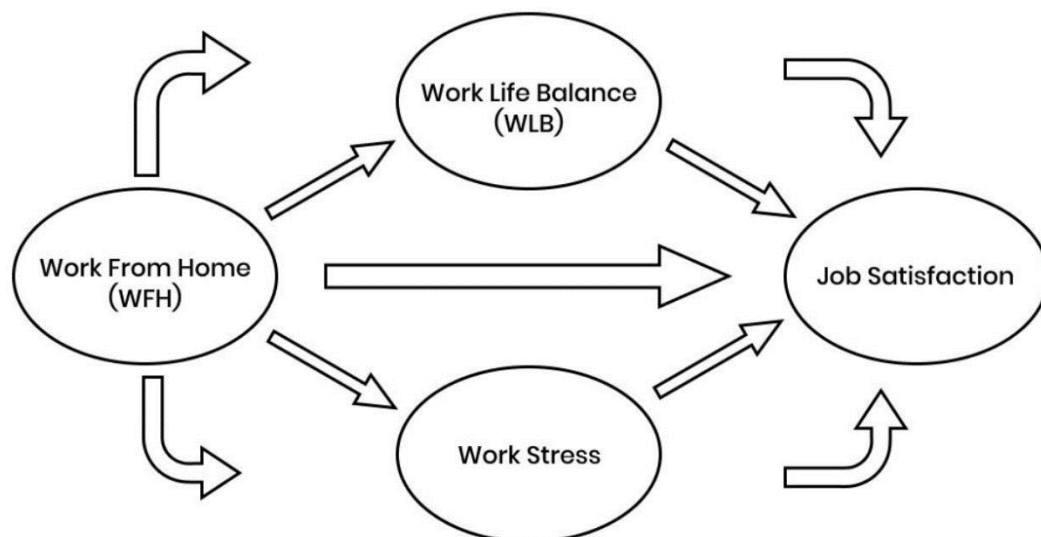
- Physiological needs (food, shelter, clothing).
- Safety and security needs (physical protection).
- Social needs (association with others).

- Esteem needs (receiving acknowledgement from others); and
- Self-actualisation needs (the desire for accomplishment or to leave behind a legacy).

Maslow's Hierarchy of needs forms the basis of theories that try to explain job satisfaction (Badubi, 2017:44-51).

Administrative staff in higher education have needs that have to be satisfied. Besides the basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing, safety from physical harm, and social interaction, they also need recognition and appreciation from internal stakeholders' academic staff.

Figure 1.2: The conceptual model in this research



Source: Irawanto and Novianti (2021:9)

The Coronavirus (COVID-19), which hit in early 2020, changed how people live and work, and it has affected the higher education administrative staff as they were forced to work from home with limited resources. This study aims to fill the gaps by investigating several potential predictors of job satisfaction during working from home from the influence of COVID-19, such as work-life balance, work stress, and Job Satisfaction (Irawanto, Novianti, and Roz, 2021:96).

Work from Home

The conceptual framework of working from home was first put forward in the 1970s as freelancer telecommuting, a new alternative to performing work from different locations such as (office, home, or another place) using technological assistance that completely replaced work-related travel (Haddon and Brynin, 2005:34-46). According to Chandola et al. (2019:779-799), teleworking has always been discussed because of the blurring boundaries of not being physically present at a job concerning non-work and work, personal and social consequences, and the risks and benefits of flexible working hours. There are some advantages of working from home, namely, time planning skills, the possibility to work during the most productive time and to access an organisation's documents from home, the suitability of having a workplace at home, the possibility to work from home in cases of sickness and being able to take care family members (Jones, Philippon, and Venkateswaran, 2021:5188-5223).

Work-Life Balance

According to Emslie and Hunt (2009:151-172), Work-life balance is described as achieving a balance between employees' family or personal life and work lives. Work-life balance can affect employee performance both positively and negatively. For example, an imbalance between work and personal life may impact a person's low productivity and decreased performance (Irawanto, Novianti, and Roz, 2021:96). Work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction.

Work Stress

Work stress is a condition that affects emotions, thought processes, and the thinking process. The gap between work demands and existing resources will cause work stress and make people feel more negative and dissatisfied (Maslach and Leiter, 2016:103-111). In this current situation, work stress may cause role vagueness, overwork, role conflict, and time pressure while working from home, which can reduce job satisfaction (Ahmad et al., 2021:41-50). Work stress is another crucial predictor that may affect job satisfaction and significantly affects job satisfaction (Collie, Shapka and Perry, 2012:1189). This means work stress is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as a person's emotional state when something pleasant and beneficial has occurred due to their job appraisal or work experience (Fisher, 2010:384-412). Many institutions in the Western Cape refer to working from home, aiming to develop a new way of organising work to support and increase the work-life balance of their employees (Jackson and Fransman, 2018:1-13). This is taken as an effort to increase employee job satisfaction while working from home and has a mixed effect on workers' work-life balance, well-being, stress-related outcomes, and satisfaction (Irawanto, Novianti, and Roz, 2021:96). Working from home is positively related to work stress.

After working from home has become a new norm amid the COVID-19 pandemic, many experts believe that this extraordinary situation could profoundly impact how we work in the long run, despite the unfortunate circumstances keeping administration staff in the universities in Cape Town at home. Many of these workers have grown fond of the added flexibility and time gained by not commuting to a workplace daily (Hill et al., 2001:49-58). COVID-19 caused unprecedented changes in the universities in Cape Town. The radical change led to a drastic change in the traditional approaches, such as the unity of space and time (Adedokun et al., 2021:152-160).

1.6 Aim and Objectives of the Study

1.6.1 Aim

The research investigated the challenges affecting administrative employees during COVID - 19 pandemic in higher education. The focus is on the pandemic's effects on employees' performance when working from home and how they cope with the effects posed by the pandemic and related restrictive lockdown measures implemented by the South African government.

1.6.2 Objectives

- To recommend short-, medium- and long-term strategies in line with the findings of the study and customise a solution per business unit or department

- Study the influence of the COVID-19 epidemic on administrative employee performance.
- To evaluate the COVID-19 pandemic presents several challenges to the operations of administration employees.
- To examine various adaptive strategies and improvisations used by the research area and its administration staff to respond to the COVID - 19 pandemic's issues on their operations.
- To examine different ways that can be used to improve working from home to the Universities in Cape Town.

1.7 Research Questions

1.7.1 Sub research questions:

The purpose of this research is to find answers to the following questions:

- How and in which way did the COVID – 19 pandemic affect employee performance in South Africa?
- How did the COVID – 19 pandemics (re) shape employee performance in South Africa?
- How do organisations and their employees cope and recover from the effects of COVID - 19 in South Africa?
- How effective are coping strategies used by organisations and their employees in navigating the COVID - 19 pandemic presents several issues in their work in South Africa?
- What role is being played by administrative employee experiences in South Africa during the COVID - 19 pandemic?

1.8 Definition of Key Concepts

Work from home - Work-from-Home (WFH) is a concept that allows employees to work from home rather than going to their usual office. Working from home allows people to be more flexible with their schedules while making it easier for businesses to operate (Vyas and Butakhieo 2021:59).

COVID-19 - Is a disease caused by a novel coronavirus known as Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2; formerly known as 2019-CoV), which was initially discovered in Wuhan City, Hubei Province, China, during a respiratory sickness outbreak (Park, 2020:119).

Self-evaluation - To improve or stabilise professional actions and outcomes, self-evaluation is a process of deliberately watching, analysing, and appraising them. This could happen to a single person or a company as a whole (Legault, 2020: 2416-2419). The process of assessing and evaluating one's professional performance is known as self-evaluation (Bilyk, 2020:17).

Employee Performance - Employee performance is defined as how well a person carries out their job obligations and completes the tasks allotted to them. It relates to the efficacy, quality, and efficiency of the output (Andriani et al., 2018:19-29). Performance is also considered when establishing an employee's worth to the organisation (Hasan, Kaharu, and Wahyuni, 2021:79).

Management by impression - Impression management is a conscious or unconscious process in which people attempt to control and govern information in social interactions to influence how others perceive a person, item, or event (Negm and Elsamadicy, 2019:105).

Intrinsic motivation - Intrinsic motivation is a process in artificial intelligence and robotics that allows artificial entities to perform fundamentally rewarding behaviours like exploration and curiosity, which are classified under the same word in psychology (Siddique et al., 2017:69).

Extrinsic motivation - Extrinsic motivation is described as behaviour that is impacted by rewards from outside sources. These advantages can be monetary, academic, or intangible, such as acclaim or notoriety (Mageau and Vallerand 2003:883-904).

1.9 Research Paradigm

The researcher chose this paradigm, both constructivism and positivism, because it allows them to absorb information, compare it to previous thoughts, and reach their conclusions. In addition, this allows the researcher to expand their knowledge and

make recommendations on overcoming hurdles to working from home to ensure that administrative tasks are completed correctly. The study also explored the management of work and also the productivity of the employees as they were shifting from traditional to a new norm where even those who worked from the office they had to work from home.

The most often utilised paradigm is positivism, which is based on scientific experiments and employs quantitative methodologies. On the other hand, constructivism is built on comprehension and observation and can be studied using qualitative methods (Barraket, 2005:17-27).

1.10 Research Approach

The distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is typically described in terms of the use of words (qualitative) rather than figures (quantitative) or the use of closed-ended rather than open-ended questions (quantitative approach) (Singer & Couper, 2017:115-134). The study uses a mixed-method approach. The study aims to determine how the workplace performed during the epidemic and if employees can perform their responsibilities unsupervised. On the study as it wants to determine where the employee can perform their duty without being supervised and how there have been working throughout the pandemic.

1.11 Research Design

The explanatory mixed-method approach will also be used for the study. The quantitative method will be used first to see what the respondents think about working from home, and then the qualitative method will be used to express what they think should be included in the study.

1.12 Delimitation of Study

The study is within the geographical area and will be located on the map where it can be used in a Global Positioning System (GPS) to allocate the area. The study is based on the selected university in Cape Town. This research will also be done freely within the university and aims to improve our working conditions. Therefore, there will be no harm to anyone involved in the data collection.

1.13 Data Delimitation

The research plan uses data from 2020 to date as it was the period in which the whole world was experiencing COVID-19, including universities in Cape Town, which were also experiencing COVID-19 restrictions, including Work-From-Home.

1.14 Research Participants

The study will be limited only to administrators. The research will be carried out via google form and hard copies of a questionnaire. The COVID-19 rules and regulations will be followed when collecting the data.

1.15 Research Methods

Darmanis et al. (2015:7285-7290) mentioned that a population is a big group of people, institutions, items, or other things that have similar characteristics and are of interest to a researcher. The groups' shared characteristics set them apart from other people, institutions, things, and so on. A sample is a subset of a population, whereas a population is an entire group of people with unique traits (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016:1-4). Administrative employees in the selected Universities in Cape Town make up the project's population. The population is viewed as any group of elements or people units that meet the selection criteria for a group to be studied and from which a representative sample is taken for detailed examination. An example comprises components of a population from which the research study will be centred.

1.16 Sample Method and Sample Size.

The population here is the university administrative employees, and the target group or the sample frame is the university's administrators in different faculties and departments. In all, the sample frame is estimated to be 500 administrators in different departments and units of the university. In the current situation where most (if not all) administrators are not on campus and therefore challenging to sample, the researcher is opting for a census – approaching all administrators. The university database will be used and repeated emailing to solicit for responses will be used to solicit responses from as many as are amenable. This may eventually workout to a non-probability sampling if some respond, but others do not. According to Sharma (2017:749-752),

non-probability sampling is a method in which the researcher selects samples based on the subjective judgement of the researcher rather than random sampling. On the other hand, every member has a chance to respond, which may equally be considered probability sampling. Acharya et al. (2013:330-333) defined probability sampling as when each member has a chance to be selected. All will be approached and thus leaving it to those willing to participate in the research project, who will fill in the questionnaire sent to them. Sample size: Out of the 500 administrators, the minimum required will be 100 as this will be large enough for generalisation; opine that a sample size of 10%, properly representative, can be used for generalisation. The minimum of 100 out of 500 is 20%, twice the 10% that can be used for generalisation (Jamieson and Allendorf:578-584).

1.17 Data

1.17.1 Data instruments

In this study, the scholar utilises a variety of questionnaire research instruments. Primarily, the study employs respondents to argue employee performance during the COVID-19 pandemic with the administrative operations of the universities in Cape Town. Once the ethical clearance is approved, the next step is to circulate the questionnaire to several administrators through the online portal for data collection purposes. Since the research has been completed, the next step was to circulate the questionnaire to several administrators through the online portal for data collection purposes.

1.17.2 Data collection

The researcher used external and internal data sources, which is, the use of primary and secondary data. According to Artino et al., (2014:463-474) the researchers' point of view, data collection refers to the process of gathering and measuring information on targeted variables in an established systematic fashion, which then enables one to answer relevant questions. Primary data comprises surveys, questionnaires, and secondary data that already existed for the selected Cape Town universities. The study used a primary data where it collected data from the selected target from using questionnaires.

1.17.3 Pilot study

The questionnaire was given to 18 people who were considered to qualify for the research with the intentions of identifying what would be the best format and questions for the survey. The pilot project was conducted on 18 administrators with three (3) from each of the six (6) faculties of the university. After the “trial run” the questionnaires were reconstructed with the assistance of a statistician to improve on validity and reliability of the instrument. The people used for the trial run (pilot project) were not included in the final research study, their responses had assisted in identifying weaknesses in the initial instrument. Weaknesses of which had been corrected before the final document (revised with the assistance of a statistician) .

This is strictly forbidden during the pandemic to prevent the coronavirus from spreading. As a result, amid these constraints, an online survey as a data gathering approach would be expected. An online survey is a method of disseminating a questionnaire or instrument to target respondents via the internet. While the personal distribution of surveys is desirable in terms of enhancing response rates, given existing constraints, online dissemination is a viable adaptation (Kriauciunas, Parmigiani and Rivera-Santos, 2011:994-1010). Google Forms would be used for creating questionnaires.

Also, It will be easy to create questions that allow staff to gather immediate feedback. This means data collection would be conducted using Google Form to create online questionnaires. Data collection will be limited by the constraints imposed by local governments' quarantine policies around the world; this means the adapt remote tools in data collection would be considered. Google Forms is a free and well-known tool for creating electronic survey questionnaires.

1.17.4 Data analysis and presentation

As discussed in the basis of this research, the literature review, methodology, and the researcher intend to utilise the chapter to presented and analyse the investigation findings. The researcher used statistical tables and figures to present data obtained from questionnaires and surveys. In addition, this study will use correlation, alpha, and regression analysis, all of which aid in understanding by communicating the contents

of written material concisely; quantitative analysis will be used to analyse the gathered data (Bengtsson, 2016:8-14).

1.17.5 Data coding and analysis

The SPSS or ESS was used to generate graphics to compare the variables. The advantage of its use is that it is possible to register and analyse data in various ways at an incredible speed (Rolim and Isaias, 2019:1785-1800).

1.18 Ethical Considerations

Brinkmann and Kvale (2017:259-273) stated that research ethics refers to the norms for conduct that distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour concerning who will be interviewed, questioned, and observed. Research ethics will involve utilising crucial moral standards of the topic, including logical examination. These include the design and execution of research involving human experimentation and various aspects of academic scandal, including scientific misconduct and plagiarism. In this study, the researcher-maintained non-discrimination against colleagues based on sex, race, ethnicity, and other factors unrelated to their scientific competencies and integrity, thus creating a conducive environment for collecting accurate data.

This study posed no physical, psychological, social, cultural, or financial constraints on the respondents. The involvement of all the respondents was voluntary, and no one was compelled to respond to the questionnaires. The respondents' consent was requested after explaining the conditions for them to be part of the survey. Everyone who filled in was informed that they were free to withdraw from the survey at any stage if they were not comfortable continuing. They could also omit/skip questions that they were not comfortable with – no explanation was needed from them for either withdrawing or skipping.

1.19 Thesis Outline

CHAPTER 1; Introduction, literature reviewed on Covid 19 pandemic, the lockdown and impact of working from the office, the new approach – working from home, online learning and the absence of students from the campus, problem statement, research

objectives, research questions, research design and research methodology, target population, sample, sampling, sample size, data collection instrument, data collection method, data analysis, data analysis and ethical consideration

CHAPTER 2; Theories of self-perception, theories of self-confidence, cultural theories on performance, and value systems. Theories of self-esteem, theories of cognitive dissonance. The need for self-motivation and ability to work away from others with a manager.

CHAPTER 3; Performance theories, performance models, performance measurement theories, performance measurement models,

CHAPTER 4; Psychology of supervisor on the employee, employee on being managed, managers' role on the subordinates' performance, job type, and work ethics.

CHAPTER 5; Motivation, motivation theories, types of motivation, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, work ethics of the intrinsically and extrinsically motivated worker.

CHAPTER 6; Conceptual modelling of self-motivation, modelling of self-evaluation, self-performance, and measurement of self-evaluation.

CHAPTER 7; Discusses research design, research methodology, data collection instrument, data collection methods, data analysis, and ethical consideration.

CHAPTER 8; Data recording, data analysis, interpretation of illustrations, and explanation of the relationship between the variables under study.

CHAPTER 9; Summary findings, conclusions, limitations of the study, recommendations, prospects for future study, and summary of the study and findings.

1.20 Limitations of the Research

The study focused on the population of the employees within a selected university in Cape Town. Therefore, the data collection of this research will not include all the institutions in the province. This will narrow the study to look at the selected university in Cape Town.

1.21 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the work from home situation of the administrators in a selected university. The advent of the Covid-19 pandemic is unprecedented, and governments experimented as they analysed propositions from various scientists and made decisions. While online working rapidly proved to be appropriate for the university's main activities (work from home), administrative services would be different for the time being. Administration work involves interaction with internal stakeholders, academic staff and external stakeholders who require specific help. Administrators had to work from home, away from their usual customers, and unmanaged; thus, they had to manage themselves and continue to produce. The study opened up interesting issues that may need to be researched further to include other related work-from-home circumstances.

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES OF SELF-PERCEPTION, SELF-CONFIDENCE, CULTURAL THEORIES ON PERFORMANCE AND VALUE SYSTEMS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses self-perception, self-confidence, cultural theories of performance, and value systems. The research will establish a link between company culture, self-perception, self-confidence, and firm performance on administrative employee performance, particularly in educational institutions, along with a thorough examination of several theories in the fields of self-assurance, organisational culture, and self-perception. Several ideas have emerged regarding the relationship between organisational practices and performance. According to some beliefs, organisational culture has a favourable influence on employee behaviour and attitude, which affects their performance (Hu et al., 2012:615-660). Theories such as cognitive dissonance theory, mindset theory, and self-expansion theory shed light on the study in this chapter by assisting in the description, explanation, prediction, and control of the issue under consideration. This section or chapter examines the influence of organisational culture on performance and value systems, self-confidence, and self-perception.

2.2 Theories of Self-Perception

According to Griffin and Stein (2015:49-58), it is assumed that an individual's personality and attitudes dictate their actions and behaviours; however, this is not the case with the idea of self-perception (Mohebi and Bailey, 2020:1). Self-perception theory is based on the argument that individuals interpret their actions the same way they interpret others' actions and every individual's action is influenced by social surroundings and not influenced by one's free will.

According to Bem (2012:183-200), individuals' attitudes are developed from observing one's behaviour and making a conclusion on what attitudes caused that behaviour; hence the theory further assumes that individuals can induce attitudes without retrieving their internal states. According to Willadsen-Jensen and Ito (2006:580-606), several theories, like the theory of self-expansion and cognitive dissonance related to self-perception, will be introduced and discussed to build an understanding of the

intellectual progression of the field. The knowledge built helps to identify the possible self-perception influencing forces.

Over the last few years' philosophers and, more recently, scholars and psychologists have tried to define and comprehend the self-concept (Bandura, 2012:117-148). However, there is still no universally accepted definition of self-concept; it is considered an intellectual construct arising from an individual's thoughts and understanding (Hattie, 2014:1-62). According to Hattie, self-perception was defined as the "rational appraisals, expressed in terms of expectations, descriptions, and prescriptions, which one attributes to the self.

There are many theories of self-perception, the theory of cognitive dissonance, the theory of self-expansion, and the mindset theory. These theories have gained much scientific credibility and widespread acceptance. Recently, Marsh and Martin (2011:59-77) expanded these theories of self-concept to integrate several additional components, including basic tendencies and characteristic adaptations, referring to basic tendencies as the specific traits that compromise each of the Big Five personality factors and to specific adaptations as the expression or concrete manifestations of these traits for example habits, attitudes, roles, skills, and relationships.

2.2.1 Difference between self-perception and self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is distinguished from self-perception in that self-efficacy includes a certain context valuation of ability, it needs task-specific judgment of one's competencies to execute specific behaviours in specific situations (Vance and Brandon, 2017:18).

Generally, self-perception assessments can be a subject of specific evaluations of perceived competence (for instance, accounts, economics, and maths); they are not task-specific; instead, they are more global and less context-dependent (Hattie, 2014:1-62). Put simply, self-concept represents general perceptions of the self in given domains, whilst self-efficacy represents the expectations and convictions an individual can accomplish in each situation (Fenning and May, 2013:635-650).

A more theoretical direction has been toward understanding feelings' role in behaviour more completely. The current view is that feelings are information that serves as feedback to hierarchically stacked control systems and, therefore, at the centre of self-

control. According to Yeager et al. (2014:559), self-perception theory predicts that manipulating expressive behaviour should provide the opportunity for deliberate self-regulation of emotions, and a first study shows that it does. However, individual differences strongly affect the relative efficacy of different emotional control strategies. Figueroa-Cañas and Sancho-Vinuesa, (2017:141-146) conducted a direct test of the effect of "practising" expressions. People who deliberately adopted expressions reported feeling those emotions more strongly when tested later and also recalled personal experiences that were consistent in emotional tone with the practised emotion (Baumeister et al., 2018: 16-44). One criticism of many self-perception experiments is that the participants might have deliberately reported feelings they believed the experimenter wanted them to feel (Humphrey et al., 2015: 749-769). To reduce this possibility, in a recent study at university institutions, participants were given the emotional Stroop test while adopting emotional expressions. When expressions and words on the Stroop list were related, interference was greater than when expressions and words were different (Filippi et al., 2017:879-891).

Fenning and May (2013:635-650) postulated that self-efficacy is the person's belief in their capabilities to organise and execute the choices of action required to produce given attainments. Self-efficacy is influenced by the successes and failures individuals experience in life (mastery experiences), which closely tie into our self-perception and relationships with others.

Although these terms label different phenomena, they are also strongly related. For example, self-efficacy, like self-concept, is also presumed to explain and predict one's thoughts, emotions, and actions (Baumeister, 2002:129-136). Furthermore, Bracken and Lamprecht (2003:103) debated that an individual who had been confused about self-concept often had low confidence, and the successes and failures people experience in life, which shape self-efficacy, were closely related to the way people have come to see themselves.

2.2.2 Theory of cognitive dissonance

According to Spiro (2013:85-126), American social psychologist Taylor developed the theory of cognitive dissonance. The theory suggests that human beings have an inner drive to maintain the internal consistency of beliefs, ideas, or values. When a person

simultaneously holds two contradicting beliefs, ideas, and values, mental discomfort is said to be experienced. This mental discomfort is known as cognitive dissonance in psychology. For example, the cognitive dissonance during pandemics is the employees who are against visiting educational institutions due to the fear of contracting diseases but are then forced to visit work (Ho, Chee, and Ho, 2020:1-3).

These employees felt discomfort and tried to solve it to bring their internal state back in harmony through work from home. The former employee will arguably slow the process of working. One can infer from this that behaviour (to act) follows because of holding a certain attitude, thus holding the internal influence beliefs. Two studies by Ajzen and Fishbein (2000:1-33) have verified the unpleasant arousal when in distress to help employees better understand and cope with the specific issues within the work environment. A study by Song Hing, Li, and Zanna (2002:71-78) showed a change in social behaviour by suggesting hypocrisy to alter prejudiced beliefs. The studies have covered topics such as motivation and overcoming fears through the usage of cognitive dissonance concepts, making its existence hard to deny.

Around the 1970s, the American social psychologist Bem (2013, 1-62) formed a theory regarding attitude formation that challenges the Cognitive Dissonance Theory. According to Bem (2012:183-200), the study presents the 'Self-perception', which asserts that our actions are often socially influenced and not necessarily out of free will. This is evident during the lockdown due to social distance measures implemented by educational institutions in line with the government regulations, as most workers were socially influenced and could not do things independently.

More studies performed later strengthened the evidence of self-perception. One such study by Bem (2012:183-200) showed a higher belief in being able to exercise successfully after seeing a virtual look-alike of themselves do it. To support this study, Bailenson and Segovia (2010:175-186) showed that participants would exercise longer after seeing their virtual look-alike lose weight shortly before. However, it is not only voluntary actions that can alter behaviour, as shown by Willadsen-Jensen and Lto (2006:580-606). For example, Olson and Kendrick (2008:130) had participants hold a pencil in their mouth to force a smile, after which subjects showed an altered state of prejudice. In the cognitive dissonance theory, one could suggest that placing a person in an innovation process where that person does not feel comfortable, suitable, or

capable will affect his or her capabilities; such behaviour may arguably be detrimental to most education institution employees and the entire educational system in their innovation process during the lockdown. On the other hand, Willadsen-Jensen and Ito (2006:580-606) suggest this can be overcome or countered by mirroring or forced settings (forced subject matter presentations to show they are knowledgeable). While cognitive dissonance theory also keeps the importance of cognitions in mind, the importance thereof is derived from personal core values.

A question that arises is whether, from a holistic view, the company's survival based on the innovation process outcome might weigh heavier. This potentially leads to accepting sustained dissonance for the duration of the innovation process following the needs expected from the actor by the company. However, again, going back to self-perception, a study by Hornby and Lafaele (2011:37-52) showed that teenagers involved in voluntary work shifted their attitudes toward being more caring and considerate towards others.

However, there is a catch. While the above opens the doors to altering self-perception, the theory only holds according to Bem when "internal cues are weak, ambiguous, or uninterruptable". Now take a person for which these conditions hold and put them into a group of people with strong and clear internal cues. Doing this could suggest that their self-perception can be altered if they take on the group's ideas and feelings.

2.2.3 Theory of self-expansion

Previously discussed theories looked at ourselves from either an internal or external perspective. They were very much focused on the individual. On the other hand, some theories include the external influence of other individuals on one. One such theory is the self-expansion theory. The underlying thoughts of the self-expansion theory are that individuals have the basic desire to enhance their potential efficacy. The researcher believes the key relationship to self-perception is one of the principles of this theory. This specific principle of the self-expansion theory states that individuals can achieve self-expansion by including others in the self. In the study of Page-Gould et al., (2010:775), one of the experiments tested the response latency of "me or not me" decisions for traits between themselves and their spouses that were equal and traits that were not equal.

Once again, the first overarching principle of self-expansion is that people seek to expand the self in the sense that they seek to enhance their potential efficacy by increasing the resources, perspectives, and identities that facilitate the achievement of any goal that might arise (Dys-Steenbergen, Wright and Aron, 2016:60-71). The emphasis here is not on motivation for the actual attainment of goals but instead on a motivation to accrue the resources that make it easier to attain goals. Such resources, perspectives, and identities include knowledge, social status, community, possessions, wealth, physical strength, health, and everything else that can facilitate goal attainment. However, there are other implications of the motivational aspect of the self-expansion theory, which will be briefly considered when looking at future research. the idea of working from home has gained significant attention and research focus in recent years, particularly due to the widespread adoption of remote work arrangements, accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Many individuals and organizations have been exploring ways to optimize productivity, maintain work-life balance, and develop effective strategies for remote work routines (Nolan, et al., 2021: 14-33). This involves abstract ideas which can be made more concrete. For example, Mattingly and Lewandowski (2013:12-22) developed an instrument to assess the extent to which an individual experiences self-expansion in the context of a close relationship, and the Self-Expansion Questionnaire.

Hence it is also important to note that the theory emphasises the reward value of the experience of self-expansion and that when that rewarding experience is rapid, it generates a sense of exhilaration and passion. According to Gorlier and Michel (2020:588-603), most experiences of rapid self-expansion involve novelty or challenge and are the opposite of mundane or boring experiences. For that reason, novelty and challenge, even in situations that provide minimal new resources, often create a sense of rewarding exhilaration. Si et al. (2021:102626) experienced self-expansion has at least two sources. Firstly, directly experiencing or anticipating the acquisition of new resources, perspectives, and identities (especially when this acquisition is rapid or intense enough to be noticed) and sharing novel/challenging activities of any kind (as long as they are not overwhelming or highly stressful), given the sense of expansion associated with them. Indeed, as will be clear from the research reviewed below, self-expansion theory has been studied in both ways the acquisition of new resources, perspectives, and identities (such as knowledge, social status, or relationships) and

the experience of novelty and challenge, usually found in what would be called exciting activities (de Kerviler, and Rodriguez, 2019:250-262).

Response latency refers to the time taken by an individual to respond to a stimulus, and it has been considered an important indicator of mental processes (Braithwaite et al., 2013:1017-1034). The longer response latency for different traits suggested a self or spouse's confusion as to the result of the inclusion of the other in the self. This external influence of the other individual in oneself suggests an external belief. The social identity theory by British social psychologists proposes a similar idea. The sense of who a person is depends on the groups to which they belong (Brown, 2020:5-25). Brown says that people behave differently depending on which group they belong to and have multiple selves.

According to Oishi (2010:5-21), their selves can differ, for example, when being with their family, sports team, or neighbourhood. When perceived as part of a group, an "us" vs "them" mentality exists. This equates to the in-group vs the out-group. During the pandemic, most of the education institution's employees contracted a specific disease and isolated themselves as a group, disturbing teamwork. The employees who tested negative for coronavirus were stereotyping the workers who tested positive, negatively affecting communication in many organisations. The employees who tested negative were pushed to work from home, under quarantines, and within social distance.

Switching to the internal belief perspective and closely related to the cognitive dissonance theory, we find the self-discrepancy theory. This theory, created by Edward Tory Higgins, is described in his words as "a general theory relating different patterns of self-beliefs to different kinds of emotional, motivational predispositions" (Dweck, (2012:23– 42).

Legault (2020:2416-2419) proposes "three domains of selves that people use to compare themselves with a) actual self, "representing the attributes that someone believes you possess; b) ideal self, being the representations of the attributes that someone would like you to ideally possess for instant (hopes and aspirations), and finally; c) ought self, being the representation of the attributes, someone believes you should possess (obligations and responsibilities)". Hence self-discrepancy is the gap

involving two of these domains. Depending on the size of the gap, discomfort is said to be felt.

This sounds like the Cognitive Dissonance Theory, and the effect of such a state has the same consequence on people described there; they are motivated to reduce the discrepancy. However, literature on the subject is more concerned with how communication will occur during remote correspondence between internal stakeholders and administrative staff when a shock pandemic arrives in the education system (Vaidis and Bran, 2019:1189).

2.2.4 The Mindset theory

Mindset theory distinguishes two perspectives people hold regarding their abilities and qualities, which eventually decide performance (Cook and Artino, 2016:997-1014). First, those with a fixed mindset believe that their abilities and qualities, such as personality traits, attitude, and intelligence, are fixed (Dweck, 2012:614). For example, people are either good or not good at math. They believe that these cannot be practised or developed.

The other perspective is that of people with a growth mindset. This group believes training and effort can develop one's abilities and qualities. Hence based on this theory, the fixed mindset people should not necessarily be excluded from the innovation process in the education institutions given that they already have beliefs matching the needs of the innovation process (Richter, Jackson and Schildhauer, 2018:69-78). However, if they do not, one could argue that this group of people should be avoided based on this theory as their mindset is limiting and potentially detrimental to the process.

According to Zilka, Grinshtain, and Bogler (2022:149-165), those with a growth mindset are open to change and can thus be shaped. This group lowers the importance of self-perception in innovation processes. The reason for this is that if their beliefs are not matching the needs of the innovation process, then they can still be altered or influenced to the point that they do match, for example, by providing training opportunities or other ways to build their confidence (Pahnke, Katila, and Eisenhardt, 2015:596-633). According to the Mindset theory, some of the educational institution's

employees were open to change in the work environment due to the pandemic and were willing to work from home.

If one's self-perception is that of being incompetent, then this might lead to fear of contributing to the innovation process (Mohebi and Bailey, 2020:1). The reason is that they might be afraid that their contributions are wrong or not good enough. This arguably means it is an important factor related to influence in innovations processes. The perception of incompetence or not is the subject of the self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy is the measure of strength or extent of one's belief in their own ability to complete tasks and reach goals (Pajares, 2006:339-367). It determines how people behave, think, feel and motivate themselves. External experiences and self-perception are the sources of building self-efficacy (Martins, Costa, and Onofre, 2015:263-279).

According to Komarraju and Nadler (2013:67-72) to the theory, those who believe they can (have high self-efficacy) are more likely to set or accept challenging goals and stay committed to them. It is caused by their belief that such challenges are not threats but are challenging to be mastered. This perspective is very similar to the 'growth mindset' of the Mindset Theory discussed previously (Bernardo, 2021:208-222). Therefore, for those with high self-efficacy, the same assumptions as the growth mindset group, the importance of self-perception, are assumed as described below.

This group believes that they can control threatening situations with effort. Failure to them means they have not put in enough effort or have insufficient knowledge or skills which can all be acquired (Kahneman and Klein 2009:515). In innovation processes which are said to include many failures, this is precisely the type of person that would bring value to the process. It is clear from the discussions that many factors can potentially influence the self-perception of people while arguably affecting innovation success (Smith, 2011:516-535). More so, the mindset theory includes two theories which include implicit theories. People hold implicit theories about personal attributes such as intelligence, personality, moral character, willpower, or body weight (Bernecker and Job, 2019:179-191). In any case, an entity theory is marked by the idea that the attribute in question cannot willingly be changed, whereas an incremental theory is marked by the idea that it can be changed with effort. Importantly, these beliefs are about the potential to change, not the actual likelihood of a change occurring (Gifford, Kormos, and McIntyre, 2011:801-827). That is, people can believe that

personality can be changed, while they do not necessarily think that many people do change. It is further important to note that people's implicit theories are not necessarily the same for different attributes (Molden, Plaks, and Dweck, 2006:738-752). For example, in higher education, the same lecturer might believe that people can grow their intelligence substantially, but that personality is a relatively fixed entity. This example demonstrates another important property of implicit theories, continual agreement with an entity versus incremental theory. Research suggests that about 40% of administration staff endorse either a fixed or a growth Mindset (Canning et al., 2020:626-642). However, about 20% of administration staff cannot be categorised into either group (Abernethy et al., 2021:101200). So, remember that when we talk of people holding an entity or incremental theory, this is a simplification, which we use to explain findings comprehensibly.

While most implicit theories deal with the malleability of human attributes, implicit theories about willpower deal with whether people believe willpower is limited versus nonlimited (Bernecker and Job, 2019:179-191). Willpower or self-control describes people's capacity to alter their behaviour, thoughts, and emotions to align with their long-term goals or external standards, such as social expectations (Baumeister, 2002:126-136). Some people believe that this capacity resembles a limited resource that gets depleted whenever used (so-called limited-resource theory). However, other administrative staff reject this view and believe using willpower can activate their mental stamina and prepare them for upcoming challenges (so-called nonlimited resource theory). In multiple laboratory studies, Job and colleagues found that only people with a limited-resource theory showed declines in self-control performance given a previous self-control task (also known as the ego-depletion effect).

In contrast, people with a nonlimited-resource theory maintained a high level of self-control performance (Baumeister and Vohs, 2018:78-128). Field studies also linked willpower theories to self-control in everyday life. For example, during the final examination period, when self-control is most important, internal stakeholders with a limited-resource theory procrastinate more, eat less healthy, spend more impulsively, and even earn lower grades than their fellow internal stakeholders with a non-limited-resource theory (Unger et al., 2016:101-116).

2.2.5 Origins of implicit theories

Closely related to the stability of implicit theories and the potential for interventions is the question of where implicit theories come from (Rissanen et al., 2018:63-77). So far, only a limited amount of research has addressed the question of why people adopt different implicit theories. Some studies examined the influence of parenting practices on children's implicit theories about intelligence (Matthes and Stoeger, 2018:271-280). Early research found that praising children for their abilities rather than for their effort leads children to adopt an entity theory (Schleider, Abel, and Weisz, 2015:1-9). More recent research extended these findings and found that parents' views of failures affect their children's implicit theories via parenting practices (Bernecker and Job, 2019:179-191). Administrative staff who believe failure is enhancing versus debilitating are more likely to raise children who believe that intelligence can be changed. However, this research suggests that implicit theories are developed early in life. Chen, Ellsworth, and Schwarz's (2015:1411-1424) research suggests that they can also change later in life. For instance, research focusing on implicit theories about willpower examined change in these theories in college internal stakeholders over the course of one semester. Two studies showed that when internal stakeholders pursued personal goals for intrinsic reasons (e.g., out of personal interest) rather than extrinsic reasons (e.g., to please others), their belief in nonlimited willpower increased. The bottom line of this research is that those implicit theories are at least to some extent "construed" from the experiences people make—a process that continues over the course of life (Park, 2010:257).

Mindset Theory proposes that people differ in their beliefs about the malleability of human attributes, such as intelligence and personality (Cabello and Fernández-Berrocal, 2015:700). We described research showing how these basic assumptions affect critical outcomes in the intellectual-achievement domain and the interpersonal domain. Further, research shows that internal stakeholders their peers victimise suffer from the Mindset theory of psychological adjustment (depression and loneliness), and they are at higher risk of suicidality (Jiang et al., 2021:481-496). These findings call for investigating ways to reduce the prevalence of bullying and help internal stakeholders cope with victimisation by their peers.

2.2.6 Theories of Self-Confidence

Self-confidence is related to positive results such as increased well-being, motivation, performance, ability to deal with stress, and mental health. Employees with high self-confidence are likely to be efficient in achieving the company's vision, while low confidence workers are always inefficient. While everyone needs to feel confident in the work environment, the purpose of the chapter is to evaluate the self-confidence of educational institution employees during the lockdown (Jahanshahi, Zhang, and Brem, 2013:849–865).

Self-confidence is the belief that a person can succeed at a task based on past performance. However, there are two aspects of self-confidence. The first is competence, i.e. whether the necessary skills and abilities to complete a task are present. The second is self-assurance, whether there is the belief that the task can be completed. Clark and Goldsmith (2018:239-248) state that “self-confidence has been defined in several ways throughout; hence this definition generally includes belief in one's own ability to perform”. True self-confidence occurs when both competence and self-assurance are in balance with each other.

Self-confidence is important in recovery from injury, overcoming setbacks, and moving through negative experiences in life. Someone with self-confidence believes that they will be able to recover, move past the negative, and again experience the positive. In business, self-confidence functions similarly (Zanna and Cooper, 2013:703-709). It enables an employee to recover from setbacks and challenges and continue to move forward. Self-confidence theories are explained below.

Self-confidence is a barrier to employees who work from home. Self-confidence links an individual's belief in their ability to achieve the desired outcome with persistence towards that outcome. A stronger sense of accomplishment and well-being results from higher levels of self-confidence. In addition, self-confidence allows individuals to recover from mistakes or setbacks (Murtagh and Brooks, 2019:183-196).

People who believe in their capability to accomplish or meet a goal will perceive more complex tasks or goals as challenges to overcome rather than threats. The individuals will then set goals to meet the new goal or outcome. Self-confidence aids an individual in quickly overcoming failures or setbacks by allowing an individual to attribute failure

to acquirable skills such as insufficient knowledge or effort. According to Abraham Maslow, people need safety and security for confidence and competency. If employees lack self-confidence, they suffer from inferiority, weaknesses, and helplessness, and in the end, these feelings cause discouragement (Macey and Schneider, 2008:3-30).

Zanna and Cooper (2013:703-709) state that the “cognitive orientation model explains stressfulness of environmental events as heavily dependent on an individual’s confidence of those events”. Based on this opinion, stress may result from experiencing various pleasant and unpleasant events. For the present study, pandemics could be considered unpleasant events that employees perceive as stressful.

2.2.7 Theory of self esteem

Self-esteem is the capacity to respect and think well of yourself. It means that you appreciate yourself as a unique individual with your own set of skills, talents, and abilities. Floricica, Luminita, and Sabina (2021:436) define self-esteem as the ability to experience maximal self-love and joy whether you are successful at any point in your life. A psychologist has researched self-esteem and realised that people’s self-esteem varies from individual to individual when facing a setback (Petrocchi, Dentale, and Gilbert, 2019:394-406). People with a high level of self-esteem will be able to respond to a damaging event by using their experience and coping abilities and will not have much damage to their current level of self-esteem. They will still see themselves as valuable and talented even if the current evidence indicates otherwise.

However, most education system employees will experience some self-esteem loss when they face an adverse situation, especially during pandemics. Unfortunately, those who already have low self-esteem will also experience the largest reduction in what little self-esteem they have. Typically, this is caused by pressure on breadwinners to care for their families, which leads to long-term mental health issues. In other words, they will see their failure as further proof that they are incapable of being successful. This type of negative cycle will perpetuate itself each time a person with low self-esteem faces failure, criticism, or a roadblock (Bishop, 2017:959).

2.2.8 Theory of self-efficacy

Bandura's social cognitive is considered an expert on the theory of self-efficacy. Harinie et al. (2017:1-6) stated that people perceive their self-efficacy as people's judgments of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. It is concerned not with the skills one has but with the judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses. In other words, self-efficacy is an individual's evaluation of their ability.

Bandura (2012:179-200) stated that the amount of self-efficacy a person has depends on their ability to apply coping behaviours, increase their level of effort, and how long they will be able to retain their optimism when facing difficult obstacles and experiences. In addition, it stated that the more a person is tested by facing their fears and stepping outside of their comfort zones, the more they will enhance their sense of self-efficacy.

If a person does not have a base level of self-efficacy, they will be unwilling to attempt a new task or challenge, which could, of course, hold them back in the workplace (Bandura, 2012:179-200). The greater efficacy, the more willing individuals will be to grow their skills by attempting new challenges, and the less they will be affected if they do not succeed or attain a specific goal. Hence, four primary sources of self allow people to build their self-efficacy. These include:

2.2.9 Mastery experiences

According to Erol and Orth (2011:607-619), this is the most helpful way to create a strong sense of self-efficacy for a person. As each success is achieved, self-efficacy is reinforced. However, a bit of failure is important as well. If people only experience easy successes, they will begin to feel that success is what they should experience every time they attempt something new. Some setbacks are essential because they teach that a sustained effort is needed to succeed. Still, upsets should not come if they can be avoided until a person has had a chance to establish a certain level of self-efficacy.

2.2.10 Social models

The social model can alter individuals's perceptions of what other people are capable of accomplishing and how organisations and surroundings should be formed (Amabile and Pratt, 2016:157-183). These are examples of people who are seen by the observers who seem to be successful, when people see someone that they feel is like them achieve, there is a sense that one can be like those who are successful and they are likely to be able to follow suit (Chemers, Watson, and May, 2017:267-277). At the same time, seeing people like ourselves fail despite a level of sustained effort can harm our self-efficacy. In either case, these models are most effective when they are perceived to have the greatest similarity to ourselves. In addition, these models show the types and levels of competencies needed to succeed in the workplace and life.

2.2.11 The emotional states

According to Hareli and Hess (2010:128-140), people also judge themselves on their emotional reactions to situations. If they react with stress and tension, they may interpret those reactions as signs that they are weak or vulnerable. Mood can also affect self-efficacy; a positive mood will enhance it, while a negative mood will diminish it (Kirk, Schutte, and Hine, 2011:179-195). A work environment that allows opportunities for stress reduction teaches stress management and acknowledges stress as a normal part of life rather than a personal weakness will help to foster positive self-efficacy in its employees.

2.3 Culture Theories on Performance

2.3.1 Theories of organisational culture

Ledimo (2015:1733-1746) defines organisational culture as “a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations”. Maleka, Kambuwa, and Karodia (2015:1-27) indicate that “organisational culture is the distinctive norms, beliefs, principles, and ways of behaving that combine to give each organisation its distinct character”. This definition suggests that organisational culture distinguishes one organisation from another organisation.

Connecting with the above definition, Scholz (2017:233-254) defined organisational culture as "a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered or established by a given group as it learns to deal with its challenges of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems". For example, new workers must adapt to new belief systems when they arrive in a company. According to Scholz (2017:233-254), this new behaviour will be installed through company values and beliefs associated with symbols and myths. Most educational institutions have an organisational culture that guides them in business operations.

Linnenluecke and Griffiths (2010:357-366) indicate that "organisational cultures are the unique norms, beliefs, principles and several means of behaving that unite to give each company its different character. This shows that organisational culture differentiates one company from another company". According to Ali and Patnaik (2014:1-20), organisational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or established by a given company as it tries to cope with its challenges of external adaptation and internal integration and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those challenges (Vroom, and Von Solms, 2004:191-198). As a result, most employees are forced to adapt to new belief systems during pandemics. This new and adaptive behaviour within the organisation is installed through organisational values (Nguyen, Seddaiu, and Roggero, 2019:46-56).

Alsamani (2014:143-153) postulated that company culture is the beliefs, values, and learned ways of coping with experience that has developed during a company's history and background and is generally revealed in its material arrangements and the behaviours of its members. For instance, this suggests that the company's organisational culture for education institutions is expressed to shape how company members behave. Sometimes, this pattern may be non-verbalised or un-written, describing how things get done to give the company its unique character (Guldenmund, 2000:215-257). However, on the other hand, educational institution culture includes those qualities of the company that gives a particular climate or feel. As a result, the company's unique qualities may be revealed through four dimensions,

namely power, role, achievement, and support (Wüstenhagen, Wolsink, and Bürer, 2007:2683-2691).

Educators worldwide have been forced to change their culture due to pandemics in the past few years. The reason is to find strategies on how to educate and new ways of communicating between employees and the internal stakeholders in South Africa. Pandemics have resulted from educational institutions like universities in South Africa immediately harnessing and utilising the suite of available technological tools to create content for remote learning for internal stakeholders in all sectors. As a result, educational institutions in South Africa are finding new ways of doing things hence changing their culture to allow access to education for internal stakeholders around South Africa.

Losup et al. (2011:931-945) explained that throughout history, value systems and performance have sparked the interest of many scholars in various sciences, but not much has been done to acknowledge that value systems are essential for effective performance. They found that with the staggering growth of companies' management, researchers have become interested in performance and value systems, but companies have not adopted value-based systems as the cornerstone of every decision made in taking their organisations forward. Instead, cultural theories of performance and value systems are as followers (Tajeddini and Trueman, 2012:1119-1129).

2.3.2 Clan culture theory

According to David, Valas, and Raghunathan (2018:182-188), the clan culture theory focuses on human relations validated through interior cohesiveness, employee welfare, loyalty, and employee commitment to the company. Dahm et al. (2019:1194-122.) stipulated that clan culture is a homely and family-like working environment. Scientific empirical evidence proves that in areas like educational institutions, for instance, the employees are in a family-like work environment.

The clan culture falls under adhocracy, where culture is modernisation-driven and shows flexibility and value-creating change. On the other hand, market culture is arguably under clan culture, concentrating on productivity, goal achievement, and performance geared toward financial success. Additionally, hierarchy culture is

depicted by internal efficiency, stability, coordination, and control (Büschgens, Bausch, and Balkin, 2013:763-781).

Companies that unveil this kind of culture emphasise the security of tenure, predictability, and compliance with rules and regulations. Within the perception of the competing value, strong culture with a stable composition of the four culture types is valuable in ensuring leaders deal with the external environment (Linnenluecke and Griffiths, 2010:357-366). For instance, pandemics are no longer a new phenomenon on earth and negatively affect the different economic sectors in South Africa, including the administration of educational institutions.

Powerful cultures are seen as strong mediums for signalling workers regarding favourable behaviours to fight against any challenge that may arise in this world, e.g. pandemics. Furthermore, this theory helps educational institutions to adapt to new business environments, e.g. lockdowns which could allow change in the organisational culture (Festing and Schäfer, 2014:262-271).

2.3.3 Ethnographic sense theory

The culture relates to the sophisticated whole that includes knowledge, beliefs, art, ethical habits, and customs people develop via implicit education and socialisation in the community (Rudowicz, 2003:273-290). The basic assumption adopted by this theory is that most of the company members are at the core of the culture. They are the cerebral level of culture contingent on company values and artefacts. Assumptions are the mental models used by leaders and employees to make sense of the environment (Carrington, Combe, and Mumford, 2019:335-350). The theory further depicts those values are the community-constructed principles that direct behaviour and are reflected through the spoken and amplified goals, philosophies, and strategies.

2.3.4 Cultural values framework (CVF) theory

Over the years, this theory has engrossed many epistemological perspectives (Cunliffe, 2011:647-673). This theory describes and measures company culture in the education system. The Cultural Values Framework (CVF) anticipates that education institutions show two dimensions, namely environmental focus and internal organisation as the focal attention (Jamali et al., 2022:1-20).

According to Felipe, Roldán, and Leal-Rodríguez (2017:2354), the cultural value framework theory assumes that company complexity breeds different types of culture, and a single type of culture cannot differentiate the company. Therefore, balancing the requirements of different stakeholders' educational institutions, like universities, to make informed and implicit choices in the degree to which their cultures exhibit values.

2.3.5 Impact of organisational culture on performance

Uddin, Luva, and Hossian (2013:63) scrutinised the characteristics of organisational culture and tracked the performance of companies with good cultural value, especially in the education sector. Katou and Budhwar (2010:25-39) argued a strong association between culture, management practices, and performance. The claim that company culture is attached to performance is instigated by the prominent role that culture can play in competitive advantage. After critically reviewing the methodologies and findings of recent research, it is assumed that there is a link between culture and performance (Acar and Acar, 2012:683-692).

Philosophers argue that sustainable competitive advantage arises from the development of company competencies which are both greater and incorrectly imitable by competitors (Hunt and Morgan, 2017:153-205). Culture makes a firm unpredictable and competitive as most of the time and effort researching answers to performance enhancement questions. Organisational culture has been identified as a significant intangible resource and barrier to imitation with powerful effects on performance. Lemon and Sahota (2004:483-498) proposed that "organisational culture serves the double role of adapting to changes in the environment external to the firm and allowing internal integration". Felipe, Roldán, and Leal-Rodríguez (2017:2354) postulate that performance can be understood better by analysing organisational culture as firms respond to changing circumstances based on their established culture.

2.4 Value System

2.4.1 Value perception theory

Individual values determine their performance in their jobs. This is because administrative employees in organisations such as higher education hold different value systems, therefore based on this theory, the assumption is that the difference

between expectations and what is received can bring dissatisfaction depending on how important the job is to the individual (Badubi, 2017:44-51). Hence the potential problem with this theory is that there is a possibility of a relationship between what people desire and what they consider essential.

2.4.2 Theory Z

Lunenburg (2011:1-10) investigated high-producing businesses to see whether anything was familiar. To explain the success of these companies, Ouchi developed Theory Z. Theory Z, an expansion of Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y concepts. The principal difference is that McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y formulation attempts to distinguish between the personal leadership styles of an individual supervisor, whereas Theory Z is concerned with the "culture of the whole organisation". That is, Theory Z is not concerned with an individual supervisor's attitudes or behaviour patterns but with the organisational culture's difference in how the whole organisation is organised and managed. Theory Z culture involves long-term employment, consensual decision making, individual accountability, slow evaluation and promotion, and an informal control system with explicit performance measures, moderately specialised career paths, and extensive commitment to all aspects of the employee's life (Lunenburg, (2011:1-10). The features which apply to university of the higher education include trust, subtlety, and intimacy; shared control and decision making; training in planning, organisational processes, budgeting systems, and interpersonal skills; motivation through self-interest; rewards over the long run; and the importance of high-quality education.

2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, chapter two analysed the effects of organisational culture on performance and value systems, as well as self-confidence and self-perception. It is evident from this chapter that self-confidence is critical to improving employee performance. There is also a comprehensive analysis. The effects of self-esteem on organisational performance are noticed in this chapter. There is a need to have the capacity to respect and think well of yourself. This means it is important to appreciate yourself as a unique individual with your own set of skills, talents, and abilities.

CHAPTER 3

PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT AND PERFORMANCE THEORIES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses several models and theories of performance measurement. It discusses fundamental facts of performance measurement based on empirical evidence. The chapter explores a need to establish proper planning, decisions making, actions, and results that have generated substantial interest due to pandemics in measuring university administration employees' performance. This chapter represents modern tools for measuring and evaluating the organisational performance of the administration at a selected university in Cape Town.

