



Impact Of Working Remotely Under Covid-19 On Job Performance in Yemen LNG

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: This examined the impact of disruptions in information flow, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely on job performance. The study tested the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between disruptions in information flow, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely and job performance.

Results: The result showed that there was a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance with beta = 0.531, T-value = 4.980, and P-value = 0.000. There was also a positive and significant relationship between social isolation and job performance with beta = 0.217, T-value = 2.101, and P-value = 0.036. but there was a negative and significant relationship between working remotely and job performance with beta = -0.281, T-value = 2.744, and P-value = 0.006.

The mediating effect test showed that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance with a significant level = of 0.000. also, Job satisfaction mediated the relationship between working remotely and job performance with a considerable level = of 0.021.

The study employed the direct effect test and found no relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance. Further, job satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between motivational factors, social isolation, lack of access to support and communication and job performance.

1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic led to the loss of millions of lives, shattered economies, both developed and developing alike, and has created major disruptions in society as we know it today. One of the spheres that COVID-19 targeted is the work sphere. It is estimated that around 56% of the US workforce can work remotely on a partial basis (Tagliaro & Migliore, 2021). Furthermore, due to the calamities caused by the COVID-19 outbreak, which led to the shifting paradigm from working at the office to working remotely, analysts predict that “Our best estimate is that 25 to 30% of the workforce will be working-from-home multiple days a week by the end of 2021 (Tagliaro & Migliore, 2021). Therefore, it is very important to note that even different cultures and values can be shared among many attitudes, which is the core value. Hence, many companies have forged differently. Although data suggests a whopping 42% of the US workforce works from home. Wong, Coleman, & Benjamin (nd), there are questions about the on-the-job performance of said remote workers. Due to the sudden imposed economic lockdown, employers and employees were not entirely prepared to lay the foundations for establishing clear remote-work policies that could sustain the same level of productivity as in the office. There are several challenges to working remotely that adversely affect job performance. Firstly, there is a lack of face-to-face supervision (Abhari, Pesavento, & Williams, 2022). Although developed countries like the USA have long practised “telework” policies, many developing countries, including Yemen, fear that the employees will not work as hard or efficiently as in a physical office. Many employees may struggle in their daily routines because they have less access to support and communication from their managers. Secondly, recruits unable to establish strong bonds with their team members face difficulty collecting information from their co-workers (Aji, Berakon, & Md Husin, 2020). Collecting information requires more time, which might be frustrating for the individual worker and can, as a result, decrease the entire team’s productivity. Thirdly, workers suffer from social isolation as face-to-face contact is severely restricted. With time, the increasing social isolation causes an employee to lose touch with the company, forcing him to look for other vacancies (Al Suwaidi & Ahmad, 2021). Lastly, the work conditions at a physical office can be challenging for some to replicate at a remote location. Employees can often be distracted by utilising a suboptimal work environment, childcare, or other household duties. This is especially sad because schools and daycare centres are being shut down (Albitar, Al-Shaer, & Elmarzouky, 2021).

On the other hand, a survey of 30,000 users indicated that remote workers were 47% more productive than those working in a physical office. They managed to do so by creating a suitable work environment, a fixed working schedule, and

reaching out to colleagues via productivity apps such as Slack (Westfall, 2020). This does not necessarily mean that the future of employment will be singlehandedly addressed by working from home. Satya Nadella, Microsoft's CEO, warned about the short-spiked productivity gains from working remotely; in return, human contact is sacrificed (Marks, 2020). So, the question is whether working from home makes people better at their jobs and, if so, whether the effect is short-term or long-term. Job performance in a remote-work setting is becoming an ever more alarming issue since managers are facing a unique situation where they cannot supervise and manage their staff in a traditional office setting. Organisations are now required to adapt to a new working culture and environment; however, productivity should not suffer. IT giants like Twitter have already announced a permanent remote-work policy. What started as a prerequisite to combating the spread of COVID-19 followed establishing a permanent remote work policy. The unintended consequence was that it was met with resounding success from employees and executives (Albitar, Gerged, Kikhia, & Hussainey, 2021).