3.2 Performance Measurement Model

Since the last year, 2020, because of the pandemic where an institution has affected its performance which has developed a considerable interest in performance measurement from their administrators. The primary role of performance measurement is to assess the current position of the administration field in higher education and to help managers create and implement a better strategy to develop an administration performance innovation that can be viewed as an essential component of performance measurement. The proof is that most performance measurement models have some components that can measure the innovation process. In this case, a selected university can use these models to compare the current position in terms of their administration during the pandemic and their previous position before the pandemic. The models are explained in the rest of this section (Shiple, 2019:26-36).

3.2.1 Balanced scorecard model

Torre and Moxon (2015:617-639) present the Balanced Scorecard model as a useful tool for organisations to obtain a competitive advantage. These days, higher education institutions in South Africa compete in a complex environment of work from home where all the universities have been negatively affected by the pandemic. The Balanced Scorecard translates the mission and university strategy into a set of performance indicators that offers a model for the performance measurement system (Torre and Moxon, 2015:617-639). The indicators represent a balance between

external indicators for stakeholders (internal stakeholders) and the internal indicators of critical processes and innovation learning during the pandemic at a selected higher education in the Western Cape. The financial perspective is the traditional approach for assessing universities' performance on top of the profit margins, and returns, cost-benefit data and risk assessment have been added to this category. The customer (internal stakeholders) perspective recognises the importance of focus and satisfaction. It emphasises the need to analyse the kinds of customers and processes for which universities provide a service to those customer groups. The business process perspective refers to organisational performance measurement. The matrix lets university management know how well the organisations are running and whether their services conform to customer requirements. Learning and growth include employee training and corporate cultural attitudes related to individual and corporate self-improvement. It involves aspects like mentors and tutors within the organisation, as well as the ease of communication among workers to enable them to get help on a problem when needed (Sarjana, 2014:234-250).

3.2.2 Internal stakeholder perspective

Knowing what internal stakeholders desire in terms of quality service delivery, what is most important, and what they want from the institution in the future is critical. This information is always available to the administrators as they face work from home challenges in the higher education. The internal stakeholder's perspective is often seen as a set of objectives that institutions must achieve and maintain the customers, which are the internal stakeholders. University administrators will be required to put extra effort during the lockdown to avoid inconveniences regarding service delivery to internal stakeholders. For instance, most internal stakeholders are learning online, so university administrators must ensure that all the necessary information is available to each internal stakeholder (Andersen, 2011:101-119).

3.2.3 Internal processes perspective

Understanding how internal processes work will help many universities to achieve their objectives and how to add the expected value to the services to the internal stakeholders during the lockdown. Improving the internal processes may help South African institutions improve their all-around performance during the pandemic.

Administrative staff may be required to analyse their internal processes and service delivery systems like blackboard, Zoom, and Microsoft teams to avoid internal stakeholder problems, such as log-in, submission, and online examination. All online platforms for the university during the pandemic must be functional at total capacity since the internal stakeholders are learning from home (Ramanathan, Bentley and Pang, 2014:231-241).

3.2.4 Malcolm Baldrige model

Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award was formed in 1987 by the U.S. Commerce Department. The Malcolm Baldrige model role is to encourage businesses and all other organisations to practice efficient quality control for products and services. The model was created to offer an excellent quality standard and help companies achieve a high-performance level. The prize was offered annually for three categories namely; industry, services, and small and medium businesses, offering at least two prizes for each category (Toma and Marinescu, 2018:966-974).

The seven criteria of the model are leadership, strategic planning, customer focus, measurement, analysis and knowledge management, workforce focus, operations focus, and results. For example, Malcolm Baldrige can measure innovation performance through the criteria such as leadership, strategic planning, operation focus, and workforce (Anastasiadou and Taraza 2019: 455-463). The university administrators may apply this by proper leadership and planning during pandemic. Planning is crucial for all university administrators to avoid crisis management during pandemics (Andersen, 2011:101-119).

3.2.5 Foundation for quality management

The Foundation for Quality Management excellence model allows the perceptive of a cause-effect relationship between what the organisation is doing and its results (Perramon, et al., 2016:1121-1139). It contains three integrated components; namely the Fundamental Concepts of Excellence, the Criteria Stakeholder Satisfaction, and Capabilities Processes Strategies Stakeholder Contribution. This helps to avoid the severe effect of COVID-19, as South African Universities may need a good management team with a clear strategic direction. In addition, university administration staff are encouraged to involve themselves in employee training and professional

development to improve their relationships with partners and the processes to raise the value of education.

Universities with a high level of excellence have administrators that can construct a great future and realise objectives, function as ethics models, and inspire trust, according to the five criteria of determining factors. Strategy and organisations with a high level of excellence apply their mission and vision by developing and implementing a strategy based on stakeholders. Universities with a high level of excellence have a higher interest in their people, continuously looking to improve their capabilities even during the COVID-19 pandemic. They use the opportunity and try to motivate the employees to obtain better results which may help the universities to grow. The Foundation for Quality Management excellence model has nine criteria categorised into enablers and results. The five criteria "cover what an institution can manipulate, called 'enablers', while the other four represent what universities may achieve, named 'results' (Dahlgard, Pettersen, and Dahlgard-Park, 2011:673-689). The interrelations between these criteria can be summarised as follows.

Satisfaction with the customer, people (employees), and society at large is the ultimate measure of operational excellence of any organisation (results). These results can best be achieved through the capacity of the organisation's leadership to combine sound policy and strategy with good management of people (i.e., its workforce) and resources (material and financial) into suitable processes. Each criterion is examined in further detail below.

Enabler's criteria Leadership- This criterion focuses on the behaviour of the executive team and all other administrative staff in as much as how leaders develop and clarify a statement of vision that proposes total quality and continuous improvement which the university and its people can achieve (Dahlgard, Pettersen, and Dahlgard-Park, 2011:673-689).

The people management- Continuous improvement of human resources through the development and maintenance of their skills and abilities (Gao and Low, 2015:17-32). The primary emphasis is on teamwork, effective appraisal, reward and communication, and the involvement of everyone (Chebbi, et al., 2020:.209-217).

Resources- This relates to how the university manages and utilises its external partnerships and internal resources (finance, information, materials, and application of technology) effectively to achieve effective business performance as stated in its mission and strategic plan (Calvo-Mora, et al., 2013:115-143).

Processes- This concerns managing all value-adding activities within the organisation to satisfy customers and other stakeholders (Voordt, and Jensen, 2018:177-195).

3.2.6 Performance prism

The Performance Prism is a management framework that reflects the complexities of organisations and the multiplicity and reciprocity of stakeholder relationships (Voyer, et al., 2017:399-410). The interest in performance measurement has increased in the last few years. The performance prism was created to be more flexible and to offer a broader or a narrow focus, following the organisation's needs (Findlay and Thompson, 2017:122-138).

Performance prism has five interrelated perspectives that present vital aspects.

In this case, it is important the university to create processes that will be used to carry out its strategy and capabilities in order to satisfy the university's internal stakeholders. Internal stakeholders are the institution's primary stakeholders, and university administrators must address their demands in order to satisfy them. (Tsai, Lee, and Wu, 2015:225-261).

This model is not very developed for analysing innovation performance, but it can still be measured through two components such as processes and competencies (Ferraris, et al., 2019:1923-1936). Given the challenges which were brought by the lockdown, there is a need for university administrators to be innovative to curb the effects of the lockdown. The performance prism can help the administrators to answer critical questions on the challenges of the lockdown (Skytte and Blunch, 2001:133-145).

3.3 Performance Theories

When the pandemic started, many South African higher education strived to achieve a strategic solution in the complex learning environment affected by the pandemic. For example, a selected university in Cape Town adopts different strategies to counter the

effect of the pandemic. In contrast, the strategic management process includes the formulation of implementation and the evaluation of the strategic actions that the universities undertake to achieve the long-term goals to fight against future pandemics (Zhou et al., 2020:501-519).

Thus, this process is considered the management process of goal setting and the strategic actions undertaken through strategic tools like strategic orientation and organisational culture to enable and achieve organisational goals. The successful implementation of these strategic tools enhances university outcomes, including performance (Tamsah, Yusriadi, and Farida, 2020:163-176). Performance theories are discussed below:

3.3.1 Resource Base View Theory

The Resource-Based View (RBV/RBT) theory has widely been used in the studies of organisational performance (Zhang et al., 2021:500-516). The RBV talks about the unique organisational resources and capabilities that differentiate one organisation from the other in a similar industry. The RBV also tries to answer the question of whether organisations can achieve a competitive advantage over other organisations and enhance their performance. The Resource-Based View theory suggests that organisational achievements be based on the internal properties of an organisation. Both organisational assets (tangible and intangible) and capabilities (internal knowledge and competencies) are defined as internal organisational properties (Tesser and Moore, 2015:20-25).

Similarly, the RBV assumes that an organisation consists of various organisational resources, including assets, capabilities, processes, management competencies, technical resources, and knowledge resources (Bharadwaj, 2000:169-196). Likewise, university administrators need to utilise company resources during the pandemic to curb the effects of the pandemic. Therefore, the university aims to invest more in equity, which may help the universities pass through this hard time.

Challenging resources and capabilities can help the university administrator's performance and work as a basis for fighting the effects of COVID-19. Espino-Rodríguez and Padrón-Robaina, (2006:49-70) stated that the Resource-Based View

could help the organisation identify its unique internal resources, enhancing its performance and creating a competitive advantage for an organisation.

In addition, the body of literature recognises the importance of a Resource-Based View to the universities and reveals the positive connection between internal organisational resources and the university performance of the administrators. University administrators need a resource like Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) to operate in this dangerous environment. Hereafter, in the pertinent literature, strategic orientation, university culture, and university administrator commitment have been described as the university's unique internal resources and strategic attributes, which help achieve superior organisational performance and competitive advantage over rivals (Carmeli and Tishler, 2004:1257-1278). In light of the Resource-Based View suggestions, the organisational variables of strategic direction, organisational culture, and commitment are considered unique university resources and highly valued factors that aid in overcoming the pandemic's obstacles.

3.3.2 Social exchange theory

Social Exchange Theory (SET) encourages activities between an organisation and its employees to generate organisational commitment (Bulut and Culha, 2010:309-322). Employees with the hope that the organisation will provide a better working environment and culture can join an organisation and use their talents and expertise to attain their goals, based on the assumption of social exchange theory.

A favourable exchange relationship between employees and the university results in better levels of commitment among university personnel in this scenario. A causal model is proposed based on the SET, which postulates an exchange link between strategic direction, organisational culture, and commitment, affecting performance, particularly during pandemics. University administration employees may associate with the university, which provides desirable rewards and satisfies its employees' needs and wants. The mutuality principle theorises that social relationship is always reciprocal between employee and employer, even in higher education institutions.

The third specificity principle postulates that only the reciprocity type can endure an exchange relationship between the employees and an organisation (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004:52). For the employees, strategic orientation and good organisational

culture could be a strategic focus organisational fair activities that increase employee's commitment towards their employer.

While in exchange for this, the employee's commitment may be a desirable feeling for employees to continue their loyalty to the organisation and significantly affects organisational outcomes, including performance (Saeed et al., 2014:242-256). Given the pressure from work from home and extra duties that emerged due to COVID-19. Universities may need to improve their employees' rewards so they can be committed.

Therefore, the relationships between the strategic orientation, university culture, commitment, and performance are interlinked and portray resource exchange relationships (Ahmed et al., 2018:579-599). The reciprocity of universities will likely satisfy university employees and organisational needs during the lockdown. In substance, reciprocal relationships between strategic orientation, organisational culture, university employee commitment, and university performance help the university to fight the battle with COVID-19 by improving its performance through commitment.

3.4 Performance Measurement Theories

Performance measurements have been posited as processes that help organisations set goals and track progress over time. However, the growing complexity of COVID-19 has become a barrier to implementing efficacious the university employees (Chenhall, 2005:395-422).

With the introduction of Total Quality Management (TQM) in the 1980s and the revolution of traditional backwards-looking accounting systems in the 1990s, teams of individuals using performance measurement from within their functional area became responsible for decision-making. In essence, universities adopted naturally distributed structures alongside hierarchies in which information is exchanged laterally through the university. However, this distribution opposed the top-down flow of strict hierarchies of command-and-control structures that already existed to manage the organisation, thus resulting in complexity (Adler,2011:251-263).

3.4.1 Complexity theory

According to complexity theory, if organisations are complex and non-linear systems, their associated members and their interaction with subsystems may determine their current and future behaviour through a self-organising set of order-generating rules (Jurkiewicz, et al., 2008:230-250).

Hence, performance measurement systems introduced into an organisation can have varied effects based on their associated members' complexity and interactions. According to Shaw, Dawson and Blair (2015:127-146), there are three types of these varied effects. In the first type, the performance measurement has no impact on the organisation, so the system soon becomes obsolete.

In the second type, the performance measurement can bring uncontrolled instability into the organisation, in which case it self-destructs. In the final type, the performance measurement can bring controlled instability. In this case, university administrators need to adapt to the changes during COVID-19 to survive to understand the complexity in the performance measurement context. The university administration staff may be required to understand the role of performance measurement as an agent of change.

Complexity theory has progressed from systems theory, which emerged from natural sciences that examined randomly emergent non-linear interactions in a system. Okwir et al. (2018:731-754) argue that complexity theory goes beyond systems thinking and can be applied to understand the management and design of organisations. Complexity in an organisation is usually triggered by change, whether small or large and can have varying consequences, even when the organisations have similar components (Casadesus-Masanell and Ricart, 2010:195-215).

It is helpful to explore how COVID-19 brought change and triggered instability in universities and how they can control that change. University employees are operating in a turbulent environment in which change was triggered by COVID-19 and the lockdown hence demanding reengineering, continuous improvement, and performance measurement by university employees.

While the literature exploring complexity defines it in several ways, the following descriptions are most used. First, (Cilliers, 2008:39-57) conceptualises complexity

through a hierarchical model, arguing that when faced with a dilemma of many parts in the system, the system breaks down into subsystems until the lowest abstraction is reached. Second, extend complex adaptive systems by arguing that the strategic direction of a complex system consists of establishing and adapting. This means COVID-19 challenges within which effective, improvised, self-organised solutions can evolve.

Based on these works, most attention has been focused on determining all the interactions between the university and its employees, why they interact, and how they interact. These interactions remain influential when studying complexity. Third, Efatmaneshnik and Ryan (2016:533-546) propose that complexity is the model property that makes formulating its overall behaviour in each language difficult, even when given complete information about its components and their interrelations. This means, complexity can be a property of a model or system that makes it challenging to formulate its overall behavior, even when complete information about its components and their interrelation is available. It may remain critical for university employees to be innovative and try to counter the effects of COVID-19.

Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly (2012:787-810) defined complexity as behaviour that emerges from the way the components of the system are interconnected but not how the system components are themselves complex. However, the components, people and/or firms, are accurate as complex because they are generally complex adaptive systems. Ladyman, Lambert, and Wiesner (2013:33-67) argue that organisations are made up of complex non-linear systems interacting with several associated members, which could exhibit a pattern of behaviours.

During this lockdown, there is a need for interrelations around the university to have efficient communication. A university has several interactions among its employees and internal stakeholders with the environment, which is a risk to COVID-19 in which it operates. Using the system perspective to characterise complexity is not new (Ladyman, Lambert, and Wiesner, 2013:33-67). For example, in understanding project complexity, a wide range of empirical studies uses the systems view to examine complexity (Bulté and Housen, 2012:23-46).

Similarly, a systemic complexity theory was applied by providing insights into pandemics. The system view means university employees examine and categorise the available system properties, ontological, teleological, genetic, and functional, which are real-world manifestations of a particular situation like the lockdown. The ontological property represents the internal structures that include seven leadership, organisational culture, and behavioural factors (Reiman and Rollenhagen, 2014:5-15). The teleological property represents an object in an environment that aims to reach an objective. The genetic property represents the system's evolution over time. Finally, the functional property represents the focal activity to be performed (Ananthram and Pearson, 2018:7-43).

Introducing the understanding of complexity in a performance measurement would influence the existing systems of the universities and their employees to produce a new pattern of behaviours, which should be controlled for an effective outcome. Thus, in its most basic form, the concept of complexity suggests that by understanding the structure and behaviour of each component of the university system, the system could be understood with inter-relations between several components, including employees.

3.4.2 The complexity theory for characterising complexity in performance measurement

The performance measurement literature does not contain studies that explicitly examine complexity theory in depth. However, a few researchers have studied the impact of complexity theory on performance measurement (Okwir et al., 2018:731-754). The study explores how university administrators can make strategic decisions under complex situations; also proposes different approaches to organisational learning.

Barba-Sánchez (2017:103-114) explored the complex nature of causal links between performance measurement, management styles, and organisational culture. Similarly, Head and Alford (2015:711-739) argue that practitioners must address complexity by rethinking the future of measurement, but they do not explain what amplifies complexity. Finally, Braz, Scavarda, and Martins (2011:751–760) highlight the complexity in their work, but they mostly dismiss it as a minor issue.

Several factors portray complexity as a potential barrier to performance measurements attaining efficacy (Burt and Sparks, 2013:275–286). Therefore, higher education needs to follow performance measurement literature addressing the evolution of performance measurement systems. For instance, COVID-19 brought many barriers to the work environment, and performance measurement is moving towards challenging operational contexts due to the lockdown, thus suggesting that it is difficult for university employees to cope with the new job demands.

3.5 Performance Models

Performance is related to comparing predetermined goals and objectives with the actual output of the employees. If a university can achieve the organisation's desired results, it shows that employees are achieving their objectives optimally; otherwise, there is the possibility of some underperforming employees who cannot achieve their targets (Tesser and Moore, 2015:20-25). Adler (2011:251-263) states that performance is a strategic and integrated approach toward the performance of individuals and teams who deliver their best for the organisation's success.

Performance appraisal is the continuous process of monitoring that the organisational goals are achieved efficiently and effectively (Manyaka and Sebola, 2015:674-687). During this pandemic, universities must constantly check their employees to see if they are meeting any challenges in meeting their objectives during a pandemic. Performance appraisal is significant during the pandemic due to work from home scenario brought by COVID-19. All the university employees need to be checked their work from home performance to avoid internal stakeholder complaints.

Performance is a vital factor for the success of all universities because, in the current world, human resources are one of the essential factors for an organisation. Therefore, University employees need to know from the start of the year what their desired goals, objectives, and targets are during this pandemic so that they can put efforts in the right direction for the achievement of the goal (Vyas and Butakhieo, 2021:59-76).

All university employees should know that at the end of the year, their supervisors will check their performance by comparing the actual results with the desired results and based on this, they can be judged as overperformed, satisfactory, or underperformed workers. In addition, University employees need to know that their pay and package

depend on their performance and the employees who are performing well in the current year get high pay rises after their performance appraisal (Singer and Couper, 2017:115-134).

The focus of the study is to check whether the effective performance process of the universities helps increase the revenue and profitability of the firm or not. For instance, the university needs to select the current work and compare the efficiency of the performance process of choice with the university's objectives. This way, valuable information will be gathered about the impact of COVID-19 performance based on the performance of university employees.

3.5.1 The Value Chain Model

Lambert and Cooper (2000:65-83) use the Value Chain as a model that can be used to identify organisational aspects to measure activities, processes, procedures, and programs. The general Value Chain Model describes an organisation receiving inputs that are deployed processes, procedures, and programs that produce outputs. Many of those outputs involve an essential engagement with clients (people who make individual transactions with the organisation). Throughout the Value Chain, stakeholders (partners and co-producers) can be instrumental in producing client satisfaction and social outcomes. Contributions from partners and co-producers could emerge spontaneously without any encouragement or guidance from the organisation. Alternatively, they could emerge as a consequence of deliberate efforts made by the organisation to mobilise co-production activities. For example, universities can draft contracts with employees or can seek to use moral persuasion of various kinds to motivate private individuals and organisations to contribute to public goals. An organisation can even use the state's authority to require others to contribute to socially desired outcomes. Nalwoga and Dijk (2016:122-138) explain that organisational performance can be done, and accountability is demanded at any step along the value chain of partners and co-producers.

During this pandemic, university workers must ensure that university activities towards the value chain are followed. COVID-19 affected the whole value chain, a problem for the university as they cannot cope with the changes in the value chain. In contrast, some workers cannot work due to production bottlenecks such as reorganising

workflow to alleviate capacity constraints and enhance productivity. By addressing production bottlenecks, organisation can enhance workers' ability to work efficiently and improve overall productivity in the system. When production bottlenecks occur, it can disrupt the workflow and impact the ability of workers to perform their tasks (Ananthram and Pearson, 2018:7-43).

3.5.2 Qualitative model

According to Bang and Markeset's (2012:233-241) qualitative model, there are nine critical success factors in institutional performance. These parameters have a tight relationship with each other; if accomplishment is not granted due to one parameter, it could, later, negatively affect total functioning. The nine factors include social tune, cost-effectiveness, course development, corporate reputation, investment in human capital, physical facilities development, internal stakeholder relations, the quality of employee relations, and public responsibility.

Based on these models, measuring the effectiveness of university institutions is a multi-dimensional issue given the challenges brought by COVID-19. University administration employee performance can be appropriately evaluated from different points of view, such as role performance, effectiveness, efficiency, and potential capability for future activities. During this epidemic, any university institution must identify and emphasise nine important success elements, and success in these areas is a sign of survival.

3.5.3 Logic models

Good performance measurement uses metrics with an authentic and valid link to the program's effects that measure what they intend to measure (Warren and Seifert, 2011:335-342). To be sure the system meets these two goals, indicators are pulled from the program's logic model, the visual representation of how the program creates impact. Many models loosely describe how activities lead to the desired effect; by continuing the model into the program's processes, measurable indicators emerge (Poister, 2004:98-125). Managers can use this data to make budgeting decisions, cut or expand programs, and meet staffing requirements. Hence, key elements of a logic model are:

Resources or inputs, which include everything used to produce the result, whether it is a physical product, a service, or other types of work. Based on Fitchett et al. (2011:91), expenditures, employee time, and physical materials all fall under the resources category.

- Resources or inputs, which include everything used to produce the result, whether it is a physical product, a service, or other types of work. Based on Fitchett et al. (2011:91), expenditures, employee time, and physical materials all fall under the resources category.
- Activities are the processes or "work steps" to produce the result.
- Outputs, the individual units of work produced as a result of the activities.
- Outcomes, the effect of the outputs measured over the short, medium, and long term.
- Indicators are individual units of activity that will be measured to track performance (Halson, 2014:139-147).

According to the Urban Institute and the Centre, outcomes are the results of a service that is of direct interest and concern to customers of the programme. That addition is crucial to understanding what can and should be included in the outcomes category; many of the results directly affecting participants lay outside of an organisation's control and tracking ability. However, practitioners agree that these results must be included anyway to get the best perspective on a program (Poister, 2004:98-125). By starting with the organisation's or university's mission statement, deans help to ensure that the logic model stays true to the university's philosophy and commitment to the community rather than simply funding requirements. In addition, indicators should balance to provide an excellent overall picture of how the program operates (Ghisellini, Cialani, and Ulgiati, 2016:11-32). Assumptions include the central ideas that the program is based on, including the relevant research and program models. External factors refer to the particular circumstances of the target population for a program (Granberg et al., 2014:777-786).

3.5.4 Model of organisational performance

Ashraf, (2012:80-87) proposal for the organisational effectiveness of 4-year colleges, there are nine dimensions and a 57-item questionnaire to secure the members'

perceptions about the efficacy of their institutions on these aspects. Cameron's selection of these dimensions is based on the careful study of the criteria, institutions and constituencies and in-depth analysis (Barlow et al., 2014:157-163). The following describes these nine dimensions (Thunnissen and Van Arensbergen, 2015:182-199).

- Educational satisfaction- Focus on internal stakeholders' satisfaction with their educational experiences at their study place.
- Academic development- This dimension discusses the rate and extent of achievement, growth, and progress the internal stakeholders have managed to gain at the institute. Also, covers the chances for academic growth that the institution offers them.
- Career development- Indicates the range of the internal stakeholders' occupational and vocational progress and the opportunities given to them by the institutions.
- Personal development- Refers to the extent of the internal stakeholder's progress in non-career, non-academic areas; in fact, they are on a social, cultural, and emotional basis. University internal stakeholders and staff have been traumatic due to the COVID-19 case spreading. This has increased pressure on the university employees to maintain the internal stakeholders. University employees must bring back confidence to internal stakeholders so that universities can be functional.

The opportunities such as staff development and bursaries to further employees studies in the institution are within this dimension. University administrator satisfaction is critical during this COVID-19 period of the pandemic. This refers to the satisfaction the administrators and faculty members have with their jobs. Professional growth and faculty quality are addressed in this dimension, which also discusses the organisation's motivational strategies for work progress and the faculty members' level of job accomplishment and improvement (Hitt and Tucker 2016:531-569).

System openness and community interaction display the attention given to the challenges of the lockdown to the institution, its adaptation, and the service in that place. The ability to acquire resources refers to the range of resources the organisation can earn from the outside. Universities administrators must ensure the institution's

smooth functioning from the viewpoint of its processes and operations, such as goodwill and liveliness during this pandemic.

Furthermore, four main fields of organisational performance are compatible with the effectiveness dimensions (shraf, 2012: 80-87). The following outlines academic field is concerned with the internal stakeholder's academic progress, professional development, and the administrators' productivity, as well as the potential to obtain resources. This involved administration staff as they were required to make copies of the study resources or provide material to internal stakeholders and distribute it to their home addresses. The moral field deals with internal stakeholders' educational satisfaction, organisational health, and faculty and administrator employment satisfaction.

The external adaptation field deals with the internal stakeholder's career progress, system openness, and community interaction. The extracurricular field discusses the single dimension of a internal stakeholder's personal development. Later, Cameron incorporated the internal stakeholder's progress dimension into the academic field and deleted the last field. Based on the organisational performance is multi-field; that is to say, the system resource model is very closely related to the external adaptation field at higher educational institutions. There seems to exist some similarity between the process approach and the moral field. The goal model is also like the academic field. Since organisational effectiveness is a multi-dimensional field, it cannot be measured by a single model, so all the variables should be considered (Ashraf, 2012:80-87).

In addition, it is essential to consider all the contextual factors before any organisational effectiveness criteria are selected. Due to the diversity of cultures across South African Universities, it is possible that one factor can work in one place, but it may fail in another, given the situation around the globe where lockdowns are the order of the day. Therefore, there is a need for universities to introduce strong cultures, as mentioned earlier. This will help university administrators to work together as a team and tackle lockdown challenges.

3.5.5 The application of cameron's model of organisational performance in empirical studies

A study based on Cameron's competitive values model and Cameron's organisational performance instrument (Ashraf, 2012:80-87) concluded research in which the effective organisational performance of community colleges was tied to the nature of their organisational culture.

A survey method was administered among full-time faculty and administrators in a statewide system of 14 community colleges in the United States of America to collect data (Lancaster, and Lundberg, 2019:136-158). According to the researcher's suggestion, the most influential campus culture reflects a healthy balance of the four culture types (adhocracy, clan, hierarchy, and market) rather than focusing on only one or two of those culture types. The importance of campus culture among university employees is vital during the lockdown. In addition, employees are frustrated due to the pandemic, so there is a need to have a potent reminder of the university culture to continue performing well.

Their survey (Burt and Sparks, 2013:275–286) assessed the perceived effect of an accreditation process on culture and organisational performance. The sample included 31 deans and directors-general of the European Quality Improvement System in accredited university of the higher education. According to the findings, there was a positive effect on some aspects of performance. However, the study did not report any effect associated with the bureaucracy feature of culture. The dimensions bearing the highest perceived positive effects included the following:

- The social openness and community interaction
- The program's development and quality of the faculty
- The ability to obtain resources. Specifically, two cultural aspects were closely related to performance market and adhocracy.

In the end, it seems that the cultural change created by accreditation was associated with a positive effect on performance. Cameron's model has been validated by all those mentioned above because there is a need to assess the university employees and the system as a whole (Ashraf, 2012:80-87).

3.5.6 The self-evaluation maintenance (SEM) model

The Self-Evaluation Maintenance (SEM) model was developed from Social Comparison Theory (Tesser et al., 2012:23-30). Social Comparison Theory states that people, in general, want to understand the world and do so by comparing themselves to others. In the university situation, for example, Social Comparison Theory implies that comparing one's university administrator performance to others during the lockdown significantly impacts how one's performance is perceived. A university employee can perceive his or her performance to be better, worse, or the same as the performance of another person when competing in the same activity.

Social psychological research by Zanna and Cooper (2013:703-709) has led to the evolution of the self-evaluation maintenance model. The basic assumption of the SEM model is that when comparing one's performance to others, a person will seek to maintain or enhance how they evaluate themselves (Rossi, et al., 2022:121-139). This model makes specific predictions about how performance will affect the closeness of the relationship with others and how relevant a specific activity is perceived ((Ostrom, 2011:7-27). Twenty years of research on the self-elevation model offers convincing support for its predictions that a person will choose to be close to others who:

- Do not outperform - On relevant things (self-definition) and thereby do not either by comparison but outperform them on irrelevant things (not self-definition) so that they might bask in reflected glory.
- Viticulture self-evaluation maintenance model - makes specific predictions about when and how comparison to others will impact the closeness of employees. This model can help university administration employees to self-evaluate themselves to improve their performance during the lockdown.

Every university employee is afraid to be retrenched during COVID-19 due to incompetency. This model could help university employees keep pushing for better performance to out-compete other employees.

Lockdown led to the retrenchment of employees in the education sector, including universities. To avoid these employees are improving their operations to outperform others to avoid retrenchments.

Since the early eighties, researchers have consistently found that a change in closeness, performance, or relevance of the activity could lead to specific and predictable changes in at least one of the remaining two variables (Smith, 2011:114–126). The premise of the model is that when a person's self-evaluation is threatened, he or she trusts that threat by altering performance, relevance, or closeness. Hence, the association between two people, the perceived quality of accomplishments (performance), and/or the extent to which the performance is on a dimension perceived to be necessary.

The self-evaluation maintenance model suggests that one may lower one's performance to avoid these negative comparison processes. According to (Tesser et al. (2012:23-30), being close to a high-performing other can make an individual's performance look bad by comparison. However, an individual's self-evaluation may not be threatened by a strong performing other, regardless of how close the relationship is, but may instead bask in the reflected glory of another accomplishment if the task is perceived irrelevant.

Given how significant performance is in determining whom a person chooses to engage with, it is critical to remember that the essential factor in determining how near a person chooses to be to a better performing other is the activity's significance. Similarly, the self-evaluation maintenance model helps university employees select closer to a higher-performing employee if the task is important, especially during this lockout. There is a need for university employees to constantly contact better performers on the way forward in terms of administration. COVID-19 needs teamwork by asking workmates to assist in case of contracting coronavirus, and it becomes difficult to perform work duties.

Additionally, the trace of some of Cameron's nine dimensions can be observed in two other models (Ashraf, 2012:80-87). This suggests the comprehensiveness of Cameron's model for assessing university performance in higher education institutions. University employees need to work in close communication during the pandemic. University administrators need to share information about the challenges brought by COVID-19, which is affecting their performance.

Successful universities during the lockdown depend critically on the ability to develop vibrant turnaround strategies through continuous and consistent training of their employees to the new job demands due to COVID-19, hence increasing the university's prosperity. In this context, change adaptation and progress have a significant role in creating a high degree of adaptation during the lockdown through performance appraisal (Adler, 2011:251–263).

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter tried to explain several theories and performance models, including the Balanced Scorecard, Baldrige Model, Social Exchange Theory, Complexity Theory, etc. Performance measurement is a crucial factor for productivity and helps retrieve information about employees. Performance is a key component of any successful company, as several Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) assist in performance measurement. Higher education institutions must consider their human resource KPIs to have an appropriate performance measurement during this lockdown, which can improve administration employee performance.

CHAPTER 4

IMPACT OF THE PHYSICAL PRESENCE OF THE MANAGER AT THE WORKPLACE

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the review of necessary literature about the psychology of supervisors on the employee. The psychology of managed personnel, how management affects employee performance, and the work ethics of higher education's administrative staff. This section emphasises the profundity of literature from different authors based on the research objective presented in the previous chapter.

This section review literature by past researchers and authors on how mental health is critical for administrative employees working in higher education. It depicts the link between psychology and the mental well-being of an employee. This section highlights the in-depth literature from different backgrounds and provides significant insights from scholars on the topic under study by showing major key concepts. This section concludes with a summary, giving a general idea of the discussed literature.

In this chapter, the focus is on organisational psychology. Organisational psychology is one of the primary focuses of the research within the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology (Luthans et al., 2013:118-133). In organisational psychology, the focus is on social interactions and their effect on the individual and the organisation's functioning. This section discusses the work organisational psychologists have done to understand job satisfaction, different styles of management, leadership, organisational culture, and teamwork.

A deep analysis of job satisfaction is also evident in this chapter. Some people love their jobs, some people tolerate their jobs, and some people cannot stand their jobs. Job satisfaction describes the degree to which individuals enjoy their job (Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2012:787-810). Akinwale and George (2020:71–92) defined it as the emotional condition that results from evaluating one's work experiences. While both indicate how we perceive our work (our cognition) and how we feel about it contribute to job satisfaction (our affect). Job satisfaction is impacted by the work, our personality, and the culture we come from and live in (Hariandi, Umar, and Us, 2021:228-244).

4.2 Psychology of Supervisor on Employee.

The dynamics in technological advancement, its impacts on work and the workplace, and research on the psychology of supervisors have increasingly gained attention by researchers and practitioners in the past few decades, particularly with employee concerns (Luthans et al. 2013:118-133). For example, the support provided by managers to employees has been shown to have many effects on burnout, emotional exhaustion, anxiety, and depression in workers, which may directly or indirectly impair total psychological well-being (Yang and Hayes, 2020:426).

Even though supervisor support can affect employees' psychological well-being directly and indirectly, researchers and practitioners need to understand the mechanisms involved thoroughly. This is true even though numerous studies have focused on examining the impact of supervisor support on employees' psychological well-being (Beehr et al., 2003:220-231).

However, past investigations explored the significance psychology of supervisors on employees' well-being but have not simultaneously examined the mediating roles of work-from-home conflict. In addition, job satisfaction affects the psychology of supervisor support on employees' well-being. Hence it remains to be seen whether work-from-home conflict and job satisfaction can mediate the relationship between supervisor support and employee's psychological well-being (Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2012:787-810). In light of the vacuum created by prior research on supervisor assistance and employees' psychological well-being, this chapter evaluates the impression of the psychology of supervisors' employees on organisational performance for the administration staff at a selected university in Cape Town.

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002:698-714) stipulated psychology of supervisors to the employee is the level at which subordinates are aware that their supervisors care for and value their welfare and input at work. According to Allen and Shanock (2013:350-369), supportive supervisors provide guidance, assistance, and feedback to their employees, which are crucial to organisation adaptation in the workplace. With guidance, supervisors provide significant directions to their employees to know their responsibilities and how to carry out these responsibilities.

With assistance, supervisors assist in removing any obstacles that may impede their employees from performing their duties accurately. Regarding feedback, supervisors provide valuable information that helps employees improve their work environment performance. Guidance, assistance, and feedback that employees receive from their supervisors have been known to assist employees in coping with complex situations that occur in the workplace, therefore alleviating occupational stress that may affect employees' psychological well-being, work-from-home conflict, and job satisfaction (Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams, 2000:249-276.)

The psychology of the supervisor on the customer is to assess the current position of the administration field in higher education and to help managers create and implement a better strategy to develop an administration performance. Therefore, innovation can be viewed as an essential component of the psychology of the supervisor to the customers. In this case, the university administrative supervisors can support their employees by avoiding stress and burnout at work. Hence with the psychology support, the supervisor will help to compare the current position in terms of their administration work during the pandemic and their previous position before the pandemic (Nesher Shoshan and Wehrt, 2022:827-852).

4.2.1 The direct effect of the psychology of supervisor on the employees' well-being

The degree to which an individual is functioning effectively or the overall efficacy of an individual's psychological functioning can be used to define psychological wellness (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005:874-900). For example, Swanzy (2020:41-53) suggested the need to consider supervisor support as one of the vital elements in workplace safety after conducting a study on 5877 employees and found out that supportive supervisors significantly influenced their employee's well-being. In addition, other studies by Houle et al. (2011:89-105) have also found that supportive supervisors significantly influenced employees' psychological depressive symptoms, which may all affect their general psychological well-being.

In addition, in several previous studies, Collins (2008:1173-1193) suggested that social support, such as supervisor assistance, tends to affect employees' psychological well-being positively. Thus, research findings seem to support the relationship between

supportive supervisors and psychological well-being since the COVID-19 pandemic impacted all aspects of South African universities.

4.2.2 Supportive supervisors' impact on employees' work-to-family conflict

There have been several definitions of Work from Home Conflict by many researchers. However, Carr and Hmieleski (2015:1413-1432) explained it as a form of conflict in which the pressures from the work and family domains must be addressed simultaneously. Work-to-family conflict is when the work does interfere with family roles, while family-to-work conflict is when a person's family roles interfere with his or her work (Liu, and Low, 2011:117-128).

According to numerous studies, a supervisor's supportive role is crucial for staff success in higher learning environments and may lessen the detrimental effects of behavioural intention, norms, and productivity (Graves, Sarkis and Zhu, 2013:81-91). Therefore, the supervisor attempts to interpret the administrative staff's activities and understand their interests and behaviour. Organisations have observed similar outcomes, where Chinese managers exhort their staff to increase dedication and seek expertise and information (Khuram et al., 2021:145-152). The antecedents of knowledge-seeking intention and supervisor support among doctorate internal stakeholders were revealed to be positively correlated (Mohammed and Kamalanabhan 2020:765-790). Supervisor support refers to the perception of employees that their supervisors are understanding, caring, and supportive of their needs and well-being. Various studies have also analysed the moderating effects of supervisor support, for example Work-family conflict, this means supervisor support can moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and employee outcomes (Asghar et al., 2018:1-11).

Sakurai and Jex (2012:150) found that the association between administrative staff work attempts, behavioural moods, and counterproductive actions was mediated by supervisor support, making the relationship favourable with highly supportive behaviour from supervisors. Recent research by Adil and Ab Hamid (2020:122-141) has shown the correlation between teamwork and employee performance in higher education organisations, as a result of supervisors' support and focus on prior staff results. The argument is rational that a supervisor should balance the interaction

between staff mindset, moral expectations, academic integrity, and individuals' desire to pursue information.

According to Adejare et al. (2020:56-66), the supervisor's position is crucial in enhancing worker performance and is comparable to managers in non-academic settings. Similarly, the related research further encapsulated that workers' success (e.g., creativity and innovation) is affected by their managers' supervision style. Supporting supervisors contribute to an organisational culture that allows participants to turn their creative talents into successful results and address personal and cultural concerns and experiences in every environment (Cascio, 2000:81-90). Simultaneously, the academic supervisor's position has become more of a manager with the rapidly evolving academic climate. In contrast, supervisors are the main element in accelerating the learning process as the efficiency, success, and output of administrative staff are positively affected by the supervisor (Onnismaa, Tahkokallio, and Kalliala, 2015:197-210).

Jack et al. (2018:535-562) emphasised that these two forms can be considered separately and be used independently for different studies. Besides the influence of supervisor support on employees' psychological well-being, it has been known that supervisor support can be helpful to employees in coping with their work-to-family conflicts. Hence this helps to avoid the severe effect of COVID-19. A selected university in Cape Town will need a good management team with clear strategic support to employees, and this can be done by investing in professional development to improve their relationships with partners and the processes to raise the value of education.

The five criteria of determinant factors are: Universities with a high level of employee excellence have administrators that build a great future and achieve their objectives, ethics models and inspire trust. In addition, strategy and organisation with a high level of excellence apply their mission and vision by developing and implementing a strategy based on stakeholders (Ivanov and Avasilcăi, 2014:397-404).

Lim and Lee (2011:95) reported that employees' work-to-family struggles significantly decrease when their supervisors are more supportive of them. This could be attributed to the fact that supportive supervisors are considered part of social assistance that

helps employees cope with problems related to their work-to-family conflict (Burke and Greenglass, 2019:327-336). In addition, Shockley and Singla (2011:861-886) explored the work-to-family conflict of staff at Northern Cyprus university and found that supportive supervisors had a negative impact on staff work-to-family conflict.

4.2.3 Supportive supervisors' impact on employees' job satisfaction

According to Ravari et al. (2012:95-102), job satisfaction can be defined as a positive or negative critical judgment one makes about the person's job. Kabir and Parvin (2011:113-123) Researchers looked into the psychology of supervisors or their work environment and discovered that the psychology of supervisors was significant in determining how satisfied employees were with their jobs in higher education. This may be the case because supervisors feel valued, respected, and supported when they are more supportive of their employees. For example, a study done by Jones (2009:272-285) on the influence of the psychology of supervisors' support on job satisfaction of university administration staff revealed that their supervisor's support positively influenced the administration staff's degree of job satisfaction. Research have consistently shown that supervisor support have a positive influence on job satisfaction among administrative staff (Wnuk, 2017:31-44). Administrative staff typically work in diverse roles, providing support and coordination within an organisation. For example, professional development supervisor support for professional growth and development is crucial for job satisfaction. When supervisors invest in the training, skill development, and career advancement of administrative staff, it signals their commitment to their employees' long-term success (Leitão et al., 2019: 3803). In addition, a recent study conducted by Essiam et al. (2015:1-15) also reported that university supervisor support significantly positively influenced employee job satisfaction. University employees, including faculty members, researchers, administrative staff, and support personnel, rely on their supervisors for guidance, support, and feedback. When supervisors offer advice, share knowledge and expertise, and support career development, it helps employees navigate their roles effectively and enhances their job satisfaction (Sykes et al., 2014:51-72).

4.2.4 Job satisfaction as a direct antecedent of psychological wellbeing

Like work-to-family conflict, past studies have also reported the significant effect of job satisfaction on employees' overall health (Soomro, Breitenecker, and Shah, 2018:129-146). This is because employees who are not satisfied with their work may report higher levels of stress which may affect their overall health.

Employees' job satisfaction is crucial because of the saying that a satisfied worker is a productive worker and because satisfied workers have been known to be healthier than unsatisfied workers. A meta-analysis by Cass et al. (2013:79-95) on employees' job satisfaction and well-being revealed that university administrative staff's degree of job satisfaction was positively related to their overall well-being. In addition, a recent study conducted by Scanlan and Still (2013:310-318) on employees' job satisfaction and well-being confirmed that job satisfaction had a profound impact on employees' well-being.

Another meta-analysis of 485 studies by Nahar et al. (2013:520) revealed that job satisfaction was significantly related to employees' general health. Faragher, Cass, and Cooper (2005:105-112) and their colleagues further revealed that job satisfaction was more related to psychological problems than physical health. Further studies by Mark and Smith (2012:63-78) were conducted on the impact of job satisfaction on employee psychological well-being, and all indicated that higher job satisfaction was associated with supervisors improving employees' psychological well-being. Universities with a high level of excellence have a higher interest in their people, continuously looking to improve their capabilities even during the COVID-19 pandemic are trying to motivate the employees to obtain better results which helps the universities to grow.

Although research suggests the influence of leadership on subordinate health and well-being, few studies have examined the relationship between leadership in leader-member exchange and employee health (Singh and Srivastava, 2009:60-71). In short, it focuses on the dyadic interactions between leaders and followers (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 2005:219-247). Many researchers have documented favourable relationships between quality and subordinate outcomes, such as higher performance ratings, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviours,

perceived organisational support, and decreased turnover intentions. Seligman (2008:3-18) called attention to the fact that positive health, as opposed to the mere absence of ill health, has received little attention scientifically. Recent research has started to examine how effective leadership may reduce ill health (e.g. burnout, depression) and enhance positive mental health (Arnol et al., 2007:193-203). In a one-year longitudinal study, Feldt, Kinnunen, and Maunao, (2000:461-476) reported that positive changes in leadership relations were associated with improved employee psychological well-being (Chughtai, Byrne, and Flood, 2015:.653-663). Although some evidence has suggested that effective leadership may enhance employee well-being, the specifics of this relationship are not precise. Thus, the relationship between leadership and positive health outcomes warrants further attention.

4.3 Psychology of Employees on being Managed

Brooks et al. (2020:912-920) indicated that people working from home are exposed to specific psychological risks, such as isolation, blurred boundaries between work and family, and increased risk of domestic violence. In addition, the fear of losing their job, pay cuts, lay-offs, and reduced benefits make many workers question their future. Job insecurity, economic loss, and unemployment can severely impact the mental health of administration staff in higher education. Psychological risks may arise or increase because of the COVID-19- crisis. Many of them may have emerged during the period of the rapid spread of the virus and strict isolation measures.

If not appropriately assessed and managed, psychological risks may increase stress levels and lead to physical and mental health problems (Cahill, Cullen, and Gaynor, 2020:517-547). Psychological responses may include low mood, low motivation, exhaustion, anxiety, depression, burnout, and suicidal thoughts. Hence a range of physical reactions can also occur, such as digestive problems, changes in appetite and weight, dermatological reactions, fatigue, cardiovascular disease, musculoskeletal disorders, headaches, or other unexplained aches and pains.

There may be changes in behaviour, such as a change in activity level or increased use of tobacco, alcohol, and drugs as a way of coping, in addition to changes in the person's ability to relax or level of irritability. Therefore this will have a negative effect on the higher education administrative staff performance since they will have low

motivation dermatological reactions if not appropriately managed. The protection of workers' mental health should be integrated into the higher education occupational safety and health management systems, emergency preparedness and response plans, and return to work plans developed to respond to the COVID-19 crisis. According to the International Labour Organisation Guidelines on Occupational Safety and Health Management Systems (ILO-OSH 2001), workplace hazard identification and risk assessment should be carried out before any modification or introduction of new work methods, materials, processes, or machinery (Bowling, Eschleman, and Wang, 2010:915-934).

The process in higher education should cover all the hazards and risks arising from the work environment and organisation, including psychological factors. According to the guidelines, occupational safety prevention and control procedures should be adapted to the hazards and risks encountered by the administration staff of the university and should be reviewed and modified if necessary regularly; comply with national laws and regulations, and show good practice; and consider the current state of knowledge, including information or reports from the higher education, this will help the administration staff to manage psychological well-being.

4.3.1 The risk assessment process

Employers should map all existing hazards and assess the associated risks of COVID-19 virus infection. In this process, it is imperative to involve risk assessment process to administrative workers, representatives, safety, and health committees, where appropriate. In the specific situation of the COVID-19 outbreak, the potential sources of exposure to the novel coronavirus should be identified, considering all work areas and tasks performed by the administrative staff (Podgórski, 2010:283-310). Higher education should also aim to identify any hazard that may arise due to the occupation service health measures, new work processes, and arrangements adopted to prevent contagion of administration staff.

Psychological risk factors (for example, long working hours, reduced rest periods, increased workload and pressure on employees, violence, and harassment at home), ergonomics, chemical, and other hazards should all be considered (Forastieri, 2016:11). In addition, in epidemic contexts such as the current one, external factors

affecting mental health and well-being should also be considered, such as fear of being infected, losing one's job, and experiencing a lower quality of life (Cass et al., 2013:79-95).

Several areas for workplace action on how to manage or mitigate the psychological well-being of employees and mental health problems during the COVID-19 pandemic, namely job security, management leadership, communication, information and training, social support, and psychological support.

4.3.2 Workload, work pace, and work schedule

Evidence shows that heavy workload is related to increased absenteeism, absence of a psychiatric diagnosis, self-reported ill health, mental disorders such as depression and anxiety, burnout, coronary heart disease, and musculoskeletal complaints (Burke and Greenglass, 2019:327-336). In contrast, other workers, including those working from home, may experience either work overload or underload.

The following actions should be taken to manage the administrative staff's psychological health. Assess the workload and work assignments, identify the situations of work overload and underload in the specific context of COVID-19. Administration workers in higher education should be aware that productivity levels may not be as expected when they become used to new arrangements and working styles (such as working from home) (Özçelik, 2015:99). Therefore, adjust and redistribute work assignments to ensure that workers receive an appropriate amount of work, considering their capacities and situation in the specific context of the COVID-19 crisis.

The review pays attention to task conflicts and clearly defines tasks, responsibilities, and the goals to be reached (for example, quality versus quantity) and realistic expectations in light of the COVID-19 emergency (Al-Dabbagh, 2020:2186). Design and implement timely strategies to deal with the specific situation imposed by the pandemic, which may require either reducing activities or, on the contrary, intensifying production and hiring temporary staff to cope with increased demand (Dirlam and Zheng, 2017:95-103). Improve working methods and ensure that the necessary equipment, resources, and supports are available (for example, tools, technology, support staff, and protective equipment) to help workers complete their tasks safely

and efficiently; in this specific context, tools such as devices and access such as FortiClient VPN.

Also, workers with disabilities may need special equipment and resources to acknowledge and appreciate workers' efforts in coping with the changes in work organisation and modalities during the pandemic. Finally, identify and discuss with workers possible changes and options concerning working time, including part-time work, to avoid gathering workers and maintain physical distance.

Arrange work schedules to avoid excessively long working hours (including limiting long shifts and overtime hours, which can affect worker health and well-being) and ensure adequate rest periods. Include sufficient breaks (considering both length and frequency), rendering workload and working time. Hunter and Wu (2016:302) encourage employees working from home to take regular breaks, allowing some discretion as to when short breaks are taken.

4.3.3 Work-life balance

During the COVID-19 pandemic, many employees in Higher education are not only confronted with high work demands but also must organise home life and look after dependents, particularly children, elderly, ill, or family members with disabilities or if they have disabilities themselves. All these elements contribute to the deterioration of one's work-life balance, with adverse effects on staff's mental health. As a result, the administrative staff was required to work from home during and even after the lockdown was lifted.

4.3.4 Management leadership

Evidence shows that strong and effective leadership positively impacts workers' mental health and well-being (for example, lower anxiety, depression, and stress) and is associated with less sick leave and lower disability pensions (Ahmad et al., 2019:25-33). Successful leadership in higher education should ensure that a good and functional management system is in place, which integrates the various Occupational Safety Health (OSH) aspects, including psychosocial factors.

Management finds themselves under intense pressure, which generates stress. At the same time, it is critical to protect workers from the stress and psychological pressure generated by the pandemic. Higher education management should ensure to provide priority to what is most important. The safety of employees and their representatives to identify what actions and measures are needed for people to feel safe, informed, engaged, and productive.

A crisis may not be the best time to set up new operating methods, but the pandemic gives many universities no choice. So instead, try to take advantage of the new experiences gained during the COVID-19 crisis (in terms of new working methods, Communication, and resources) to bring change and innovation in consultation with workers and representatives, which will last in the long term.

4.4 The Role of Managers on the Performance of the Subordinates

Thanks to technology, business and university institutions are making use of advanced techniques of operation. As the sophistication of technologies continues to evolve, they pose more challenges for most administrative management because organisations will need more employees with increased technical and professional skills. These knowledge workers cannot be managed with old styles of totalitarian management. They expect operational autonomy, job satisfaction, and status. Therefore, University administrative management's eye is on how to keep employees engaged in their job. Management now realises that by focusing on employee engagement, they can create a more efficient and productive workforce and increase workers' performance. Any initiatives taken by management cannot be fruitful without employees' wilful involvement and engagement.

Research report that being at work can be a valuable way of bringing management and employees closer together for the benefit of both employees experiencing a sense of community, the space to be themselves, and the opportunity to contribute. Researchers have also developed a new "Hierarchy of engagement" model, which resembles Maslow's need hierarchy model. There are basic needs of pay and benefits. Once an employer satisfies these needs, the employee looks to development opportunities and the possibility for promotion, and then leadership style will be introduced to the mix in the model.

Finally, when all the above-cited lower-level aspirations have been satisfied, the employee looks to an alignment of value-meaning, which is displayed by a true sense of connection, a common purpose, and a shared sense of meaning at work.

A healthy manager-employee relationship is a vital component of the role managers play in determining employee performance and retention. Should management at academic institutions affect how well employees perform? The answer is that the key results for universities are significantly entwined with employee engagement. In this section, we will examine how employee engagement affects university employees' performance in light of numerous research studies. Employee retention, productivity, profitability, customer loyalty, and safety at universities have all been linked favourably in studies to employee engagement. According to research, an employer is more likely to expand its revenue faster than the average university institution if its workers are more engaged (Kumar, and Pansari, 2016:497-514).