However, this might not be the case across all industries since the IT industry was arguably the most prepared in the wake of working remotely. More traditional industries, such as Oil & Gas and construction, had significantly less time to prepare for work disruption as this pandemic presented itself. As such, this study will examine how working remotely affects job performance during the unprecedented times of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Yemen Oil & Gas industry under the YLNG Pte LTD as a case study

2. Literature Review

Job performance is a measure of productivity which consists of two major components: task and contextual performance, which are interplayed. Task and contextual performance are two distinct dimensions of workplace behaviour that offer substantially different contributions toward effective outcomes for firms (Alves, 2021). Task performance describes the core work responsibilities of a working professional. It is often reflected in specific work outcomes and measures of the quality and quantity of work performed (Amosun et al., 2021). Contextual performance covers a range of activities such as communication practices within a team, team building, and building social networks within the company to deliver its business goals. In other words, "task performance" refers to a set of core technical behaviours and activities involved in the job, whereas "contextual performance" is related to "behaviour that supports the environment in which the technical core operates". Common examples of contextual performance include volunteering, cooperating with co-workers, and defending the company's image. Contextual performance is vital in understanding a type of behaviour that can be constrained under situational demands. However, little research has been conducted in this area (Anguera-Torrell, Vives-Perez, & Aznar-Alarcón, 2021). With time, contextual performance becomes a more integral part of an organisation. Contextual performance drives the organisational climate within the company because it promotes stronger networking ties. A worker committed to contextual performance goes the extra mile to volunteer for extra work, help his co-workers and be enthusiastic about his core job duties. Contextual performance as a measure of job performance impacts the quality of HR practices. The HR department must establish proper metrics for measuring job performance by weighting duties in task performance and monitoring contextual performance (Asadov, 2022).

According to Boyatzis (2008), the founder of the theory of action and job performance, performance in an organisation is influenced by three main factors: individual, organisational environment, and job demand. The first factor is the individual, which consists of the workers' vision, values, philosophy, knowledge, nature, competencies, career path, style, and interests. The second factor is the organisational environment, which consists of the culture and climate, structure and systems, industrial maturity, strategic organisational position, core competencies, and the greater context. The third factor is job demand, which consists of the duties, functions, and roles of each member in the organisation. The theory of action and job performance indicates that the best performance (best fit) can be realised through the components of individual factors, the environment, and the roles and tasks carried out by human resources, including leaders in an organisation (Boyatzis, 2008). A leader's values, traits, style and knowledge supported by the organisational environment can be pushed to fulfil their role in completing tasks and functions to achieve the best organisational performance. A workforce that has skills and knowledge can influence organisational performance positively. This underpins the theory of this research. The author selected work motivation as an individual factor of job performance and work satisfaction.

Job performance as the organisational environment factor of job performance, while job demands were not considered to fit the context of this research because the work-from-home employees had already been recruited before the policy was imposed. Therefore, there was no change to the employee's job description before and after the policy was imposed.

2.1 Job Performance

This paper investigates the current theoretical framework of measurements of job performance. Emotional intelligence was used to measure job performance in a 2017 study by (Bastas & Garza-Reyes, 2022). Emotional intelligence became a hotly contested topic in the last quarter of the 20th century, which shows that there is still a plethora of research in this area. Emotional intelligence (EI) shows the capacity of an individual to (a) understand one's emotions and (b) appraise the emotions of others, (c) manage their own emotions, and (d) utilise their emotions to achieve personal growth. Much empirical research has been done by linking EI with job performance. Perhaps unsurprisingly, job performance remains a hotly contested topic since successes or failures in the job domain are intertwined with a person's happiness and psychological effects. Job performance was broken down into task and contextual performance, which the line managers measured. The study selected 188 ex-pats from the UAE from random companies with a 1 to 7 response format. Results showed that participants with the highest EI showed the strongest job performance ratings. Findings illustrated that the personas with the highest scores on EI also received the strongest job performance ratings. Interestingly, the lowest performance ratings were shown by people in the middle of the EI score continuum rather than those with the lowest EI ratings (Batoool, Shabbir, Abrar, & Bilal, 2022).