4.4.1 Employee training and development

Management plays an essential role in the performance of their subordinates by training and developing employees. Ghosh (2013:95) explained that employers do not typically consider employees' feelings on skills set for development. However, University institutions' management plays an important role in the performance of their subordinates in the sense that training and developing administrative staff will help obtain and apply advanced knowledge. Hence it improves administrative staff individuals' performance in terms of personal and organisational level, and hence it is considered one of the imperatives of human resources management.

This means the training and development of administrative staff is a significant advantage to the higher education staff in the sense that where individuals thought process is stimulated. In turn, practical teamwork possibility is enhanced and ultimately results in the enhancement of leadership qualities, as found out by previous researchers, and an essential aspect is that employees are self-driven to achieve organisational goals (Bao and Nizam, 2015:29-45). Most studies demonstrate that feeling valued by management, two-way Communication between management and employees, management's interest in employees' well-being, and giving more opportunities for employees to grow are the top drivers of employee engagement.

4.5 Job Type

Van Iddekinge, Putka, and Campbell (2011:13) defined a job type as the accounting behaviour of a related job. The job type is associated with a specific command or action the system will perform when this job type is selected. For instance, there are various job types in higher education, including human capital staff, finance staff and data capturing staff.

Job type has to do with the extent to which a job has work and employment-related factors that foster beneficial outcomes for the employee, particularly psychological status, physical status, and positive attitudes such as job satisfaction (Truxillo et al., 2012:340-360).

A taxonomy of job types that illustrates the ways in which jobs typically combine work and employment-related factors (e.g., work organisation, wage, and flexibility) offers several key benefits for studying job quality. Firstly, it can detail how jobs combine factors of high job quality with factors of low job quality. Secondly, it can estimate the overall or total quality of a job, e.g., by establishing the extent to which a job type has factors indicative of high job quality (Alegre, Mas-Machuca, and Berbegal-Mirabent, 2016:1390-1395).

Combining these two sources of information makes it possible to establish whether there are different types of high-quality jobs and low-quality jobs. Despite these benefits, few empirical studies of job types exist. Their scope is limited to a focus on one job factor, e.g., work organisation (Valeyre et al., 2009:90).

A taxonomy of job types also benefits research examining why university institutions vary in job quality, a key theme in the job quality literature. Several types of research have successfully tested university institutional theories to provide strong evidence that differences in job quality result from institutional regimes. So, it has yet to be established whether the university institutions' variation in the total quality of a job results from variances in national institutional regimes using job types as they estimate the total quality of a job. Another benefit is that job types can illuminate differences between universities in the level and nature of job quality (Bowling, Eschleman, and Wang, 2010:915-934).

The job type determines the job description. A job description is a document that guides employees with an outline of the primary duties and responsibilities of the role for which they are applying (Ahmad et al., 2019:25-33). A job description is an essential part of the job application process as, with the correct information, it should help employees to determine whether the role is in line with their skill set and whether it is a job they want to do. From the higher education perspective, the job description is vital in ensuring that the applications received for the position closely match the role's needs (Drummod et al., 2017:544-565). Furthermore, the job type also determines the job specification and outlines specific traits a person needs to do the job. Typically, that includes the qualifications, skills, and personal traits needed to be successful. Reviewing the job specification helps to determine whether one is qualified for the position. The employer benefits from having a job description because it is easier to look at candidates' resumes to decide if they are a good fit.

Jobs require varying levels of education, depending on the position. For example, an entry-level office clerk position may only require a high school diploma, whereas human resources director requirements might list a bachelor's or master's degree as the minimum education requirement (Rios, et al., 2020:80-89). In addition, some positions require a specific primary and degree type to qualify. For example, administrative employees must possess degrees in the fields in which they wish to work, and lawyers need a law degree to pass the state bar exam to practice (Dubinsky and Hartley, 1986:253-268). Inferring the nature of high and low-quality job types in Europe from empirical studies is also tricky, as they provide different indications of the types of job quality that might occur. For example, some strategic human resource management studies indicate two types of job quality: high and low-commitment jobs (Batt, 2002:587–97). Other studies report finding the four job types specified by the job demands-control model or job types very similar to these (Taris and Kompier, 2005:132-150). For example, using a European-wide data set and focusing only on work organisation found four job types; discretionary learning (e.g., high job discretion and task complexity), lean production (e.g., high teamwork, task complexity, and timing constraints with reasonable job discretion), Taylorist (e.g., low discretion and complexity with high timing constraints) and simple jobs (low on all variables) (Valeyre et al., 2009:90).

Except for the lean production jobs, the job types reported by Valeyre and colleagues are very similar to those of the job demands-control model. Active jobs, discretionary learning, high-strain, passive, and straightforward jobs. Other taxonomies of job types have also been reported concerning work and employment-related factors. For instance, Chung, Kerkhofs and Ester (2007:56) found six types of working time flexibility in South Africa: worker orientated (e.g., flexible work hours, overtime, parental leave, and early retirement), company orientated (e.g., similar to worker orientated but no flexible working hours and use of atypical seven working hours), life course (e.g., part-time work, parental leave, early retirement), day-to-day (e.g., flexible work hours, atypical work hours, part-time work), overtime only, and no working time flexibility. Valeyre et al., 2009:90 studies show that jobs may contain factors indicative of high and low job quality. This variability was also found in a study by Hewlett and Luce (2006:49-59). Their study examined senior managers' jobs across various work and employment-related factors, and they identified a particular type of job, which they called an 'extreme job'. The relevance here is that extreme jobs combine high-quality factors, for example high pay, high job control, and challenging demands, with low job quality factors, such as extremely long hours and very high workloads. Overall, these empirical studies indicate that different types of job quality may occur and that, to varying degrees, they may contain job factors indicative of both high and low job quality. From the preceding discussion, it is clear that there is little theoretical agreement on the types of high and low-quality jobs that might occur in Europe, whilst empirical studies of job types are based on only one of the five primary principles of a job, e.g., work organisation (Valeyre et al., 2009:90). We, therefore, lack a taxonomy of job types that illustrates the different ways that jobs typically combine all the main work and employment-related factors of a job. This limits our understanding of job quality in Europe, as we do not understand whether there are different types of high and low-quality jobs; a vital prerequisite when studying the distribution of job quality across different contexts, e.g., institutional regimes. This study, therefore, seeks to address the following research question, namely, in Europe, what are the main job types?

Generally, employers want a specific number of years of experience in the field of work experience in related job responsibilities. For example, a marketing manager's job type might specify a minimum number of years in the marketing field and

experience with digital marketing. Typically, entry-level positions do not require work experience, but management or advanced careers often require a certain amount of experience.

4.6 Work Ethics

Work ethics refers to a set of moral principles and values that guide an individual's behavior and conduct in the workplace. It encompasses attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors related to work and professional responsibilities. Work ethics shape how individuals approach their work, interact with colleagues and superiors, and fulfill their job responsibilities (Jonck et al., 2019:325-341).

According to Tabish and Jha (2012:21-35), unethical behaviour, mainly in the form of corruption, through bribery, has reached "crisis proportions". In this increasingly unethical society, employees and managers are required to make decisions on various matters daily in the workplace, with great difficulty distinguishing which decision is correct and what the implications of a decision may be, in an environment where unethical behaviour has become the norm, rather than the exception.

Corresponding to global trends, employees in South African university institutions are increasingly under pressure in the workplace, often making them cut corners, break the rules, and engage in questionable practices. The increasing pressure and prevalence of employees cutting corners, breaking rules, and engaging in questionable practices in South African university institutions can be a concerning trend. It is important to address this issue and promote a strong work ethic to maintain integrity, professionalism, and a positive work environment (Graham, Hjorth, and Lehdonvirta, 2017:135-162).

Manyaka and Nkuna (2014:1572) Due to widespread poverty, relatively low public sector pay, a lack of risk management mechanisms brought on by complex, inadequate, constantly changing rules and regulations by academic institutions. The lack of properly established laws and principles, developing nations like South Africa are particularly vulnerable to these issues. Furthermore, since different groups have different values, a recent development in organisational behaviour has divided work values into different generational groups.

The work ethic applicable to this study is that work ethic is a multidimensional construct consisting of a constellation of attitudes and beliefs on work behaviour (Elçi, Sener, and Alpan, 2011:1367-1377). The concepts of ethics and morality are often used to explain each other or interchangeably, but there seems to be a difference between them. This is confirmed by Akpanika and Eyo (2020:126-148), who state that ethics refers mainly to an individual's character, while morality refers to customs or manners and is usually applied to acts constituting behaviour. Therefore, to understand the concept of ethics properly, it seems necessary to first understand the concept from the perspective of various theories that have been proposed over time (Campbell, 2013:40-57).

Work ethics is a set of behaviours that are owned by individuals or groups that are implemented in work or activities to achieve predetermined goals based on the values and norms adhered to with indicators of being punctual, honest, motivated to develop, to work hard, and to be responsible (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, and Rapp, 2013:577-588). Responsible, creative, respectful, and appreciative work ethics are needed in a company. This is because every employee must have good ethics at work. Therefore, morals refer to spontaneous behaviour such as love, the greatness of the soul, and so on. The personality and character of a mature and robust administrator can be an example and a source of inspiration for internal stakeholders (Reeve, 2012:149-172). Ideally, identity and work behaviour need to adopt ethics as a lifestyle to shape positive things. When all administrative staff behave according to the ethics in their environment with an upbeat personality and character, it will affect organisational performance. An administrative staff's positive behaviour will positively affect other staff, and vice versa, an administrator with adverse behaviour, will harm other staff members. These positive attitudes will support administrative staff to work toward achieving the vision and mission of the higher education system. The influence of work ethics on administrative performance to commit to work, cooperate in completing work, put the public interest first, be fair and generous, behave appropriately and conduct consultations to resolve problems and obstacles tend to affect and improve administrative staff performance at higher education. Theoretically, this study's findings align with the theory put forward by May et al., 2014:203.) that administrator performance is one of the factors that measure university success.

4.6.1 Work ethical theories

According to Dubljević, Cacace, and Desmarais (2022:197-214), there are three competing approaches to ethical analysis: consequentialism, deontology, and virtue ethics. The main difference between these approaches lies in the focus area of each approach. For example, consequentialism focuses mainly on the outcome or consequence of an action, while deontology underscores the action. By contrast, virtue ethics focuses on the action's intention to determine whether a particular behaviour was ethical (Smillie, Katic, and Laham, 2021:549-564).

4.6.2 Consequential theories of work ethics

Consequential theories of work ethics focus on the moral content of an action, which is determined by the real and the expected consequences (Uhlmann, Pizarro, and Diermeier, 2015:72-81). Consequentialist work ethics is also referred to as teleological ethics due to these theories' emphasis on the outcome, or the "end" result; it refers to a teleological theory as one in which the good is defined independently from the right, and then the right is defined as that which maximises the good. This means, the rightness or goodness of an action is not intrinsic to that action but can only be judged by its consequences (Whetstone, 2001:101-114). This concurs with the previous authors, which confirms that teleology concerns the consequences of an action performed, which refers to teleology as from the ends. From the above definitions, one may conclude that per consequential or teleological theories of ethics, an action's ethicality, or moral content, is determined by its outcome (Burnes and Todnem, 2012:239-252). If the outcome of an action is wrong, it implies that the action performed to reach that outcome was morally bad, and the converse is also true.

To judge or determine whether the outcome of the action of the administrative staff of the higher education was good or bad, consequentialists use a standard, which is also referred to as a purpose, or an end. Within the teleological theory, two different approaches can be distinguished by administrative management egoism, which is a perspective of personal consequences, and utilitarianism, which is a perspective of social consequences (Almerico et al., 2011:1).

4.6.3 The utilitarian theory of ethics

The utilitarian theory mainly refers to an act's usefulness (Akers, 2017:299-322). Thus, when determining whether administrative staff action is right, consideration should be given to what a particular decision or act will lead to. Should the decision of administrative staff or act lead to an incredible amount of good, the decision or act will be regarded as correct and, therefore, ethical. State that in utilitarianism, the morality of an action is judged based on whether the consequences of the action have brought happiness to society (Mondal, 2016:13-21). Thus, when faced with an ethical decision in an organisation, the right decision will be the one that leads to the greatest good.

Furthermore, work values are associated with work and work-related activities, but work ethics, such as, refers to attitudes and beliefs, as opposed to behaviour (Meriac, Woehr, and Banister, 2010:315-324). Thus, employees' work ethics may be regarded as the overall framework from which work values emanate, which, in turn, influences individuals' behaviour at work. According to ethical behaviour forms the foundation of all managerial actions and is crucial in university institutions in South Africa.

In the current study, work ethics is measured as consisting of seven components: self-reliance, morality, leisure, hard work, the centrality of work, wasted time, and delay of gratification (Mussner et al., 2017:391-406). Therefore, it would appear that a logical point of departure for higher education universities would be to develop a code of ethics to raise administrative staff awareness of ethical behaviour and decision-making and the values to which the university subscribes. When developing an ethical code or guidelines within an organisation, including South African university institutions, employee participation and ownership are crucial for the code's effectiveness (Jørgensen and Sørensen, 2012:71-96).

Unethical decision-making is a significant concern for most contemporary workplaces. The question which now arises is whether work ethics can be fostered or whether it is something an individual brings to the university which cannot be changed. In an article, this question was raised, and it was concluded that although training may increase an employee's intellectual awareness of ethical decision-making, it does not ensure that the employee will act ethically (Baker, 2017:575-598). Therefore, a logical point of departure for our university would be to develop a code of ethics to raise employee

awareness of ethical behaviour and decision-making, and the values the university subscribes to.

Von Nordenflycht, (2010:155-174) to improve administrators' performance, a work ethic capable of being committed to their work is needed to work together in completing work, prioritising public interests, being fair, generous, and having good behaviour. In addition, the increase in administrative staff performance is also influenced by a conducive work environment. Having fun and providing a sense of security and comfort will improve university administrative performance (Gu, Changqing, and Liu 2017:721-742).

4.7 Chapter Summary

An explanation of the psychology of managers, the psychology of employees being managed, the role of management on subordinate performance, work ethics, and job type on the administrative staff of the selected university in Cape Town, South Africa, was also addressed in this chapter.

Hence different authors for this section agreed that the effectual psychology of managers on employees, the psychology of employees being managed, the role of management on subordinate performance, work ethics, and job type should be well conceptualise from the dimensional perspective to improve the administrative staff of universities institution performance.

The present chapter discusses and highlights the importance of positive supervisor behaviours in promoting employee well-being. Moreover, they support the crucial role of work engagement in the relationship between positive supervisor behaviours and employee performance and provide a new contribution by considering the role of workplace spirituality. The focus on the significance of supportive supervisors on employees' psychological well-being, work-to-family conflict, and job satisfaction.

The current study enlightens universities and practitioners on how supervisor support is directly related to employees' psychological well-being, work-to-family conflict, and job satisfaction. The discussions during this chapter demonstrated that supervisor support had a significant direct effect on the administration staff for the higher education institution.

This chapter proposes that employees exposed to very supportive supervisors increase their job satisfaction, which will, in turn, lead to the improved psychological well-being of employees. This chapter and its discussions have offered an in-depth understanding of generational differences in work values and work ethics within higher education institutions in South Africa.

Differences between generational cohorts in terms of work values and work ethics exist in the South African workforce. However, it should also be acknowledged that these cohorts have certain similarities regarding work values and work ethics. This means a selected university in Cape Town, South Africa, should capitalise and build on these similarities, considering all these similarities and differences to structure work in such a way that it will help them not only to retain the workforce but also to retain a more satisfied workforce taking into consideration the administration staff at a selected university in Cape Town.

CHAPTER 5

EXTRENSIC AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION THEORIES AND WORK ETHICS

5.1 Introduction

Motivation at work has become one of the central issues that organisations, university institutions and managers face worldwide (Doherty, Haugh, and Lyon, 2014:417-436). As a result, psychologists and behavioural science, since the early 20th century, have been drawn to and interested in the relationship between people and their work. As a result, today's study of motivation at work forms an integral part of vocational and industrial psychology (Bakker and Demerout, 2017:273). Furthermore, further investigation has shown that the quality of performance can be different when an employee is intrinsically motivated and when an employee is extrinsically motivated (Makki and Abid, 2017:38-43), making it an essential discrimination within work motivation.

Beyond motivation, many university institutions have identified the need to engage their workforce. To succeed in today's highly competitive environment, universities realise this requirement, and employee engagement has become an increasingly popular subject for researchers and practitioners in recent years (Saks, and Gruman, 2014:155-182.). Research have demonstrated the positive effects of employee engagement on organisations' performance, including aspects such as retention rates, customer satisfaction, profitability, productivity, and overall successful organisational performance (Sundaray, 2011:53-59). However, findings suggest that employee engagement is declining, and the workforce worldwide is not engaged in running the organisation's day-to-day business (Petrou et al., 2012:1120-1141).

Hence it has been recommended that a relationship between motivation and employee engagement exists and, for example, the development of motivational schemes including both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors can improve employee engagement within an organisation (Delaney and Royal, 2017:127-140). Whereas there have been studies investigating the concepts of employee engagement and motivation separately, the relationship between motivation and employee engagement has not been researched extensively (Putra, Seonghee, and Liu, (2015:1-14). Many of the studies conducted have been executed by large human resource consultancy

firms, surveying tens of thousands of employees worldwide with a focus on determining the significant drivers behind employee engagement, and currently, relatively little empirical material exists (Macey and Schneider 2008:3-30).

5.1.1 Motivation of administrative staff for higher education

The motivation of employees has always been an issue of importance to leaders and managers in university institutions (Ngambi, 2011:762). Throughout the years, motivation has been defined in many different ways, and many definitions have emerged (Gandolfi and Stone, 2016:212). Motivation is when a person is moved to do something (Usmanovna and Oybekovna, 2018:33-35). According to Ajomshoa and Sadighi (2015:126-137), a person is motivated if he or she feels energised and excited about something, whereas an unmotivated individual would feel a lack of cognitive factors and impetus. This definition is a general definition of motivation that can be applied to many situations. However, for this study, we will specifically look at motivation in the workplace; therefore, it is essential to look at work motivation.

Ezigbo (2012:115-125) defines work motivation as the psychological forces that determine the direction of a person's behaviour in an organisation, a person's level of effort, and persistence in the face of obstacles. Ganta, (2014:22 -230) states that an unmotivated employee is likely to put little effort into work tasks, produce work of lower quality, avoid the workplace, and even exit his or her job if allowed to do so. Hence, this will have a negative effect on the higher education since the university administrative staff will be unmotivated leading to lectures not coming from work. On the other hand, motivated employees are likely to willingly take on tasks, produce high-quality work, and be creative, persistent, and productive (Engidaw, 2021:1-15). Whereas motivation is sometimes simplified and referred to as a unitary phenomenon that varies only in amounts or levels, it is clear that three employees have different levels of motivation and different kinds (Salamone, and Correa, 2002:3-25).

Motivation can thus be further dissected by distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The general distinction made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is that while forces from within oneself drive intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation is driven by outside forces (Feldman, 2011:11). In connection to the work environment, an employee would be intrinsically motivated by performing a task

depending on the extent that the particular task is interesting, challenging, and has personal meaning based on the satisfaction they receive from performing the activity itself (Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford, 2014:980). Amabile (2008) bases her definition of an intrinsically motivated employee on an individual's perception of a task and the reasons he or she is performing it, and she states, individuals are intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in work (Amabile, 2008:188). Further, Singh (2011:161-171) mentions that intrinsically motivated employees state that their work gives them a sense of satisfaction, accomplishment, and achievement.

As mentioned previously, many definitions of motivation have been formulated throughout the years. The definition we will use in this study is the one provided by Taslim (2011:84), who defines work motivation as the psychological forces that determine the direction of a person's behaviour in an organisation, a person's level of effort, and a person's level of persistence in the face of obstacles. Furthermore, Lin et al. (2017:1345) explained work motivation as motivation inferred from a systematic analysis of how personal, task and environmental characteristics influence behaviour and performance. Overall, work motivation defines a process where an organisation's administrative staff in higher education are stimulated to achieve organisational goals (Parashar, 2016:8-16). Since motivation is arguably one of the major problems facing many institutions (Amoako-Sakyi, and Amonoo-Kuofi, 2015:1-8), it is a vital aspect in order to attract and retain staff inside institutions, acting as the connection between individuals and the organisational objectives, leading administrative staff at higher education to be creative and innovative and go beyond limitations of a job (Parashar, 2016:8-16).

Motivation and performance are sometimes used in reciprocation. This is an outcome of motivation explaining what administrative staff do and how hard and far they are willing to go to do something, and therefore it is commonly confused with an employee's job performance (Ensergueix and Lafont, 2010:222-242). Because this performance is explained and the difference between job performance and motivation. George and Jones (2012:158) state that performance is the evaluation of the results of an employee's behaviour by evaluating how well or poorly an employee has performed a task or job, whereas motivation is a factor that contributes to performance.

Chandrasekar, (2011:1-19) further state that motivation is a fundamental component of any credible model of human performance. However, because motivation is only one of several factors that affect employee performance, a high level of motivation does not necessarily imply a high level of performance and vice versa (Mekler et al., 2017:525-534). Often the ability to perform the imminent job or task also plays a part in determining performance levels (Subotnik et al., 2011:3-54). Occasionally it may also be the case that administrative staff are not motivated to perform at high levels, because they do not believe that performing at a higher level will generate desired outcomes, which in turn leads to that when administrative staff at university institutions think high performance goes unrecognised, their motivation to perform at that level tends to be low (Dunning, 2011:247-296).

5.1.2 Job satisfaction

To understand the underpinnings of motivation, it is important to first explore job satisfaction as motivated administrative staff in higher education are required to have job satisfaction. According to Badubi (2017:44-51), job satisfaction depends on the employee's perception of the degree to which his work delivers those things that he desires, how well outcomes are met, or even exceeded expectations. Regardless of the actual circumstances and situation, job satisfaction is an emotional response that cannot be seen, only inferred. Badubi (2017:4-51) held a similar view and defined job satisfaction as a sensation employees have about their work environment and their expectations toward work. Depending on the rewards and incentives employees receive and management's motives for giving them, higher education administrative staff have responded to their work environment by being productive. Therefore, university institutions must be seen to support their administrative staff in their daily work in order to bring about loyalty and improve retention. A heterogeneous workplace with male and female employees from various age groups, generations, and backgrounds is one of the factors that could lead to unhappiness. With varying qualifications or experience, no single element will produce either universal approbation or collective disapproval.

The future lies in innovation and business activity, which requires improving the dialogue in the education sector and the labour market in the coming years. Only extensive reforms in education (including vocational training) and in the labour market

can provide (young) people with better prospects (Fagan, Kanjuo-Mrčela, and Norman, 2012:130-154). Universities form the intellectual level and motivation of all individuals and groups in the country. This means the role of universities has increased and consists of a few different presumptions and requirements than before. Similar opinions and questions related to the quality of university function can be found in the publications of many authors, for example. The idea is important that the most valuable asset of any organisation is employees having the necessary knowledge.

The main competitive advantages include innovations, learning and the ability to make a change anytime. Just this competitive advantage is based on the human potential of the University too. Human potential is the most substantial potential of any organisation's effective and competitive function. Inside it, the know-how of the organisation's futurity is hidden (Beavan et al., 2021:1839-1862). Human potential is a system of human dispositions to activities. It is a prerequisite for life actions of people that, as individuals and social groups, are applied in society while changing society and oneself (Frasca, 2013:221-235). This means the human potential (as opposed to intellectual or human capital) is a widely, comprehensively understood variable that considers the individuals and groups as thinking, organised and motivated beings seeking to fulfil their roles, benefits, and resolutions. From this viewpoint, the high professionalism of the university's senior employees (managers), responsibility, credibility, and team approach represent essential attributes. On the other hand, the unused potential of the administrators is the worst wasting conduct. For university staff's potential and motivation, the university need to create an environment supporting creativity and developing knowledge, which enables them to approach education, and supports their initiative to increase qualification and develop their abilities. This intensive effort is because human potential results from people's life activities and can be continuously developed. Intellectual properties and motivation development (qualification, knowledge, skills, competencies, will, courage, enthusiasm, etc.) of senior employees contribute to building the university's skilful and high-performance human potential. This purposeful development continuously increases the value of the university: funds invested in education, development and motivation must be perceived as investments in future.

This article aims to pay attention to the developing motivational competence of university staff as one of the fundamental pillars of university quality. The starting point is that the motivation of university staff administration substantially influences the quality of the university. In the theoretical part of the article, through analysis, comparison and synthesis of opinions of several authors, focus on personal development and motivation identification of university administration staff and their connections. Subsequently, based on a partial evaluation of the performed questionnaire survey in the methodological part of the article, this present the most important findings related to the motivation of pedagogues at the universities in Poland and the Slovak Republic, pointing out the determination of basic recommendations (using induction, deduction and own empiricism) on how to improve the higher education administration motivational competence.

Motivation can come from an employee with a passion and desire to work and produce results. An employee's motivation is self-driven to elevate feelings to accomplish. According to Badubi (2017:44-51), the individual desire to perform and provide services to customers, with the mandate to do good, is enough to motivate. Performance at work is related to the employee's pay, of which the employee may not have control of that reward as it is external. Apart from rewards, other external factors, such as a promotion at work, security of the job, and salary increment, may give meaning to employee motivation. Therefore, for university institutions to continue existing and retaining their workforce, they must keep working on strategies that can help motivate their staff. Motivated staff have a sense of belonging and loyalty to the institution and always work hard to be associated with the results of their labour. Motivation affects employees as individuals to achieve and be innovative because they believe in themselves, which may benefit the institution to succeed (Bandura, 2012:179-200). A motivated worker can easily be retained, saving the organisation's finances by replacing workers. Also, it encourages workers to consistently achieve more on daily production as they have a sense of security in their work. Management will have time to attend to other important issues because their motivated workforce can build teams that can help with the supervision and production of work.

5.2 Theories of Motivation

5.2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

According to Smith and Cronje (1992:56), the way Maslow's theory is explained relies on the fact that administrative staff at university institutions want to increase what they want to achieve in life, and their needs are prioritised according to their importance. Deriving from the Hierarchy of Needs by Maslow, content theories of job satisfaction revolve around employees' needs and the factors that bring them a reasonable degree of satisfaction (Saif et al., 2012:90). Based on the basic physical, biological, social and psychological needs of human beings, Maslow came up with a five-stage theory that places the needs of the individual in different categories and prioritises their attainment (Badubi, 2017: 44-51). These categories, in order of decreasing priority, are:

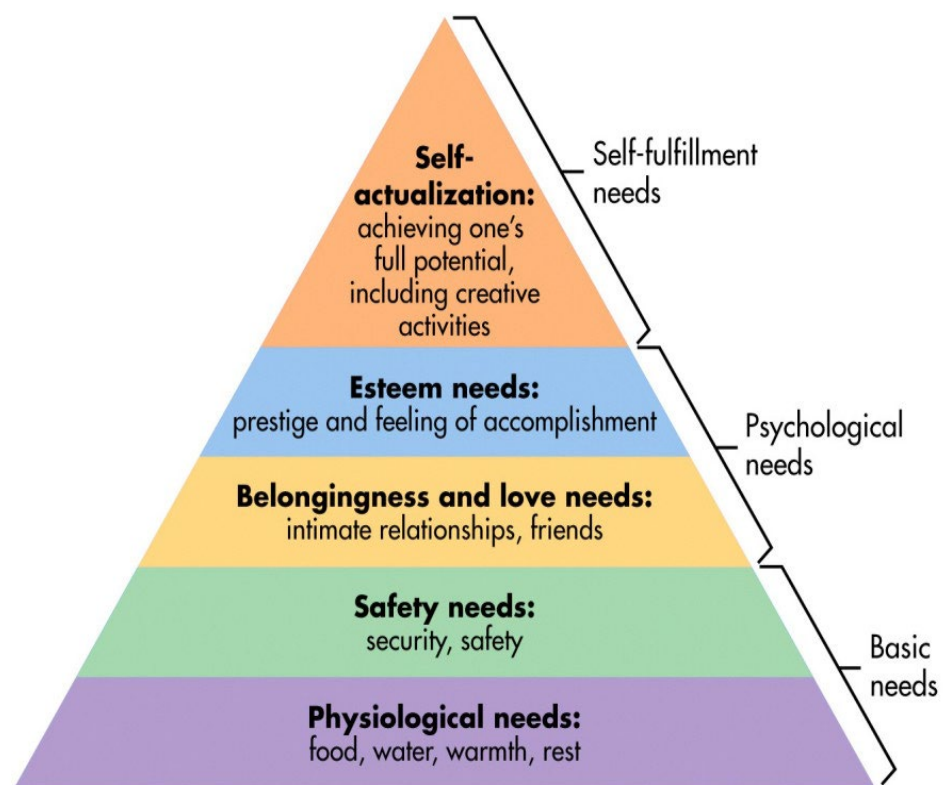
- Physiological needs (food, shelter, clothing)
- Safety and security needs (physical protection)
- Social needs (association with others)
- Esteem needs (receiving acknowledgement from others) and
- Self-actualisation needs (the desire for accomplishment or to leave behind a legacy).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs forms the basis of theories explaining job satisfaction. Administrative staff in higher education have needs that have to be satisfied. Besides the basic needs for food, shelter and clothing, safety from physical harm, and social interaction, they also need the recognition and appreciation of internal stakeholders, colleagues, and parents.

Maslow's motives and needs theory is among the most cited motivational theories (Aruma & Hanachor, 2017:45). Maslow posits that there are five levels of needs in a hierarchical order that workers strive to satisfy, ranked from basic survival or physiological needs at the bottom, then safety, social, ego and self-actualisation being the optimum. According to Maslow's theory, the motivation to acquire a higher-level need is only aroused by attaining the lower-level need. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs applies to workplace motivation because achievements in the workplace can drive the employee up Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Ganta, 2014:105). Despite its popularity,

Maslow's theory has been criticised, among other things, for not adopting any credible scientific method in reaching its conclusions (Trigg, 2004:245) and ignoring the prominence of social connections as evident in the current global society (Rutledge, 2011:101). For instance, during the lockdown, the higher education administration lacked some of the motivation mentioned by Maslow. For example, the higher education administration lacked social interaction and friendship, one of the main pillars of motivation as stipulated by Maslow in the diagram figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source:(McLeod, 2018:1)

5.2.2 Herzberg's two factor theory

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory/Motivator-Hygiene Herzberg's, also known as Motivator-Hygiene, emanated from a study conducted among accounts and engineers to determine what makes an individual feel good or bad about their job (Saif et al., 2012:37). Regarding "satisfied", Herzberg noted that there were five features of work that bring about satisfaction such as

achievement, recognition, the job itself, responsibility and advancement. On the other end of the spectrum, Herzberg identified institutional politics, the management approach, supervision, pay, relationships at work and working conditions as factors that may demoralize employees. Golshan et al. (2011:12) assert that university institutions are increasingly applying Herzberg's theory to create opportunities for personal growth, enrichment and recognition among their employees. For example, administrative staff should be promoted after completing certain stages of their career and should receive recognition for notable achievements, for example, when they produce exceptional results in their subject areas; on a more fundamental level, they should also be given the responsibility to determine how to handle tasks that relate to their jobs. The Two-factor theory has, however, drawn its share of criticism. Golshan et al. (2011:82) point out that it fails to distinguish between physical and psychological aspects and to precisely explain what motivators are and how they differ from hygiene factors; it also fails to express the degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a measure instead of using numbers. Another criticism levelled against it is that it makes assumptions that every individual react similarly in a similar situation.

5.2.3 McGregor's X and Y Theories

McGregor's X and Y Theories McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y models categorise employees as belonging to one of two groups based on two sets of assumptions. Theory X assumes that assumptions take a negative perspective of people and university administrative staff can have an inherent dislike for work and avoid it if possible. Because of this, they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to make them work. They prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security (Saif et al. 2012:138). Theory Y assumptions take the opposite view: the mental and physical inputs expended at the workplace are equated and par with those rest or play.

External factors or any threats from outside may not be the sole influence for exerting effort. Administrative staff in higher education can exercise caution and discipline to achieve objectives, but the hunger in their desire to commit to objectives depends on how big the rewards are assigned to that kind of achievement. Under normal circumstances, higher education administrative staff can adapt to seek responsibility and not only accept it (Saif et al., 2012:1357). Applying these assumptions to a school environment, one could argue that two of the leading causes of dissatisfaction among administrative staff as they are having to deal with problem internal stakeholders and

strict and inconsiderate management; for example, the Dean of the Faculty of Commerce who is coercive and does not appreciate the efforts of administrators, or an overly directive principal who never delegates or allows administrative staff to make independent decisions. Conversely, a supportive Dean may be a source of job satisfaction for administrators (Alavi and Askaripur, 2003:312).

5.2.4 McClelland's need achievement theory

McClelland's Need Achievement Theory McClelland's need achievement theory postulates that some people are driven to success through seeking personal achievement rather than rewards themselves. This theory readily applies to academic environments and explains why some administrative staff at university high achievers are, despite their difficulties. They set themselves high goals and achieving these goals is what drives them. Alderfer's ERG theory is related to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs but reduces Maslow's five categories of a need to three; namely, relatedness (esteem/social needs), then growth being (self-actualisation) and existence which is (security/physiological needs) (Saif et al., 2012:1387).

5.2.5 The equity theory

The equity theory process explains 'how' satisfaction comes about instead of 'what' causes motivation (Polk, 2022:217). The equity theory postulates that employees will weigh their input into a job against the output they receive; the more the rewards, the greater their satisfaction; hence this will positively affect the administrative staff of higher education in the sense that the staff will be more satisfied. This comes across with Naveed et al. (2011:302) definition of job satisfaction as the difference between employee input and output. Regarding this theory, university institution staff who perceive that they receive more output from their jobs than what they put into them will experience job satisfaction. A particular aspect of the job also shapes how an employee perceives it. Clarified tasks bring better job satisfaction since a clear role breeds a happy, committed workforce and is highly involved in work. The researcher identified five major job characteristics that impact an employee's psychological state and influence their motivation and job satisfaction, as well as their levels of absenteeism, namely the variety of skills involved in a task, the identity and significance of the task, autonomy, and feedback (Badubi, 2017:44-51). Employees at university

institutions compare their input outcome ratio with that of other employees. If they perceive it to be fair, employees may experience satisfaction (Robbins, 2007:58). If employees perceive inequity in their input outcome ratio compared to other employees, they become dissatisfied and less motivated.

5.2.6 Value percept theory

Value Percept Theory Individual's values determine their satisfaction with their job because employees in organisations hold different value systems; therefore, based on this theory, their satisfaction levels will also differ. Looking at the Value Percept theory, the assumption is that the difference between expectations and what is received can bring dissatisfaction depending on how important the job is to the individual (Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2012:787-810). The potential problem with this theory is that there is a possibility of a relationship between what employees in higher education desire and what they consider essential. The disconnect can occur due to diverse employee perspective. In university institutions, employees come from diverse backgrounds, cultures, and disciplines. Their values and priorities may differ, leading to varying expectations and desires regarding ethical conduct. It is important to recognise and accommodate these diverse perspectives when developing an ethical code (McGee and Bentley 2017:1-36). These concepts can be separable theoretically but practically hard to differentiate.

5.2.7 Vrooms expectancy theory

Vrooms' expectancy theory stipulates that behaviour is a product of choices available to be prioritised. The idea is to derive satisfaction and minimize dissatisfaction in employees. Individual factors such as personality and skills determine performance (Blickle et al., 2011:488-514). This theory also explains that performance, motivation, and effort are within a staff's motivation and variables at a university institution, such as valence, instrumentality, and expectancy, verify this. The higher the effort in work relates to the higher performance.

5.2.8 Porter-Lawler model

Porter-Lawler Model This is a comprehensive and more complete theory of motivation that includes diverse aspects. This model can give details of the relation between job

performance and attitudes that perfectly defines managers. The model also touches on the assumptions of human behaviour. The deductions of the model assume that administrative staff behaviour is influenced by internal and external factors, rational and make their own choices about their behaviour, and have different goals, desires and needs. Finally, individuals decide between alternative behaviours (Wagner and Hollenburg, 2007:59).

Despite their popularity, they have not been exempted from criticism throughout the years as some researchers believe that it is unreasonable to describe all humans with a short set of needs and even more unrealistic to expect that all people will be motivated following the order of needs as arranged by the need theories (George and Jones, 2012:163). Due to the important implication's expectancy theory provides for organisations, it has also grown to be one of the most popular theories regarding work motivation (George and Jones, 2012:164). As mentioned previously, expectancy theory assumes that employees seek pleasure, meaning that they are motivated to receive positive outcomes and try to avoid negative ones; hence this can have a negative effect on the administrative staff at university institutions. On the other hand, the theory suggests that employees are rational and use their information about their jobs, abilities, and desires to decide what they will do on the job and how hard they will work (George and Jones, 2012:164). Expectancy theory has also received attention from researchers, and even though some studies do not support the theory, expectancy theory has mainly been supported (George and Jones,2012:167). Equity theory is another theory that has received extensive research attention, and similar to expectancy theory, most of the research supports the key ideas of the theory (George & Jones, 2012:170).

A common truism is that motivated employees play a pivotal role in attaining organisational goals (Acha-Anyi, and Masaraure, 2021:575-591). This explains why companies strive to keep their employees as motivated as possible, where it is hypothesised that high employee motivation positively correlates with productivity and business performance (Mudor & Tooksoon, 2011:475). The significance of employee motivation is premised on the fact that all corporate activities require either direct or indirect human effort to be realised. Implementing a business idea or strategy requires professional skills and personal attributes such as knowledge, skills, and motivation

(Adeola & Adebisi, 2016:110-145). Research on employee motivation spans many decades and has been widely associated with employee motives and needs (Maslow, 1943), employee productivity (Aruma & Hanachor, 2017:78) and business performance (Ganta, 2014:45). Malik and Baharat (2013:75) describe employee performance as a combined product of individual ability and motivation. One of the key challenges that managers face is keeping employees motivated to the extent that they perform at their optimum (Adeola & Adebisi, 2016:82). Aruma and Hanachor (2017:58) describe work motivation as the internal and external forces that initiate work-related behaviour and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration. Three important components of motivation have been noted in this definition:

- The influence of environmental forces such as organisational reward systems and the nature of the work
- The existence of forces inherent in the person such as individual needs
- Motives and the impact of work-related behaviour

With the advent of globalisation and heightened competition for business space, human resources management and performance have emerged as decisive factors in providing companies with a competitive advantage (Ganta, 2014:45). However, Mishra and Gupta (2009:95) assert that understanding employee motivation is complex and challenging because various factors motivate employees differently.

Moreover, while some employees are motivated by intrinsic rewards (Adeola & Adebisi, 2016:67), others are inclined toward extrinsic rewards (Rogelberg, 2017:15-25). The task of understanding employee motivation is further compounded when a company has offices and operations in multiple countries. In addition to ensuring that employee motivation is optimised, and multinational companies are further challenged by the imperative to ensure equitable employee motivation across various operation sites.

Fombrun and Van Reil (2004:90) argue that a good company image attracts potential employees. Abd-El-Salam, Hawky & El-Nahas, (2013:70) emphasise that corporate image and reputation are critical factors in the overall evaluation of any organisation. Rogelberg (2013:65) reiterates that an excellent organisational image creates a conducive working environment for employees; hence, many may prefer working for

such an organisation. On the other hand, there is another construct of an image, which is organisational reputation. Therefore, corporate image is related to organisational reputation. Rogelberg (2013:50) highlights the difference between image and reputation by pointing out that reputation refers to more stable shared perceptions of how the general public regards an organisation, whereas image reflects an individual's perceptions of the organisation. Walker (2012:11) concludes that a strong reputation attracts talented employees.

5.2.9 Management attributes and employee motivation

If employees are included in decision-making, they become highly motivated (Yudhvir & Sunita, Elnaga, 2013:75). The group manager's behaviour and decisions will affect employees' motivation. According to Beer (2003:60), employees become demotivated when top-level management fails to deliver as per their promises. Beer (2003:55) adds that executives must maintain consistent behaviour to ensure transformation and future success. This implies that inconsistent behaviour from group management will cause employees not to believe in them, leading to demotivation.

Effective management is essential for employee motivation. Managers should allocate more time to understanding what motivates their direct subordinates (Ezigbo, 2012:85). This is because employees are motivated differently, managers should ensure they know and understand all the employees under their leadership (Abbah, 2014:49). Meanwhile, Nohria, Groysberg and Lee (2008:68) have emphasised that employees' perceptions of their immediate managers are essential to workplace motivation. They further indicate that supervisors who maintain good working relations with employees under their supervision tend to foster highly motivating work environments. Nohria, Groysberg and Lee (2008:78) point out that supervisors who are more supportive of autonomy and less controlling of their subordinates demonstrate higher levels of intrinsic motivation.

Working together ensures healthy employee competition, leading to high productivity, improved employee attitude, and motivation (Joseph, 2017:49). Organisations are required to ensure that different parties (colleagues or departments) put their differences aside and concentrate on achieving the company's objectives. According to Walker (2012:110), rewards should be implemented for organisations to maintain

teamwork. Kosfeld and Von Siemens (2011:82) add that it is imperative for employees to cooperate, as this enhances productivity. They further emphasise that some employees are only willing to cooperate if their colleagues do the same. Chalotra and Adotra (2015:100) add that cooperation promotes peace and harmony and brings oneness which otherwise is very intricate to achieve.

Employees are highly affected by the convenient working conditions, which impacts their overall motivation (Abbah, 2014:55). According to the research by Mishra and Gupta (2009:200), employees' satisfaction is significantly influenced by working conditions. Managers take responsibility for ensuring that they provide an environment conducive to performance. Supranowo (2007:18) differentiates between physical and non-physical work environments, where the non-physical environment is constituted by the working relationship with supervisors or subordinates. The physical environment includes, among other aspects, workstation set-up, furniture and equipment design and quality, building design, temperature, lighting, noise and pace (Elnaga, 2013:41). Improvement in job content often leads to motivated and satisfied employees, where employees will be presented with work they enjoy doing (Robbins & Judge, 2017:22).

5.2.10 Job security and its effect on employee motivation

Job security has also been identified as an essential and valuable factor in employee motivation (Tan & Waheed, 2011:10). Hence, it is commonplace for employers to offer job security in exchange for workers' skills, productivity, job performance and organisational commitment (Ye, Cardon & Rivera, 2012:315). According to Kraimer, Wayne, Liden and Sparrowe (2005:92), job security is a psychological state in which workers vary in their expectations of future job continuity within an organisation. Assuring employees about their job security will result in organisational citizenship behaviour and, subsequently, impact performance and motivation. In their research, Artz and Kaya (2014:345) point out that job security is associated with job satisfaction. A satisfied employee will likely be more productive and motivated than an unsatisfied one.

Hegar (2011:56) posits that the word motivation originates from the Latin word *movere*, which means "to move", with the suggestive inclination that hard-working people are noticed by their movements. From a similar perspective, Nel, Werner, Poisat, et al.,

(2011:456) refer to motivation as intentional and persistent behaviour aimed at achieving a goal. Colquitt, LePine and Wesson (2011:852) take a more introspective view by describing motivation as a set of energetic forces both within and outside an employee with a physical manifestation evident in the work-related effort. Within this paradigm, motivation is perceived as a determinant of the direction, intensity and persistence the employee exerts towards accomplishing a given task (Colquitt et al., 2011:954). Elnaga (2013:658) assert that in a work context, motivation is the force that pushes employees to attain defined personal goals, as well as organisational targets. According to Taboli (2012:456), motivation is the desire to strengthen the effort to achieve a goal or objective. Finally, Adeola and Adiyi (2016:975) analyse the concept of motivation from an intrinsic and extrinsic perspective.

5.2.11 Management attributes and employee motivation

If employees are included in decision-making, they become highly motivated (Yudhvir, Sunita, Elnaga, 2013:642). The behaviour and decisions made by the group manager will have implications on the motivation of employees. According to Beer (2003:954), employees become demotivated when top-level management fails to deliver as per their promises. Beer (2003:65) adds that the executives must maintain consistent behaviour to ensure transformation and future success of the organisation.

This implies that inconsistent behaviour from group management may cause employees not to believe in them, leading to demotivation. Fowler (2015:75) adds that management can facilitate the creation of a tremendous motivational company outlook by engaging employees in decision-making processes. Ganta (2014:97) emphasised the need for management to have a firm grasp on organisational behaviour and psychology, enabling them to understand why their employees behave in a certain way. Effective management is essential for employee motivation. Managers should allocate more time to understanding what motivates their direct subordinates (Ezigbo, 2012:78).

This is because employees are motivated in different ways (Abbah, 2014:58). Managers should ensure they know and understand all the employees under their leadership. Meanwhile, Nohria, Groysberg and Lee (2008:103) have emphasised that employees' perceptions of their immediate managers are essential to workplace

motivation. They further indicate that supervisors who maintain good working relations with employees under their supervision tend to foster highly motivating work environments. Nohria, Groysberg and Lee (2008:365) point out that supervisors who are more supportive of autonomy and less controlling of their subordinates demonstrate higher levels of intrinsic motivation. Working together ensures healthy competition among employees, leading to high productivity, improved employee attitude, and motivation (Joseph, 2017:65).

According to Walker (2012:97), rewards should be implemented for organisations to maintain teamwork. Kosfeld and Von Siemens (2011:975) add that it is imperative for employees to cooperate, as this enhances productivity. They further emphasise that some employees are only willing to cooperate if their colleagues do the same. Chalotra and Adotra (2015:652) add that cooperation as a whole, or the result of the cooperation is that it promotes peace and harmony and brings oneness which otherwise, is very intricate to achieve. The physical environment includes, among other aspects, workstation set-up, furniture and equipment design and quality, building design, temperature, lighting, noise, and space (Elnaga, 2013:658). Improvement in job content often leads to motivated and satisfied employees, where employees will be presented with work they enjoy doing (Robbins & Judge, 2017:697).

The job content is best described by Haile and Belayneh's (2015:59) job characteristics of the model. According to a study conducted by Ali, Said, Yunus et al., (2014:745), Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristic model confirms the relationship between job characteristic and job satisfaction which is reflected in employee motivation. The model aims to emphasise the importance of designing jobs so that they become meaningful and valuable to employees. Ezigbo (2012:852) claims that a job's content significantly affects employee satisfaction, where employees become more productive if they are satisfied with their job content. This means that there should be job enrichment, job enlargement, and job rotation (Lunenburg, 2011:262). Noe et al., (2015:48) advance the view that job enlargement ensures that additional challenges or responsibilities are attributed to the employee's current job. As post, job rotation reduces boredom and increases motivation.

5.3 Types of Motivation

High performance is achieved by well-motivated people who are prepared to exercise arbitrary effort. Hunter et al. (1990:67) found that the difference in value-added discretionary performance between 'superior' and 'standard' performers was 19 per cent, even in reasonably basic roles. For highly complex jobs, it was 48 per cent. Two broad classes of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, have been defined and researched across various contexts throughout the years (Lin, 2007:12). Motivation is defined in these two ways for practical purposes, guiding the direction, the intensity, and the persistence of performance behaviours (Cerasoli et al., 2014:980).

The most basic distinction made between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is that while extrinsic motivation is driven by forces that are external to workers, intrinsic motivation is driven by forces that are internal forces for those workers (Giancola, 2014:25). Furthermore, extrinsic is mainly focusing on factors that are goal driven, such as the rewards and benefits of performing a certain task, whereas intrinsic motivation is usually explained to as meaning the pleasure and satisfaction that an employee gets when performing an activity (Lin, 2007:137). Generally, intrinsic and extrinsic influence employee intentions regarding university activities and behaviours (Lin, 2007:200); several theories have been proposed to explain individual motivation to perform work-related tasks (Nasri and Charfeddine, 2012:169), hence little is known about the underlying factors influencing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Lin, 2007:221).

5.3.1 Intrinsic motivation on the administrative staff at a selected university in Cape Town

Intrinsic motivation is described as the performance of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable outcome, reflecting the natural disposition in humans to assimilate and learn (Ryan and Deci, 2000:56). More so, this refers to when employees engage in an activity out of interest, for the sake of the activity, and the satisfaction that the experience of engaging in that activity will bring to them (Lin, 2007:137). Thus, intrinsically motivated behaviours are engaged for their own sake and not for any other outcome (Cerasoli et al., 2014:980). Prior research has indicated that increased intrinsic motivation can be related to employees at university institutions' willingness to create a positive mood, leading to increased learning and knowledge

sharing (Lin, 2007:136). Administrative staff are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not for others. It has been observed that not everyone is motivated by the same activities (Ryan and Deci, 2000:56). Many kinds of research and theories confirm that intrinsic motivators can be more effective than extrinsic ones in motivating employees in university institutions (Nasri and Charfeddine, 2012:169) Some previous research that has suggested that intrinsic rewards are superior to extrinsic ones has done so with the reasoning that university employees perceive them as a more certain outcome of performing a task than extrinsic outcomes (Nasri and Charfeddine, 2012:171).

Because intrinsic motivation exists in the connection between an employee and a task, some researchers have explained that intrinsic motivation in terms of the task that the employee performs, while others have defined intrinsic motivation in terms of the ten satisfaction an employee gains from performing the task (Ryan and Deci, 2000:56). An example of intrinsic motivation is how self-fulfilled an employee feels as a result of performing a task well (Nasri and Charfeddine, 2012:169). Renko et al., (2012:681) wrote that an employee who looks to learn and grow as a person while working, due to work itself, is motivated by intrinsic rewards. Research on altruism has shown that university institution employees enjoy helping others and that intrinsic motivators play an important role in explaining human behaviour (Lin, 2007:137). Cerasoli et al., (2014:984) further explained that intrinsic motivation would become the only functional performance driver when extrinsic motives are weak or absent. It has also been suggested that an efficient staff can be obtained by recruiting proactive employees with high self-esteem and intrinsically motivated (Lin, 2007:145).

Hence in contrast to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, pertains to whenever an activity is performed to obtain some separable outcome (Ryan and Deci, 2000:60).

5.3.2 Extrinsic motivation on the administrative staff at a selected university in Cape Town

There are varied types of extrinsic motivation. Some represent active states in employees, while others represent impoverished forms of motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000:55). Extrinsic motivation can vary depending on how autonomous it is; an

employee may perform a task because of fear of being punished or fired, or the employee can perform an activity because this activity will lead to a promotion, bonus, or raise in the future (Ryan and Deci, 2000:60). Both activities include external instrumentalists but vary in autonomy; the first one involves more of an obligation to external control, whereas the second one is driven by intrinsic motivation, self-regulation, and well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000:60). From the perspective of extrinsic motivation, higher education employee behaviour is driven by the perceived benefits of the action that individual may perform, or the anticipation of instrumental gain or loss (Cerasoli et al., 2014:980). However, it has also been argued that extrinsic motivation varies considerably and can reflect external control or proper regulation (Ryan and Deci, 2000:54). The main goal of behaviours from employees who are extrinsically motivated is thus to receive organisational rewards or benefits from the achievement of an organisational goal or task (Lin, 2007:139). Extrinsic outcomes are the rewards distributed by some external agent in the organisation. An example could be the monetary reward that university institutions employee receives for putting in extra effort at work, job security, and promotions (Nasri and Charfeddine, 2012:169). This implies that organisational rewards are helpful for administrative staff who are extrinsically motivated in order for them to perform desired behaviours (Lin, 2007:139). Hence, research has recommended that extrinsic rewards only secure temporary compliance (Lin, 2007:145). Furthermore, research has also suggested that when both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards exist, the reason for the employee to engage in a particular activity will be over-justified. In this situation, extrinsic rewards are likely to replace intrinsic motivation as the primary purpose for engaging in the activity because extrinsic rewards will be the more salient of the two motivators (Urda, 2003:313).

In this study, we include university institutions from both public and private institutions, thus exploring how administrative staff or employees within both sectors perceive the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors on employee engagement. Therefore, it is also necessary to consider what previous research has indicated regarding differences in motivation in private and public institutions. For example, much of the literature conducted on the ten topics of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and how it differs in private and public university institutions has suggested that extrinsic motivation is valued higher by employees in private institutions than those in public institutions and motivational factors of intrinsic nature are valued higher by

employees in the public institutions than those in private (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007; 186).