Analysing insights about the consequences of relationship conflict among employees led to the conclusion that "relationship conflict is negatively related to job performance and positively infers turnover intentions" (Bettaieb & Alsabban, 2021). This study included data from 306 telecom engineers and their supervisors, which were analysed using structural equation modelling. This discovery links relationship conflict, task and contextual performance, and turnover intentions (Bhadury, Kamate, & Nath, 2021). Further studies have shown a modest yet positive correlation between teamwork and contextual performance. However, being more competent in critical thinking and problem-solving allows employees to perform contextual performance better. The study showed that fundamental skills had a moderate relationship with contextual performance. However, having analytical thinking and problem-solving skills provided employees with substantially more benefits in performing contextual behaviour. Teamwork was also a moderately correlated skill with the workers' contextual performance. This implied that graduates' employability competence could give them an advantage in their respective work settings (Billewar et al., 2022). Employee resourcing, a strategy that ensures the organisation obtains and retains people for its needs, plays a pivotal role in job performance and corporate image (Blaique, Abu-Salim, Asad Mir, & Omahony, 2022).

Regarding job performance, self-reported job performance measurement instruments are adequate and provide a better measure than official evaluation scores from immediate supervisors (Bressan, Duarte Alonso, & Kok, 2021). To paraphrase, anonymous self-evaluations of job performance are a better instrument of quality perspective than official annual performance reviews produced by supervisors. The reasoning is that performance reviews are not anonymous and can contain a degree of subjectivity, such as the supervisors' knowing the employees they are monitoring at a deeper, personal level. As such, supervisors might provide evaluation scores that reflect the personal level of attitude towards said employee rather than his actual job performance. Another instance is when the supervisor is tempted to overstate their employees' performance to avoid conflict and ensure the loyalty of their employees. As we have previously established, well-performing employees can be an asset to the firm, and leaders play a crucial role in this by empowering the workers. A survey measured the person-related leader competencies with knowledge sharing and job-related competencies on job performance. The study firmly established that both knowledge sharing and an employee's job performance positively affect employee loyalty. However, the survey failed to establish a cause-and-effect relationship (Swanson et al., 2020). Another study by Soto-Pérez et al. (2020) revealed that job performance is best measured via surveys, with the job satisfaction scale used initially by Porter et al. (1988) with modifications by Yang (2014) that consider five factors of intrinsic satisfaction and five other indicators of extrinsic job satisfaction. The researchers used Partial Least Squares path modelling (PLS-PM) terms to estimate causality. Results showed that intrinsic job satisfaction was the greatest independent variable influencing job performance, which elevated performance (Soto-Pérez et al., 2020). Another study by Chong, Falahat, & Lee (2020) attempted to measure how emotional intelligence affects job performance, assuming that intelligence quotient (IQ) was a weak determinant of a person's success and work performance. In a cross-sectional study (Cociug & Mistrean, 2022), surveys (self-administered structured questionnaires through non-probability sampling) were distributed. This shows that all these authors have used some form of self-administered structured questionnaire to carefully evaluate job performance since (da Silva, Schutte, & Surujlal, 2021) study has shown the subjectivity posed in the performance reviews given by the employees' immediate supervisors.

2.2 Working Remotely

Working remotely is defined by (Dodds & Hess, 2021) as a style that allows professionals to work outside the traditional office work environment. The researchers noted that the number of professionals who have begun working remotely has dramatically increased due to COVID-19 and the resulting imposed travel and personal movement restrictions. The question remains whether working in a remote area has a positive effect on productivity and, hence, job performance.