Research has recommended private university institution individuals that are motivated by advancement opportunities, autonomy, high monetary rewards, and status and are less concerned with the importance and contribution of their work (Jurkiewicz et al., 2008:231). For public university institutions employees, on the other hand, research has recommended that motivation is mainly found in job stability, job security, teamwork, and their contribution to society (Jurkiewicz et al., 2008:231). In the comparative study of Jurkiewicz et al. (2008:78) on what motivates public and private university institutions' employees, some proposed differences were supported, and some were challenged. While it was found that monetary rewards were of higher importance in the motivation of private institutions employees and that job security was of higher importance in the motivation of public institutions employees, it was also found that employees equally valued the desire for teamwork, contribution to society, and advancement opportunities (Jurkiewicz et al., 2008:244).

Elmore et al., (2021:107-139) conducted their research from a similar framework to previous research, private institution employees value extrinsic rewards higher, and public institution employees value intrinsic rewards higher in the light of motivation. The results of this study also confirmed some of the previous research but contradicted others. At the same time, it was clear that private university institution employees were motivated by monetary rewards to a greater degree. Furthermore, it was also shown that private university institution employees valued the intrinsic motivational variables more than the public sector employees, contrary to what was hypothesised in the study (Bright, 2008:149-166). Thus, researchers have argued that the differences between private and public institutions' employees in their motivation have been exaggerated by researchers (Syamsir, 2015:133-142).

Barsoum (2016:205-215) explains the phenomenon of public-service motivation, that individuals who are employed in public institutions are motivated by a sense of public service that is not found among privately employed individuals, an ethic that values intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation. With this, Boyd et al., (2018:428-443.) argue that the concept of public-service motivation exists and that employees within this institution are motivated by a general concern for the community and a desire to

contribute to the public interest; portraying the public institutions themselves as a sense of duty or a calling rather than a job for these employees. While the findings of this study supported that private university institution employees value monetary rewards more than those working in public institutions and that public employee value shorter working hours to a greater extent as hypothesised. The findings also showed that public and private employees had similar attitudes concerning job security, promotion chances, and work meaningfulness (Houston, 2000:713-720).

5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, previous research has suggested differences in what motivates employees employed by private institutions and those that public university institutions employ. However, this is an important consideration as we include twelve managers from both public and private university institutions, with the result that they might perceive the influence of certain motivational factors differently.

CHAPTER 6

SELF-MOTIVATION AND SELF-PERFORMANCE

6.1 Introduction

The absence of self-motivation and lack of interest is also likely to be reflected in the university of higher education neglect of their work environment (Aguinis, 2009:50). Research over the last two decades has indicated that adolescents' academic motivation has declined over time. Informally, interest is defined as something that interests you and attracts individuals attention to learn or hear more about it or continue doing it. Self-motivation can also be defined as the motivation arising from an individual's internal desires to satisfy and fulfil specific needs. Different authors investigate the effect of a university administration staff interest and self-motivation on the work environment (Byron, 2007:756). Employees' self-motivation achievement or achievement motivation is generally assumed to have an important impression on their performance and satisfaction (Brighouse and Wood, (2019:347). It is deep-rooted in human nature. Some individuals appear to have an intrinsically high level of self-motivation for achievement, while others have a low in the same job. In the first category, people typically do not require external incentives to prompt them to work towards their goals because they already have the desire to do so. People motivated mainly by a high self-motivation for achievement may seek out challenging tasks and work hard to succeed.

Individuals with low self-motivation for achievement tend to pursue elementary tasks or where the chances of success are high. However, administrative staff, on the other extreme, choose complicated tasks where no reasonable person could be expected to succeed.

Therefore, the employees with higher self-motivation for achievement will tend to have great satisfaction with the job. Due to this nature, selecting the right persons for a job is decisive for the success of a business, as it determines the operating performance of the employees and, essentially, job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment. Higher education is the primary sector that employs many staff among governments and private sector organisations in Sri Lanka. Job satisfaction of university administration staff affects not only the smooth running of the university but the entire

society as well. At the same time, lecturers are citizens who criticised universities for their job performance and the internal stakeholder's performance and discipline. Therefore, people who have the responsibility for selecting university administrator should be able to understand the need for achievement. Achievement motivation possessed by university administrator and to know the ways to improve and capitalise. If future policymakers consider this critical factor in the selection phase, there is no doubt that the university may show greater productivity.

6.2 Modelling of Self-Motivation

Self-motivation is the force that keeps pushing its internal drive to achieve, produce, develop and keep moving forward (Mind tools Ltd 2012;352). Many researchers, such as (Shanthakumary, 2011:34), analysed the effect of the need for achievement on the relationship between job characteristics and satisfaction, while very few others (Hasanath 2008:56) treated the need for achievement as an independent variable. Atzert (2007:104) explained in their research that the starting point of research on self-motivation is achievement motivation. Murray's (2009:100) definition of need achievement indicated that to accomplish something difficult, this definition was broad and covered a wide range of human behaviour. Lynn's conceptual modelling of self-motivation (2010:45) defined self-motivation for achievement in general as the personal striving of individuals to attain goals within their social environment. Spinath (2005:26) explained that it comprises such dimensions as the need for or pursuit of excellent work ethic, setting and meeting goals, competitiveness, and status aspiration.

Self-motivation for achievement involves inspired individuals who pursue and accomplish their goals. When an individual does accomplish the desired goal, it typically results in the sense of positive self-worth, which contributes to personal and professional growth and development. The motivation for achievement may be affected by dispositional characteristics such as individuals' perceptions of their abilities and potential to succeed and by external forces such as the promise of rewards for success or the threat of punishment for failure. According to Singh and Shrivastava (2010:102) need for achievement decides the relationship between performance and job satisfaction. Abdel (2012:102) analysed the effect of employees' higher-order needs on job performance and satisfaction. He discovered that the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction positively relates to strong employees in

higher-order needs. Hence at the same time, Hoque and Hasanath (2008:89) analysed the relationship between achievement motivation and job performance of bank employees and they also concluded that achievement motivation has a positive relationship with employees' performance.

The starting point of the present model is the extended post-acceptance model discussed in the previous section. As we noticed, dyslexic learners usually perceive assistive learning tools after an initial trial and continue or discontinue using them. Also, similar to the work-related factors considered by Larson et al. (2020:45), internal stakeholders also need to perceive that the assistive learning tool fits their daily learning needs and tasks. Therefore, another basis of the present research model is the extended technology acceptance model discussed in the previous section, as this research also utilises a learning system where Chang (2010:56) research model can be applied.

The inspirations of the present self-motivation model also include technology self-efficacy and computer playfulness, visual attractiveness of the assistive learning system, attitudes towards university and feedback as components considering internal stakeholders' specific characteristics, which is explained. In Venkatesh's model (2011:32), computer self-efficacy and playfulness are included as a factor to anchor the system-specific perceived ease of use. Also, perceived enjoyment has been confirmed as a surrogate construct for intrinsic motivation, and technology self-efficacy would play a part in intrinsic motivation. Users can be intrinsically motivated through curiosity, enjoyment, or self-efficacy during the trial period. Moreover, self-efficacy contributes to perceived competence, which is also a construct of intrinsic motivation and can influence perceived ease of use and enjoyment. Furthermore, a system's visual attractiveness contributes to extrinsic and intrinsic reactions and might affect perceived curiosity. In addition, perceived visual attractiveness can reinforce a system's perceived usefulness and entertainment value.

Intrinsically regulate the internal stakeholders' learning behaviour with assistive learning tools (Fage et al., 2019:1-21). Comparatively to other internal stakeholders, internal stakeholders are more likely to have lower academic self-worth and greater coping concerns, which could result in later problems like learned helplessness or social disengagement (Raza et al., 2021:1104-1116). Thus, attitudes towards school

or learning can influence their learning self-motivation with assistive tools. Also, It has been found that attitudes towards school contribute significantly to the prediction model of information-seeking behaviour (Wilson, 2008:256). Besides, it has been shown that perceived enjoyment and usefulness are significantly correlated to attitude, with the former being more strongly correlated than the latter (Zsóka et al., 2013:126-138). In addition, feedback is also one of the constructs of intrinsic motivation, which is provided by the system during the interaction process. Various kinds of feedback, informative or entertaining, contribute to user involvement and user interaction with the system, which might play an essential part in perceived enjoyment and confirmation of expectation-experience match (Wang et al., 2017: 11-18). Thus, the overall satisfaction the novel conceptual self-motivation modelling with the interrelationships of the constructs in the study (Otoo et al., 2018:1-10). The following are examples of subjects from the study that support concepts like feedback and perceived ease of conceptual modeling of self-motivation.

6.2.1 Feedback

In an education context, higher education administrative staff need to have clear and realistic work goals and receive positive, informative feedback to inform them about their progress to improve intrinsic motivation. In this research, feedback provided is categorised into those three features/types, immediate, informative and motivating feedback (Wang et al., 2017: 11-18). Hence there was a study conducted where two participants liked the feature that they could get a response once they chose an answer. Three participants said they wanted to know the right response from the employee feedback so they could learn from their errors when they gave the wrong answer. All the participants preferred alternative feedback screens. Some felt that it would motivate to try harder "to attain a high level" and might keep their interest longer. Most felt that the alternative feedback would be more fun (Çöltekin, et al., 2020:439).

6.2.2 Perceived ease

As the other constructs of the conceptual modelling of self-motivation, perceived ease of use is also confirmed in the study as participants perceived. Time as easy to use and understand or not when they commented on their experience using it compared to their previous experience. Furthermore, Perceived Fit is included in the research

model based on previous research. In the research context, perceived fit refers to internal stakeholders' perception of whether the assistive learning tool fits their learning tasks or learning needs well. Over half of the participants commented on it positively as a correlating factor to perceived usefulness. Finally, Perceived Enjoyment is a construct of intrinsic motivation.

It is necessary to apply the conceptual modelling of self-motivation to motivate the university administrative staff and recipients to involve in the knowledge transfer process based on the returned benefits from this process. The extrinsic (such as promotions and ideal salaries) and intrinsic (such as altruism and knowledge trust) could play essential roles in knowledge transfer of self-motivations. Furthermore, the ideal distribution of extrinsic and intrinsic factors based on the quantity and quality of the shared knowledge could increase the self-motivation level of knowledge transfer. Depending on these assumptions, this study proposes a conceptual model of self-motivations.

Educational evaluation has grown as a differentiated professional activity requiring constant updating. As the experience of the context change, so do educational models and, study plans, didactic materials, among other elements, which in turn have an impact on evaluation strategies, techniques and instruments (Rueda, 2008:45). Due to different country's current tendency on working task evaluation, society demands account of the results of the education that internal stakeholders receive in university institutions. University institutions began to implement self-evaluation measures at the end of the 1980s when the Incentives for academic performance in higher education program was formulated and applied. This self-evaluation caused dissatisfaction with lecturers since they would be subject to evaluation to estimate salary and position increases, which would have enough impact to cause their dismissal (De la Plata, 2012:23). In this case, the regular lecturers were not affected. However, current self-evaluation processes, led by the National Institute for the Evaluation of Education (NIEE), include lecturers from Normal University of the higher education in South Africa. To improve their practice at all levels, it is essential to know the competencies of lecturers and educators. However, these evaluative processes are not yet practised by normal university of the higher education. Fernández et al., (2006:34) conclude that self-evaluations done by the internal stakeholders can be useful for the lecturers

because they can highlight both strengths and weaknesses in their practice, and thus the administrative staffs can acknowledge what they need to polish to start improving their working practice.

6.3 Conceptual Modelling of Self-Evaluation

Conceptual modelling of self-evaluating implies that they reflect on their working practice and their beliefs. Fuentes and Herrero (2009:56) consider that lecturers constantly seek their improvement, and self-assessment helps them to modify their performance, as long as they are trained on how to do it. Barber (2007:45) mentions that the self-evaluation process helps them distinguish specific characteristics they should improve in their working practice. Thus, the self-evaluation process ensures that lecturers can objectively assess and appreciate their practice to strengthen their successes and correct errors to improve. Regarding Mexico, Canales and Luna (2003:203) argue that higher education institutions do not indicate what they expect academics to do when hiring their administrative staff. They mention that every evaluation is partial and requires that each evaluative experience recognises its limits. We must consider that it is possible to think of better working when only the results of the questionnaires are made known. Administrative staff evaluation is a social practice that involves political, theoretical, methodological and ethical aspects, with public and private implications and consequences for society, institutions and actors (Riied, 2010:90). For this reason, it is vital to carry it out through various methods and with the participation of the different actors involved in the educational institution, whether self-evaluation of the administrative staff himself, evaluation based on the opinion of internal stakeholders, or from the manager's perspective.

6.3.1 Theoretical framework for modelling of self-evaluation

The four models of administrative staff evaluation were taken as reference, which can be seen overall, Marsh (1977, 1980) proposed an instrument to assess the quality of education. The practical evaluation range of the instrument is divided into seven dimensions: Enthusiasm-concern for the working task, range of treatment of the topics presented, task organisation action with the internal stakeholders, learning assessment by the internal stakeholder, adaptation of class development evaluation, and work-difficulty presumed to achieve the objectives of the subject. The importance

of retaking this input is that it traditionally emphasises the researcher's practice, which is related to the administrative staffs' practice in normal university of the higher education, which are based on reproducing pre-set behaviours in the curriculum and little reflection and participation by part of the internal stakeholder. Vera and other authors (Vera et al., 2012) design and validate an assessment measure for administrative staffs in higher education, with four factors: Didactics, Evaluation, Planning and Motivation. Working competencies, knowledge-related tasks, and materials used are included; planning focuses on time distribution, homogenisation and curricular adjustment. On the other hand, Díaz (2007:24) raises the idea that the working practice is a process which seeks the constant improvement of these professionals. The author breaks down seven ideal dimensions as a basis for administrative staff self-evaluation:

- Working programming;
- Methodology and use of resources;
- Motivation for learning that the administrative staff imparts to his internal stakeholders;
- Evaluation: seeks to have the administrative staff use three evaluation methods, promote co-evaluation and self-evaluation, to grade, promote and inform parents of the results of working evaluation;
- Mentoring;
- Attention to diversity;
- Classroom climate, which involves administrative staff-internal stakeholder interaction, teamwork and the ability to resolve conflicts.

The objectives of this model are to detect the strengths and weaknesses of the practice for the development of improvement strategies, to create a culture of evaluation among administrative staff for their constant improvement, to determine the performance levels of the evaluated administrative staff, as well as to encourage collaborative work. Another revisited model is the evaluation of administrators from the perspective of the administrative staff (Arebsú and rueda, 2003:80), which mentions that there must be other types of administrative staff evaluation, apart from that made by the internal stakeholders, in search of a more versatile tool and with a more critical sense that helps the administrative staff to improve work through a formative evaluation.

The authors conducted a year-long ethnographic work with the professors of Social Sciences and Humanities in which they devoted themselves to observing the profession in their field of work, as well as their relations with internal stakeholders and colleagues (Marsh, 2021:1106-1136). The model distinguishes two activities that involve the dimension of working practice. The first has to do with updating the administrative staff, attendance at conferences (Buse et al., 2020:487-493). The second refers to the attention to internal stakeholders and administrative staff-internal stakeholder relationship and vice versa. On the other hand, the measurement of administrative staff performance requires a view from management that includes the following aspects (Saffar,2020:77-90).

- Effective communication and interpersonal skills: measures meetings with subjects who participate in the educational context for the development of projects or academic activities;
- Work conditions and organic organisational: used to obtain information on evaluations made by the principal on the administrative staff's relationship with his work environment and his level of satisfaction;
- Management and directive planning: it allows to obtain information about the administrative staff's activities related to administrative and working management, planning and relationship with parents;
- Focus on the client: it is a measure of the administrative staff's contribution to improving the performance of internal stakeholders and their peers (Vera; Fierrosa and Pena, 2014:16).

It was sought to measure the working practice through an input process-product model in administrative staffs through a performance observation guide. Indicators related to the contingent and didactic management of the administrative staff were registered for the conduction and disciplinary control of the group through the following terms: cleanliness and distribution of internal stakeholders, resources used by administrative staffs and internal stakeholders, management of contingencies, monitoring and feedback behaviour, mobility, participation (administrative staff/internal stakeholders) and administrative staff behaviour towards internal stakeholders. There was also an interview about the working practice that consisted of 35 items through which information on three essential dimensions was collected: planning of objectives and

activities on time, didactic processes selected for learning and materials, and resources used (Vera, 2012:70).

The self-evaluation process has been described as helping university of the higher education improve, which should be shaped by themselves and integrated into their routine management systems. Furthermore, it is argued that this should be a collaborative practice involving stakeholders' views and incorporate annual updates to reflect on the impact of the university actions on its pupils. It makes sense that university of the higher education should regularly ask themselves questions about how they are doing and what could be done better. However, below the surface of what appears to be a sensible, straightforward approach to diagnosis, insight and understanding followed by action for improvement and review, there are several other factors at work. These issues raise several tensions and dilemmas that make the terrain associated with self-evaluation both complex and sensitive. The first issue, the purposes of self-evaluation, is often less than transparent and, at times, contradictory. The second, the issue of control of whether the process of self-evaluation is located internally within the organisation or externally within the system, and third, whether self-evaluation is seen as a top-down or bottom-up process, can both be understood better as a result of work on inspection and self-evaluation at the many universities (Fandray, 2001:250).

6.3.2 The purposes of modelling self-evaluation

The first fundamental debate centres on the purposes of self-evaluation. Are the purposes of generating personal and professional development and university improvement or regulating and monitoring practice and standards? This simple question is the cause of much discussion across many education systems and often raises solid opinions and much confusion. For example, there is evidence to suggest that those undertaking self-evaluation in english university of the higher education are unclear about self-evaluation purposes. Interviewees in one study cited various self-evaluation purposes: preparation for inspection, raising standards, professional development, and building university capacity to respond to and manage change (Freeman, 2002:70).

The desire to improve is an essential human and professional responsibility, and for this review, we focus on universities in the higher education self-evaluation for improvement its administrative staff performance. However, in a performative culture, national and global contexts and additional forces come into play. Policy imperatives for accountability (for example, the new relationship with university of the higher education) and economics – in a system where educational outcomes are used as a proxy for economic well-being to discomfort and lack of clarity relating to the purposes of self-evaluation. Some dilemmas associated with the terrain are described below: Few [national systems], if any, have come to terms with the divergent purposes that inspection and self-evaluation serve, nor have they succeeded in marrying improvement and accountability. Owing to the impact of globalisation and international comparative performance tables, difficulties in this relationship persist and live in uneasy tension.⁴¹ Three further drivers have been helpfully identified, and it is argued that these are often interlinked with 'competing logics'. These drivers clarify the possible purposes for self-evaluation: Economic logic self-evaluation is cheaper than expensive external inspection frameworks, mainly where money is devolved directly to university of the higher education. Second, accountability logic – university of the higher education must provide proof to key stakeholders (i.e. parents and the local community) and the government that they are providing value for money. This has become increasingly important in the english context, as budgets are being devolved to university of the higher education. Third, improvement logic is seen as evident that to know how to improve, a university must be able to evaluate where it is, what it needs to improve, and what indicators will suggest that it has achieved its aims (Perryman, 2007:80). Chapman (2006:95), However, these logics are not mutually exclusive and may create tensions depending on how they are interlinked. For example, where accountability is driven by external factors such as competition between university of the higher education, league tables, administrative staffs and general staff may see the process of self-evaluation as ritualised as meaningful or relevant in terms of genuine school improvement or their professional development compared with other high-stakes accountability mechanisms including external review, performance management and the publication of internal stakeholder outcome data. The critical tension residing within this debate relates to the relationship between self-evaluation, accountability and improvement. For some, the concept of the audit society is essential. Here, self-evaluation can hold administrative staffs accountable by

evaluating their work and monitoring their practice and performance. This form of panoptic performativity conforms to the policy-driven orthodoxy of university improvement. For others, self-evaluation is an opportunity for professional dialogue and collaborative development to build on previous achievements. In a sense, these issues are the same side of the coin. How self-evaluation and external inspection is perceived has been related to school contexts. We know school leadership has an essential role in shaping school cultures, and it is a logical extension to assume school leadership also plays an important role in how self-review is experienced and perceived by those involved, similarly to those subjected to external inspection perceive the process.

A second fundamental debate related to the purposes of university self-evaluation revolves around the issue of control and whether the driver of the process is located internally within the college or mandated by an external agency. In many education systems worldwide, including England, academics, administrative staffs and trade unions have been calling for self-evaluation to be at the heart of college improvement; university of the higher education should be improved from within. The influential book *Inspections Fail to Get to the Heart of What a University of the Higher Education Must Speak for Themselves* argues that external is honestly like and that the primary goal of university self-evaluation should be to help university of the higher education develop and improve through critical self-reflection (Finemin 2006:270).

The study further claims that administrative staffs need to be equipped with the necessary skills to evaluate the working and learning in their classrooms and that an external review would then be welcomed to enhance and support good practice. This would leave an external review as a validation process for school self-evaluation. Some education systems have attempted to mandate self-evaluation as part of school improvement. For example, in England, the central government launched a New Relationship with university of the higher education to refine and link internal self-evaluation to external review. This placed the concept of self-evaluation at the core of the Ofsted inspection process. David Miliband, the then Secretary of State for Education, outlined this new relationship as a form of 'intelligent accountability that would deliver' (Finemin 2006:310).

According to Bond and Fox (2007:97), the debates outlined above highlight some of the critical tensions in promoting professional and internal stakeholder learning through seminary self-evaluation. In one sense, they offer alternative perspectives, but caution is needed here. They should not be viewed as mutually exclusive alternatives; we have a set of false dichotomies. Each debate should be viewed as a relative position on a continuum. For example, we are not dealing with purposes involving accountability or development; life cannot be simply divided into summative or formative actions. The actions for self-evaluation are not located either outside or inside the organisation are drivers located externally and internally. Likewise, self-evaluation is not either 'top-down' or 'bottom-up' in nature but rather a combination of the two. Those involved in university improvement have been characterised as 'hawks' and 'doves' (Mani, 2002:142).

The 'hawks' argue that school self-evaluation is an easy, soft-centred option which can result in navel-gazing and lacks the objective hard edge that external evaluation brings to a school by shirking difficult questions and judgements (Chapman and Sammons 2013:4). On the other hand, the 'doves' argue that for improvement to be embedded within the school, it must be owned by the very agents of change tasked with generating the improvement rather than with those outside of the organisation who will only experience resistance to change and subversion of their interventions, yet another false dichotomy (Chapman and Sammons 2013:7). Most accept there is, or should be, a link and blend between school self-evaluation and external review; in many systems, they inform one another.

The key questions are: 'Where should an organisation place itself on each dimension to optimise the impact of school self-evaluation on professional and internal stakeholder learning and 'What sort of relationship should there be between school self-evaluation and external review/inspection? Taking each question in turn, firstly, where should an organisation place itself on each dimension to optimise the impact of school self-evaluation on professional and internal stakeholder learning? Here a school should consider several key issues at three levels, the 'macro', the 'micro' and the 'meso' level, or simply the system, school and classroom level and the interaction between each level. The school improvement literature 69 highlights a multitude of

possibilities for consideration. First, however, we highlight four key areas that seem to be worthy starting points.

It is widely accepted that self-evaluation should be guided by a framework that articulates desired outcomes and clear aims for developing practice. These will be underpinned by a rationale for why these particular outcomes and developmental aims are important. For example, some university of the higher education may have a clear and well-developed organisational vision. For others, however, devising a self-evaluation framework allows members of the organisation to act on what they are trying to achieve. To a greater or lesser extent, the nature of the education system will inform the same approach university of the higher education take. For example, university of the higher education in most educational systems are required to operate within a national policy framework, affecting their goals and their plans for service delivery. Historically, much of the emphasis in evaluation has been on using attainment evidence to judge pupils' achievement standards and identifying targets (Stone 2002:28).

Much of the support for self-evaluation in the english context (from the 1998 Autumn Package onwards) has focused on providing data analyses to help university of the higher education' evaluation within this tradition (Peiperl, 2005:62). However, in many systems, the national policy also provides a strong steer for school improvement strategies in the form of guidance on good practice, curriculum strategies and targeted funding streams. In this context, university of the higher education have tended to adopt the inspection regime's frameworks for evaluation. For example, many university of the higher education in England have used the framework to support self-evaluation because, ultimately, each school must relate their review of outcomes and their planning to the key themes set out in the inspection framework and judge accordingly. There is, however, no prescribed model for evaluating the quality of school provision, which is made clear in official guidance: Ofsted does not prescribe any particular approach; university of the higher education are free to summarise the outcomes of their self-evaluation processes in a way that best suits their circumstances. The introduction to Ofsted's latest guide to preparing a self-evaluation summary reads:

Ofsted recognises the importance of self-evaluation as a crucial part of the school's ongoing review and improvement planning cycle. A self-evaluation summary is an

important tool in this process, which enables university of the higher education to draw together an evaluation of different aspects of their work, leading to an evaluation of the quality of education provided by the school overall. There is no fixed time when a self-evaluation might be completed in the year. This will depend on the individual circumstances of each school (Chapman and Sammons, 2013:19)

In England, university of the higher education, are free to adapt the Ofsted model, devise their framework or at one of a range of alternatives that have been developed to support whole-school evaluation, including various models and examples found in self-evaluation literature (Rudman, 2003:500).

MacBeath (2005:48) posits that while university of the higher education operate within a national policy context, they emphasise some common objectives; internationally, there has been a shift towards school-based management and greater autonomy. Even in some of the most centralised, there are a few indicators that this may change. As highlighted in this review's 'Key debates' section, numerous contextual factors for individual university of the higher education may require distinctive context-specific responses to self-evaluation. This situation of increasing autonomy, combined with a greater appreciation of the importance of context, would suggest that self-evaluation frameworks should reflect local conditions and priorities.

6.4 Self-Performance

The universities has viewed a performance appraisal policy as an effective tool for human resources management. However, an effective performance appraisal policy remains a practical challenge to managers and employees because of cognitive, motivational and behavioural factors. There are various methods of performance appraisal. Each organisation has its uniqueness and method of appraisal. For example, the university may continue being informal where the personal opinion of a superior about his/her subordinates may be the basis of appraisal (Rudman, 2003:437).

According to Armstrong (2001:474), On the other hand, it may be well-defined, and all managers may follow a certain policy and approach. Usually, the performance appraisal method dictates the time and effort spent by supervisors and employees and

determines which areas of performance are emphasised by a performance appraisal policy should be objective, accurate and easy to perform.

Performance appraisal is the strength of performance management, affecting the university staff performance. It helps to identify and overcome the problems faced by the employees at work (Mackey and Johnson, 2000:3). Although it has many benefits for the organisation (2002:80) states that performance appraisal has an equal probability of having a bad impact on the university as well as on employee performance. According to Fletcher and Bailey (2003:397), managers are perfectly capable of forming accurate judgements of employee performance. Fandray (2001:35) highlights that "the rating inaccuracy was often a reflection of a deliberate conscious process of distortion used to serve the perpetrator's agenda and not unconscious bias or error". According to Atkins and Wood (2002:879), employee performance ratings are bunched around either moderate or high performance. Negative information is less likely to be conveyed than positive information. Moreover, a consequence of this is the tendency to rate employees as average or above due to the interpersonal awkwardness of telling employees that their performance is below average (Rechter, 2010:63). Byron (2007:728) states that there is a tendency to mark at the middle of the scale or higher and raters may avoid giving negative news because they employ empathic buffering.

According to Hunt (2005:268), there is evidence to suggest that in performance appraisal policy, managers are using ratings to achieve goals that are contrary to the goal of providing accurate employee performance ratings. Ratings may be motivated by a fear of conflict with poor-performing employees. Moreover, inflation may also be used to improve an employee's performance by increasing self-efficacy (Mackey and Johnson, 2000:8). Managers might also consistently inflate ratings to protect their employees' reputation as good managers if employees are seen to be performing poorly; this may reflect badly on the manager (Rudman, 2003:6). According to Rudman (2003:437), performance appraisal has a positive and negative impact. Employees who receive a good score on appraisal are generally motivated to perform well and maintain performance. Positive feedback on appraisals gives the employee a feeling of worth and value, especially when accompanied by salary increases. On the other hand, if the supervisor gives an employee a poor score on appraisal, the employee

may feel a loss of motivation in the workplace. Consequently, this can impact the employee's performance (Cook and Crossman, 2004:527).

6.4.1 Measurement of self-evaluation

This design is a self-assessment based on some external measure (often an expert evaluation) generated for everyone in the group. Since self-assessment is vital to the concept of self-directed learning and the maintenance of professional competence, university employees find it troubling that scholars who have attempted to establish the accuracy of self-assessment have often observed incongruities between self-evaluations and external measures of achievement (Schow & Gatehouse, 2019:30).

Self-evaluation is the relatively autonomous and deliberate engagement in reviewing and critiquing one's risk in an appraisal of progress made over a period. Often self-assessment is closely aligned with (self)-monitoring and reflection (on the action). It is meant to increase the learner's self-responsibility and self-regulation in learning (Zimmermann, 2000:68). University employees who engage in self-assessment are more interested in their work and more able to interpret why and what they are doing. Also, measuring one's risk assessment builds ownership and high expectation for improving work, mainly through internalising performance standards over quantitative measures of capacities, processes, or outcomes relevant to the assessment of a self-evaluation performance indicator (e.g., the number of trained epidemiologists available to investigate, percentage of clients who rate health department services as "good" or "excellent")(Levinson, 2005:4).

6.4.2 The purposes of measuring employee performance

According to Rechter (2010:65), the prevailing culture within the organisation is often seen as being driven by the elites, a clique that controls the organisation's norms from above. This is an example of the influence of politics within organisations. Levinson (2005:3) contends that the deliberate manipulation of performance appraisal policy exists for political purposes, such as getting rid of subordinates and scaring or punishing poor employees. However, Byron (2007:728) suggests that the impact of political influences is less in assessing lower-level employees in organisations, a major significance for higher levels within organisations.

6.4.3 The concepts of performance appraisal on employee performance

Rechter (2010:25) states that in many organisations, performance appraisal policy is still a matter of rewarding employees. Performance appraisal may be a part of a policy which encourages competition between colleagues, and these colleagues may be required to perform as team members (Freeman, 2002:196). Thus, an employee may be in an unpleasant position whereby they are officially expected to depend on their performance as an individual, often in competition with teammates.

According to Mondy and Noe (2008:5), organisations state that employees must work beyond the usual office hours. However, when an employee sees colleagues staying late, they may be reluctant to leave the office due to a feeling that they may not be pulling their weight in some way. The employees join their office culture of staying at work late, while any possible benefits to employee performance may be questionable (Wade and Ricardo, 2001:3). Kuvaas (2006:509) states that with regards to performance appraisal policy, there may be an issue as to how much control the employee feels they have in work environment.

6.4.4 Perception of performance appraisal policy

According to Armstrong (2001:475), Fineman's 2006 performance appraisal policy is the best tool for measuring employee performance and guiding employee development and improvement. However, performance appraisal policy can be a frustrating ritual of the modern organisation and states that the most frequent complaint is that many are poorly trained in how to give feedback to employees, and they provide little coaching, mentoring or support. Moreover, performance appraisal policy procedures are often poorly designed, making the policy cumbersome and challenging to administer. Freeman contends that employees often place the entire burden of the review policy on the supervisor, doing little throughout the year to seek feedback on employee performance and avenues for improvement or development.

6.4.5 Employee attitudes towards performance appraisal policy

According to Stone (2002:3), employees often assume a defensive position when deficiencies are pointed out. This is especially true if pay, recognition, or rewards are at stake. In addition, employees will resist a policy that is perceived to appraise or

reward unfairly (Freeman, 2002:25). Hunt (2005:2) highlights that conflicts on the purposes and goals of a performance appraisal policy often exist when implemented. The performance appraisal policy must be part of a performance management policy that emphasises communication and coaching to motivate employees (Mondy and Noe, 2008:261). The significant barriers to implementing employee performance appraisal policy are often neglected (Grote and Grote, 2002:232). While a performance appraisal policy may improve employee performance, an ill-prepared performance appraisal policy can adversely impact employee performance (Fandray, 2001:35). Wade and Ricardo (2001:26) contend that commitment from the organisation to conduct performance appraisal policy correctly is essential. This includes logistical and technical support, in-depth job analysis and ongoing training. According to Roberts (2002:334), managers may often fail to provide timely and accurate performance expectations and feedback to employees. When feedback is provided, it is often miscommunicated, thereby reducing morale and further reducing employee performance (Stone, 2002:123). Furthermore, employee groups often oppose the implementation of a performance appraisal policy. This is due to various factors, including distrust of management's ability, a perception that the performance appraisal policy is unfair and a traditional emphasis on superiority rules (Levinson, 2005:38).

6.5 Conclusion

The issues of accuracy and fairness in performance appraisal are vital to research interests. In the field of Human Resources management, performance appraisal may be used as a means of measuring employee performance during the pandemic. The purpose of measuring employee performance during the lockdown is not to indicate only where things are not going according to plan but also to identify why things are going well so that steps can be taken to build on success. The goal of performance appraisal is to assess and summarise employee performance and develop future work, performance goals and expectations. Therefore, performance appraisal is essentially an essential human resource's function that provides management with a systematic basis for effectively recognising and evaluating human resources' present and potential capabilities. Supervisors should continuously determine how effectively their subordinates are performing different tasks. Employees should be appraised at least once a year, increasing employee efficiency and performance. Performance appraisal

policy is a collaborative process involving both the supervisor and the employees, who identify common goals that correlate to the higher goals of the university. If employees are effectively appraised, the university employees will experience increased performance and improved output quality performance appraisal policy is smooth and indirect. Most universities made a more significant investment during the lockdown in employees and the skill necessary to be effective with others during the crisis. It is also used to link training and development and performance planning and to encourage employees to perform to their optimum potential. Peiperl (2005:62) highlights that the policies establish general procedures for such evaluations and delegate oversight on specific formats and detailed procedures to the line manager of an organisation. Organisations utilise appraisal policies that suit their original strategies. Therefore, performance appraisal policies vary from university (Anderson, 2002:14). Performance appraisal policy is more prevalent in the private sector, but its usage in the public sector is also increasing (Anderson, 2002:197). An organisation needs an effective performance appraisal policy to improve employee performance as the current policy shortcomings or may be outdated considering new emerging trends. Furthermore, it has the potential capacity to improve employee performance and drive organisational performance. For the employees who have a strong desire to find out how well they are doing, this is the only means to obtain feedback (Kuvaas, 2006:510).

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH DESIGN, RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

7.1 Introduction

Knowledge has progressed to the point where the research has now understood the protocols, techniques, and methodologies that must be followed to conduct meaningful research. Over time, it has become clear that the research process entails two closely related activities that are often confused: research design and methodology. Creswell (2013:23) defines the research design as a precise sketch of what will be done in the research. This directly contradicts the research methodology, which describes how the research design activities will be carried out. This is the order in which they follow each other.

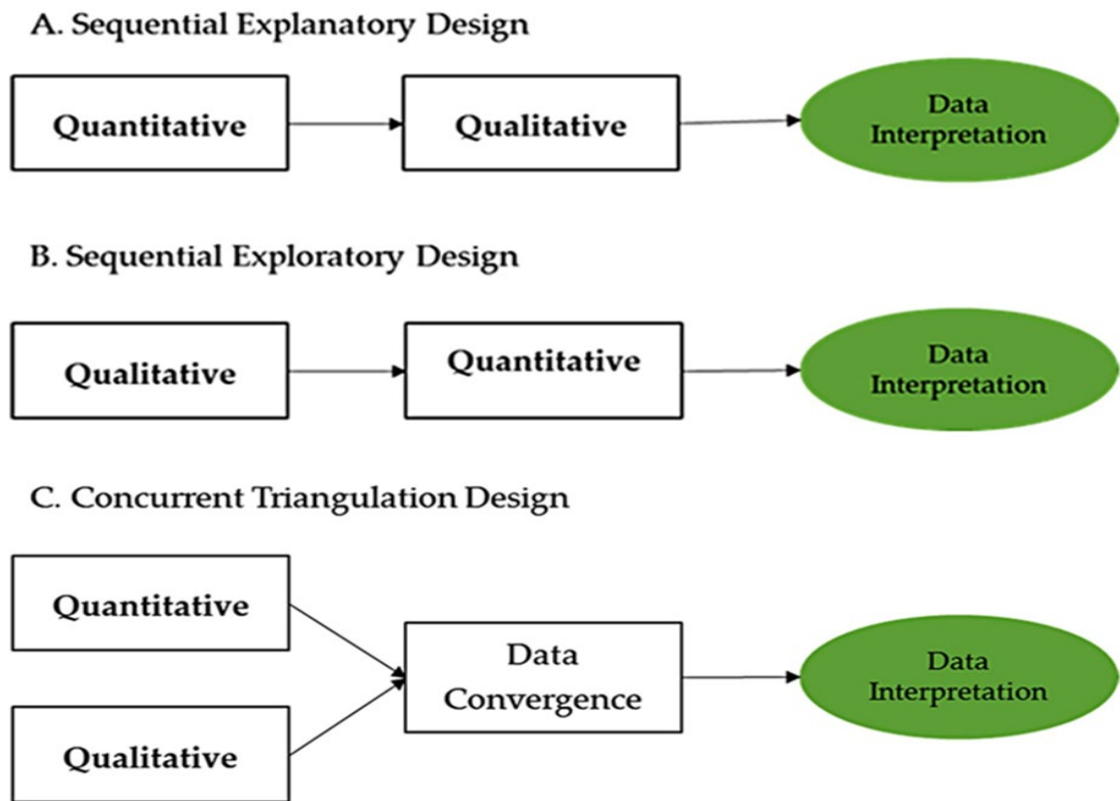
This chapter outlines the methodological framework employed to accomplish the objectives of this study to explore and explain academic administrator employees' perception of work-from-home performance during the COVID-19 lockdown period at a selected University in Cape Town. The chapter begins by explaining the research philosophy underpinning the study. Next, it describes the simultaneous research design and strategy employed for data collection and analysis, providing insight into the study population and the selected methods.

7.1.1 Research design

Suter (2012:386) defines research design as a master plan, a blueprint, and even as a sequence of research tasks and activities or a plan of methods and procedures that are used by the researcher to collect and analyse data. Saunders et al. (2012:146) concur that the research design is a general plan that guides the researcher in answering the research questions. It specifies the research objectives, information source, data type, design techniques, sampling methodology, and procedures to be applied to answer the problem statement (Bryman and Bell, 2011:40). The research design enables the collection of data from respondents using questionnaires. Research design data collection was critical for developing independent results that could be integrated into developing the results that evaluate the implications of working from home for employees, identifying challenges for future research, and gaining insights to aid decision-making. The research design refers to what should be done. In

this study, specified tasks must be completed for the research findings to be reliable and legitimate.

Figure 7.1: Research design (Exploratory and Explanatory design)



Source: Author's own construction adopted from Creswell (2013:50).

Two distinctive phases make up the sequential explanatory approach: the first phase of quantitative data gathering and analysis, followed by the second phase of qualitative data collection and analysis (see the above figure 7.1). During the data-interpretation stage, results from both phases are combined.

Research methodology

The research methodology is concerned with how research design activities will be carried out. How the research subject and objectives will be determined. How the research question will be constructed, and how the research population will be identified. How the sample will be selected, how the population will be sampled, how the data will be collected, how the research instrument will be developed, and how the

data collection will be coordinated. As a result, the methodology addresses the "how" of the research while the design addresses the "what."

The researcher has chosen to use qualitative and quantitative methods to leverage the benefits of each methodology in achieving the desired results. The research process was used to gather and analyse data to have a better understanding of the research project (Creswell, 2008:18). According to Burns and Grove (2005:23), quantitative research can be defined as a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is collected and processed to communicate information about a study. On the other hand, inquiry into the personal meanings of individual experiences in the context of the subject's environment and realities is classified as qualitative research. A mixed methods research methodology was applied to take advantage of this richness of knowledge. Combining the two methodologies was simply to help the researcher to answer the research questions.

7.1.2 Differentiating design from the methodology

It is imperative that design and methodology are differentiated because, as previously stated, there is a definite distinction between these two notions; nonetheless, they can be seen as closely connected. Jowah (2015:18), as differentiating design from the methodology mentioned, clearly distinguishes these two ideas in table 7.1 below. The researcher defines the methodology as a description of how the methodologies identified in the research design will be employed or applied (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:55). Whatever needs to be done, the methodology outlines how it will be done because there will be multiple ways to complete the tasks.

Table 7.1: Distinguishing between research design and research technique.

RESEARCH DESIGN	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
Strategic master plan	Operational or execution plan
Emphasises the road to be walked	Emphasises how the walking is done
Emphasis on what results are expected	Emphasis on tools/techniques for results
Guided by research problem/question	Guided by the tasks and work packages
Focuses on rationality of research	Focuses on procedures and processes
Focuses on the "what should be done?"	Focuses on "how should it be done?"

Source: Jowah (2014:77)

Research methodology is "derived from the requirements of the study design" (Jawah, 2014:77), implying that methodology comes after the design is set up. The methodology is the operational design. The demographic, sampling, sample size, data collection, data analysis, and reporting were part of the research design and methodology. The research strategy, anticipated results, and research rationality are all features of the design. The study technique outlines how to walk the road to the intended outcomes utilising the tools offered by the design.

Types of research methodologies

There are two types of research methodologies in the research literature: quantitative and qualitative. These two are very different in many ways, but they complement one another in some research. The main distinctions are depicted in the diagram (Table 7.2). The distinctions between these two are highlighted below.

Table 7.2: Differentiating quantitative from qualitative research.

Quantitative [positivist approach]	Qualitative [anti-positivist]
1. Pay attention to observed behaviour	1. Accentuate the rules of relationships
2. Concentrate on relationship principles	2. Accentuate the human experience
3. Attention to the phenomenon's causes	3. Attention to phenomena experienced
4. Uses the model of natural science	4. Makes use of the experiential model
5. Corrected by solid checks and balances	5. Lacks adequate checks and balances
6. Emphasis on analysis & measurement	6. Emphasise the methods of investigation
7. Structures created by natural science	7. Have a reality that is socially constructed.
Concentrate on variable interactions	8. Focus on researcher-object relationship
9. Optimal for numerically objective data	9. Uses arbitrary information from opinions
10. Utilises strict structure	10. Utilises adaptable exploratory techniques
11. Tries to comprehend from a distance	11. Seeks to interact with the subjects
12. Requires a static setting	12. Utilising dynamic reality
13. Uses a particularistic approach	13. Uses comprehensive approach
14. Uses many samples	14. Utilises a few samples

Source: Jawah (2015:103)

7.2 Target Population

For this study, university employees were the preferred population; the target population was the administrators in different offices in the university under study. The population that the intervention is intended to study and make conclusions from is

known as the target population. The target population's traits and those of any subgroups are precisely stated in the analysis. The target population in the study was the administrators at a select university in Cape Town. The target population is estimated to be 500 administrators in different faculties such as Applied Sciences, Business and Management Sciences, Education, Engineering & the Built Environment, Informatics and Design, as well as Health and Wellness Sciences and units across all campuses of the university.

7.2.1 Sampling method

A specific number of observations are selected from a larger population as part of the sampling procedure. This process is done to make inferences and draw conclusions about the larger population based on the information gathered from the selected sample. Hence, a specific number of observations are selected from a larger population as part of the sampling procedure in statistical analysis. Depending on the analysis, various methods may be employed to choose samples from a larger population, including systematic and simple random sampling. Random selection is a key component of probability sampling, which enables one to draw robust statistical conclusions about the entire group. Non-probability sampling entails non-random selection based on practicality or other factors, making it simple to gather data. The researcher implemented the purposive sampling method regarding the unit selection of administrators. The reason was that there were potential respondents that could have qualified to participate but would not be able to provide the information that the study sought to achieve.

Regarding participation, the study used a random sampling method where the researcher sent out a notification for the administrator to participate, whether in the office or working from home. So, whoever completed the survey questionnaire was accepted up to the required sample size. Therefore, the study used both non-probability and probability sampling methods.

7.2.2 Sample size

The procedure of deciding how many observations or replicates to include in a statistical sample is known as sample size determination. Any empirical study to draw conclusions about a population from a sample is required to take the sample size into

consideration. Out of the population of 500 administrators, the minimum required was 100, which will be large enough for generalisation. Ngulube (2005:143) opines that a sample size of 10%, properly representative, can be used for generalisation. Therefore, the minimum of 100 out of 500 is 20%, twice the 10% that can be used for generalisation.

7.3 The Research Instrument

Measurement tools, such as questionnaires or scales, are known as research instruments and are used to collect data from research subjects on a particular topic of interest. It was necessary to decide on how to gather the data required for this research. Therefore, the researcher opted to use a questionnaire that accommodated the mixed method. Jowah (2015:163) defines a questionnaire as a set of questions logically constructed to derive data from the respondents that will help reach the objectives. The instrument used in this research was a structured questionnaire with semi-structured qualitative questions. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: Section A, Section B, and Section C.

Section A: Biographical – this was used to get details about the respondents and determine if they qualify to participate in the survey. Those who did not meet the expected requirements were excluded (some respondents' questionnaires were disqualified), and only the relevant respondents had their questionnaires included in the findings.

Section B: Likert scale – this scale measured the perceptions, experiences and understanding of the respondents in relation to the assessments of the performance of the administrative staff. The scale measured 1-5 with Strongly disagree = 1. Disagree = 2, Neutral = 3, Agree = 4 and Strongly agree = 5.

Section C: Open-ended – allowing the respondents to discuss any other issues, experiences, or matters deemed important. In this section, the respondents had an opportunity to air their views on any matter concerning the administrative structures, issues, problems, and other factors.

The questionnaire was handy since data could be gathered under anonymous and confidential circumstances and be kept for future use. Therefore, this data could be

converted to information and revisited at will should other questions arise pertaining to the research. Furthermore, the four-page questionnaire allowed for broader participation and provided an opportunity to express views about the matter at hand without fear of reprisals. The use of the questionnaire also allowed for targeting a wider audience compared to having a few interviews. After construction, the questionnaire was taken for a "pre-run" and reconstructed with the assistance of the statistician. Thereafter it was sent for ethics clearance. Having been tested successfully and cleared ethically, it was ready to be used to collect the data from the respondents.

7.3.1 Advantages of using the questionnaire method

The questionnaire was decided on because of certain advantages that would assist positively in a survey of this nature. Using the findings from the University of Portsmouth (2012:1), it was decided that the advantages listed below justified using questionnaires. These are;

- Large number of respondents possible.
- Representative sample possible.
- Question responses can be highly structured and easily coded.
- Statistical tests possible (depending on nature of data collected).
- Respondent has time to consider questions (especially as it is not face-to-face).
- Inexpensive was to cover a large geographical area.
- Questionnaires are replicable and can be used in later studies, and if well-constructed and properly piloted, they should be reliable.

Standardised questionnaires have already been validated, making possible comparisons to other studies directly.

7.3.2 The disadvantages of using a questionnaire

Though the questionnaire has its positive uses, which assisted in collecting the required data, it was necessary to assess the negative impact of using the questionnaire. These were identified as;

- If not administered face to face (for example, by email or online), there is a possibility of a low response rate (not getting many questionnaires back).
- No way of knowing how representative people are in some website/internet-based surveys (that is, it depends on whether people can access a website).
- Questions cannot be explained to respondents and can be misinterpreted (unless administered face-to-face), and answers cannot be put in any real-world context.
- Questionnaires cannot tell us about context and meaning behind a response.
- Likelihood of socially desirable responses to certain questions

These disadvantages were weighed against the positives and considering that the researcher conducted the research face to face, the questionnaires were the most appropriate. In addition, because there was a section with open-ended questions, it was possible to interact directly with the respondents and thereby reduce a low response rate, as well as remove any ambiguity in the questions.

7.3.3 The reliability and the validity of the questionnaire

Reliability guarantees that the same questionnaire used by different people would convey the same information, creating a standard answer (Kobus, 2016:238). The questionnaire, with the help of the statistician applied the following reliability tests, as listed in table 7.3 below.

Table 7.3: Different reliability tests

Test-retest reliability	This is a measure of reliability obtained by administering the same test twice over a period. The scores from Time 1 and Time 2 are correlated in order to evaluate the stability of the test.
Equivalent form reliability	Is a term used in psychometrics to the measure intelligence, skills, aptitudes, etc; designed to measure aspects of mentality are truly equivalent to one another.
Split-halve reliability,	Is a measure of consistency, a set of items that make up a measure is split in two during the data analysis stage to compare the scores for each half of the measure with one another.
Internal reliability	Is a way to determine if all the questions on a survey, test, or personality scale are measuring the same thing.

Source: Author's construction

With the assistance of the statistician, the questionnaire was also tested for validity by subjecting it to the four standard tests for validity, namely

- Content validity
- Construct validity
- Criterion validity

Testing for both (reliability and the validity) was significant because an unreliable questionnaire cannot be valid and vice versa. Many items were formulated in seeming contradiction to each other, and there were no questions requiring a no or yes answer to avoid allowing the respondents two choices. In addition, the language was made simple, short, and easy to understand specifically since all the respondents used English as a second language. This tremendously reduced the possibility of being misunderstood, which may have resulted in unintentional wrong answers. This thus improved both the reliability and validity of the research instrument. Data Collection Technique

The structured questionnaire was used to collect the data, and each administrator was allowed to answer the questions. Since the researcher physically delivered and administered the online google forms for the questionnaires, there was plenty of time for respondents to ask questions or seek clarification. As a result, the surveys had a 100% response rate since all areas that required explanation were covered before they were collected after the activity. In addition, the questionnaire's open-ended sections elicited more discussion (questions) from the respondents, allowing them to express their opinions. This was the qualitative aspect of the questionnaire in line with the decision to use the mixed methods approach for the survey.

7.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the systematic application of logical and/or statistical approaches to describe, demonstrate, summarise, and assess data. The data analysis information was recorded on an Excel Spread Sheet after the data was edited, cleaned, and checked for mistakes and omissions. The questions were colour-coded, and tables, pie charts, and bar charts were subsequently created using this data. These illustrated the interrelationships between the variables under investigation, which served as the

foundation for interpreting and analysing the results. In order to enable generalisations about the research findings, the studied data is consequently transformed into information. Therefore, the following data chapter results from these findings and generalisations, from which conclusions and recommendations are derived.

7.5 Ethical Considerations

In light of government expectations and later university policies on ethics, ethics was an essential component of this research. This was done to ensure that no one was physically or emotionally damaged. Six primary ethical factors must be observed, according to Trochim (2006:1):

- Consent with knowledge. Participants must get a letter before participating, giving them a choice to decline if they so desire.
- Participation is voluntary. The subjects should never be coerced to participate in the study.
- Potential for damage. According to ethical norms, the researcher must never put the subject in danger while performing their research.
- The confidentiality of the information acquired must be taken into account and respected at all times.
- Participants' right to privacy is protected by anonymity, especially if their opinions on a particular subject may cause problems at work, such as job loss.
- No personally identifiable information was provided to any authority, and confidentiality was maintained to date, as promised to the respondents.

The researcher considered all the above ethical considerations. The study first applied for a consent letter for the data collection and ensured the POPIA process was followed. The second colloquial is the ethics certificate from the Faculty Research Committee (CPUT) in the institution, which is in the appendix.

7.6 Limitations of Research

The research was conducted with care and objectivity at the forefront of the research process, and the study has its limits. While these issues may have been avoided, it was necessary to accept the realities of other aspects, such as the cost of covering

more respondents outside the current case study. Therefore, the following are the restrictions found:

- Because the study only looked at one tertiary institution, the results may appear imbalanced.
- Other institutions have the same programmes (albeit administered differently) and may be allocating resources differently and getting different results.
- Time, costs, and permission constrained the researcher from covering more countrywide institutions.
- The participants might not have taken the study as a critical analysis of the university and government endeavours to address the self-evaluation performance of work from home as a critical factor.
- Because English is the participants' second language, the questionnaire being in English may have led to misinterpretation of the questions.
- The study only focuses on administrative staff who necessarily report to line managers about the administrative work, not lecturers who do part-time administrative work but do lecturing.

Despite these restrictions, the research was carried out objectively, with the protocols meticulously reported. Over this, the findings should be impartial, and any subsequent researcher who follows the same methodology will be able to reach the same conclusions as those discussed in the following chapters.

7.7 Conclusion

The introduction, followed by the literature review chapters and conceptual model chapter, were the chapters that paved wave way for the methodology chapter. The chapter discussed the research design it used and the research methodology where an appropriate selection was done and explained thoroughly. The population and sampling method, and sample size were also stated. The data instrument that the study selected was a questionnaire, which explained how it was used. The data analysis was discussed on how the data was analysed. The Ethical consideration was considered, and the study's limitation was also stated. The following chapter looks at data findings and analysis, Data recording, data analysis, interpretation of illustrations, and explanation of the relationship between the variables under study.

CHAPTER 8

DATA RECORDING, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

8.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the study indicated the research methodology used in terms of design methods, sampling methods, target population, sample size, and data collection instruments used to collect data.

The study used a questionnaire to collect data which was categorised into three different sections: Section A Biography, where the study was checked in terms of biography, whether all races, age groups, and type of job that the respondents were presented in the study. Section B Close-ended questions, this is where the study got all the information it required to measure whether the objectives of the study were met or if it was open to generalisation. Section C Open-ended questions, this section was for people that took part in the survey to give their opinion in term of what they would think about how working from home have affected the work that they have been doing before the COVID-19, to see whether the institution could open for working from home.

8.2 Data Recording, Analysis, Interpretation and Illustration

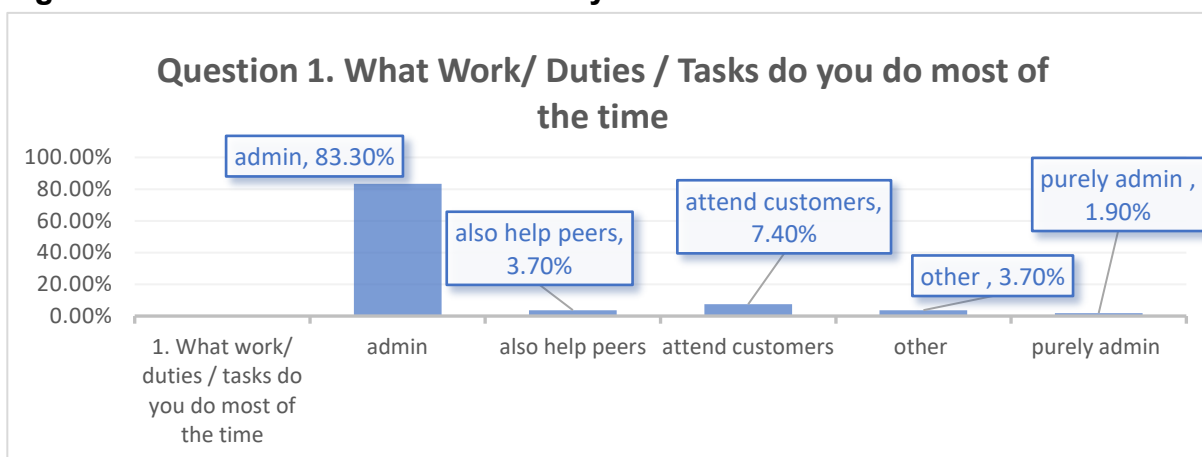
This chapter presents the data recording, which was analysed and illustrated according to the data collection that was undertaken through a questionnaire that was distributed to the target population to reach the sample size mentioned in chapter 1 and the research methodology in chapter 7.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHY

Question 1: What work/duties/tasks do you do most of the time

Response: Based on the graph provided, it indicates that the majority of respondents (83.30%) stated that their work/duties/tasks primarily involve administrative tasks. This means, administrative responsibilities are the most common among the respondents. Overall, the data from the respondents indicates that a significant portion of their work is focused on administrative duties.

Figure 8.1: What work/duties/tasks do you do most of the time



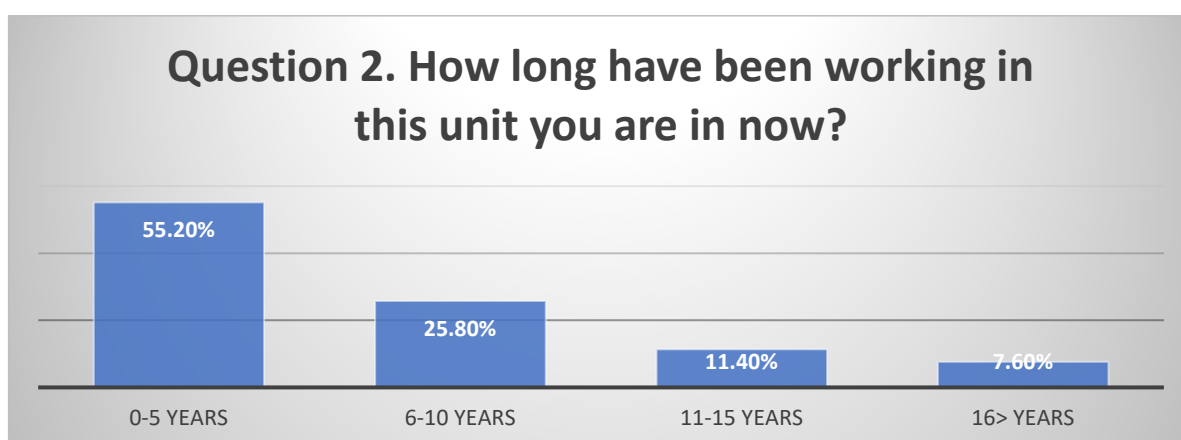
Source: Author's own construction

The other categories mentioned in the graph include helping peers (3.70%), attending to customers (7.40%), other tasks (3.70%), and purely administrative tasks (1.90%). However, the percentages for these categories are relatively lower compared to the 83.30% for administrative tasks.

Question 2: How long have you been working in this unit to date?

Response: According to the respondents' statistics, the category with the highest percentage is 0-5 years, with 55.20% of participants falling into that range. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants have relatively less experience, having worked in the unit for up to 5 years. The remaining categories show a gradual decrease in percentage as the years of experience increase.

Figure 8.2: How long have you been working in this unit to date?



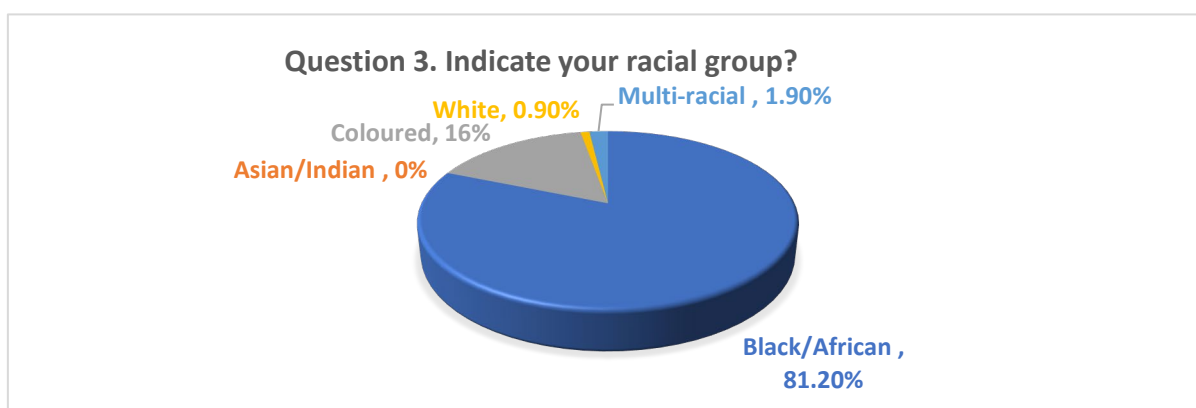
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the provided statistics. The percentages for each category presents the number of years that each participant has been working in the unit. 0-5 years 55.20%, 6-10 years 25.80%, 11-15 years 11.40% and 16 years and above 7.60%. According to the respondent's statistics, the 0-5 years has the highest percentage.

Question 3: Indicate your racial group

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the racial group with the highest percentage is Black/African, comprising 81.20% of the respondents. This indicates that a significant majority of the participants identify as Black or African. These statistics reflect the self-identified racial groups of the respondents.

Figure 8.3: Indicate your racial group



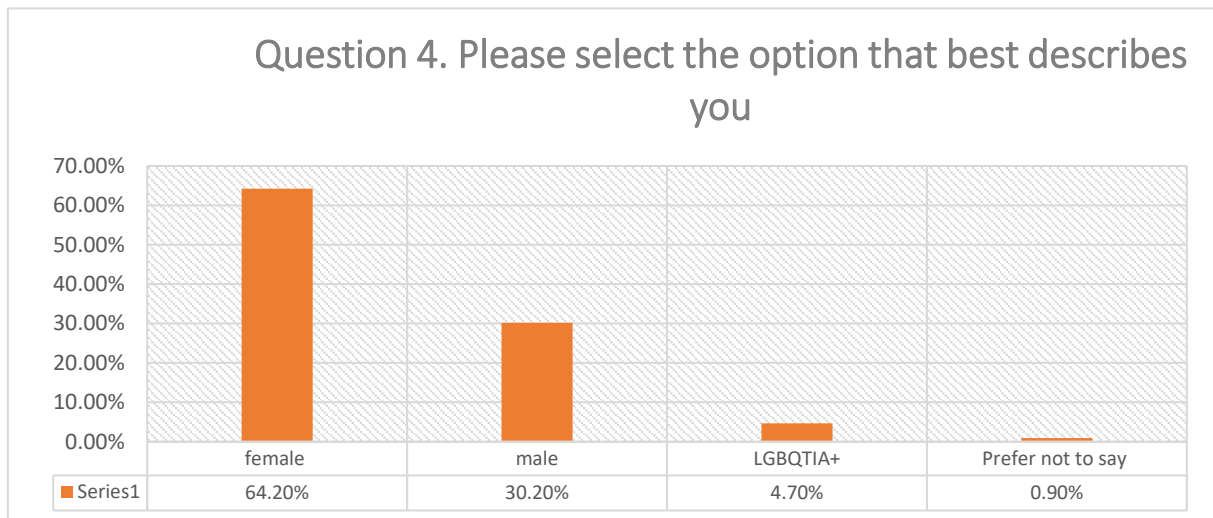
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.3. The statistics represents racial group of each respondent Black/African 81.20%, Multi-racial 1.90%, White 0.90%, Coloured 16% and Asian/Indian 0%. According to the groups, black/African is the highest.

Question 4: Please select the option that best describes you

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the gender group with the highest percentage is female, comprising 64.20% of the participants. This implies that a majority of the respondents identify as female. Also, it is important to note that these statistics reflect the self-identified gender of the participants and It is also worth mentioning that the LGBTQIA+ category represents individuals who identify as part of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, intersex, or asexual community.

Figure 8.4: Please select the option that best describes you



Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.4, the statistics shows the gender of each participant: Female 64.20%, Male 30.20%, LGBTQIA+ 4.70%, prefer not a say 0.90%. The above graph also shows that females are the highest.

Question 5: Do you need your supervisor to give you work to do daily

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "No, I know my work," accounting for 63.60% of the participants. This implies that most respondents feel confident in their work and do not require constant supervision to carry out their daily tasks. It is important to note that these statistics reflect the self-perceived level of supervision needed by the participants and may vary based on their job roles, experience, and individual work dynamics.

Figure 8.5: Do you need your supervisor to give you work to do daily.



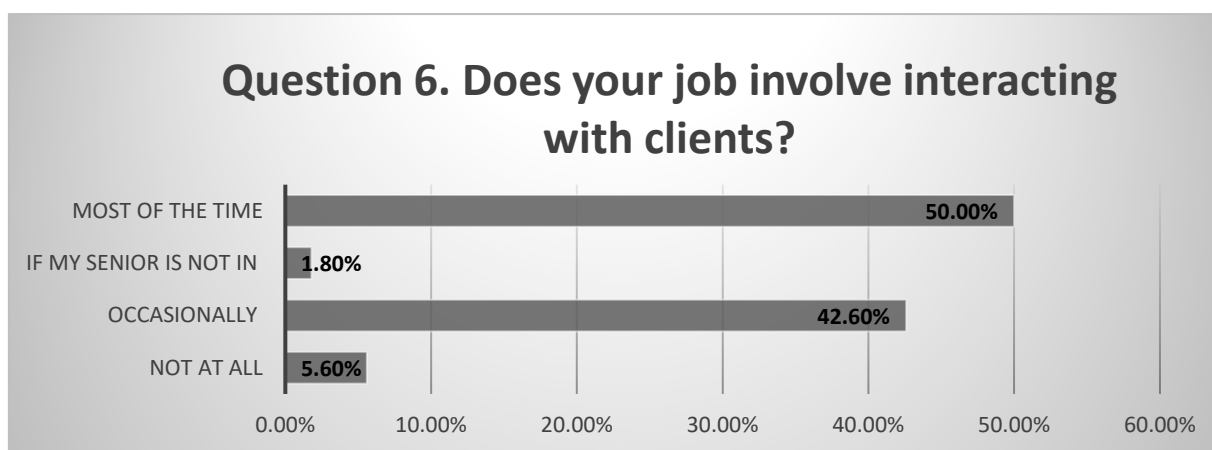
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.5, the responses regarding the participants' The other categories, such as "Depends" and "Sometimes," indicate that a portion of respondents may require occasional or situational supervision, while the "Always" category represents a small percentage of participants who consistently rely on a supervisor for their work.

Question 6: Does your job involve interacting with clients

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "Most of the time," which indicates that 50.00% of the participants have regular and frequent interaction with clients as part of their job responsibilities. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated that they are working with clients, either most of the time or occasionally

Figure 8.6: Does your job involve interacting with clients



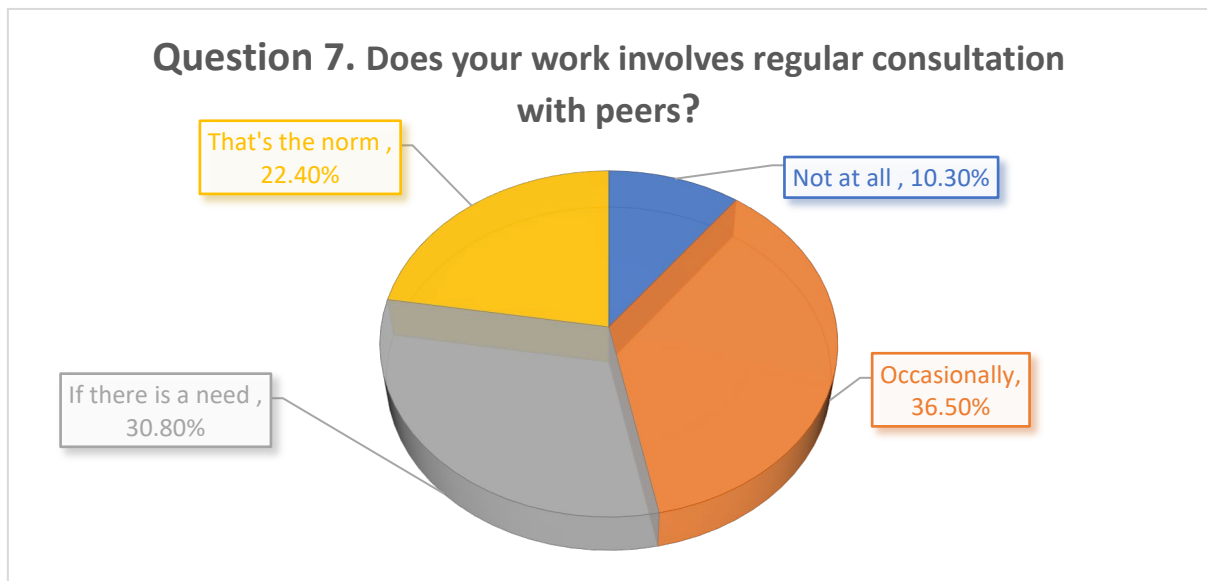
Source: Author's own construction

The other categories, such as "If my senior is not in," "Occasionally," and "Not at all," represent respondents who have variable degrees of client interaction. These categories show that a portion of the participants have occasional or situational client interactions, while some have no client interactions at all. It is important to note that these statistics reflect the self-reported experiences of the participants and may adapt based on their job roles, industries, or specific work arrangements.

Question 7: Does your work involves regular consultation with peer

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "Occasionally," indicating that 36.50% of the participants have periodic consultations with their peers in the work environment. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated occasional consultations with peers in their work environment. This indicates that peer collaboration and communication are not constant or formalised in their work setting, but rather occur as needed.

Figure 8.7: Does your work involves regular consultation with peers



Source: Author's own construction

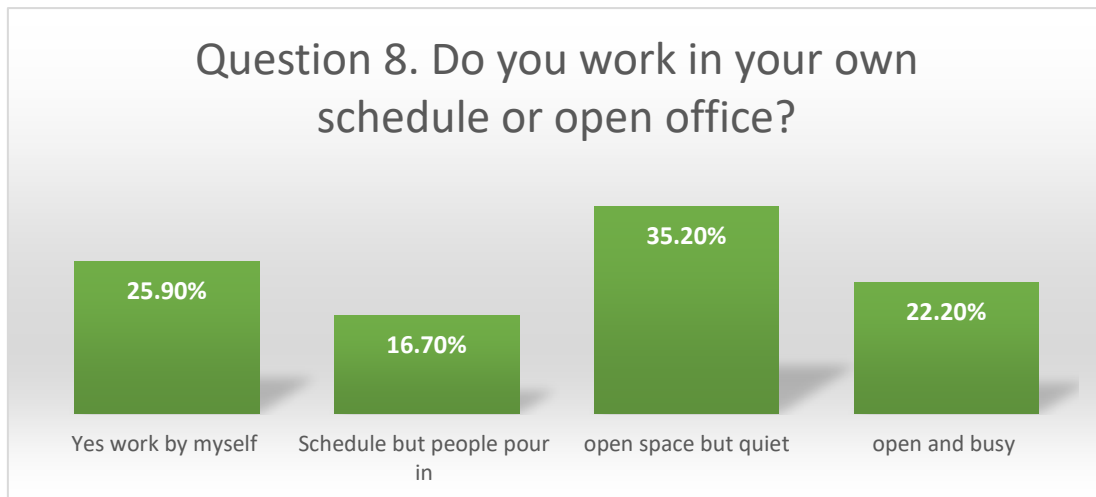
Based on the data presented in Figure 8.7. The other categories, such as "Not at all," "If there is a need," and "That is the norm," represent varying degrees of peer consultation. These categories indicate that some participants have infrequent or no regular consultations with peers, while others consult with their peers as needed or consider it the norm.

Question 8: Do you work on your own schedule or open office

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "Open space but quiet," indicating that 35.20% of the participants work in an open office environment, but it is relatively quiet.

Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated that they work in an open office environment that is quiet, indicating a preference for a collaborative yet calm workspace.

Figure 8.8: Do you work on your own schedule or open office



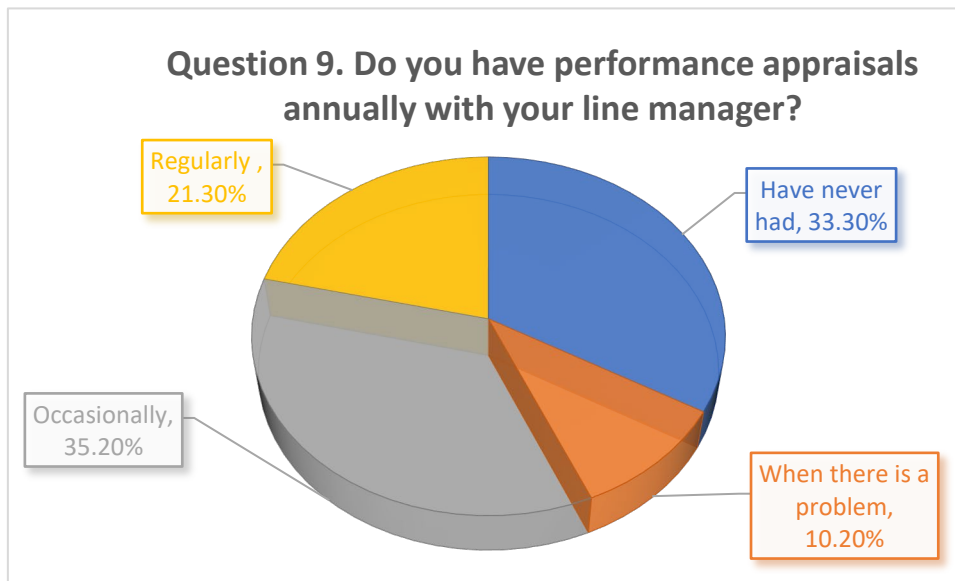
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.8. The responses regarding the participants' work environment in terms of working on their own schedule or in an open office are as follows: The other categories, such as "Yes, work by myself," "Schedule but disturbance in," and "Open and busy," represent different work environment preferences or conditions. These categories show that some participants work independently, some have scheduled work but experience disturbances, and others work in open spaces that are busy and potentially noisy.

Question 9: Do you have performance appraisals annually with your line manager

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "Occasionally," indicating that 35.20% of the participants have performance appraisals with their line manager on an intermittent basis. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated that they have performance appraisals with their line manager occasionally, proposing that these evaluations occur periodically but not on a fixed schedule or as a routine practice.

Figure 8.9: Performance appraisals annually with your line manager.



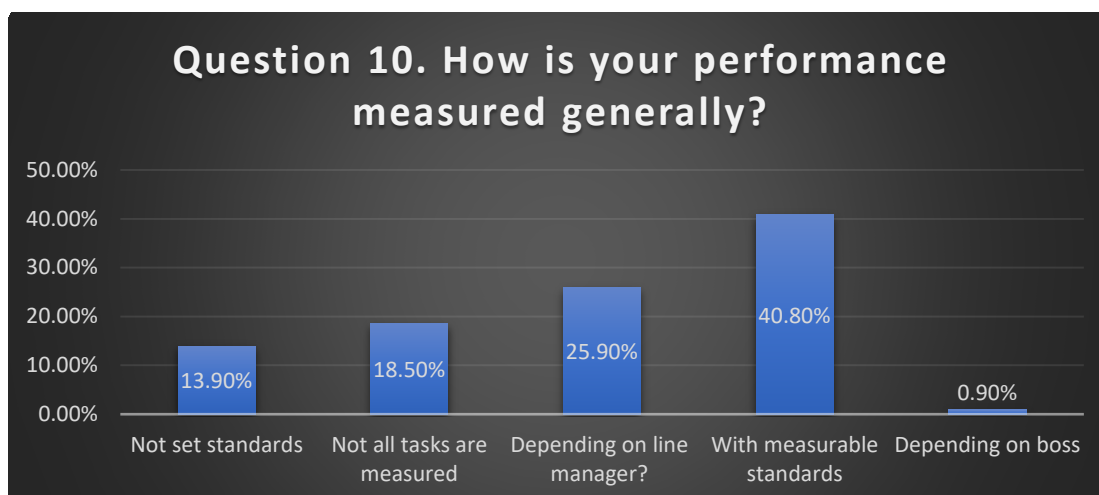
Source: Author's own construction

The other categories, such as "Have never had," "When there is a problem," and "Regularly," represent different frequencies or circumstances related to performance appraisals. These categories indicate that some participants have never experienced performance appraisals, some have them only when there is a problem, and others have regular performance appraisals.

Question 10: How is your performance measured generally.

Response: From this data, it can be observed that the highest percentage of participants (40.80%) responded that their performance is measured with measurable standards. This indicates that there are clear and defined criteria or metrics in place to assess their performance. Overall, the data highlights that having measurable standards for performance assessment is the most prevalent approach among the participants. This indicates the importance of clear and objective criteria for evaluating performance in the given context.

Figure 8.10: How is your performance measured generally.



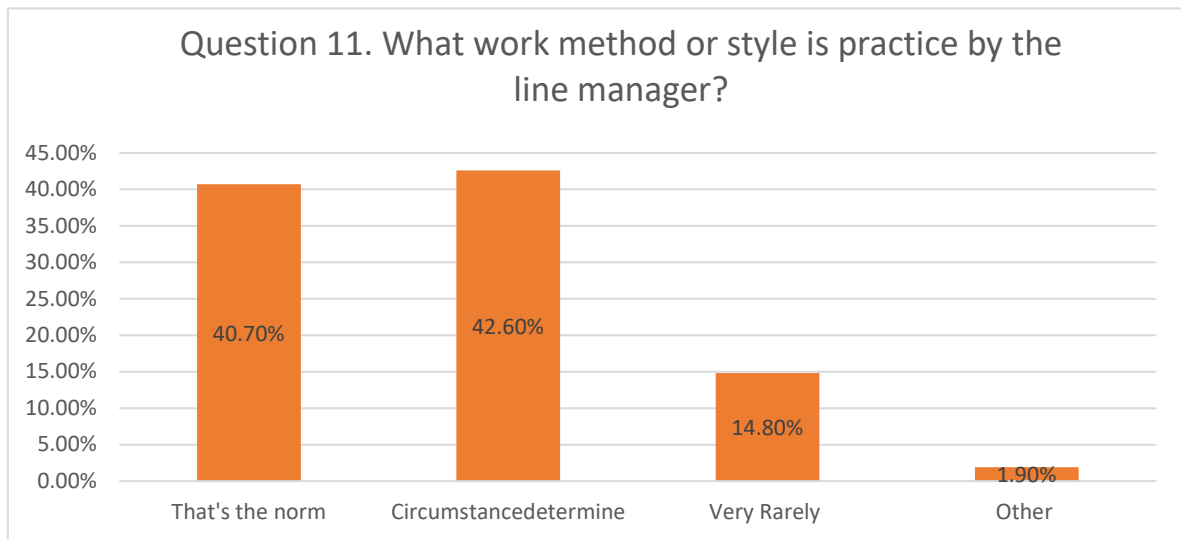
Source: Author's own construction

The second highest response (25.90%) indicates that some participants performance depends on their line manager. This implies that their performance evaluation may involve subjective assessment or discretion from their immediate supervisors. A significant proportion of participants (18.50%) indicated that not all tasks are measured, implying that there may be a lack of comprehensive performance measurement across all aspects of their work. A smaller percentage of participants (13.90%) responded that no standards are set for measuring their performance. This indicates that there may be a lack of clear guidelines or expectations for assessing their work. Lastly, a very small proportion of participants (0.90%) indicated that their performance depends on their boss. This suggests that their evaluation is heavily influenced by the judgment or preferences of their superiors.

Question 11: What work method or style is practised by the line manager

Response: According to the statistics provided by the respondents, the category with the highest percentage is "Circumstance determines," indicating that 42.60% of the participants experience a work method or style by their line manager that varies depending on the circumstances or specific situations. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated that the work method or style practiced by their line manager is determined by the circumstances or context, signifying a flexible approach based on the specific situation.

Figure 8.11: What work method or style is practised by the line manager



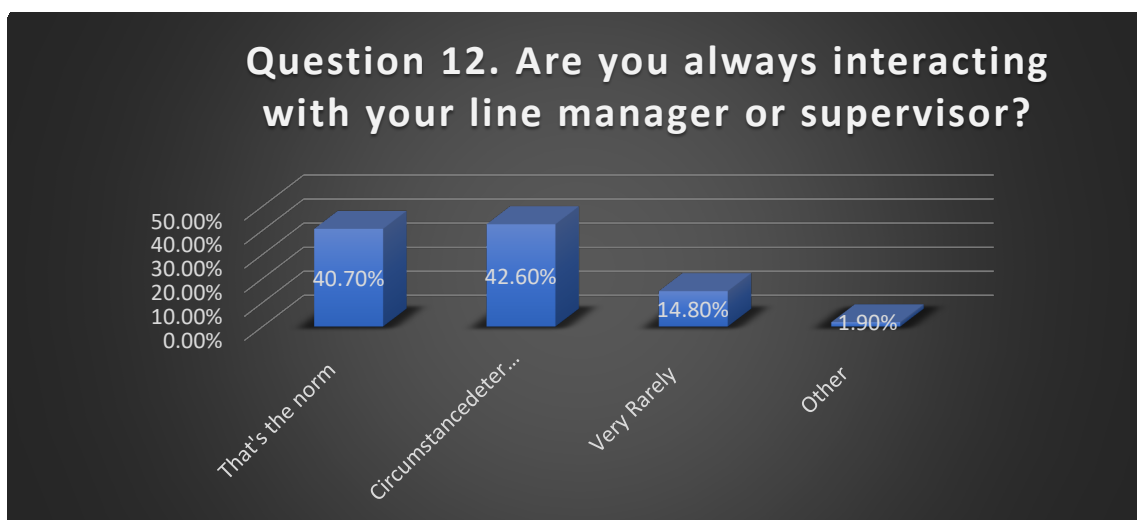
Source: Author's own construction

The other categories, such as "That is the norm," "Very Rarely," and "Other," represent different work method preferences or styles followed by the line manager. These categories indicate that some participants work under a consistent and established norm, while others experience rare instances of a particular work method or style, or have different methods not specified in the given options.

Question 12: Are you always interacting with your line manager or supervisor

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Circumstance determines," indicating that 42.60% of the participants have interactions with their line manager or supervisor that vary based on the circumstances or specific situations. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents indicated that their interaction with their line manager or supervisor is determined by the circumstances or context, rather than being a constant or fixed frequency

Figure 8.12: Are you always interacting with your line manager or supervisor



Source: Author's own construction

These categories propose that some participants have regular and expected interactions with their line manager or supervisor, while others have infrequent or periodic interactions. The other categories, such as “That is the norm,” “Very Rarely,” and “Other” represent different frequencies of interaction reported by the participants. These categories propose that some participants have regular and expected interactions with their line manager or supervisor, while others have infrequent or periodic interactions. The “Other” category may include participants who experience different interaction patterns not specified in the given options.

Table 8.1: Question 13. If other, please specify

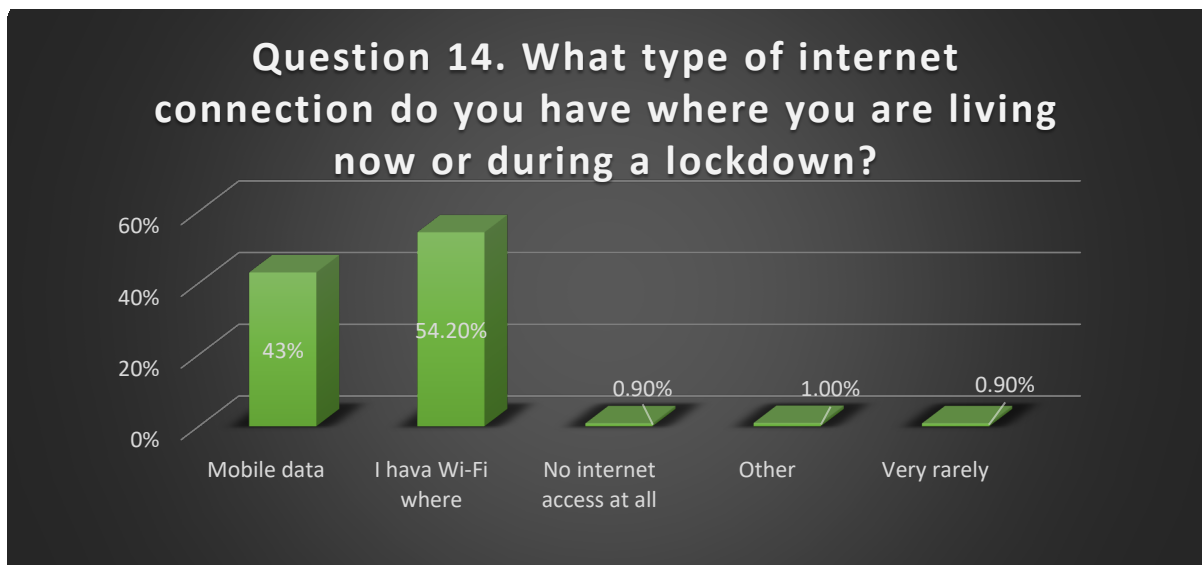
14. If other, please specify
I don't have a supervisor.
The work I do requires me to interact with my supervisor frequently as a second verification is needed on my work for grants to be in payment.
If there is a need

Source: Author's own construction

Question 14: What type of internet connection do you have

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "I have Wi-Fi where I live and have unlimited access (connected to a fibre network, ADSL, or a building network)," indicating that 54.20% of the participants have access to Wi-Fi with unlimited internet connectivity, which is connected to a reliable network infrastructure such as a fibre network, ADSL, or a building network. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a majority of the respondents indicated having Wi-Fi with unlimited access connected to a reliable network infrastructure as their primary internet connection while staying or during a lockdown.

Figure 8.13: What type of internet connection do you have



Source: Author's own construction

The other categories, such as "Mobile data," "No internet access at all," "Other," and "Very rarely," represent different scenarios or options reported by the participants. These categories indicate that some participants rely on mobile data for internet access, while a small percentage has no internet access, and others have different connectivity options not specified in the given options.

Question 15: Anything else you want to say about your work environment.

Response: See table 8.20

Table 8.2: Anything else you want to say about your work environment.

Very hostile- Hostile work environments can be emotionally draining. Engage in self-care activities outside of work, such as exercising, practicing mindfulness, or spending time with supportive friends and family.
I perform more tasks per day when working from home.
I do freelance work online, so my work environment is my space, and I determine how much I work.
Excellent- Recognizing and rewarding employees' efforts and achievements can enhance morale, motivation, and job satisfaction. This can take the form of verbal appreciation, public acknowledgment and bonuses.
Not micro-managed- A work environment that is not micro-managed typically allows employees a certain level of autonomy and trust in their abilities
I love my work environment- Promoting employee well-being through wellness initiatives, such as providing access to fitness facilities, offering mental health resources, or organizing wellness programs, can contribute to a positive work environment. Supporting employees' physical and mental health can lead to higher job satisfaction and productivity.
It's convenient, saves money, and is more productive than working in an office.
Good atmosphere- Offering flexibility in work arrangements, such as flexible hours or remote work options, can contribute to a positive work atmosphere. Flexibility allows employees to better manage their personal obligations, promotes work-life balance, and can increase overall job satisfaction
It's a productive workspace- Streamlining processes and workflows can significantly improve productivity. Identifying bottlenecks, eliminating unnecessary steps, and utilizing technology or automation tools can save time and reduce friction, enabling employees to work more efficiently.
High-pressure environment- high-pressure work environment is unique, and strategies that work for one person may not work for another. It's important to find coping mechanisms and strategies that are effective and align with individual needs and circumstances
I am enjoying working as an admin- every work environment is unique, and what works for one person may not work for another. It's important to find a work environment that aligns with values, goals, and preferences to truly enjoy work as an admin
Nothing much, but all I can say is I love my job.
Very challenging and, at times, stressful- Managing workload effectively is crucial in a challenging work environment. Prioritize tasks, set realistic deadlines, and communicate with supervisor or team members about capacity. Breaking down complex projects into smaller, manageable tasks can make them feel more achievable

Performance is mandatory at my workplace as we have norms and standards. Some peers have several clients that they must assist per day in order to achieve targets.
Working from home is easy for me than being at the office with a lot of distractions from other employees
Work in a very SMART digital environment shaped by changing digital landscape

Source: Author's own construction

Many organisations shifted to remote work arrangements to ensure the safety of their employees. This transition brought about changes in communication, collaboration, and work dynamics, with virtual meetings and online collaboration tools becoming essential. With remote work, employees often had more flexibility in managing their schedules, allowing them to balance work and personal commitments. This flexibility helped individuals adapt to the challenges posed by the pandemic, such as childcare responsibilities or other personal obligations.

The pandemic accelerated digital transformation in various industries. Organisations embraced technology and digital tools to facilitate remote work, automate processes, and maintain productivity. This shift necessitated upskilling and adapting to new digital platforms and workflows. Employers recognised the importance of supporting employee well-being during the pandemic. Mental health initiatives, virtual wellness programs, and flexible time off policies were implemented to address the increased stress and uncertainty faced by employees.

The reliance on virtual communication tools fostered innovative ways of connecting and collaborating. Teams found creative solutions to maintain effective communication and engagement, utilising video conferencing, instant messaging, and project management platforms. The COVID-19 pandemic required organisations and individuals to be adaptable and resilient in the face of uncertainty.

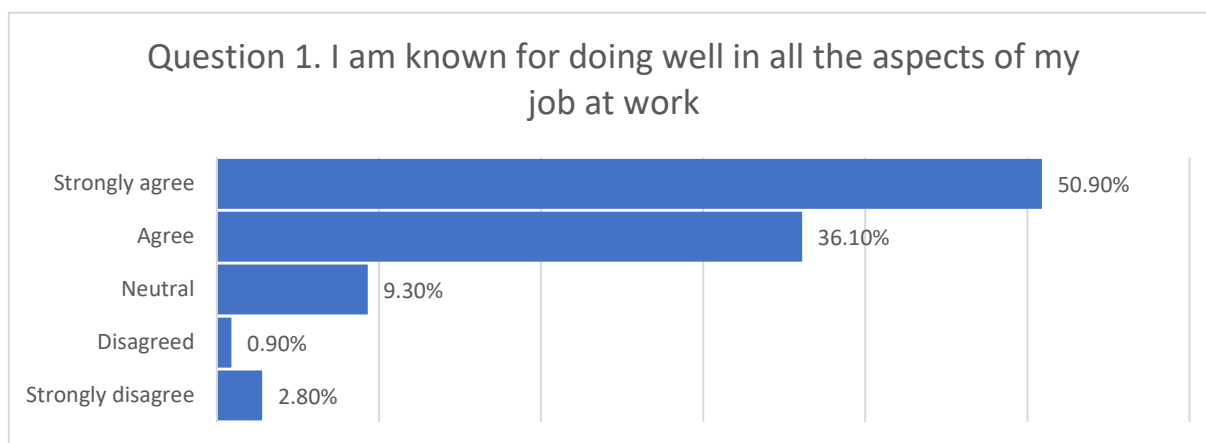
SECTION B: LIKERT SCALE

MANAGER'S VIEW OF MY PERFORMANCE

Question 1: I am known for doing well in all aspects of my job at work

Response: The graph indicates that the majority of participants (50.90%) strongly agree with the aspects of their work environment. This indicates that they have a highly positive perception of their work environment. Based on this data, it can be concluded that participants generally have a positive perception of their work environment, with a majority strongly agreeing with the aspects presented in the graph.

Figure 8.14: I am known for doing well in all aspects of my job at work



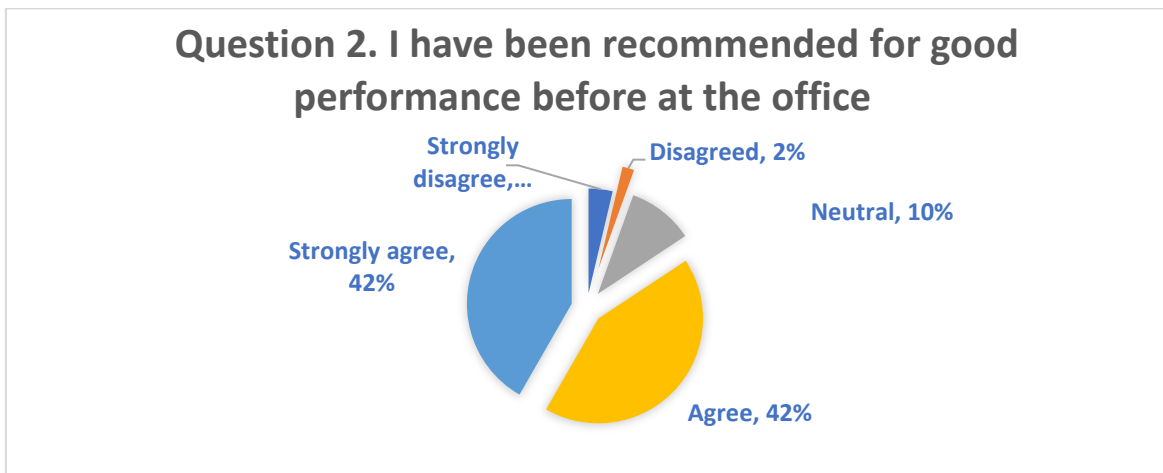
Source: Author's own construction

A significant proportion of participants (36.10%) also agree with the aspects of their work environment, further reinforcing the overall positive sentiment. Only a small percentage of participants expressed a neutral (9.30%), disagree (0.90%), or strongly disagree (2.80%) response, indicating that the majority of respondents had a favorable opinion about their work environment.

Question 2: I have been recommended for good performance before at the office

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 42.60% of the participants agree that they have been recommended for good performance before at the office. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that they have received recommendation for their good performance in the office.

Figure 8.15: I have been recommended for good performance before at the office



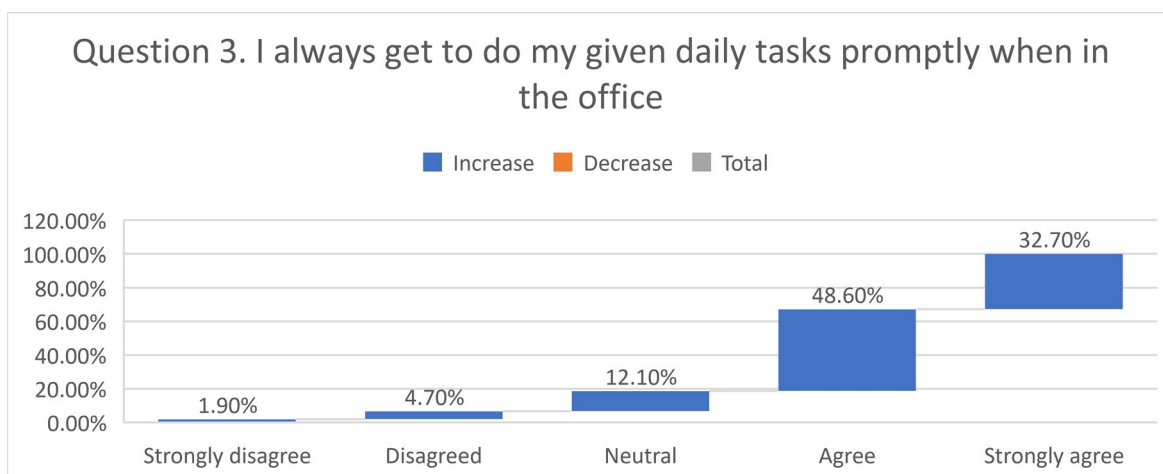
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.15. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicates that some participants hold a neutral stance, while a small percentage disagrees or strongly disagrees with the statement. On the other hand, a substantial number of participants strongly agree that they have been recommended for good performance.

Question 16: I always get to do my given daily tasks promptly when in the office

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 48.60% of the participants agree that they are given daily tasks promptly when in the office. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that they receive their daily tasks promptly when in the office.

Figure 8.16: I always get to do my given daily tasks promptly when in the office



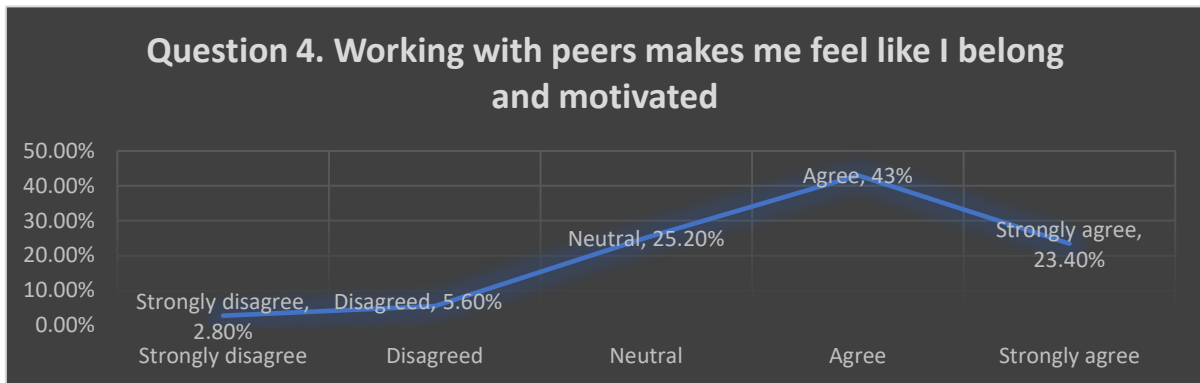
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.16. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories imply that some participants hold a neutral stance, while a small percentage disagrees or strongly disagrees with the statement. On the other hand, a notable number of participants strongly agree that they are given daily tasks promptly.

Question 4: Working with peers makes me feel like I belong and motivated

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 43% of the participants agree that they are working with peers who make them feel like they belong and are motivated. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that they work with peers who make them feel like they belong and are motivated.

Figure 8.17: Working with peers makes me feel like I belong and motivated



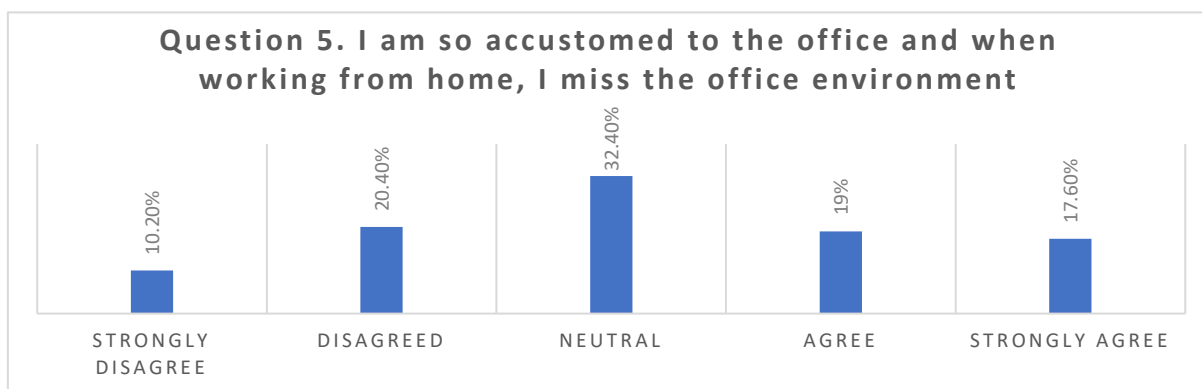
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.17. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories propose that a significant portion of the participants holds a neutral stance or have differing opinions on the matter. However, a notable number of participants strongly agree that they work with peers who create a sense of belonging and motivation.

Question 5: I am so accustomed to the office, and when working from home, I miss the office environment

Response: According to the graph, the highest percentage of responses is in the "Neutral" category, with 32.40% of participants selecting this option. This indicates that a significant portion of participants neither strongly agrees nor disagrees with the statement that they miss the office when working from home. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that participants' opinions are divided, with a significant number expressing neutrality or disagreement regarding missing the office when working from home.

Figure 8.18: Accustomed to the office, when working from home, I miss the office



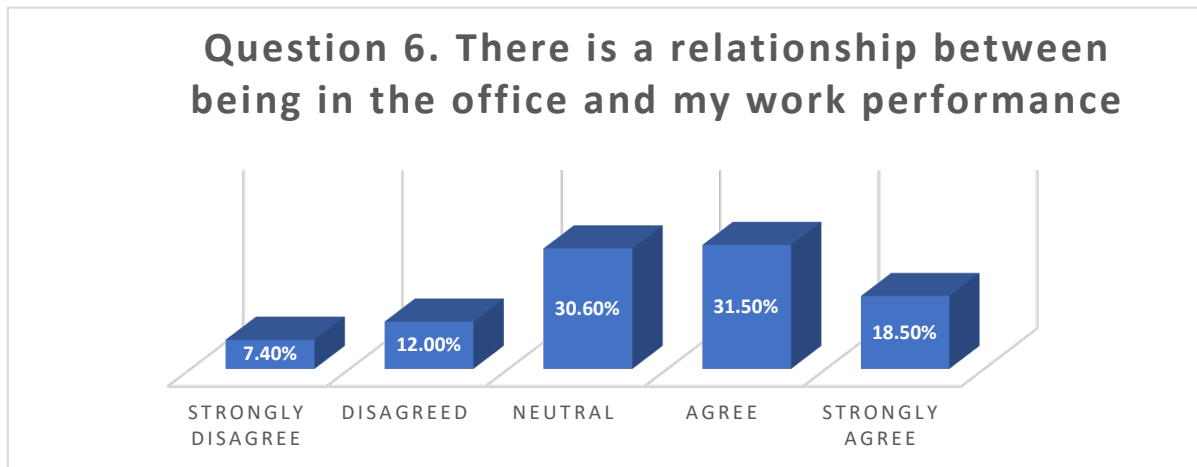
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided for Figure 8.18. The "Disagree" and "Strongly disagree" categories combined account for 30.60% of responses, indicating that a notable percentage of participants do not feel a strong sense of missing the office when working remotely. On the other hand, 36.60% of participants either agree or strongly agree that they miss the office when working from home, which is lower than the percentage of neutral and disagree responses.

Question 6: There is a relationship between being in the office and my work performance

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 31.50% of the participants agree that there is a positive relationship between being in the office and their work performance. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that there is a positive relationship between being in the office and their work performance.

Figure 8.19: There is a relationship between being in the office and my work performance



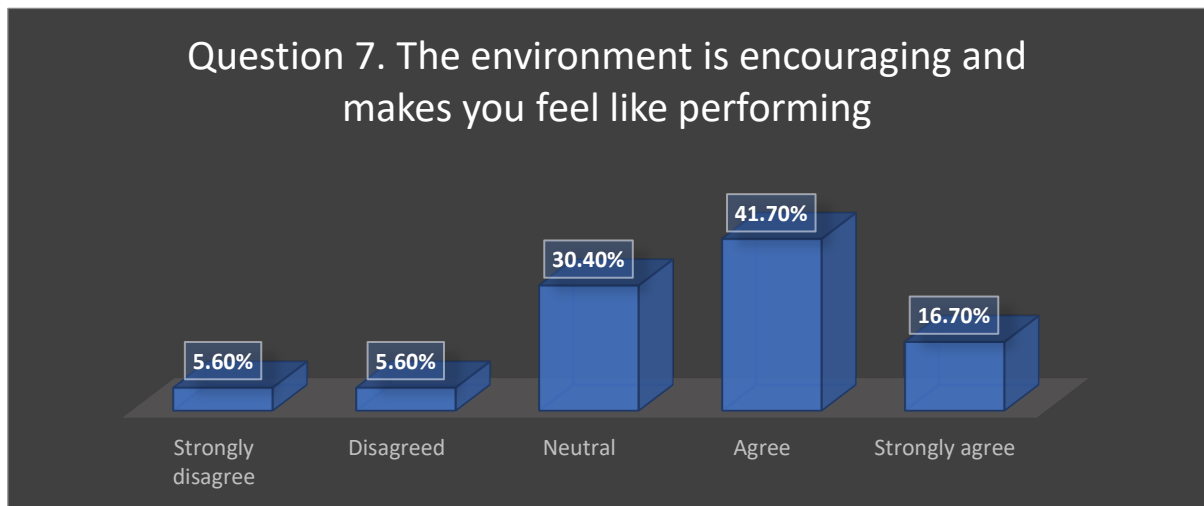
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.19. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories propose that participants have varying opinions on the relationship between being in the office and their work performance. The percentages for agreement, disagreement, and strong agreement or disagreement are relatively close, with a slightly higher percentage in the agreement category.

Question 7: The environment is encouraging and makes you feel like performing

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 41.70% of the participants agree that their work environment is encouraging and makes them feel like they are performing. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that their work environment is encouraging and makes them feel like they are performing.

Figure 8.20: The environment is encouraging and makes you feel like performing



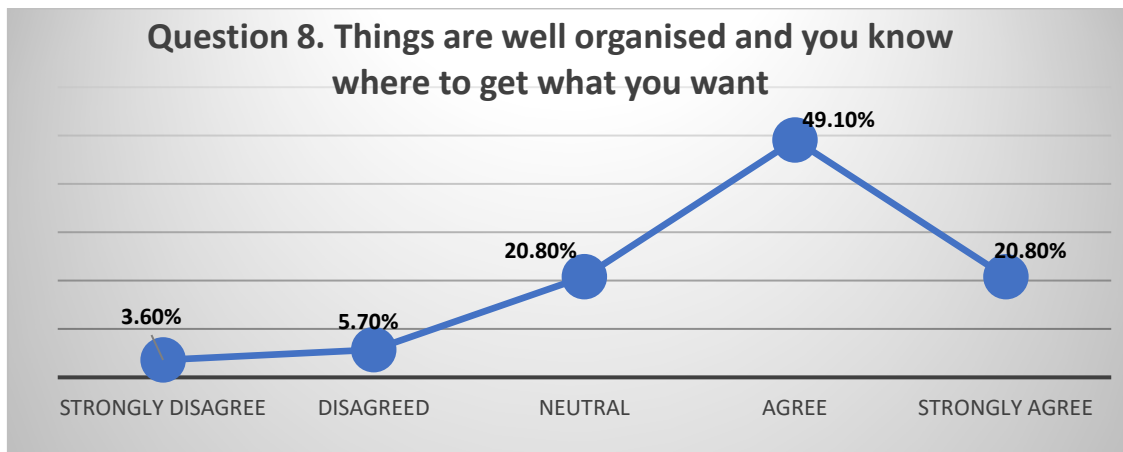
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.20. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying opinions on the encouraging nature of their work environment and how it impacts their sense of performance. The percentages for agreement and neutral responses are relatively higher compared to disagreement or strong agreement/disagreement.

Question 8: Things are well organised and you know where to get what you want

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 49.10% of the participants agree that their job activities are well organised and they know where to find what they want. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that their job activities are well organised, and they know where to get what they want.

Figure 8.21: Things are well organised and you know where to get what you want



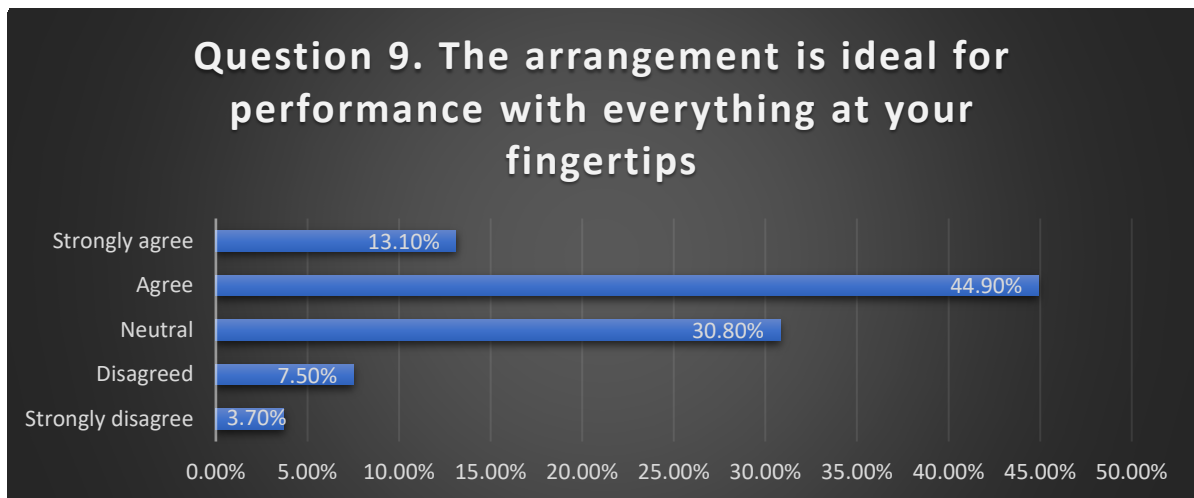
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.21. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying opinions on the organisation of their job activities and their ability to access what they need. The percentages for agreement and strongly agree are relatively close and significantly higher than the percentages for disagreement or strong disagreement.

Question 1: The arrangement is ideal for performance with everything at your fingertips

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 44.90% of the participants agree that their work arrangement is ideal for performance and that everything they need is easily accessible. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that their work arrangement is ideal for performance and that they have everything they need at their fingertips.

Figure 8.22: The arrangement is ideal for performance with everything at your fingertips



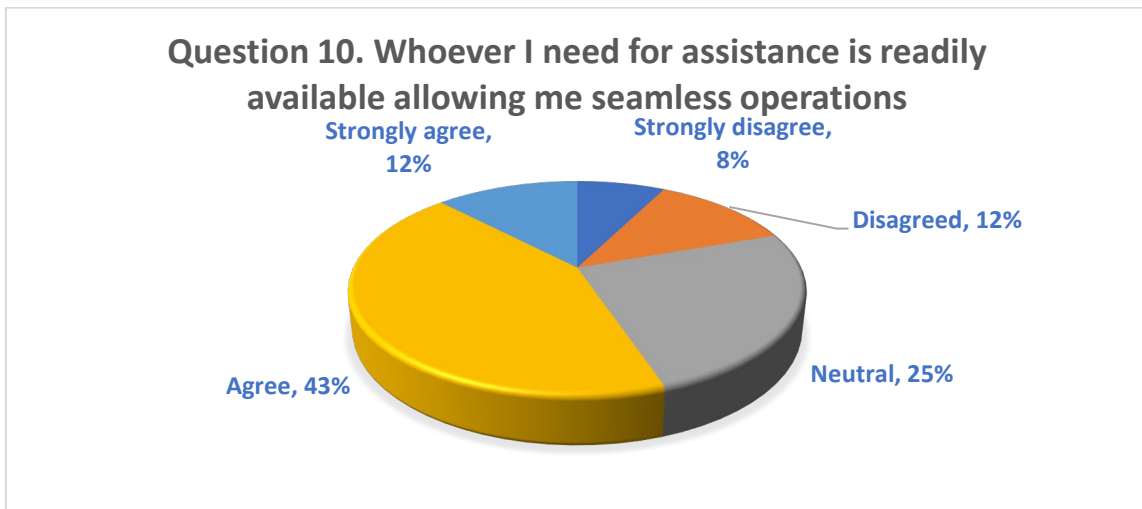
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.22. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying opinions on the suitability of their work arrangement for optimal performance and the ease of access to resources. The percentages for agreement and strongly agree are higher than the percentages for disagreement or strong disagreement.

Question 10: Whoever I need for assistance is readily available, allowing me seamless operations

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 43% of the participants agree that their co-workers are approachable and available to help, contributing to efficient operations. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that their co-workers are approachable and available to help, leading to efficient operations.

Figure 8.23: Whoever I need for assistance is readily available, allowing me seamless operations



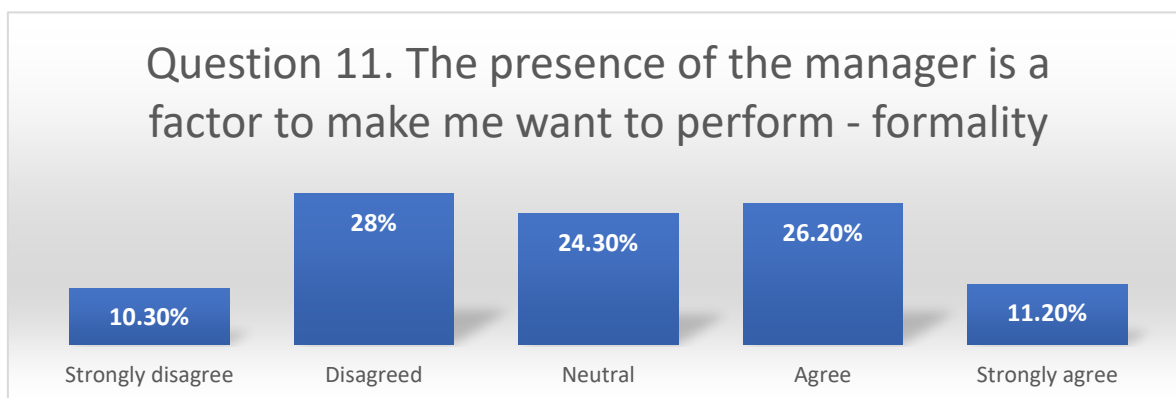
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.23. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying opinions on the approachability and availability of their co-workers for assistance. The percentages for agreement and strongly agree are higher compared to the percentages for disagreement or strong disagreement.

Question 11: The presence of the manager is a factor to make me want to perform

Response: According to the statistics provided, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed," indicating that 28% of the participants disagree that their manager makes them perform based on formality. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents disagree that their manager makes them perform based on formality.

Figure 8.24: The presence of the manager is a factor to make me want to perform



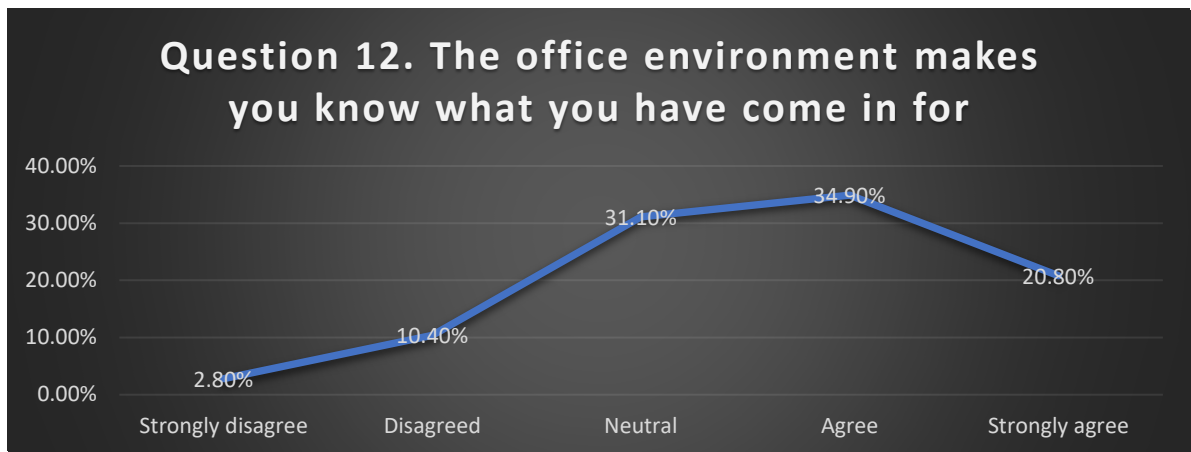
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data presented in Figure 8.24. The other categories, such as "Agree," "Neutral," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories imply that participants have varying opinions on whether their manager's expectations are based on formality. The percentages for disagreement and strongly disagree are higher compared to the percentages for agreement or strong agreement.

Question 12: The office environment makes you know what you have come in for.

Response: According to the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 34.90% of the participants agree that the office environment makes them know what they must do at work. Based on the data, it can be concluded that a significant portion of the respondents agree that the office environment provides clarity and enables them to understand what they need to do at work.

Figure 8.25: The office environment makes you know what you have come in for.



Source: Author's own construction

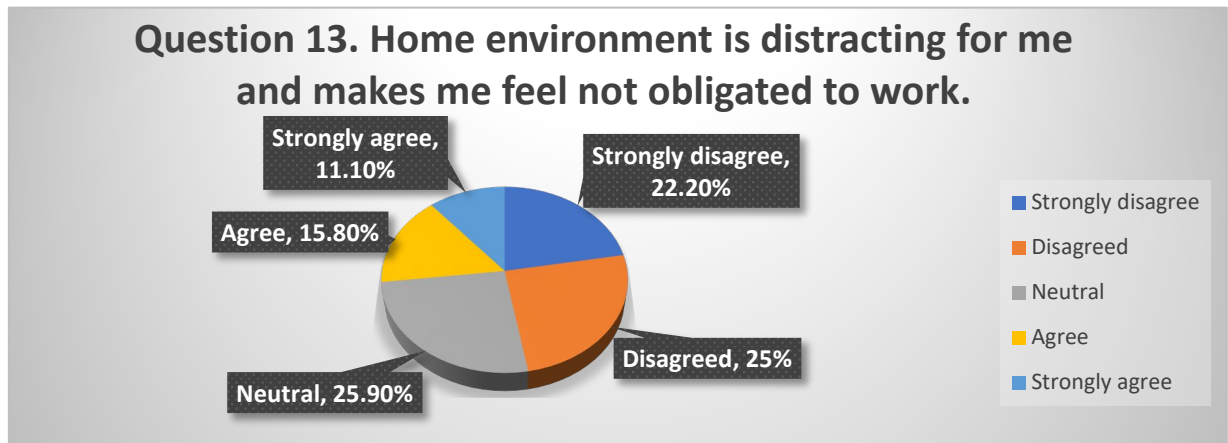
Based on the data provided in Figure 8.25. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying opinions on whether the office environment effectively communicates their work tasks and responsibilities. However, the percentage for agreement is higher compared to the percentages for disagreement or strong disagreement.

HOME WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Question 13: Home environment is distracting for me and makes me feel not obligated to work.

Response: In this case, the highest rating goes to the neutral category, indicating that a significant portion of the participants neither strongly agrees nor disagrees with the statement. It indicates that they have mixed feelings or perceptions about the home environment being distracting and affecting their sense of obligation to work.

Figure 8.26: Home environment is distracting for me and makes me feel not obligated to work.



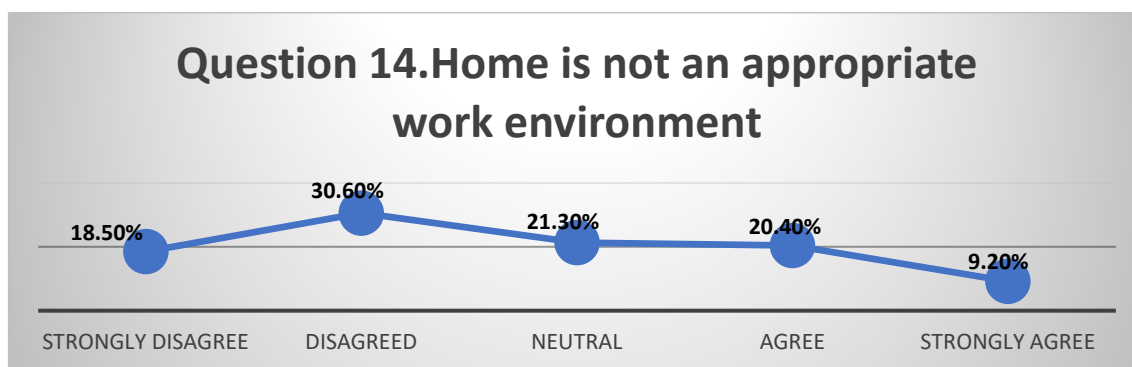
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided in Figure 8.26, it can be observed that the responses regarding the distracting nature of the home environment and its impact on work are distributed as follows: Agree 15.80%, Neutral 25.90%, Disagreed 25%, Strongly disagree 22.20%, Strongly agree 11.10%. Neutral is rated as the highest according to the graph.

Question 14: Home is not an appropriate work environment

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed," indicating that 30.60% of the participants do not believe that working from home could be an appropriate work environment. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents have reservations or concerns about the suitability of a remote work setup. Overall, the data indicates a range of opinions regarding the appropriateness of working from home as a work environment, with a higher percentage of participants expressing disagreement with the idea.

Figure 8.27: Home is not an appropriate work environment



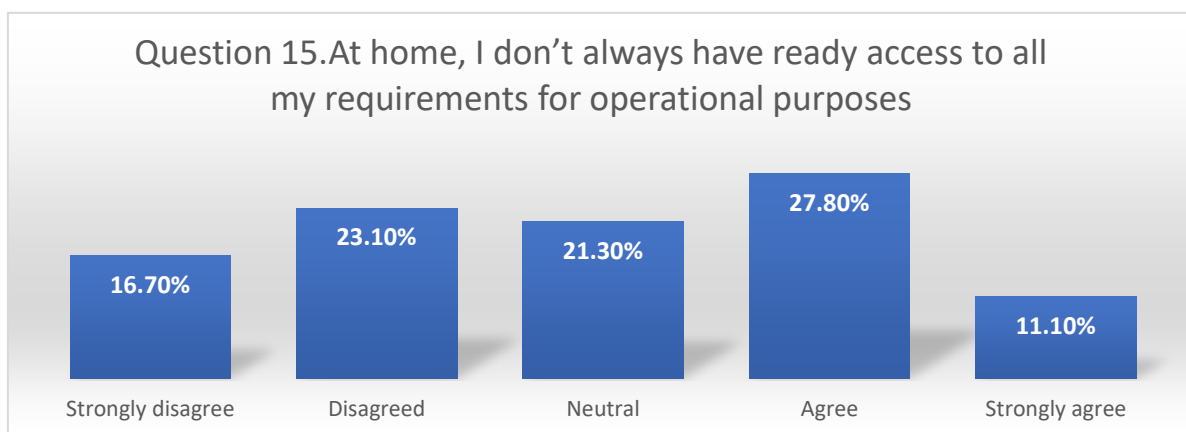
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data provided in Figure 8.27. The other categories, such as "Agree," "Neutral," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories imply that participants have diverse opinions on whether working from home is an appropriate work environment. It is important to consider that these statistics reflect the perspectives of the respondents and may be influenced by factors such as their specific job roles, personal preferences, and previous experiences with remote work. Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted work arrangements and attitudes towards remote work, and these responses may reflect the specific context during that time.

Question 15: At home, I don't always have ready access to all my requirements for operational purposes

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 27.80% of the participants feel that they have ready access to all necessary operational needs at home. This indicate that a significant portion of the respondents believe that they have the resources and tools required to effectively carry out their work responsibilities in a remote setting. Overall, the data indicates a range of responses regarding access to necessary operational needs at home, with a slightly higher percentage of participants expressing agreement with the statement. This indicate that a notable portion of the respondents feel adequately equipped to perform their work tasks from home.

Figure 8.28: At home, I don't always have ready access to all my requirements for operational purposes



Source: Author's own construction

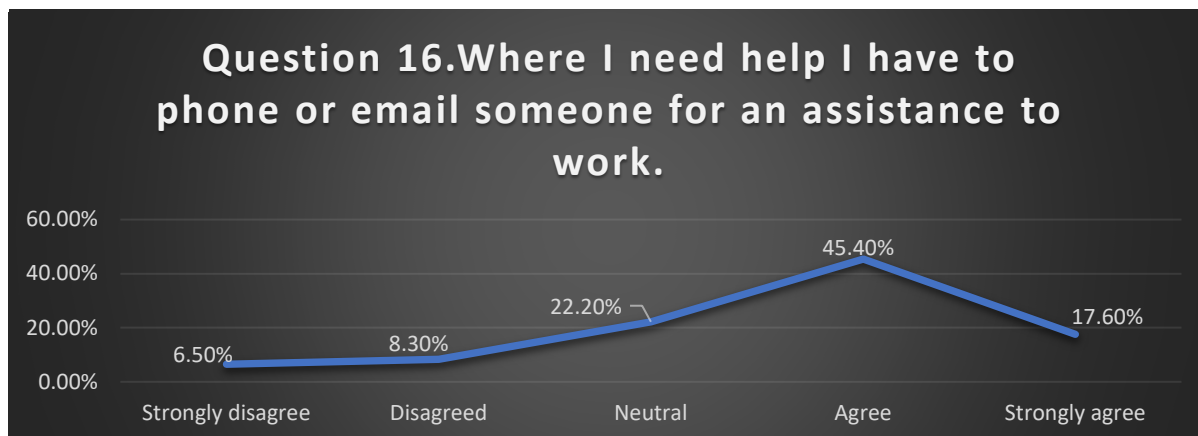
According to the data provided in Figure 8.28. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories imply that participants have varying degrees of access to necessary operational needs at home. It is important to note that the ability to have ready access to operational needs at home can be influenced by factors such as the nature of the work, available technology, personal resources, and support from the employer. Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic has necessitated remote work arrangements for many individuals, which may have impacted the availability of resources and infrastructure for working from home.

Question 16: Where I need help, I have to phone or email someone for assistance to work.

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 45.40% of the participants agree that they needed to contact someone by phone or email to get things done. This shows that a significant portion of the respondents feel that they require assistance or communication with others to accomplish their tasks effectively. Overall, the data indicates a range of responses regarding the need to contact someone by phone or email to get things done, with a relatively higher percentage of participants expressing agreement. This shows that a

significant portion of the respondents rely on communication and interaction with others to accomplish their work tasks effectively.

Figure 8.29: Where I need help, I have to phone or email someone for assistance to work.



Source: Author's own construction

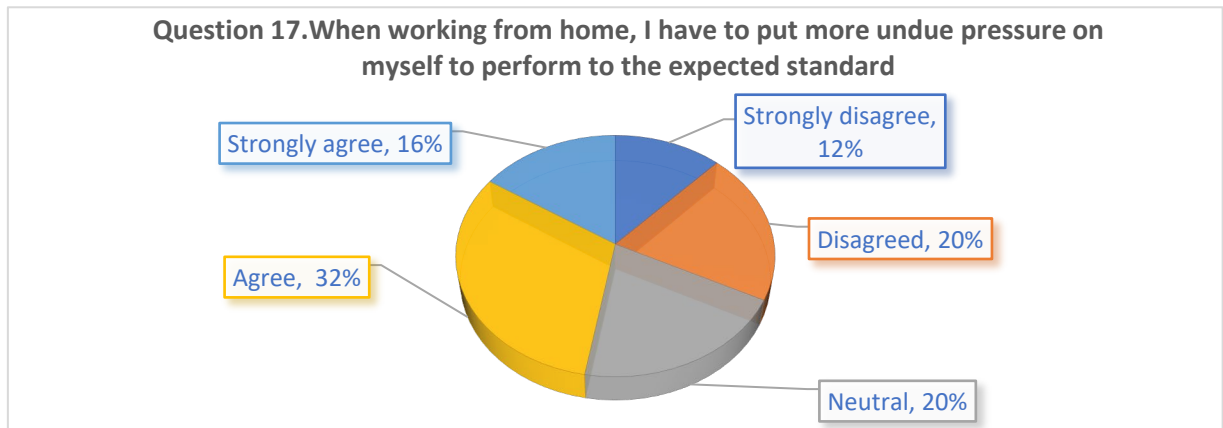
According to the data provided in Figure 8.29. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying degrees of reliance on contacting others for support or guidance in their work. It is worth noting that the need to contact someone for assistance may vary depending on the nature of the work, the complexity of tasks, and the level of autonomy provided in the work environment. Additionally, the shift to remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic may have influenced the need for virtual communication and collaboration.

Question 17: When working from home, I have to put more undue pressure on myself to perform

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 32% of the participants agree that they perform to the expected standard at home. This shows that a significant portion of the respondents feel that they meet the required performance expectations while working remotely. Overall, the data indicates a range of responses regarding participants' perception of meeting the expected standard at home, with a relatively higher percentage expressing agreement.

This imply that a significant portion of the respondents feel that they are performing to the expected standard while working remotely

Figure 8.30: When working from home, I have to put more undue pressure on myself to perform



Source: Author's own construction

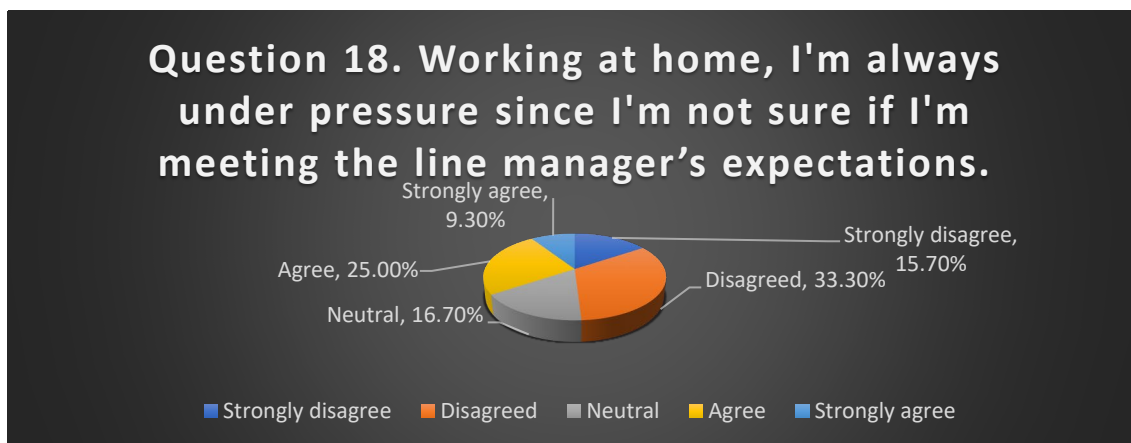
According to the data presented in Figure 8.30. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent different levels of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have varying perceptions of their performance in meeting the expected standards while working from home. It is important to note that the perception of meeting expected standards can be influenced by various factors, including individual work habits, self-discipline, availability of resources, and the ability to effectively manage work-life balance in a remote setting. The transition to remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic may have also affected participants' perceptions of their performance.

Question 18: Working at home, I'm always under pressure since I am not sure if meeting the line manager's expectations.

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed," indicating that 33.30% of the participants disagree that working from home motivates them to work under pressure because they are unsure if they are meeting their line manager's expectations. This shows that a significant portion of the respondents do not feel motivated to work under pressure in a remote work environment. Overall, the data indicates a range of responses regarding whether

working from home motivates participants to work under pressure due to uncertainty about meeting their line manager's expectations, with a relatively higher percentage expressing disagreement. This means that a significant portion of the respondents do not perceive working from home as a strong motivator for working under pressure in relation to their line manager's expectations.

Figure 8.31: Working at home, I'm always under pressure since I am not sure if meeting the line manager's expectations.



Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.31. The other categories, such as "Agree," "Neutral," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent varying degrees of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories imply that participants have diverse perspectives regarding the motivational aspects and pressure associated with working from home and meeting their line manager's expectations. The transition to remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic may have brought about changes in work dynamics and the evaluation of performance, leading to different perceptions and motivations among participants.

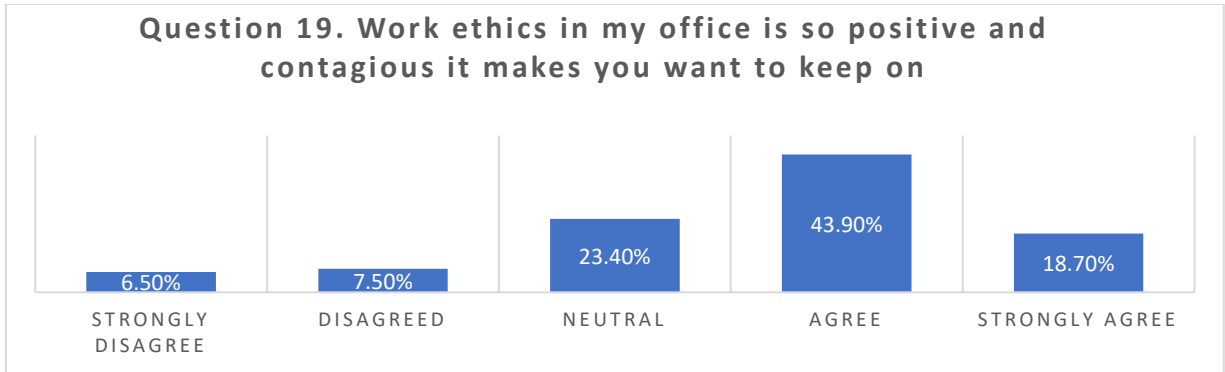
IMPACT OF PEERS ON PERFORMANCE

Question 19: Work ethics in my office is so positive and contagious it makes you want to keep on

Response: According to the graph, the highest rating goes to the "Agree" category, indicating that a significant portion of the respondents agree that the positive and contagious working ethics in the office motivate them to continue working. This shows

that the office environment plays a significant role in fostering a positive work culture and inspiring employees to stay engaged and committed to their work.

Figure 8.32: Work ethics in my office is so positive and contagious it makes you want to keep on



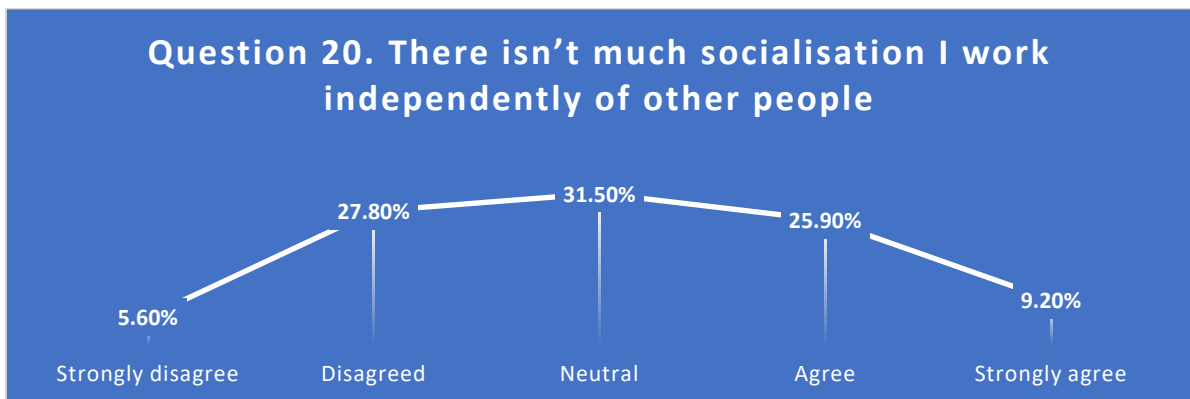
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided in Figure 8.32. The statistics are as follows: Agree 43.90%, Neutral 23.40%, Disagreed 7.50%, Strongly disagree 6.50%, Strongly agree 18.70%. Agree is rated as the highest according to the graph.

Question: There isn't much socialisation I work independently of other people

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Neutral," indicating that 31.50% of the participants neither agree nor disagree with the statement. This shows that a significant portion of the respondents have mixed opinions or are unsure about the level of socialisation when working independently. However, it is important to consider that individual preferences and work requirements can vary, and some individuals may seek more socialisation while others may prefer a more independent working style. It is essential to create a balance between independent work and opportunities for social interaction to cater to the diverse needs and preferences of employees.

Figure 8.33: There isn't much socialisation I work independently of other people.



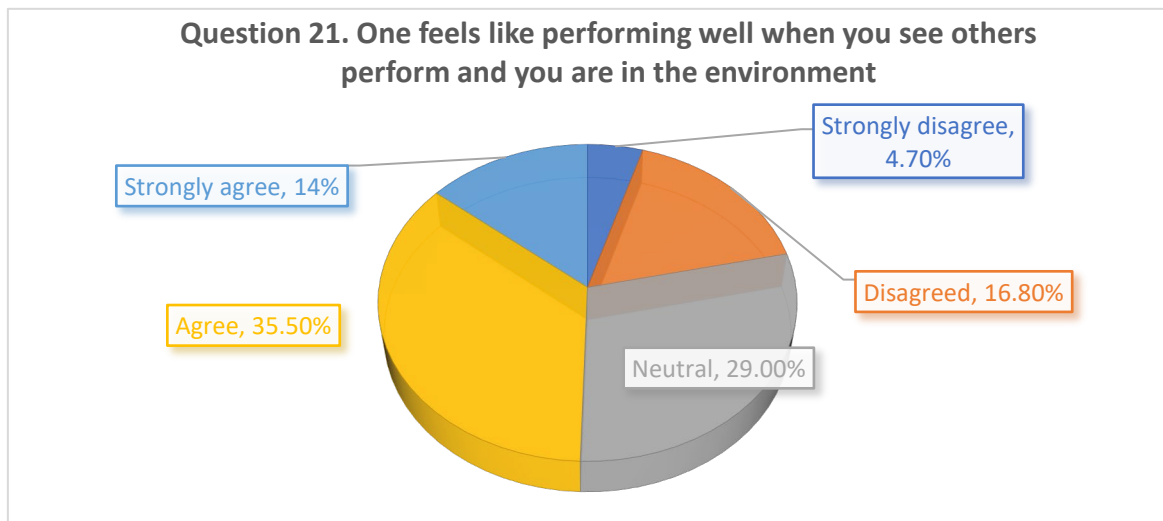
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.33. Other categories, such as "Agree," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent varying degrees of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have diverse perspectives on the extent of socialisation when working independently. The data implies that the socialisation aspect when working independently is not strongly perceived by the respondents. This can indicate that working independently may lead to less social interaction compared to working in a collaborative environment.

Question 21: One feels like performing well when you see others perform and you are in the environment

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 35.50% of the participants feel like performing well when they see others perform and when they are in the work environment. This means that a significant portion of the respondents are motivated and inspired by observing the performance of others. It is important for organisations to foster a supportive and collaborative work culture that encourages individuals to excel by creating opportunities for knowledge sharing, recognition, and learning from others' successes.

Figure 8.34: One feels like performing well when you see others perform and you are in the environment



Source: Author's own construction

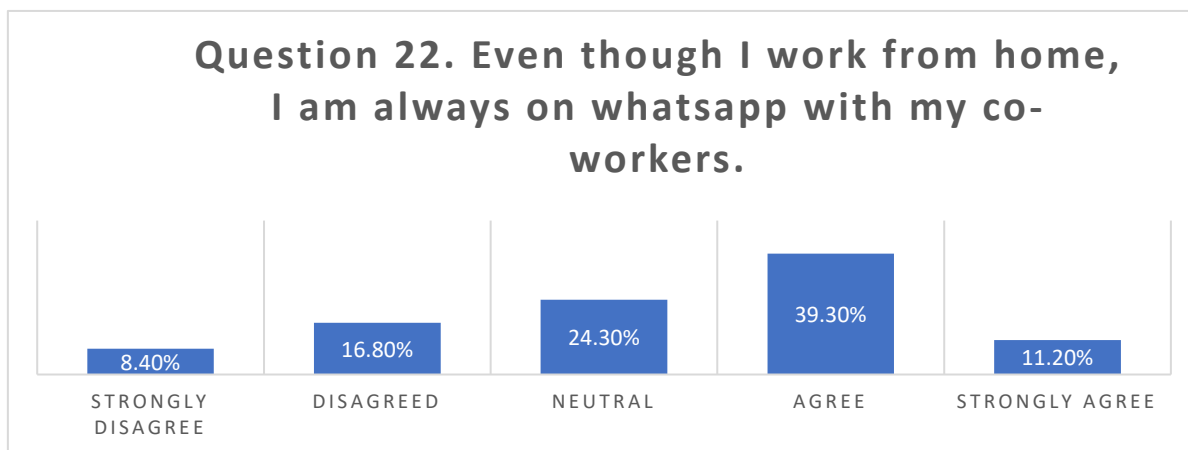
According to the data presented in Figure 8.34. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent varying degrees of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have diverse perspectives on the extent to which the performance of others influences their own performance. The data implies that observing others perform well and being in a conducive work environment can positively impact one's own performance, as indicated by the majority of respondents agreeing with this statement. This suggests that a positive and motivating work environment, where individuals can witness and learn from the achievements of their colleagues, can contribute to enhanced performance and productivity.

Question 22: Even though I work from home, I am always on WhatsApp with my co-workers

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree," indicating that 39.30% of the participants agree that they are always on WhatsApp with their co-workers, even when working from home. This shows that a significant portion of the respondents use WhatsApp as a communication tool to stay connected and collaborate with their colleagues, regardless of their remote work setup. It is worth noting that while the majority of participants agree with the statement, there is still a notable percentage of participants who have different levels of agreement or

disagreement. This could be attributed to varying work preferences, communication styles, or job requirements. Organisations can consider leveraging and supporting communication tools like WhatsApp, along with other collaboration platforms, to enable effective remote communication and teamwork, keeping in mind the individual preferences and needs of their employees.

Figure 8.35: Even though I work from home, I am always on WhatsApp with my co-workers.



Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.35. The other categories, such as "Neutral," "Disagreed," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent varying degrees of agreement or disagreement with the statement. These categories indicate that participants have diverse experiences and usage patterns when it comes to using WhatsApp for communication with co-workers while working remotely. The data implies that WhatsApp is a commonly used communication channel among participants for maintaining contact and coordination with colleagues, even in a remote work environment. This indicate that instant messaging platforms like WhatsApp can play a role in facilitating virtual teamwork, information sharing, and maintaining a sense of connection and collaboration among remote team members.

Question 23: I never miss my office colleagues because we always on Microsoft teams chatting

Response: Based on the statistics, the categories with the highest percentages are "Disagreed" and "Neutral." This indicates that a significant portion of the participants

(33.00% each) either disagree or feel neutral about the statement, indicating that they do miss their office colleagues despite being frequently engaged in Microsoft Teams chats. Organisations can acknowledge the limitations of digital communication tools and aim to create a balance between virtual interactions and opportunities for in-person or face-to-face interactions where possible. This can help address the need for social connection and maintain a sense of belonging within the workplace, even in remote work settings.

Figure 8.36: I never miss my office colleagues because we always on Microsoft teams chatting



Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.36. The other categories, such as "Agree," "Strongly disagree," and "Strongly agree," represent lower percentages. These categories indicate that a smaller percentage of participants either agree, strongly disagree, or strongly agree with the statement.

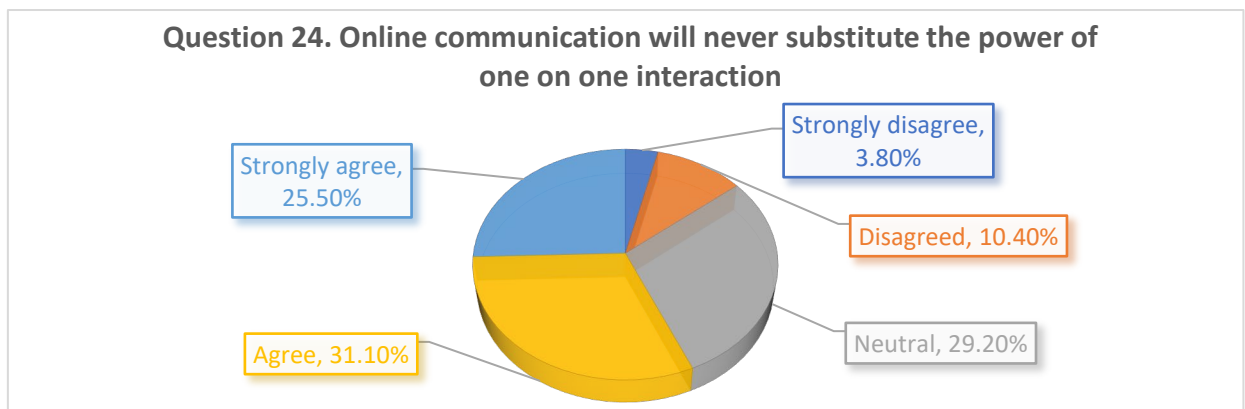
The data imply that while Microsoft Teams chat may provide a means of communication and collaboration, it does not fully replace the sense of connection and interaction that participants had with their office colleagues. It implies that despite the availability of digital communication tools, there can still be a longing or a desire for in-person interaction and engagement. It is important to consider that the preference for communication channels and the level of satisfaction with remote communication methods can vary among individuals. Some participants may find Microsoft Teams

chats to be effective for collaboration and reducing the feeling of missing office colleagues, while others may not experience the same level of connection or fulfillment.

Question 24: Online communication will never substitute the power of one on one interaction

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 31.10%. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants agree with the statement, indicating that they believe online communication cannot fully replace the power and effectiveness of face-to-face or one-on-one interactions. It is essential to consider these perspectives when designing work environments and communication strategies, aiming to strike a balance between leveraging online tools and creating opportunities for meaningful in-person interactions when possible. Recognising the limitations of online communication can help organisations promote stronger relationships, understanding, and collaboration among their employees.

Figure 8.37: Online communication will never substitute the power of one on one in interaction



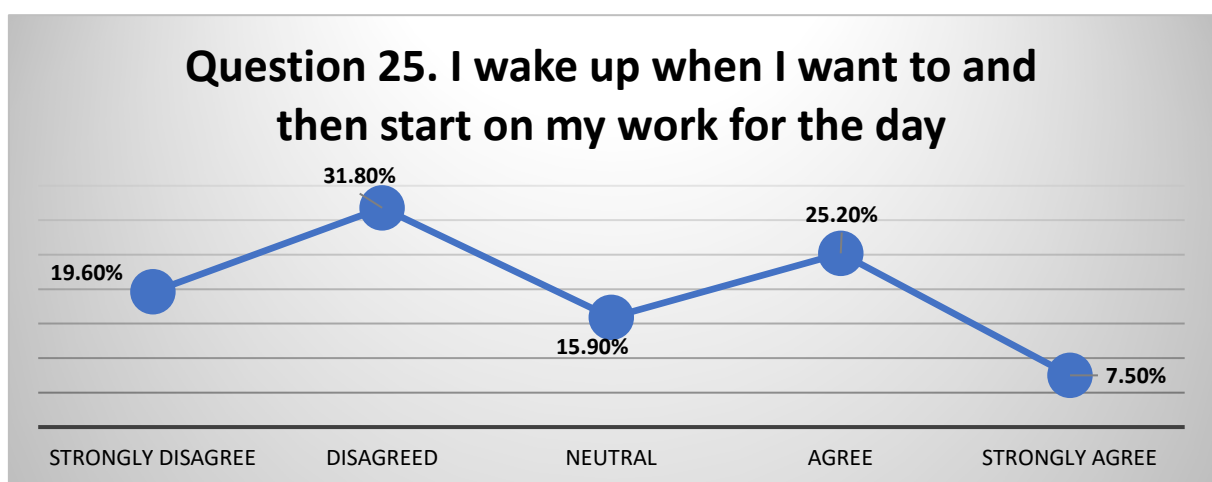
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.37. These findings highlight the perception that direct, face-to-face interactions hold a unique value that cannot be fully replicated in online communication. Despite the convenience and benefits of online communication, such as remote collaboration and virtual meetings, there is still recognition among participants that certain aspects of human connection, non-verbal cues, and the depth of personal interaction are better achieved in person.

Question 25: I wake up when I want to and then start on my work for the day

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed" at 31.80%. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants do not wake up when they want to and start work for the day. They may have fixed working hours or other external factors that dictate their work schedule, which may not align with their preferred wake-up time. It is important for organisations to consider the diverse needs and preferences of their employees when establishing work schedules and policies. Balancing flexibility with operational requirements can contribute to employee satisfaction, work-life balance, and overall productivity.

Figure 8.38: I wake up when I want to and then start on my work for the day



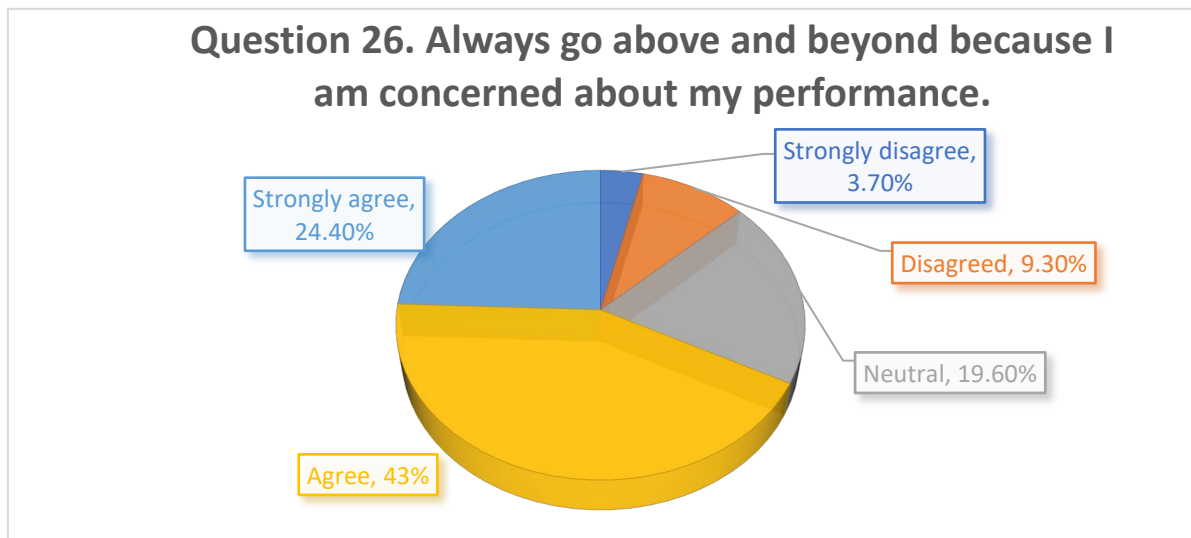
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.38. These findings highlight the varying degrees of flexibility and control participants have over their work schedules and waking hours. While a significant portion of participants may not have the freedom to wake up when they want, there is still a notable percentage that enjoys this flexibility.

Question 26: Always go above and beyond because I am concerned about my performance

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 43%. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants agree that they always go above and beyond in their work because they are concerned about their work performance. These individuals are motivated and driven to exceed expectations, which can contribute to high-quality work and dedication to their tasks.

Figure 8.39: Always go above and beyond because I am concerned about my performance.



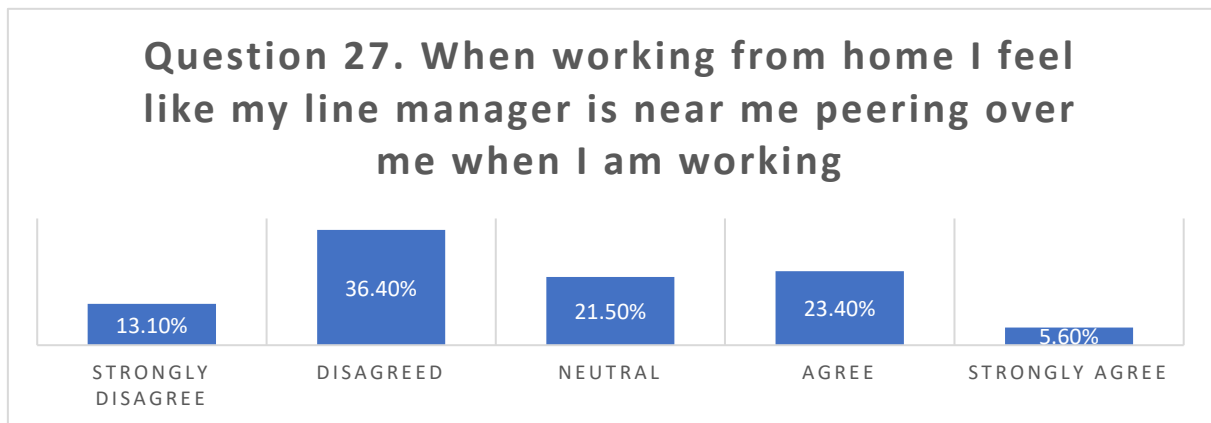
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.39. These findings highlight the different attitudes and approaches participants have towards their work performance. While a significant portion of participants express a willingness to go above and beyond, it is important to recognise and respect the varying motivations and preferences among employees. Organisations can foster a supportive and encouraging work environment that acknowledges and rewards exceptional performance while also considering individual work styles and preferences.

Question 27: When working from home I feel like my line manager is near me peering over me when I am working

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed" at 36.40%. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants disagreed with the statement, indicating that they do not feel like their line manager is constantly monitoring them during their working hours while working from home. These individuals likely have a level of autonomy and trust in their work, allowing them to perform their tasks without the constant feeling of being observed.

Figure 8.40: When working from home I feel like my line manager is near me peering over me when I am working



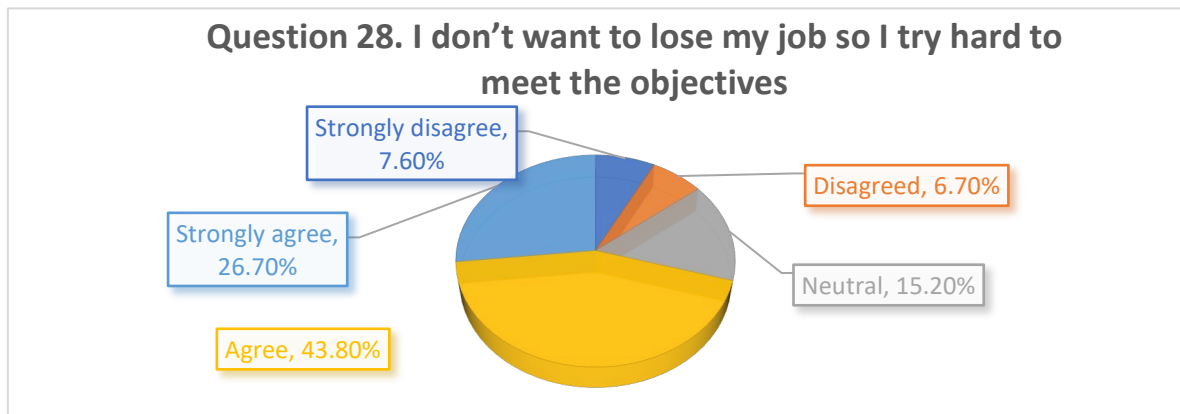
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.40. These findings highlight the diverse experiences and perceptions of participants regarding the level of monitoring from their line managers while working from home. It is important for organisations to establish clear communication channels and trust between managers and employees, ensuring that remote work is not perceived as a constant surveillance but rather as an environment that promotes autonomy and productivity.

Question 28: I don't want to lose my job so I try hard to meet the objectives

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 43.80%. This indicates that a significant portion of the participants agreed with the statement, expressing their fear of losing their job and their increased efforts to meet the objectives. These individuals may perceive job security as a concern, which motivates them to work harder and meet their targets to maintain their employment.

Figure 8.41: I don't want to lose my job so I try hard to meet the objectives



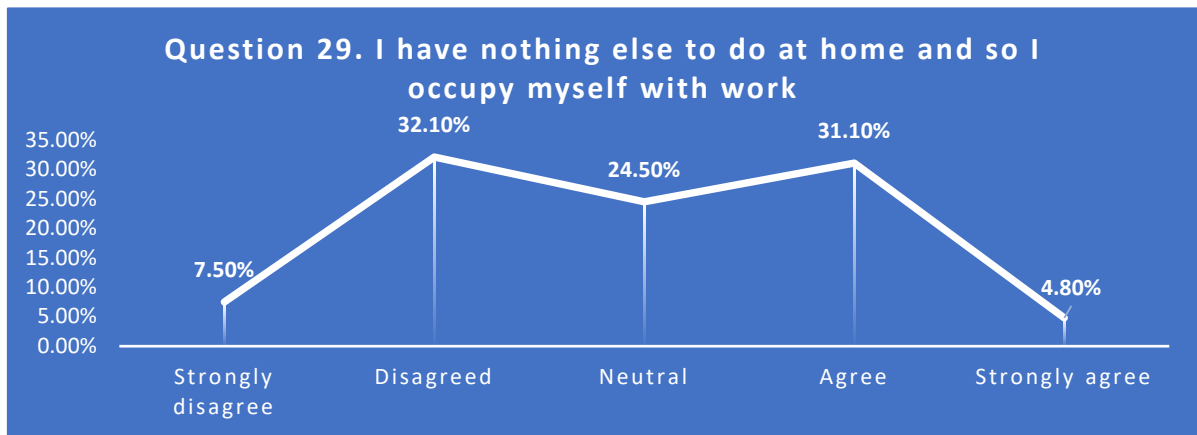
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.41. These findings highlight the impact of job security concerns on employee motivation and performance. The fear of losing one's job can be a powerful motivator for some individuals, while others may be less influenced by this factor. It is important for organisations to address job security concerns, provide clear expectations, and support their employees to maintain a positive and productive work environment.

Question 29: I have nothing else to do at home and so I occupy myself with work

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed" at 32.10%. This indicates that a significant portion of participants disagreed with the statement, stating that they have other things to do at home and do not solely occupy themselves with work. These individuals likely have other responsibilities, interests, or activities that compete for their time and attention. Organisations should support their employees in maintaining a healthy work-life balance and create an environment where employees can effectively manage their responsibilities and engage in meaningful work while also having time for personal activities and well-being.

Figure 8.42: I have nothing else to do at home and so I occupy myself with work



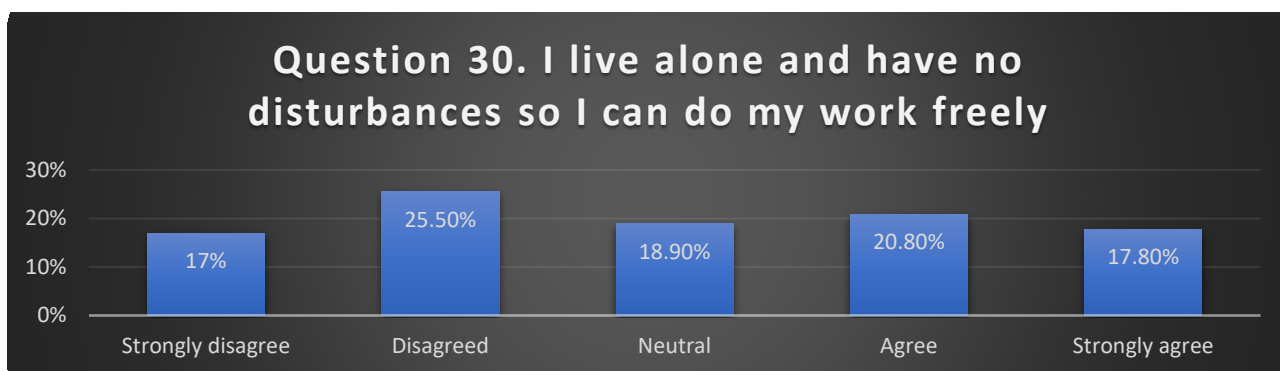
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.42. These findings shows that participants' engagement with work while at home varies. While a significant proportion disagreed with the statement, indicating that they have other things to do, a considerable number also expressed a neutral stance. This highlights the importance of work-life balance and the need to recognise and respect employees' non-work commitments and interests.

Question 30: I live alone and have no disturbances so I can do my work freely

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Disagreed" at 25.50%. This indicates that a significant proportion of participants disagreed with the statement, indicating that they do not live alone or experience disturbances that hinder them from working freely. These participants likely have other people around them or face various interruptions and distractions while working.

Figure 8.43: I live alone and have no disturbances so I can do my work freely



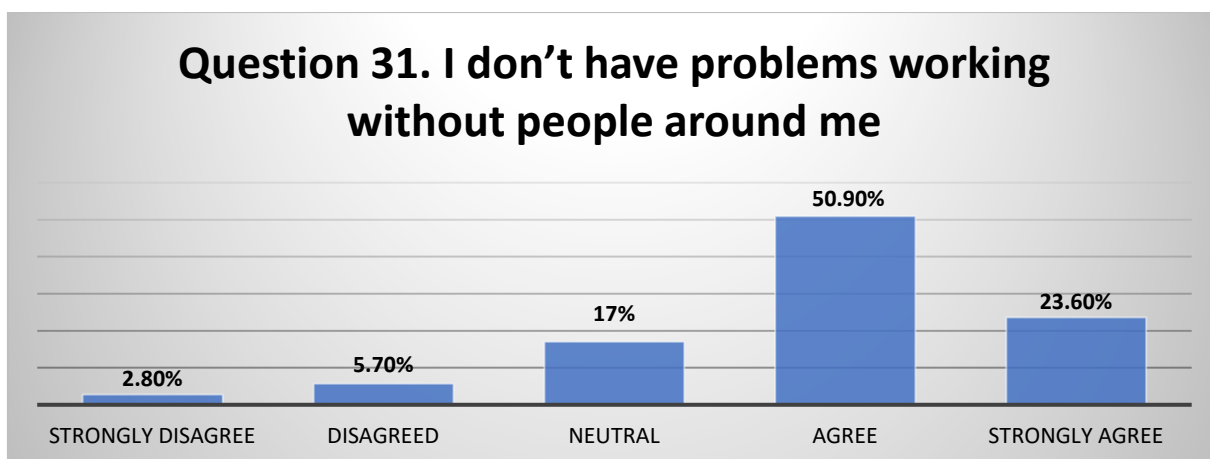
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.43. These findings highlight the diversity of participants' living arrangements and the potential impact of their environment on work productivity. It also underscores the importance of creating a conducive work environment, whether at home or in the office, to minimise distractions and disruptions. Employers can support employees by providing guidelines for managing distractions, promoting work-life balance, and offering resources for creating an optimal work environment.

Question 31: I don't have problems working without people around me

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 50.90%. This indicates that a significant proportion of participants agreed with the statement, indicating that they have no problems working without people around. These participants are likely comfortable and productive when working in solitude, without the need for constant social interaction or the presence of others.

Figure 8.44: I don't have problems working without people around me



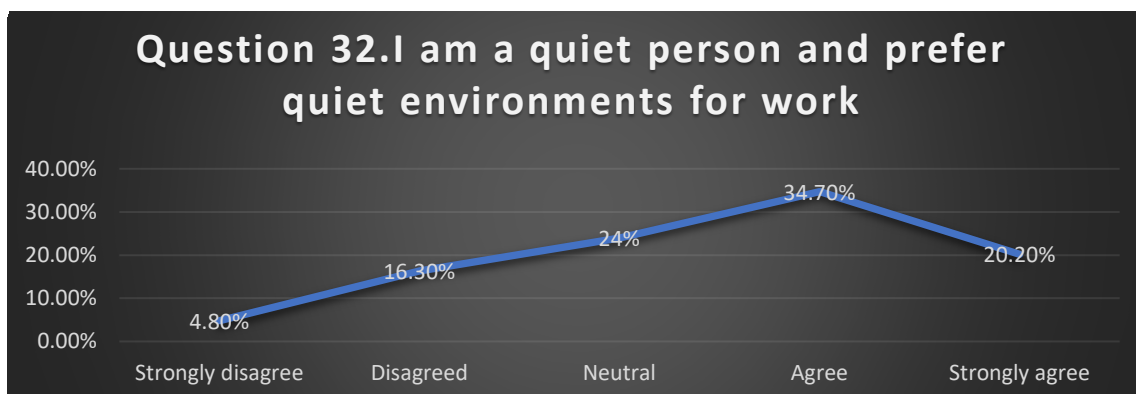
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.44. These findings highlight the diversity of participants' preferences and comfort levels when it comes to working in solitude. While a significant proportion of participants have no issues working without people around, it is essential to consider individual differences and provide flexibility in work arrangements to accommodate different needs and preferences.

Question 32: I am a quiet person and prefer quiet environments for work

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 34.70%. This indicates that a significant proportion of participants agreed with the statement, indicating that they prefer quiet environments for work. These participants likely find it more conducive to their productivity and focus when they are in a quiet setting with minimal distractions.

Figure 8.45: I am a quiet person and prefer quiet environments for work



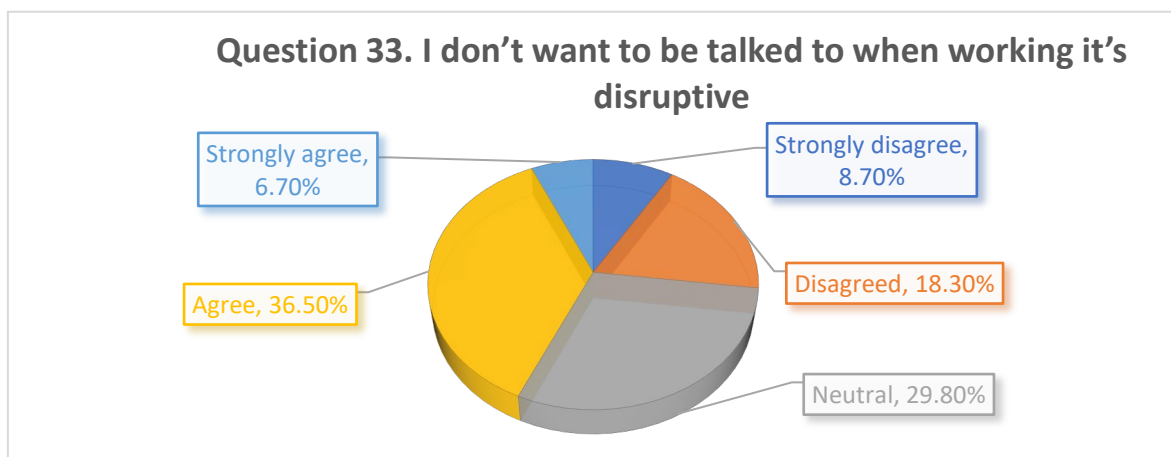
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.45. It is important to consider that individual preferences for work environments can vary, and some individuals may thrive in different levels of noise or activity. Providing options for different work environments, such as quiet spaces and collaborative areas, can help accommodate the diverse needs and preferences of employees.

Question 33: I don't want to be talked to when working it's disruptive

Response: Based on the statistics, the category with the highest percentage is "Agree" at 36.50%. This indicates that a significant proportion of participants agreed with the statement, indicating that they prefer not to engage in chatting or socialising while working, as they perceive it to be disruptive. These participants likely value focused and uninterrupted work and may prefer to limit distractions in order to maintain their productivity.

Figure 8.46: I don't want to be talked to when working it's disruptive



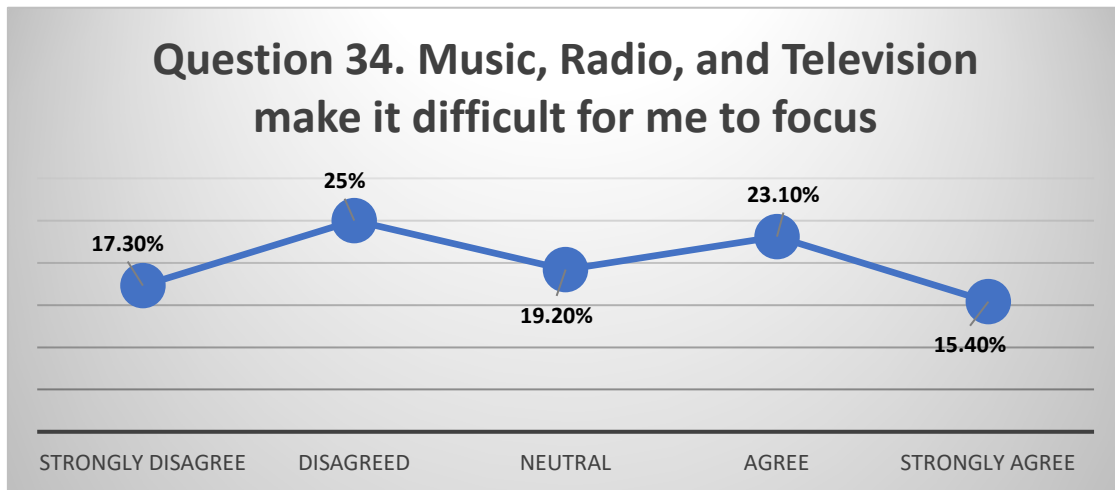
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.46. It is important to recognise that preferences for chatting or socialising during work can vary among individuals and can be influenced by factors such as work tasks, personal preferences, and workplace culture. Balancing social interaction and collaboration with individual productivity and focus is crucial in creating a work environment that suits different needs.

Question 34: Music, radio, and television make it difficult for me to focus

Response: Figure 8.47 displayed the findings on various workplace obstacles that prevented the employees from doing their jobs, these were the appliances that were noted as a performance disturbance. According to the line graph, 42,30% strongly objected and disagreed with the assertion, while 19,20% were neutral and did not perceive the appliances as a disturbance. There were 38,50% who agreed and strongly agreed that the appliances constituted a disturbance

Figure 8.47: Music, radio, and television make it difficult for me to focus



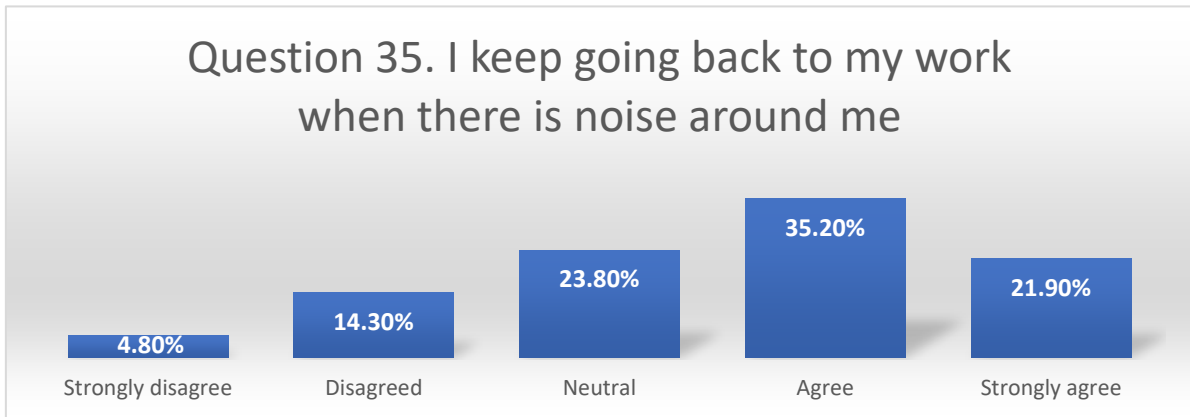
Source: Author's own construction

According to the data presented in Figure 8.47. The perception of disturbances can vary depending on the individual's work environment, personal preferences, and the nature of their work tasks. Some appliances, such as noisy equipment or devices with constant notifications, may be more likely to be perceived as disruptive.

Question 35: I keep going back to my work when there is noise around me

Response: From this interpretation, it can be inferred that a majority of the respondents (35.20% agree and 21.90% strongly agree) felt that when there is noise around them, they tend to lose their focus and repeatedly return to the same work, indicating a lack of productivity. On the other hand, a smaller percentage (14.30% disagree and 4.80% strongly disagree) did not experience this issue or did not feel that it affected their work. Additionally, 23.80% of respondents remained neutral and may not have had a strong opinion or experience regarding this statement.

Figure 8.48: I keep going back to my work when there is noise around me



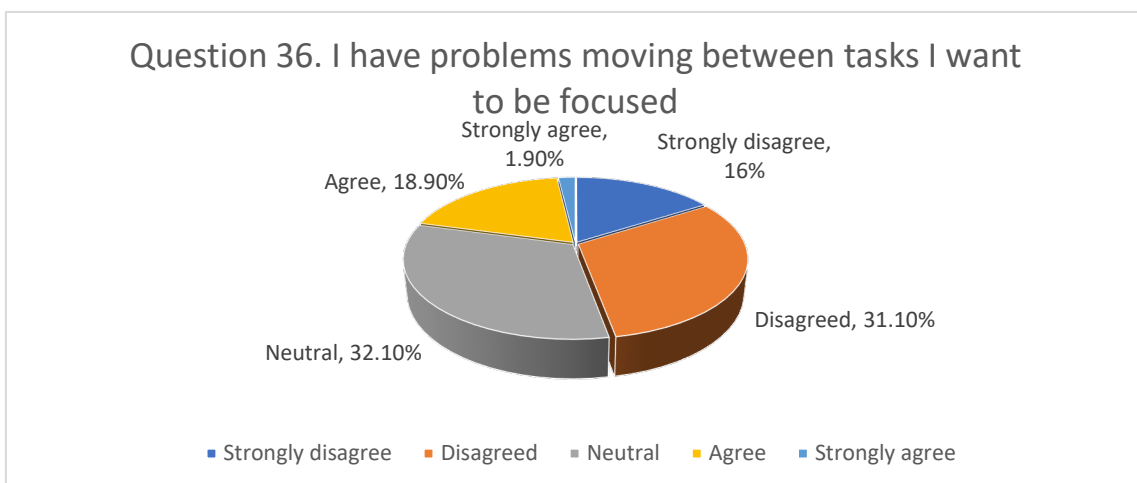
Source: Author's own construction

According to the results of the above-mentioned graph, which indicated 35,20% agree and 21,90% strongly agree, there is no productivity when there is noise since the person keeps repeating the same thing for a while due to being disturbed. In contrast, 23,80% of people could not or did not feel that way while they were at work.

Question 36: I have problems moving between tasks I want to be focused

Response: From this interpretation, it can be inferred that the majority of the respondents (47.10% strongly disagree and disagree) did not have any problems shifting from one task to another.

Figure 8.49: I have problems moving between tasks I want to be focused



Source: Author's own construction

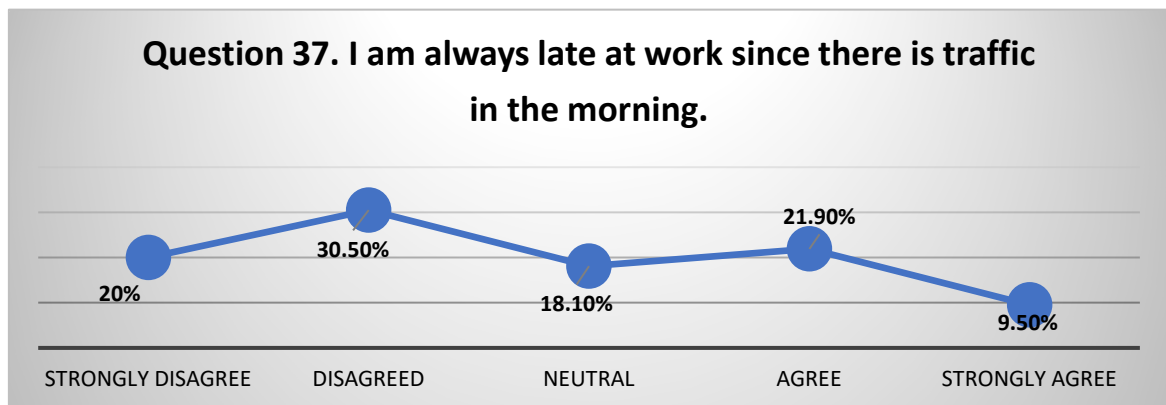
Based on the breakdown of the percentages for the statement "I have problems shifting from one task to another". A significant portion of respondents (32.10%) remained neutral and did not express a clear opinion on this matter. Additionally, a smaller percentage of respondents (20.80% strongly agree) indicated that they do face challenges when transitioning between tasks.

CONVENIENCE OF WORKING FROM HOME

Question 37: I am always late at work since there is traffic in the morning

Response: From this interpretation, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents (30.50%) disagreed with the statement, indicating that they do not experience lateness to the office due to traffic.

Figure 8.50: I am always late at work since there is traffic in the morning.



Source: Author's own construction

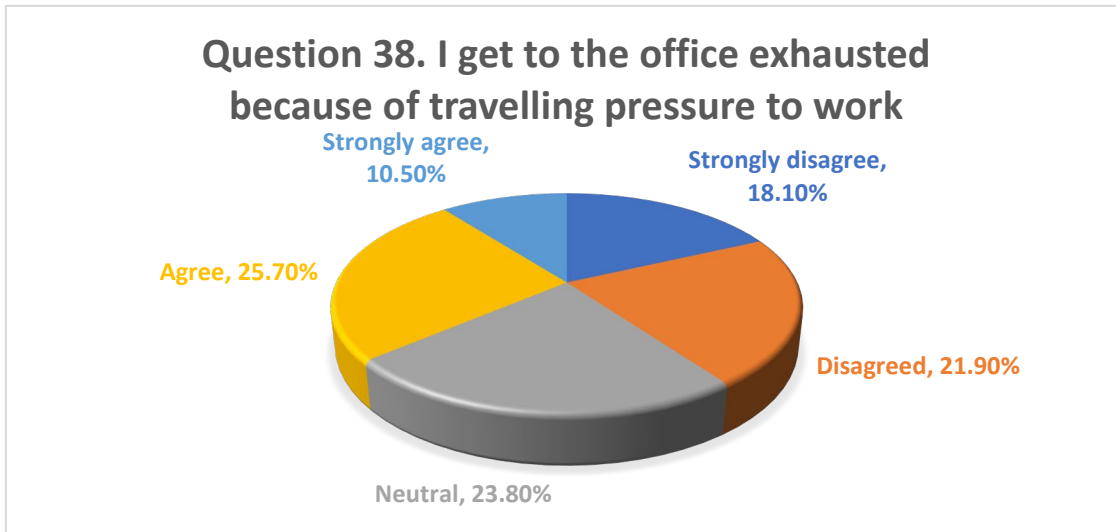
Based on the breakdown of the percentages for the statement "I am always late to the office due to traffic". A significant portion of respondents (21.90%) agreed with the statement, indicating that they do face delays in reaching the office because of traffic. Meanwhile, a smaller percentage of respondents (9.50%) strongly agree on this matter.

Question 38: I get to the office exhausted because of travelling pressure to work

Response: According to the graph, the highest percentage goes to the "Agree" category with 25.70%, followed by the "Disagreed" category with 21.90%. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents agree that they get to the office

exhausted due to traveling pressure, while a slightly smaller proportion disagrees with this statement.

Figure 8.51: I get to the office exhausted because of travelling pressure to work



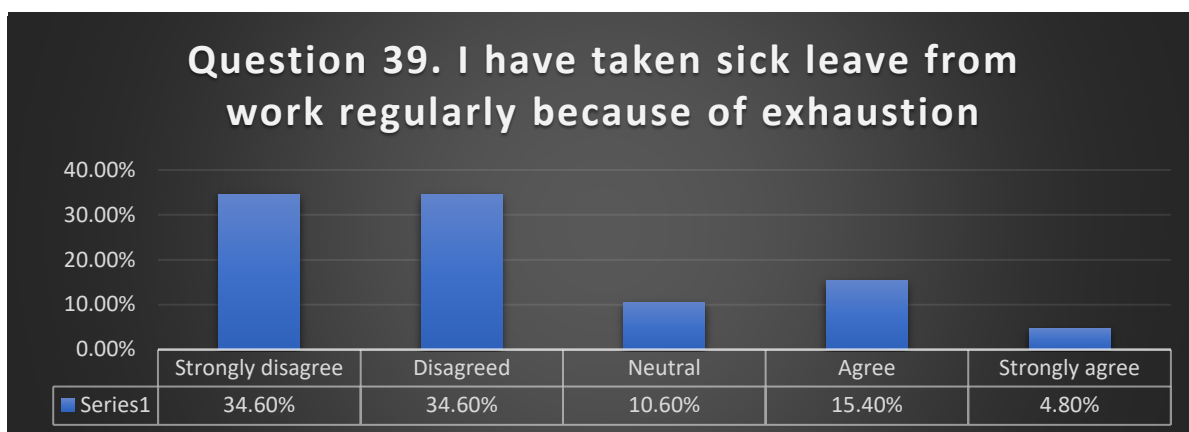
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided above. The "Neutral" category represents 23.80% of the respondents who neither agree nor disagree with the statement. The "Strongly disagree" category represents 18.10% of the respondents who strongly disagree with the statement, and the "Strongly agree" category represents 10.50% of the respondents who strongly agree with the statement.

Question 39: I have taken sick leave from work regularly because of exhaustion

Response: According to the graph, the highest percentage goes to both the "Strongly disagree" and "Disagreed" categories, each with 34.60%. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents do not agree with the statement, indicating that they have not taken sick leave regularly due to exhaustion.

Figure 8.52: I have taken sick leave from work regularly because of exhaustion



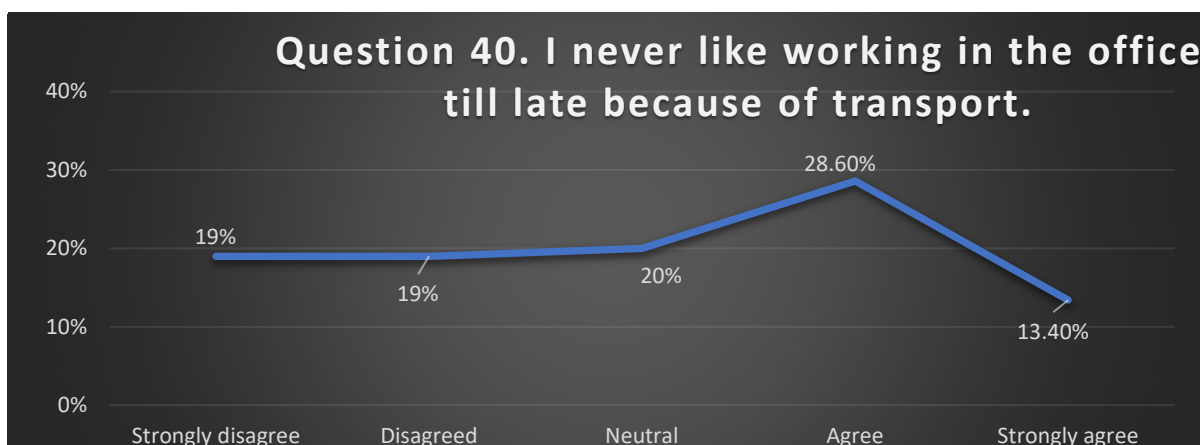
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided above. "Neutral" category represents 10.60% of the respondents who neither agree nor disagree with the statement. On the other hand, only 4.80% strongly agree and 15.40% agree with the statement, indicating that a smaller proportion of respondents have taken sick leave regularly due to exhaustion.

Question 40: I never like working in the office till late because of transport

Response: According to the graph, the highest percentage goes to the "Agree" category with 28.60%. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents agree that they do not like working in the office till late due to transportation reasons.

Figure 8.53: I never like working in the office till late because of transport.



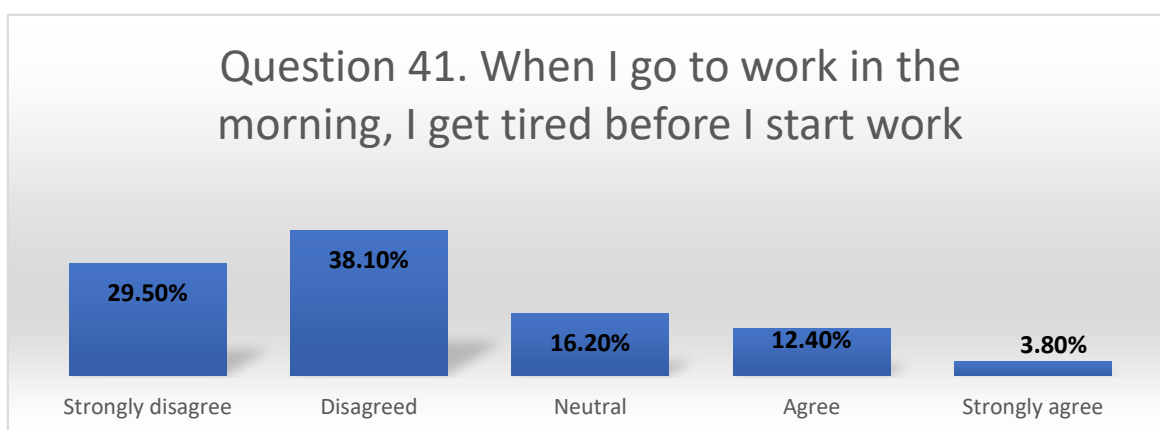
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided 19% strongly disagree and disagree with the statement, indicating that they do not have a problem with working late in the office because of transportation. The "Neutral" category represents 20% of the respondents who neither agree nor disagree with the statement.

Question 41: When I go to work in the morning, I get tired before I start work

Response: According to the graph, the highest percentage goes to the "Disagreed" category with 38.10%. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents do not feel tired before starting work in the morning.

Figure 8.54: When I go to work in the morning, I get tired before I start work



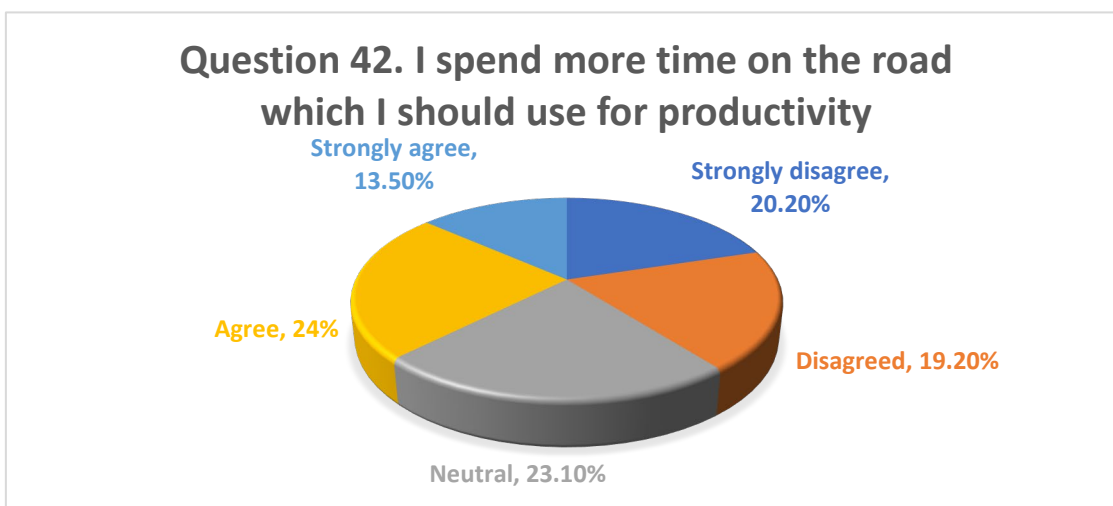
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the statistics provided 29.50% strongly disagree with the statement, indicating that they strongly believe they do not experience fatigue before starting work. The "Neutral" category represents 16.20% of the respondents who neither agree nor disagree with the statement.

Question 42: I spend more time on the road, which I should use for productivity

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a significant portion of respondents disagreed with the statement, with 20.20% strongly disagreeing and 19.20% disagreeing. On the other hand, a combined total of 37.50% (24% agree and 13.50% strongly agree) agreed with the statement that time spent on travelling could have been more productive at home.

Figure 8.55: I spend more time on the road, which I should use for productivity



Source: Author's own construction

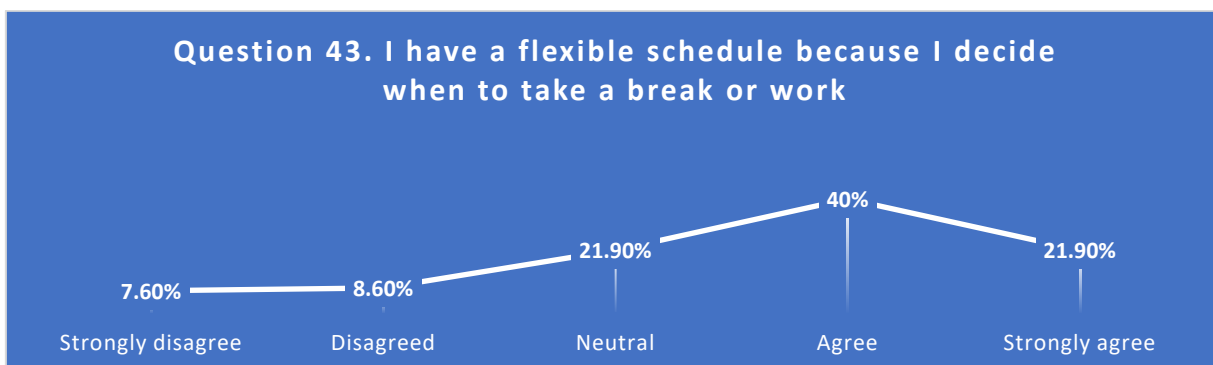
Based on the breakdown of the percentages for the statement regarding time spent on travelling instead of being productive at home. The neutral category accounted for 23.10% of respondents who did not express a strong opinion on the matter. The difference of 1.90% to the left of the responses indicates a slightly higher percentage of disagreement compared to agreement. These percentages offer an overview of the distribution of responses among the participants surveyed and provide insights into their perspectives on the relationship between travel time and productivity at home.

ADVANTAGES OF WORKING FROM HOME

Question 43: I have a flexible schedule because I decide when to take a break or work

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a combined total of 61.90% (40% agree and 21.90% strongly agree) responded positively to the statement, indicating that they work in a flexible manner and have the autonomy to decide when to take a break.

Figure 8.56: I have a flexible schedule because I decide when to take a break or work



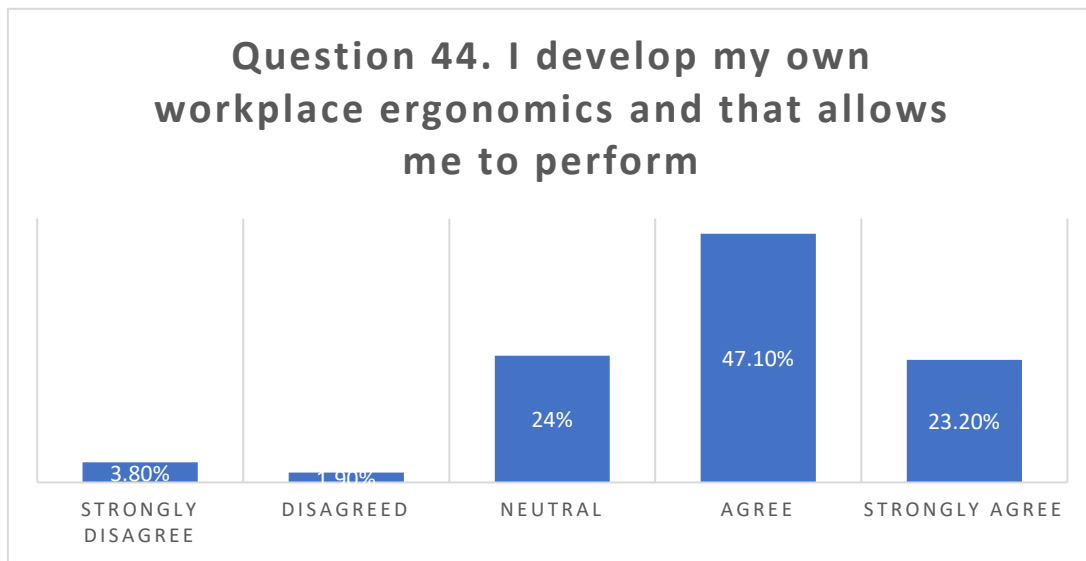
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the breakdown of the percentages for the statement about flexible work and taking breaks. These percentages provide insights into the extent to which participants feel they have flexibility in their work and the ability to decide when to take breaks. The majority of respondents (61.90%) indicated that they work flexibly, while a smaller portion (16.20%) disagreed with the statement. The neutral category represented individuals who did not strongly lean towards agreement or disagreement.

Question 44: I develop my own workplace ergonomics, and that allows me to perform

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a significant majority of respondents (70.30%) agreed that they were able to create a suitable workspace at home during the lockdown. This indicates that they were able to make the necessary adjustments and arrangements to work conveniently and without any problems.

Figure 8.57: I develop my own workplace ergonomics, and that allows me to perform



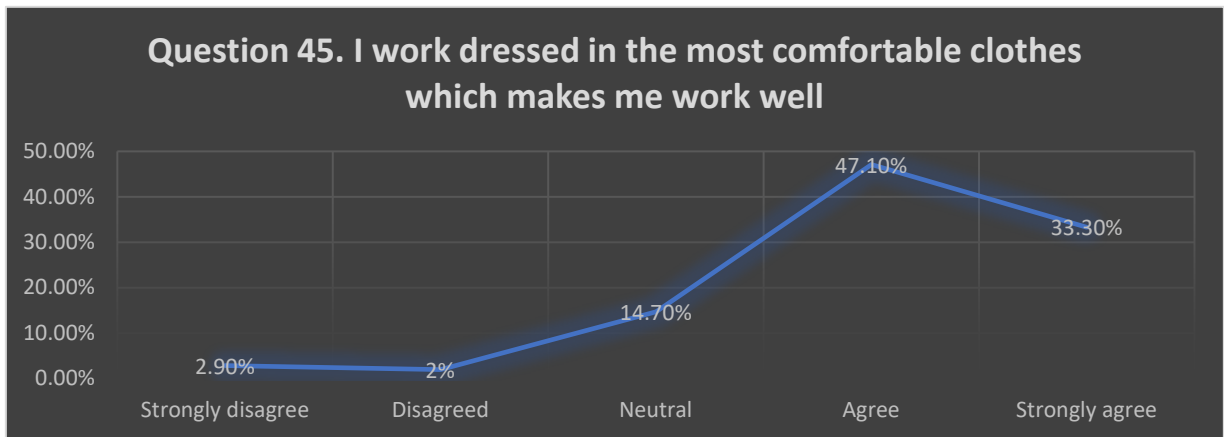
Source: Author's ownperform.uction

Based on the data provided. These percentages indicate the level of success or difficulty respondents experienced in creating a productive working environment at home during the lockdown. The majority of respondents (70.30%) reported being able to create a suitable workspace, while a smaller portion (5.80%) encountered difficulties. The disagree category represents individuals who did not strongly lean towards agreement or disagreement.

Question 45: I work dressed in the most comfortable clothes, which makes me work well

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a significant majority of respondents (80.40%) agreed that they dress most comfortably when working from home. This indicates that they have the freedom to choose their attire and prioritise comfort over formal dress codes.

Figure 8.58: I work dressed in the most comfortable clothes, which makes me work well



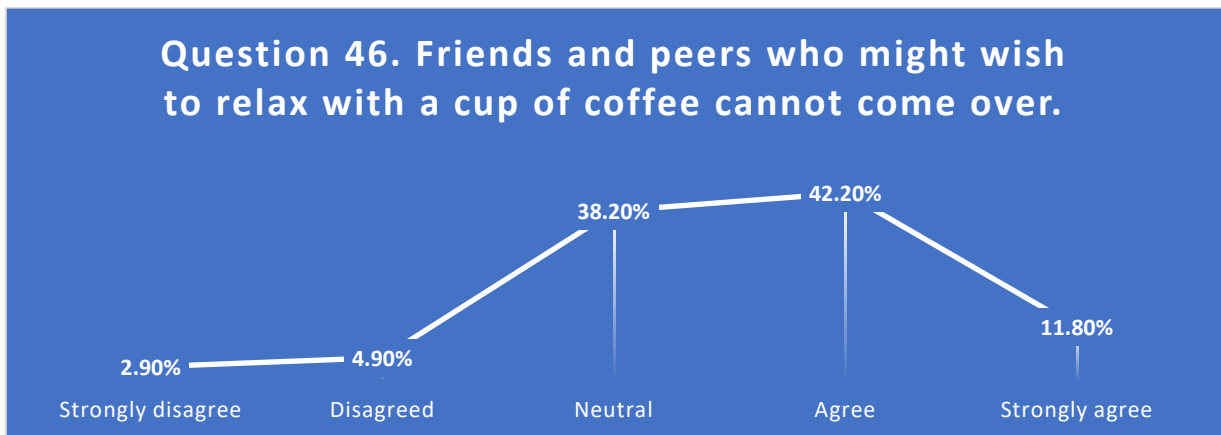
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the information provided, the breakdown of percentages for the statement regarding dressing comfortably while working from home. These percentages highlight the preference of a significant majority (80.40%) to dress comfortably while working from home, reflecting one of the advantages of remote work where individuals have more freedom in choosing their attire.

Question 46: Friends and peers who might wish to relax with a cup of coffee cannot come over

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (54%) agreed that there are no tea-time chats or socialising during working hours while working from home. This indicates that the shift to remote work has eliminated or reduced informal conversations and distractions typically found in staff rooms and boardrooms.

Figure 8.59: Friends and peers who might wish to relax with a cup of coffee cannot come over.



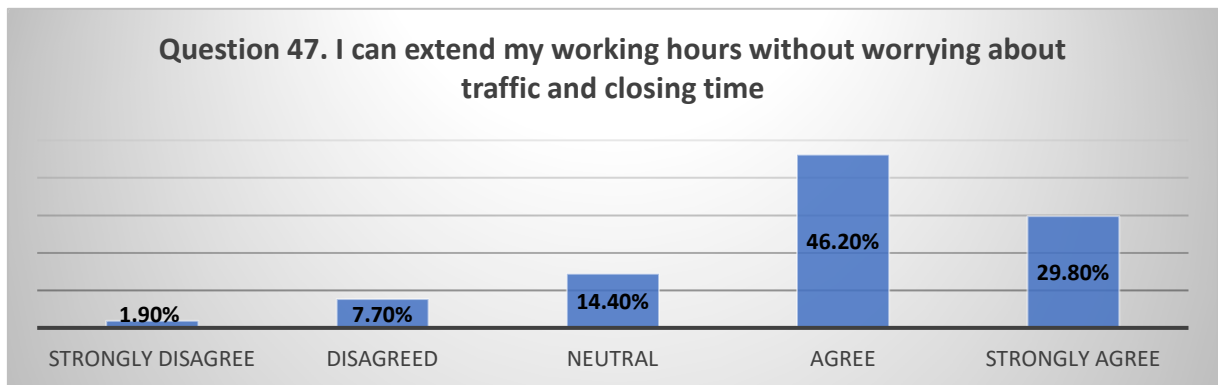
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the information provided. The data indicates a substantial agreement (54%) that tea-time chats and socialising during working hours are not prevalent while working from home, providing a more focused work environment for many remote workers.

Question 47: I can extend my working hours without worrying about traffic and closing time

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (46.20%) agreed with the statement, indicating that they do not have to worry about travelling to the office and the work machine shutdown while working from home. This indicates that working remotely provides convenience and flexibility, eliminating the need for commuting and concerns about the work machine shutting down.

Figure 8.60: I can extend my working hours without worrying about traffic and closing time



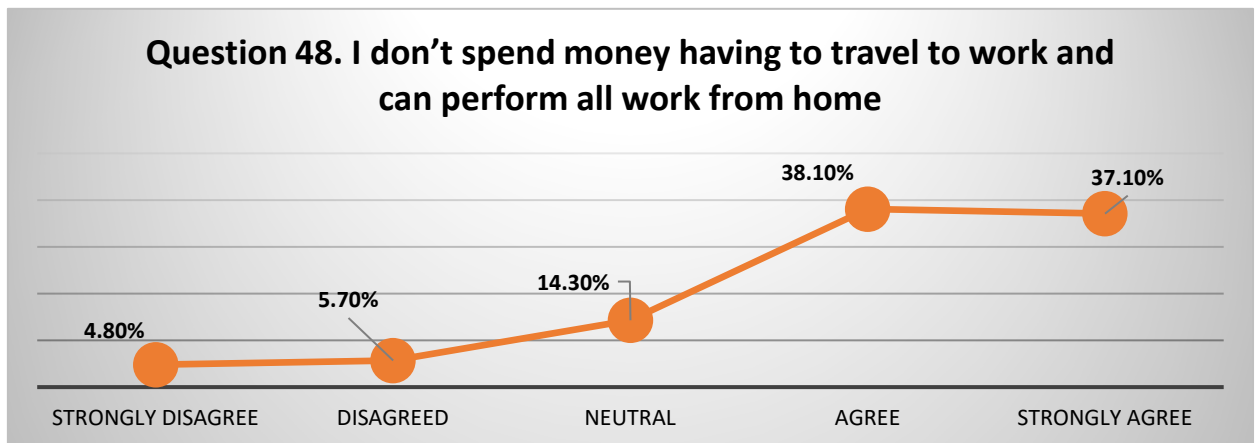
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the information provided. The data indicates a substantial agreement (46.20%) that there is no need to worry about travelling to the office and the work machine shutting down while working from home. This highlights the advantages of remote work in terms of convenience and flexibility.

Question 48: I don't spend money having to travel to work and can perform all work from home

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a significant percentage of respondents (37.10% strongly agree and 38.10% agree) believe that there is no need to spend money on travelling to the office when working from home. This indicates that they perceive working from home to be a more cost-effective option and that it enhances their overall performance. The combined percentage of agreement (75.20%) supports the idea that remote work eliminates the need for financial expenses related to commuting.

Figure 8.61: I don't spend money having to travel to work and can perform all work from home



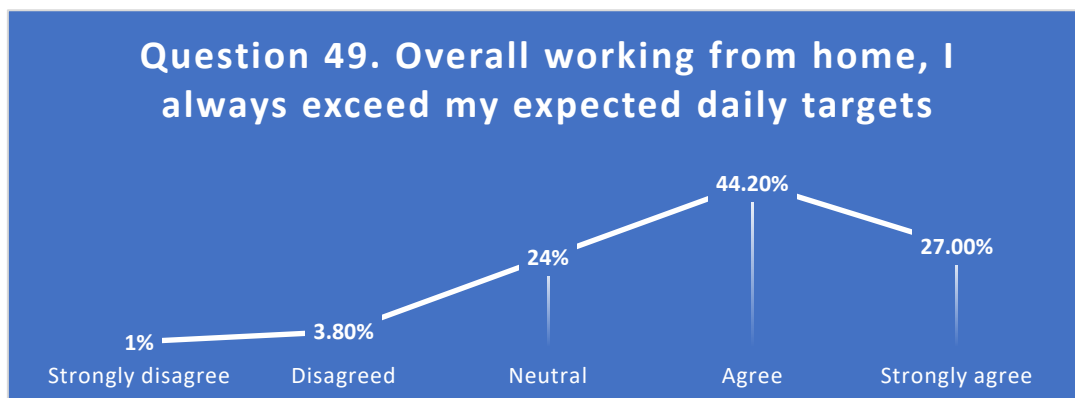
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data provided. The data indicates a substantial agreement (75.20%) among respondents that there is no need to spend money on travelling to the office when working from home. This highlights the perceived financial benefits and improved performance associated with remote work.

Question 49: Overall, working from home, I always exceed my expected daily targets

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (44.20% agree and 27% strongly agree) believe that they exceed their daily targets when working from home. This indicates a high level of productivity and performance while working remotely.

Figure 8.62: Overall, working from home, I always exceed my expected daily targets



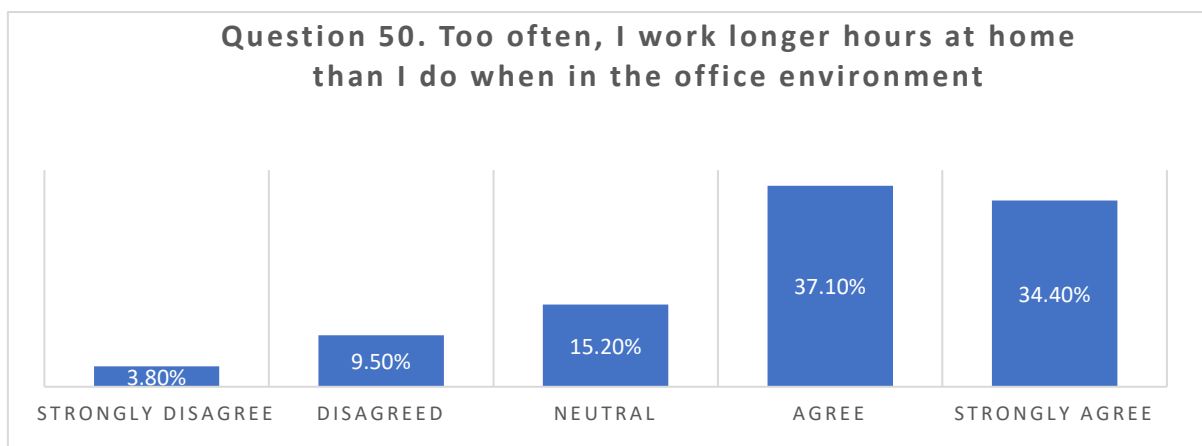
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data provided. The data shows that a majority of respondents (71.20% in total agreement) feel they exceed their daily targets when working from home. This highlights the perceived effectiveness and productivity of remote work for achieving and surpassing work objectives.

Question 50: Too often, I work longer hours at home than I do when in the office environment.

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (37.10% agree and 34.40% strongly agree) believe they work more hours at home compared to the office. This means that they perceive themselves to be more productive or have a higher workload when working remotely.

Figure 8.63: Too often, I work longer hours at home than I do when in the office environment.



Source: Author's own construction

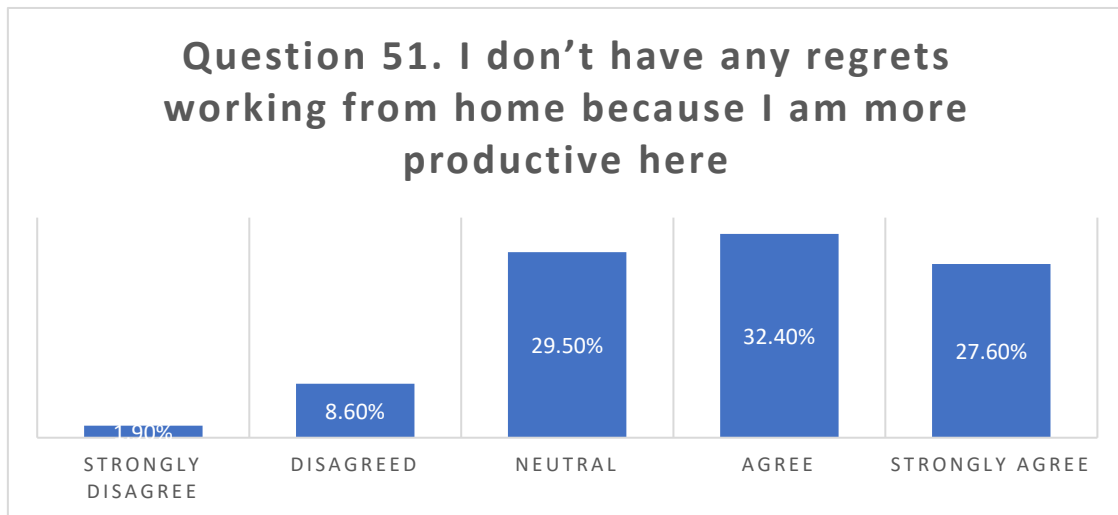
Based on the data provided. The data indicates that a majority of respondents (71.50% in total agreement) feel they work more hours at home compared to being in the office. This reflects a perception of increased working hours or dedication to work while operating remotely.

Question 51: I don't have any regrets working from home because I am more productive here

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (32.40% agree and 27.60% strongly agree) expressed agreement that they do not

regret working from home because they are productive. This shows that they feel their productivity is higher when working remotely and, as a result, have no regrets about the shift from office-based work.

Figure 8.64: I don't have any regrets working from home because I am more productive here



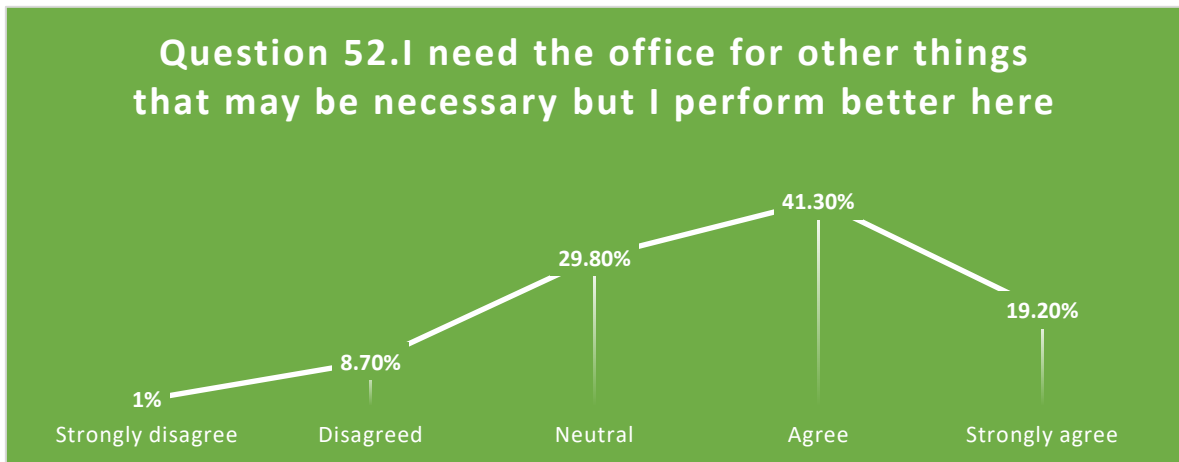
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the breakdown of percentages. The data indicates that a majority of respondents (60% in total agreement) do not regret working from home because they believe they are productive. This reflects a positive perception of the remote work experience and its impact on their work output.

Question 52: I need the office for other things that may be necessary, but I perform better here

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (41.30% agree and 19.20% strongly agree) expressed agreement that there are certain things they need from the office to perform better. This indicates that they believe certain resources, facilities, or aspects of the office environment contribute to their performance and productivity.

Figure 8.65: I need the office for other things that may be necessary, but I perform better here



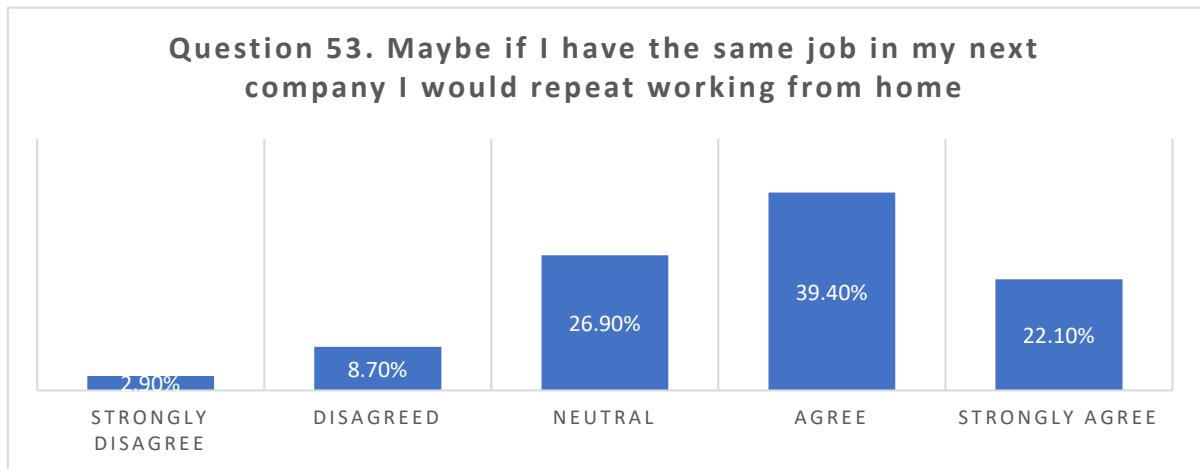
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data provided, a majority of respondents (60.50% in total agreement) feel there are certain things they need from the office to perform better. This highlights the importance they place on the office environment and its role in enhancing their work outcomes.

Question 53: Maybe if I have the same job in my next company, I would repeat working from home

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (39.40% agree and 22.10% strongly agree) expressed agreement that if they had to move to a different company but remain in the same position, they would likely be willing to work from home. This shows that they value the flexibility and benefits associated with remote work.

Figure 8.66: Maybe if I have the same job in my next company, I would repeat working from home



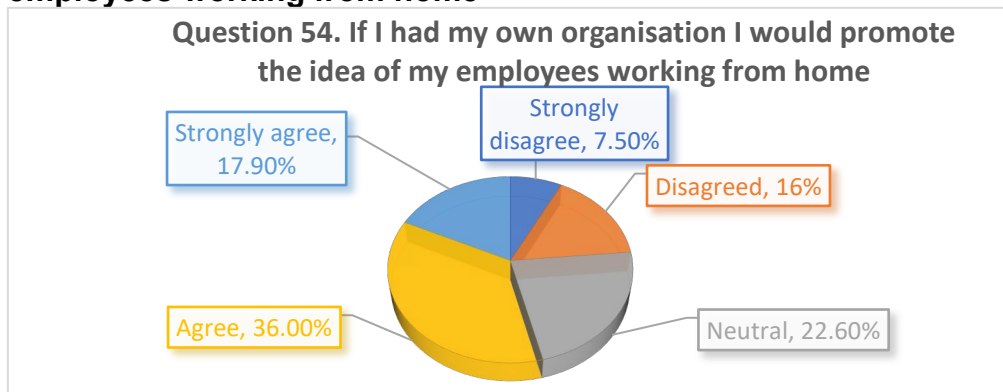
Source: Author's own construction

Based on the data provided, a majority of respondents (61.50% in total agreement) would be willing to work from home if they had to move to a different company while remaining in the same position. This indicates a positive attitude towards remote work and a preference for the flexibility it offers.

Question 54: If I had my own organisation, I would promote the idea of my employees working from home

Response: From this interpretation, it can be observed that a majority of respondents (36.00% agree and 17.90% strongly agree) expressed agreement with the statement, indicating that they would promote working from home. This means that they believe in the benefits and advantages of remote work and would actively support its implementation.

Figure 8.25: If I had my own organisation, I would promote the idea of my employees working from home



Source: Author's own construction

Based on the breakdown of percentages, a majority of respondents (53.90% in total agreement) would support and promote working from home, while a smaller proportion (23.50% in total disagreement) would not. This reflects a positive inclination towards remote work and a willingness to advocate for its adoption.

Section C: Open-ended

In the below, tables were the respondents that came from section C of the open-ended questions asked in the survey for the respondent to participate. The study had four questions in the section, which were recorded below, so the study used the compare and contrast responses where if another participant wrote the response, there is no need to be repeated in the tables below.

REQUEST 1: Please provide five things you missed when you started working from home instead of the traditional office environment.

Table 8.3: Five things missed when working at home

Office Gossip- office gossip may take different forms, such as online rumours or speculation. However, the same principles of professionalism, setting boundaries, and fostering positive relationships apply
Workplace environment, colleagues, customers
Peace of mind Network Noise The is no time for robbers at the office
Office vibe, interacting with internal stakeholders, and colleagues, open space,
Interacting with colleagues, free Wi-Fi, access to printer, aircon, interacting with different people
Social interaction Faster response from stakeholders Normal working hours
People Conversation Negotiation Freedom Hustle and bustle

Saving taxi fare- Ultimately, transitioning to a work-from-home environment can provide an opportunity to reduce transportation expenses and allocate those funds toward other priorities or savings goals.
Interaction with peers, team building and traditional working hours (9-5)
Printing facility. Telephone aircon
Seeing colleagues Being in the workplace Attending workshops Coordinating functions with colleagues Traveling to various campuses
Getting immediate assistance from colleagues' interaction
Office, work environment, my colleagues, facial meetings, dealing with people
Internal stakeholders, office colleagues, face-to-face meetings, free coffee, face-to-face interaction
Honestly, I do not miss anything working from home instead of the office. Social media and digital communication make the traditional office environment redundant and a waste of space. It had its time. we have moved on now
Travel free/petrol Traffic- working from home generally provides an opportunity to reduce travel-related expenses and potentially enjoy a more flexible and convenient work arrangement.

Source: Author's own construction

In the above table, these were the responses from data collection, which the administrators missed from being in the office since the COVID-19 regulations were implemented in the country. In addition, these responses were screened and thoroughly considered from many responses from the survey where many participants repeatedly mentioned the above.

REQUEST 2: List five [5] most critical factors that make working in from the office less productive than working from home.

Table 8.4: Five things making work from home less productive

The pressure can cause less productivity. Social anxiety may hinder work Time spent talking to co-workers could have been spent working.
Spending time on the road travelling to work, then pitch to the office late but knock out on average time cause most time spent in travelling.
Disturbance from peers going in and out, long face-to-face meetings
Teatime ends up too long because of chit-chat * Chit-chat with a colleague in their offices * Walking from office to office for signatures Long waiting for document approvals
To be the go-to person for all other queries.
The admin of preparing to go to the office. Staying at the office to finish work after hours is not convenient and safer than at home. Limited time at the office compared to at home. Spending more time for tea and smoke breaks with colleagues at work.
working hours, noise, disturbance, people entering the office and under the watch of supervisor
Travelling time, too many meetings on campus, gatherings, and face-to-face encounters take longer, and feeling uncomfortably dressed.
Supervisor micro-managing staff, staff absenteeism
Telephone that is ringing non-stop and unanswered
Too much traffic in office Arriving late

Source: Author's own construction

In this table, the study looks for the critical factors that the administrators considered to be the factors that impact less productivity during their time working from the office rather than working from home. The above table shows the factors that the responses gave hinder factors that make them less productive. Mainly, the travelling to work and colleagues kept disturbing through chatting and no work done.

REQUEST 3: Please list at least five [5] challenges you had to overcome to be productive while working from home.

Table 8.5: Five challenges that had to be overcome

Isolation- everyone's experience with working from home and overcoming isolation can be unique. It's important to find strategies that work best and adapt them as needed. Regularly assessing and adjusting approach to address challenges can help maintain productivity and well-being while working from home
Waking up late, Load-shedding Taking long breaks, People around the house Working wearing pyjamas
Printing. Do not have a printer at home have to go to the office to print
Finalisation of tasks takes longer as some colleagues do not respond immediately to emails. It may take up to 3 days before a reply.
CTS outages. Sometimes ITS not work.
The setting up of the VPN was a struggle.
Phone. I missed many calls in the beginning as people did not have my private number
Procrastination- overcoming procrastination takes practice and perseverance. Experiment with different strategies and techniques to find what works best.
Noisy neighbours, unstable internet, not having access to all resources like printer, working long hours than average,
Extended hours, having to do some duties at home
Colleagues have not availed themselves when we have meetings. Less concentration. Not having reliable Wi-Fi. Sometimes get distracted. Colleagues take time to respond to any communication.
Collaboration and communication Being in a different time zone than teammates Loneliness Finding reliable Wi-Fi Staying motivated

Source: Author's own construction

In the table above, the researcher looked for the challenges the administrators had while working from home that they could overcome to work better when or if they continue to work from home. Therefore, the listed information from the above table were the answers from the survey on the challenges they had.

REQUEST 4: IF YOU THINK YOU PERFORMED BETTER FROM HOME, List below five [5] things you performed better from home that you could not perform in the office environment.

Table 8.6 :Five things you performed better at home than at office

I could work even when I was sick without worrying about infecting others. I get to be in my own space. I have the freedom to be me; not presenting a certain me is mentally exhausting.
Arranging meetings via teams, starting work on time, becoming more productive for the rest of the day, not taking lunch, working until late to finish my work
Working long hours. Work without being monitored. Doing my tasks on time. Not missing my deadlines for submissions of documents. Multitasking duties, having meetings online whilst attending to my emails or doing my work.
Flexible time to work, time management,
Deadlines met, creative ideas flowed, the proper concentration, no absenteeism, no late arrivals.
I was more productive. I meet my deadline on time. I save a lot of money. I wear my comfortable clothes. I save so much time.
Increased productivity, flexibility
Good time management Planning Better concentration Fewer interruptions
Overtime, no lunch, no breaks, more productive at night, anytime access to my work
Meet my deadlines sitting in bed.
Working extra time at home is easy because you do not get tired. Setting my limits Become more comfortable in your space Become faster Accomplished my daily tasks
All I could do at the office, I can do at home. I am just more productive and efficient at home than at the office.
Working from home was challenging and sometimes inconvenient for me.
Working overtime in the comfort of my own place. I finish early because I am not under pressure
Getting my work done quickly without distraction. Working on my own time.

Source: Author's own construction

The study examined whether there was more productivity at home than in the office where respondents had to mention the task they had overcome working from home than in the office, where they had to indicate things that they believed to be working from home makes them more productive than being in the office one of those things was that they work long hours and which they do not work in the office environment. The other Colloquial mentioned was that they met the due dates more by working from home than in an office.

8.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has explained the use of the tool, and the graphs were presented and illustrated. In addition, the table and statements have been stated and presented and show interesting findings. There is a general perception that employees do not work in the absence of their managers, and there is a partial acceptance or agreement from the findings. Yet there is a large component that does not consider the presence of a manager as a motivating factor for them to perform. What is interesting is that the findings in a way seem to confirm some of the existing theories in the leadership research paradigm. The X and Y theories, centred on the leader's perception about

employees subscribe to some of the views, as either or. Some individuals would prefer transactional leadership which by and large may align to the X theory and imply the presence of a leader / manager as a motivating factor. Whereas, the other factors and respondents prefer a transformational format and prefer rather to be provided with support and be left to work out on their own..

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

9.1 Introduction

The study design was to describe employees' self-evaluation of work-from-home performance during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown period at a selected university in Cape Town. The mixing of quantitative and qualitative research results has given a comprehensive and robust account of the self-evaluation of workers during the lockdown, revealing valuable opinions on critical areas which needed to be addressed to reduce the negative impression of the COVID-19 pandemic strategically. In addition, the study has proposed recommendations or solutions that have helped explain the strategies that can be used to address the problems brought by COVID-19. This study comprises nine chapters which are briefly summarised below.

9.2 Summary of Chapters Classified

Chapter one reveals the background of the study on how the pandemic started, the significance of the study, and where the research will be carried out. The chapter then reviewed the issues of social distancing measures, stress, and the demotivation of employees due to the pandemic. This has been followed by several pieces of literature on theories regarding self-perception, self-confidence, and organisational culture.

Chapter two explains theories of self-perception, theories of self-confidence, and cultural theories on performance and value systems. The study must identify the connection between company culture, self-perception, self-confidence, and company performance in educational performance, specifically in educational institutions. A vigorous discussion of several theories regarding self-confidence, organisational culture, and self-perception: several philosophies have been established regarding the connection between organisational practices and performance. Other theories declare that organisational culture creates a positive impact on worker's behaviour and attitude, which in turn affects their performance (Garcial, Singale and Bem, 2015:120).

In this chapter, theories shed light on the research, specifically on this chapter, by helping to describe, explain, predict and control the challenges under investigation included in the cognitive dissonance theory, mindset theory, self-expansion theory, etc.

Chapter three focused on performance theories, performance models, performance measurement theories, and performance measurement models. The chapter described the relationships between performance theories and performance measurement theories' relationship with organisational administration. It discussed the need for the organisation to have high-performing individuals that will be able to meet their goals and objectives. It reveals that performance is vital in accomplishing a task and a source of satisfaction.

Chapter four discussed the psychology of the supervisor on the employee, the psychology of the employee on being managed, the role of managers on the performance of the subordinates, job type, and work ethics. Finally, it discussed several leadership theories and styles managers implement to increase employee performance. Theories like autocratic and democratic leadership styles are explored to reveal their role in getting the best of the employees.

Chapter five discussed motivation, motivation theories, types of motivation, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and work ethics of the intrinsically and extrinsically motivated worker. The chapter focused on the managers who need to know what motivates employees to go to work every day to lead them. It aims to solve the topic of what truly drives people at work and whether managers' views on how to encourage their staff need to be updated. This common tendency to oversimplify motivation could explain both the emergence of the management myth depicting the link between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation as opposed.

Chapter six focused on conceptual modelling, modelling self-motivation, modelling of self-evaluation, self-performance, and measurement of self-evaluation. It reviewed its internal drive to achieve, produce, develop, and keep moving forward. It described the idea that employees should know how to complete a self-introspection and be content with the process. In addition, because it examines the importance of conducting a proper self-assessment might imply the difference between a meaningful and ineffective evaluation.

Chapter seven discussed research design, research methods, data collection instruments, data collection methods, data analysis, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations. It begins by defining mixed methods of research, strengths, and limitations associated with its use. This was followed by the rationale for a mixed-methods design and a description of the mixed-methods design used in the study. This section also details the research procedures, describing how the qualitative and quantitative data collection was utilised. The sample size and the sampling method clearly described how the sample was chosen and its method and explained why.

Chapter eight consists of the process of data recording, data analysis, and interpretation. This chapter also reported both the qualitative and quantitative findings by describing the statistics for each measure utilised.

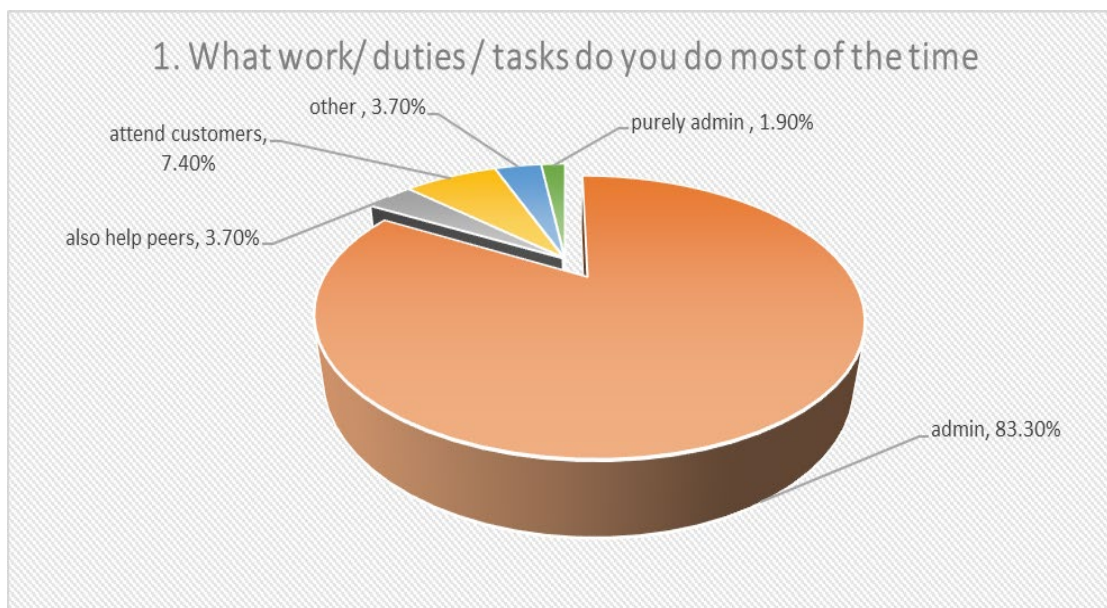
Chapter nine deals with summary findings, conclusions, limitations of the study, recommendations, prospects for future study, and a summary of the study and findings. Several solutions and limitations of the study will be discussed in this chapter after the findings. In addition, a clear indication of barriers to conducting the study will be highlighted during the study.

9.3 Summary of Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This section provided a brief discussion on the conclusion and the recommendations on the findings, which data was collected through a questionnaire. The heading had three sections the questionnaire were classified as section A: Biography, section B:Likert Scale, also known as a closed-ended question, and section C:close-ended questions that allow respondents to put different opinions on questions that were asked. Section B: had subheadings on it.

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHY

Figure 9.1: What work/duties/ tasks do you do most of the time

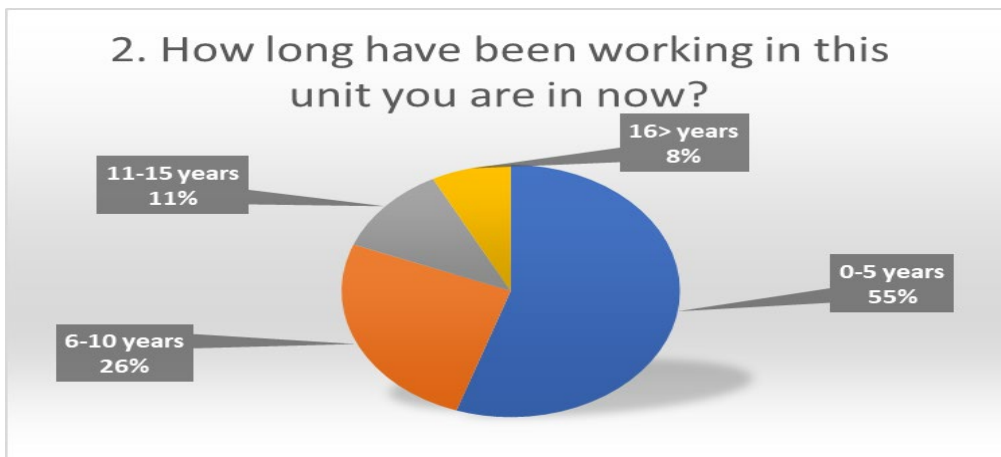


Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study was looking for the duty/tasks/ work that the respondent was involved in most of the time, which then the respondent indicated which category they belong to. The above pie chart indicates that the admin was 83.30%, the highest number of respondents, followed by attending customers, 7.40%. Therefore, based on the above statistics, the admin staff has been the most affected respondent in work from the Home pandemic.

Recommendation: As much as the other roles are classified as administrators, it would be better if the respondents could select different types of work that use respondents could not necessarily differentiate between purely admin and admin, which did not indicate the difference between the two. The study recommends more investigation on the other types if they are not classified as admin.

Figure 9.2: How long have you been working in this unit you are in now?

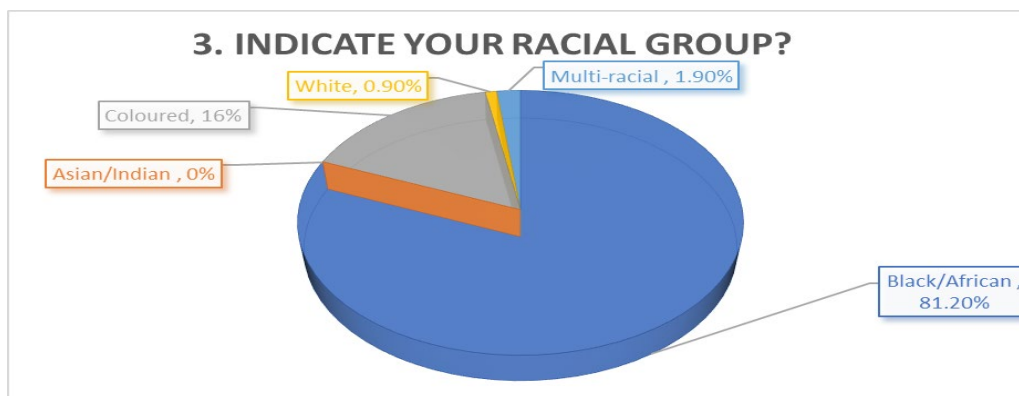


Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study possesses the number of experiences that respondents have with the company. This is important because it gives clues on how to work the people know the ins and out of the company, where those with more experience will be able to share knowledge with new people. Furthermore, the study indicates that 0-5 years 55% is rated as the highest. This shows that most of the people who responded to the questionnaire are newly births to the organisation, which proves that there is a transformation in appointing people into positions.

Recommendation: The study recommends that there should be a balance in terms of the number of years that the respondents have in the organisation because some might not be aware of the ins and out of the company. The respondents at 16 years and up indicated that they are used to working from the office rather than working from home. There should be a flexible plan to ensure they do not feel left out.

Figure 9.3: Indicate your racial group

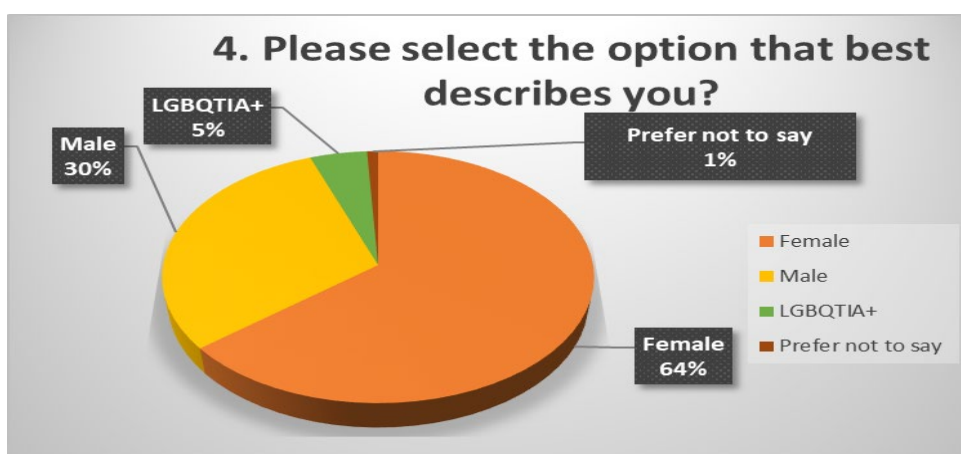


Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: Yes, most of the time, the respondent feels uncomfortable when they ask about race. It is not a personal matter; however, the study wants to find the dominant racial group that has responded so that it can have a clear view of which race have more participants. The research shows that the dominating race is the Black/ African, with 81.20%. Therefore, this shows that most of the surveys were black/African.

Recommendation: The researcher recommends that there should be looking at the racial demographic of the Western Cape and try the best employment act in terms of race.

Figure 9.4: Please select the option that best describes you?

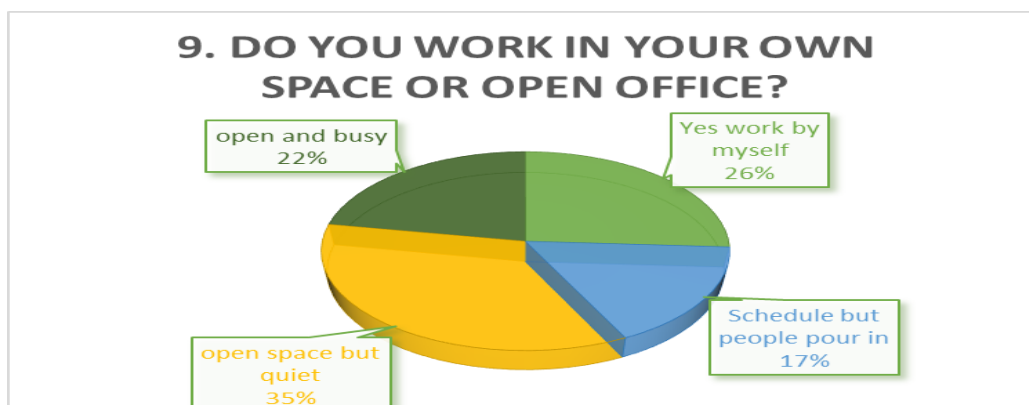


Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: In most cases, when one talks about the administration job, they will think it is a female's job only, and most people will not think that it does the job. The questionnaire did not want to exclude those that do not belong or who claim they are not to be male or female. The pie chart present that the majority is female, 64%.

Recommendation: The study suggests that when the organisation or managers are looking for administrators, they should consider gender demographics. They should try and balance gender quality.

Figure 9.5: Do you work in your own space or open office



Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study in this question examined whether one can work in their type of office where they are not easily disturbed or share the office with colleagues while they can chat with other colleagues when assistance is required. The study shows that the majority was 35.20% Open space but quiet. Even though the percentage is not above 50%, the one that holds the highest was Open space but quiet. This shows that the majority can work in the open space but is required to be quiet with no disturbance.

Recommendations: The study recommends that there should be a flexible type of work that suits both the own space and open office, which gives a balance work schedule for employees whether they want to work in the open office or their own space. This would give a more productive outcome for the administrators where one who works in the comfort zone can produce better results.

9.3.1 Overall solution and recommendation in

9.3.2 SECTION A: BIOGRAPHY

Conclusion: This gives an overview of the questions that were not listed that belong in section A biography, which it was evaluating the respondent's biography in terms of how they perform the duties that are required of them, which has questions like how do you measure performance and what work method or style is the practice by the line manager, which also state does one get supervised to do their work. The survey that was carried out presented the majority believe that if they are given the duties or the task, they can do the work without supervision, they were complaining about the network when they are working from home, and also there were one who was able to work and did not have problems with the network. In addition, the participants provided feedback on how they measured their performance by the task they completed.

Recommendation: The study advises that those who are working from home and have network problems should work out a schedule when they have a busy day, and they need to produce work when they have to go to the office; those that do not experience network problems can continue to work from home but necessarily ensure they produce efficient work that is required from them. The study also suggests that the administrator technique is not outside the scope of the supervisor or line manager. Finally, the study suggests that measuring their measurements should be done by those reporting to and not by themselves because it is challenging to underrate your work; it should be done by someone else.

9.4 SECTION B – THE LIKERT SCALE

Table 9.1:Managers view of my performance

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
MANAGER'S VIEW OF MY PERFORMANCE	4.8	7.6	20	36.8	30.8
1. I am known for doing well in all aspects of my job at Work	2.80%	0.90%	9.30%	36.10%	50.90%
2. I have been commended for good performance before at the office	3.70%	1.80%	10.20%	42.60%	41.70%
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
3. I always get to do my given daily tasks promptly when in the office	1.90%	4.70%	12.10%	48.60%	32.70%

4. Working with peers makes me feel like I belong and motivated	2.80%	5.60%	25.20%	43%	23.40%
5. I am so accustomed to the office, and when working from home, I miss the office environment	10.20%	20.40%	32.0%	19%	17.60%
6. There is a relationship between being in the office and my work performance	7.40%	12%	30.60%	31.50%	18.50%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The above table refers to the manager's view of my performance, where the manager evaluates the work that I have done and can comment on it. The statement on the table presented as follows: The majority of the Agree and Strongly Agree showed 87% that the administrator is known for doing well in all aspects of their job description. It then shows that the administrator has been commended for good performance, which was then agreed by 84.3% on Agree and Strongly Agreed. Statement number 3 proved that 81.3% agreed that there is so much effectiveness in the office done by the administrators. There was 66.4% agreed on the bases of working with peers makes one belong and motivated. In terms of the administrators missing the old traditional way of working from the office, it shows that there was no consensus in indicating whether they would agree or disagree with the statement but agree shows 36.5% that they do miss the office. Finally, it was agreed by 50% of Agree and strongly agree that there is a relationship between working in the office and my work performance.

Recommendations: The results showed that participants knew their job very well, and their managers recommended them. Now the state needs to investigate those who disagreed on the side and what could be the reasons for them being on that particular side. It should also make sure these aspects that make the participants do a great job should be kept well and not lose the moment of the great work they are doing to be applauded by the managers.

Table 9.2:Office working environment/ergonomics

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
OFFICE WORKING ENVIRONMENT / ERGONOMICS	6.2	12.8	30.11	44.4	6.49
7. The environment is encouraging and makes you feel like performing	5.60%	5.60%	30.40%	41.70%	16.70%
8. Things are well organised, and you know where to get what you want	3.60%	5.70%	20.80%	49.10%	20.80%
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. The arrangement is ideal for performance with everything at your fingertips	3.70%	7.50%	30.80%	44.90%	13.10%
10. Whomever I need for assistance is readily available, allowing me seamless operations	7.50%	12.10%	25.20%	43%	12.20%
11. The presence of the manager is a factor in making me want to perform - formality	10.30%	28%	24.30%	26.20%	11.20%
12. The office environment makes you know what you have come in for	2.80%	10.40%	31.10%	34.90%	20.80%

Source: Author’s own construction

Conclusion: The table 9.2 presents the measure of office working environment/ergonomics, which then checks the impact of administrators on the office environment. The environment is encouraging and makes you feel like performing agreed 68.4% with the contribution of agreeing and strongly agreeing, allowing the administrators to produce more work based on the environment. Things are well organised, and you know where to get what you want, making it easy to find whatever you are looking for in the office. The survey shows that 69.90% agree and strongly agree. It is easy to get what you are looking for. The arrangement is ideal for performance with everything at your fingertips, in the fact that one does not need to be wasting time thinking about where they put a particular document that is required or stationary, which is proven by 58% of agreeing and strongly agree that the information is available by the click of a figure. Whomever I need for assistance is readily available, allowing me seamless operations; the statement shows that a agree and strongly agree to be 55.2% that this statement is true when one required my assistance, they are ready and available for me to assist them. The manager’s presence is a factor in making me want to perform – formality, and it is believed that when the manager is around, everyone needs to show that they are working. The study disagrees with the statement that when the manager is around, they do not need to show formality. The

disagreement was 38.3% which presented disagree and strongly disagreed. The office environment makes you know what you have come in for.

Recommendations: In this section, as it was talking about the work environment and ergonomics, it proved that most of the participants were on agreed but not entirely because the margin of the agreeing side was in the 60s and 50s percent, which live to desire to wonder if almost have of the other participant's thing of these questions differently what causes them to think that way and why. The manager or the supervisor would need to examine all the working material at the office when employees need it and what is it that is always missing that employees complain of.

Table 9.3: Home working environment

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
HOME WORKING ENVIRONMENT	15.26	23.44	21.31	27.64	12.35
13. Home environment distracts me and makes me feel not obligated to work.	22.20%	25%	25.90%	15.80%	11.10%
14. Home is not an appropriate work environment	18.50%	30.60%	21.30%	20.40%	9.20%
15. At home, I do not always have ready access to all my requirements for operational purposes	16.70%	23.10%	21.30%	27.80%	11.10%
16. Where I need help, I have to phone or email someone for assistance to work.	6.50%	8.30%	22.20%	45.40%	17.60%
17. When working at home, I have to put more undue pressure on myself to perform to the expected standard	12%	20.40%	20.40%	31.50%	15.70%
18. Working at home, I am always under pressure since I am unsure if I meet the line manager's expectations.	15.70%	33.30%	16.70%	25.00%	9.30%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: Table 9.3 shows the subheading of the home working environment where it was looked at in a study regarding administrators working from home. The home environment is distracting for me and makes me feel not obligated to work; they disagreeing of 47,50% contributing disagree and strongly disagree in terms of there being no distraction when they are working from home. Home is not an appropriate work environment was disagreed 49,10% disagreeing and strongly disagree that is not an appropriate place to work from. At home, I do not always have ready access to all my requirements for operational purposes, which showed a disagree of 39,80% of disagreeing and strongly disagree. Where I need help, I have to phone or email someone for assistance to work, agreed by 63% agree showed that peers and

managers are just a phone call away from the administrator. When working at home, I have to put more pressure on myself to perform to the expected standard agreed, about 47,20%, because of many work overtime. Working at home, I am always under pressure since I am not sure if I am meeting the line manager's expectations, is disagreeing with the statement because they believe they met the expectations; the disagree percent was 49%.

Recommendations: This section needs to be reinvestigated because most of the majority were below 50%. In terms of the answers to the questions, one could not necessarily know which side it is swinging according to. The company or the supervisor needs to check the living conditions to help with what they might need because some are struggling with WiFi, and some do not have printing machines at their disposal, so it becomes difficult to work.

Table 9.4: Impact of peers on performance

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
IMPACT OF PEERS ON PERFORMANCE					
19. Work ethics in my office is so positive and contagious that it makes you want to keep on	6.50%	7.50%	23.40%	43.90%	18.70%
20. There is not much socialisation. I work independently of other people	5.60%	27.80%	31.50%	25.90%	9.20%
21. One feels like performing well when you see others perform and you are in the environment	4.70%	16.80%	29.00%	35.50%	14%
22. Even though I work from home, I am always on WhatsApp with my co-workers.	8.40%	16.80%	24.30%	39.30%	11.20%
23. I never miss my office colleagues because we are always on Microsoft teams	6.60%	33%	33%	23.60%	3.80%
24. Online communication will never substitute the power of one on one interaction	3.80%	10.40%	29.20%	31.10%	25.50%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study investigated the impact of peers on performance, where the administrator looked at what contribution the colleague makes in assisting or not assisting in their performance. The results showed that the agreement and strongly agree with 62,60% that the work ethic in the office is positive and transmissible, and it motivates them to keep on keeping on. There was a small amount of imbalance in statement 20 with 33,40% disagreeing with the and 35,10% agreeing with the statement that said there is not much socialisation between them because they work

independently, which they agree on only edge with 1,70% from the disagree which showed respondents were setting in different camps. Statement 21 believes that 49,50% of the time, when one performs their duty, they can motivate others into working, whereas if most are not doing anything, then most will sit and chat, resulting in no work. The study shows that even though they work from home, they are on WhatsApp talking to their colleagues, and it shows an agreement of 50,50% of the time. There was about 39,60% disagreement with the statement that said they do not miss their colleagues from the office because they are always talking to them on the team, which showed that is not true, they miss them because they do not team every day talking to them like they would if they were in the office. The administrators have proved that online communication would never substitute one-on-one interaction. They agreed by 56,60% that it could never replace it.

Recommendations: The study believes that each person is given a task, and there is a target that they need to deliver that task when and at what time they must do that. The work ethic among the colleagues is working very well; they just need to agree in terms of being positive or just respect one another time at work. There should be office rules that could be established which are related to punctuality, dress code, and communication. Where there is flexibility, when it comes to employees and where there would be a break from work. Then, there is a peer session where employees advise one another on how to tackle complex tasks. Office rules play an essential role in maintaining professionalism in the workplace. Since the office is a place where people spend most of their day, it becomes necessary to establish certain guidelines and protocols that will help to create an orderly and productive environment. Rules and regulations promote consistency, reduce misunderstandings, and ensure that everyone is on the same page when it comes to workplace expectations.

Table 9.5:Feeling of working from home

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
FEELING OF WORKING FROM HOME					
25. I wake up when I want to and then start my work	19.60%	31.80%	15.90%	25.20%	7.50%
26. Always go above and beyond because I am concerned about my performance.	3.70%	9.30%	19.60%	43%	24.40%
27. When working from home, I fill like my line manager is near me, peering over me when I am working	13.10%	36.40%	21.50%	23.40%	5.60%

28. I do not want to lose my job, so I try hard to meet the objectives	7.60%	6.70%	15.20%	43.80%	26.70%
29. I have nothing else to do at home, and so I occupy myself with Work	7.50%	32.10%	24.50%	31.10%	4.80%
30. I live alone and have no disturbances so that I can do my work freely	17%	25.50%	18.90%	20.80%	17.80%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study in this subheading investigated the feeling of the administrators working from home. Do they necessarily prefer it rather than going to the office? It had six questions that it used to measure in the subheading; then I wake up when I want to and then start on my work for the day was not agreed by respondents, which showed that they wake up early and start working at the same time they would if they were in the office it was disagreed by 51,40% that they do not wake up on they own time. The Always go above and beyond because I am concerned about my performance proved by 65,40% agree they work like they are working overtime because they are worried about their performance. The respondents disagreed that when working from h,ome they feel like their manager is in the same space as they are,e and they feel the pressure of having to produce; they disagreed was 49,50%. I do not want to lose my job, so I try hard to meet the objectives agreed with this statement by 70,50% because as they are working from home, other people would think they are not working, so the administrator feels obliged to push more and meet the objectives of the work. I have nothing else to do at home, so I occupy myself with work disagreed with this statement by 38,80% that they keep themselves occupied by work. I live alone and have no disturbances, so I can do my work freely disagree with 42,50% that they do not live alone.

Recommendations: Working from home seems to be the best feeling the participants have experienced, so that it would make more sense out of the five days they spent at work, some of the days they would be working from home and be able to work well. The participants feel that they are more productive when working from home, which means there should be a day or two spent working from even after lockdown regulations.

Table 9.6: Convenience of working from home

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
CONVENIENCE OF WORKING FROM HOME					
37. I always am late to work since there is traffic in the morning.	20%	30.50%	18.10%	21.90%	9.50%
38. I get to the office exhausted because of travelling pressure to work	18.10%	21.90%	23.80%	25.70%	10.50%
39. I have taken sick leave from work regularly because of exhaustion	34.60%	34.60%	10.60%	15.40%	4.80%
40. I never like working in the office till late because of transport.	19%	19%	20%	28.60%	13.40%
41. When I go to work in the morning, I get tired before I start Work	29.50%	38.10%	16.20%	12.40%	3.80%
42. I spend more time on the road, which I should use for productivity	20.20%	19.20%	23.10%	24%	13.50%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The above study indicates how the convenience of working from home. Setting up a home office can be a little intimidating but also liberating and enjoyable. Every two to three hours, take a break to stretch, get a cup of coffee, go for a 10-minute stroll outside, and refresh and hydrate. Instead of rushing through work all at once, taking breaks throughout the day will increase a worker's productivity and effectiveness.

Recommendations: The convenience of working from home would do very well for those who are leaving far and also who are without transport because those are always stuck in the traffic which meant they could be working if they were at home during those times they are on the road.

Table 9.7: Advantages of working from home

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
ADVANTAGES OF WFH					
43. I have a flexible schedule because I decide when to take a break	7.60%	8.60%	21.90%	40%	21.90%
44. I develop my own workplace ergonomics, and that allows me to perform	3.80%	1.90%	24%	47.10%	23.20%
45. I work dressed in the most comfortable clothes, which makes me work well	2.90%	2%	14.70%	47.10%	33.30%
46. No coffee sitting from friends and peers that may want to while away time around	2.90%	4.90%	38.20%	42.20%	11.80%
ADVANTAGES OF WFH	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

47. I can extend my working hours without worrying about traffic and closing time	1.90%	7.70%	14.40%	46.20%	29.80%
48. I do not spend money having to travel to work and can perform all work from home	4.80%	5.70%	14.30%	38.10%	37.10%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study looked at the advantages of working from home. It represented in statement 43 that about 61,90% agreed they work flexibly they decide when they want to take a break from work. Statement 44 agrees that 70,50% have developed their working station from their homes. Statement 45 was 80,40% agreed that there was that they wear. Statement 46 agrees that there was a 63% there are no. No coffee sitting from friends and peers who may want to while away. Statement 47 stated that they could extend their working hours without worrying about traffic, about 76%. Is that a agree that 75,20% do not spend money on travelling and spend most of the time at home working and save the time in the traveling and the costs.

Recommendations: The results show that the advantages of working from now, which the respondents have shared the advantages what need to be investigated are they now delivering when they are working from home more or when they are working from the office, also what should be done is that there should be all the equipment might need when they are working from home to be assisted with it in order to produce even if they are not micromanaged.

Table 9.8: Advantages of working from home

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
SELF-EVALUATION BY THE EMPLOYEE					
49. Working from home, I consistently exceed my expected daily targets	1%	3.80%	24%	44.20%	27.00%
50. I work longer hours at home than in the office	3.80%	9.50%	15.20%	37.10%	34.40%
51. I don't have any regrets working from home: I am more productive	1.90%	8.60%	29.50%	32.40%	27.60%
52. I need the office for things that may be necessary, but I perform better here	1%	8.70%	29.80%	41.30%	19.20%
53. I have the same job in my next company I would repeat working from home	2.90%	8.70%	26.90%	39.40%	22.10%
54. In my own organisation, I would encourage employees to work from home	7.50%	16%	22.60%	36.00%	17.90%

Source: Author's own construction

Conclusion: The study did a self-evaluation by employees in this section, where employees could identify their capabilities. Overall, working from home, I always exceeded my expected daily targets, showing that by 71,20%, they always worked more than their daily targets were agreed on. Too often, I work long hours at home than I do when in the office environment it was agreed by 71,50% that they work more hours than they usually work in the office. I do not regret working from home because I am more productive here. They believed that working from home is more productive, as agreed by 60% of the time. I need the office for other things that may be necessary, but I perform better here as agreed by 60,50% of the time that the equipment they need is in the office. Maybe if I have the same job in my next company, I will repeat working from home agree 61,50%. I would promote the idea of my employees working from home, agreeing that 53,90% would recommend the work-from-home part if I had my organisation.

Recommendations: The participants or respondents were doing an outstanding job in self-evaluating themselves on how they work and what effort they put into their work and applauding themselves for that great job. What needs to be done now is that the study needs in the future study have the customers who are getting the services be the one who is evaluating the employees. To see if the percentages are then still this high.

9.5 Further Areas of Study

The study looked at topics that the researchers would like to investigate in order to close the gap that the study did not address.

- The study could include the people who are also doing administration and who are not administrators.
- Future research would do a study on lecturers on how they feel about the sudden change of working conditions.
- The research would like to expand to include more than one institution, starting in Western Cape institutions expanding to national universities.
- The researcher would want to do research on managers in terms of evaluating the productivity of employees.

9.6 Chapter Summary

The chapter focused on the outcome from the previous chapter, where it provided the conclusion to the outcome and recommendations of the findings. The study also summarised each chapter, which elaborated on what was happening and gave a synopsis of what was in the chapter. In conclusion, the study's findings were that there is still a considerable difference between the two types of "working from home and going to the office", where the respondents felt they are more productive in the office than working from home. In addition, it was believed there was insufficient preparation for working from home.

9.7 Conclusion

The research outlines the pandemic's origins and effects on the organisation's administration. It further reviews the issues of social distancing measures, stress, and the demotivation of employees who work from home due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, the chapters explore a need to establish proper planning, decisions making, actions, and results that have generated substantial interest due to pandemics in measuring the university administrative staff performance. Finally, the study highlighted academic research in work performance, examining the performance models, use, and review of performance measurement systems.

These chapters suggest that employees exposed to very supportive supervisors, demonstrate an increase in job satisfaction which, in turn, leads to the overall psychological well-being of employees and increased productivity.

The chapters also revealed the need to connect company culture, self-perception, self-confidence, and company performance to educational performance, specifically in educational institutions. A vigorous discussion of several theories regarding self-confidence, organisational culture, and self-perception: several philosophies have been established regarding the connection between organisational practices and performance. Other theories declare that organisational culture positively impacts workers' behaviour and attitude, which in turn affects their performance.

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APPENDICES A: QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Employees' self-evaluation of work-from-home performance during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown period at a university in Cape Town.

Your involvement is voluntary, if you feel uncomfortable you can withdraw or you can omit questions / statements without giving reasons. This is an academic exercise for you to measure your own performance working from home as an administrator in the organisation. The research seeks to measure the effects of Covid 19 Lockdown on administrator performance. Don't write your name or anything that can identify you as the respondent, – remain anonymous, confidentiality is guaranteed.

1. How long have been working in this unit you are in now?

0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16 > years
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2. Indicate your racial group?

Black African	Asian / Indian	Coloured	White	Multi-racial	Other
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3. Please select the option that best describes you?

Female	Male	LGBTQIA+	Prefer not to say
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4. What work / duties / tasks do you do most of the time?

Purely admin	Also, help peers	Attend customers	Other
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5. If other, please specify

6. Do you need your supervisor to give you work to do daily?

No, I know my tasks	Sometimes	Depends	Always
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7. Does your job involve interacting with clients?

Not at all	Occasionally	If my senior is not in	Most of my time
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8. Does your work involve regular consultation with peers?

Not at all	Occasionally	If there is a need	That's the norm
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9. Do you work in your own secluded space or open office?

Yes, work by myself	Secluded but people pour in	Open space but quiet	Open and busy
---------------------	-----------------------------	----------------------	---------------

10. Do you have performance appraisals annually with your line manager?

Have never had	When there is a problem	Occasionally	Regularly
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11. How is your performance measured generally?

No set standards	Not all tasks are measured	Depending online manager	With measurable standards
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12. What work method / format / style is practiced by your line manager?

Get instructions daily	Get instructions weekly	Get monthly duties	Left alone know my work
------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------	-------------------------

13. Are you always interacting with your line manager/supervisor?

That's the norm	Circumstances determine	Very rarely	Other
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14. If other, please specify

15. What type of Internet connection do you have where you are living now or during a lockdown?

Mobile data (LTE, 3G/4G) through a smartphone or mobile Wi-Fi, or a dongle	I have Wi-Fi where I live and have unlimited access (connected to a fiber network, ADSL, or a building network)	No internet access at all	Other
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16. Anything else you want to say about your work environment?

.....

.....

The Likert scale below is used to measure perceptions, attitudes or beliefs using a ranking scale. The scale used in the study ranks from 1-5; 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	MANAGER'S VIEW OF MY PERFORMANCE					
1	I am known for doing well in all the aspects of my job at work	1	2	3	4	5
2	I have been commended for good performance before at the office	1	3	3	4	5
3	I always get to do my given daily tasks promptly when in the office	1	2	3	4	5
4	Working with peers makes me feel like I belong and motivated	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am so accustomed to the office and when working from home, I miss the office environment	1	2	3	4	5
6	There is a relationship between being in the office and my work performance	1	2	3	4	5
	OFFICE WORKING ENVIRONMENT / ERGONOMICS	0	0	0	0	0
7	The environment is encouraging and makes you feel like performing	1	2	3	4	5
8	Things are well organised and you know where to get what you want	1	2	3	4	5

9	The arrangement is ideal for performance with everything at your fingertips	1	2	3	4	5
10	Whoever I need for assistance is readily available allowing me seamless operations	1	2	3	4	5
11	The presence of the manager is a factor to make me want to perform – formality	1	2	3	4	5
12	The office environment makes you know what you have come in for	1	2	3	4	5
	HOME WORKING ENVIRONMENT	0	0	0	0	0
13	Home environment is distracting for me and makes me feel not obligated to work.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Home is not an appropriate work environment	1	2	3	4	5
15	At home, I don't always have ready access to all my requirements for operational purposes	1	2	3	4	5
16	Where I need help I have to phone or email someone for an assistance to work	1	2	3	4	5
17	When working at home, I have to put more undue pressure on myself to perform to the expected standard	1	2	3	4	5
18	Working at home, I'm always under pressure since I'm not sure if I'm meeting the line manager's expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
	IMPACT OF PEERS ON PERFORMANCE	0	0	0	0	0
19	Work ethics in my office is so positive and contagious it makes you want to keep on	1	2	3	4	5
20	There isn't much socialisation I work independently of other people	1	2	3	4	5
21	One feels like performing well when you see others perform and you are in the environment	1	2	3	4	5
22	Even though I work from home, I am always on WhatsApp with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I never miss my office colleagues because we are always on Microsoft teams chatting	1	2	3	4	5
24	Online communication will never substitute the power of one-on-one interaction	1	2	3	4	5
	FEELING OF WORKING FROM HOME	0	0	0	0	0

25	I wake up when I want to and then start on my work for the day	1	2	3	4	5
26	Always go above and beyond because I am concerned about my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
27	When working from home I fill like my line manager is near me peering over me when I am working	1	2	3	4	5
28	I don't want to lose my job so I try hard to meet the objectives	1	2	3	4	5
29	I have nothing else to do at home and so I occupy myself with work	1	2	3	4	5
30	I live alone and have no disturbances so I can do my work freely	1	2	3	4	5
	HOME ENVIRONMENT	1	2	3	4	5
31	I don't have problems working without people around me	1	2	3	4	5
32	I am a quiet person and prefer quiet environments for work	1	2	3	4	5
33	I don't want to be talked to when working it's disruptive	1	2	3	4	5
34	Music, radio, and television make it difficult for me to focus	1	2	3	4	5
35	I keep going back to my work when there is noise around me	1	2	3	4	5
36	I have problems moving between tasks I want to be focused	1	2	3	4	5
	CONVENIENCE OF WORKING FROM HOME	0	0	0	0	0
37	I always am late to work since there is traffic in the morning.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I get to the office exhausted because of travelling pressure to work	1	2	3	4	5
39	I have taken sick leave from work regularly because of exhaustion	1	2	3	4	5
40	I never like working in the office till late because of transport.	1	2	3	4	5
41	When I go to work in the morning, I get tired before I start work	1	2	3	4	5
42	I spend more time on the road which I should use for productivity	1	2	3	4	5
	ADVANTAGES OF WORKING FROM HOME	0	0	0	0	0
43	I have a flexible schedule because I decide when to take a break or work	1	2	3	4	5

44	I develop my own workplace ergonomics and that allows me to perform	1	2	3	4	5
45	I work dressed in the most comfortable clothes which makes me work well	1	2	3	4	5
46	No coffee sitting from friends and peers that may want to while away time around	1	2	3	4	5
47	I can extend my working hours without worrying about traffic and closing time	1	2	3	4	5
48	I don't spend money having to travel to work and can perform all work from home	1	2	3	4	5
SELF EVALUATION BY THE EMPLOYEE						
49	Overall working from home, I always exceed my expected daily targets	1	2	3	4	5
50	Too often, I work longer hours at home than I do when in the office environment	1	2	3	4	5
51	I don't have any regrets working from home because I am more productive here	1	2	3	4	5
52	I need the office for other things that may be necessary but I perform better here	1	2	3	4	5
53	Maybe if I have the same job in my next company I would repeat working from home	1	2	3	4	5
54	If I had my own organisation I would promote the idea of my employees working from home	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS

The researcher believes that the employees have extra information that may be of tremendous assistance to the study, specifically to do with the work environment and performance.

The respondents are asked to provide this information below in point form in descending order of importance – the most important first in that order.

.

REQUEST 1; Please provide 5 things you missed when you started working from home instead of the traditional office environment.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

REQUEST 2; List five [5] most critical factors that make working in from the office less productive than working from home.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

REQUEST 3; Please list at least five [5] challenges you had to overcome for you to be productive whilst you worked from home.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

REQUEST 4; List below five [5] things you performed better from home which you could not perform from the office environment.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

...

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING

APPENDICES B: PERMISSION LETTER



FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Department of Education
Mowbray & Wellington Campus

23-Mar-22

I, **Mr Odumeleng Ramatlo** in my capacity as **Faculty Manager: faculty of Education** at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, give permission in principle to allow **Ntombizodwa Mbili** (student number 210026332) to collect data applicable to **“Employees’ self-evaluation of work-from-home performance during the COVID -19 pandemic lockdown period at a university in Cape Town”**. The student has explained to me the nature of her research and the nature of the data to be collected.

This permission in no way binds any individual staff members to partake in the research, and it is expected that the student will get explicit permission from any participants. I reserve the right to withdraw this permission at any point in the future.

Yours faithfully



Mr Odumeleng Ramatlo

Faculty Manager
Faculty of Education
Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT)
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PO Box 13881 Mowbray 7705 | Highbury Road, Mowbray, Cape Town, South Africa

APPENDICES C: ETHICS CERTIFICATE



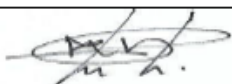
P.O. Box 1906 | Bellville 7535
Symphony Road Bellville 7535
South Africa
Tel: +27 21 4603291
Email: fbmsethics@cput.ac.za

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	FACULTY: BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
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The Faculty's Research Ethics Committee (FREC) on **3 May 2022**, ethics **APPROVAL** was granted to **Ntombizodwa Mbili (210026332)** for a research activity at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology for **Master of Business and Information Administration**.

Title of project:	Employees' self-evaluation of work-from-home performance during the COVID -19 pandemic lockdown period at a university in Cape Town Researcher (s): Dr L. Jowah
--------------------------	---

Decision: APPROVED

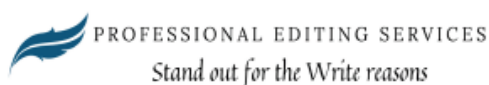
 <hr/> Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	<hr/> 16 May 2022 <hr/> Date
---	---------------------------------

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the CPUT Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study requires that the researcher stops the study and immediately informs the chairperson of the relevant Faculty Ethics Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines, and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, notably compliance with the Bill of Rights as provided for in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (the Constitution) and where applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003 and/or other legislations that is relevant.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after two (2) years for Masters and Doctorate research project from the date of issue of the Ethics Certificate. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report (REC 6) will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Clearance Certificate No | 2022_FBMSREC 020

APPENDICES D: CERTIFICATE OF EDITING



Gerald T du Preez

PhD

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Certificate of Editing

This serves to confirm that copy-editing and proofreading services were rendered to
Mbili Mtombizodwa for the degree

Master of Business Information & Administration entitled

EMPLOYEES' SELF-EVALUATION OF WORK-FROM-HOME PERFORMANCE DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC LOCKDOWN PERIOD AT A SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN CAPE TOWN

with final word count of 69 885 on 28 September 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/or 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 that I have met the above standards of editing 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)