Studies on analysing the supply-side of COVID-19 disruptions have shown that not all employers in the USA have adopted remote work. In those industries, there were significant reductions in revenue, production, and stock performance. Regarding industry, 64% of computer and information systems managers could work remotely. Workers that are employed in white-collar occupations are more likely to work remotely. However, women with children were the most demographically exposed group of employees exposed to COVID-19 (Dureab, Al-Awlaqi, & Jahn, 2020). McCarthy et al. (2019) stated that regular morning check-in meetings could help employers monitor their workers. This can make the employees feel accountable, which can help to improve job performance. Since more employees find themselves adjusting to the new reality of working from home, their immediate supervisors ought to tweak their strategies to ensure their staff remains connected, motivated, and productive while at the same time promoting physical and mental well-being (El Refae, Kaba, & Eletter, 2021).

Bonet & Salvador (2017) highlight the difficulties in managing a team remotely. 46% of the managers surveyed have explained that remote supervision remains the largest challenge. The challenges listed included interactions through information and communication technologies rather than the standard verbal and non-verbal cues, thus reducing the supervisor's ability to monitor effectively, control, and assess the worker's output. Another issue is that supervisors cannot always offer support in distress. To test the hypothesis, they ran a study collecting 13,435 software maintenance tasks over two years and found that remote supervision leads to superior work performance. In a world where millions of workers are assigned tasks by managers remotely, manager-worker separation can be improved if there is closer communication between the two parties (Bonet & Salvador, 2017). Another term for working remotely is telecommuting. As mentioned above, telecommuting became the new norm during the COVID-19 pandemic. A 2021 study by Abilash & Siju (2021) explored the effects of working remotely on job performance. The term "telecommuting" stems from employees' working remotely using appropriate telecommunication technology. The assumption posed by (Potter, 2013) is that businesses benefit from teleworking since it reduces operational overheads (i.e., costs of running an office) and increases workers' productivity.

Many previous studies by Gajendran & Harrison (2007) and Martin & MacDonnell (2012) stress a positive relationship between job performance and working remotely. Bloom, Liang, Roberts, & Ying (2015) argued that most telecommuting studies are cross-sectional, and at least two studies indicate a causal relationship between the said working arrangement and administrative workers' productivity remotely. The previous research by Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman (1999) indicates a causal relationship between telecommuting and performance and job productivity. Furthermore, another flexible working arrangement correlates with telecommuting and increases productivity. Another flexible working arrangement (a compressed workweek) was found to have no statistically significant impact on productivity but showed high supervisor-rated performance. When working remotely was offered as a means of flexible working arrangement, it was shown to improve performance. The theoretical framework shows that working remotely boosts performance because of the instrumental benefits it brings to the table. However, employees who opt to work remotely must meet the work and non-work demands beyond normal working hours, meaning that some continue to work overtime. Further studies have shown how employees value flexible work arrangements, with working remotely being one of the viable options. The American Psychological Association 2011 study revealed that just 36% of US employees were satisfied with the offered work-life balance programs (Kossek, Baltes, Matthews, & psychology, 2011). Another survey has shown a positive correlation between flexible work arrangement practices and organisational outcomes in Punjab, Pakistan (Galea, Houkes, & De Rijk, 2014).

There is reasonable ground to assume that working remotely and being a part of flexible work arrangement practices has the potential to show superior returns for meeting the company's goals, which shows how productive an employee can become. An academic investigation held regarding the effects of flexible working arrangements further revealed the link with better practices generating higher returns in employees' productivity (Ongaki, 2019). According to a research-based consulting company known as Global Workplace Analytics (GWA), 80 to 90% of US employees have indicated their willingness to work remotely, at least on some part-time basis. Therefore, one could argue that with time, the expectations

for more flexible work arrangements are increasing, which can have a plethora of effects on, first and foremost, job performance, job satisfaction, work-life balance, and turnover rates. Recent years have produced certain disagreements even among business executives. The camps are divided into those believing that working at home reduces office distractions. In contrast, others believe working from home is not the best environment due to inferior working conditions and distractions at home (Fonner & Roloff, 2010).

Marissa Mayer, the former CEO of the Internet giant Yahoo, ended the remote work policy in 2013 and stated that communication and collaboration would be important to become the absolute best workplace; communication and collaboration will be important, so we need to work side-by-side. However, more recent studies, in particular, the Gallup report on the State of the American Workplace, have shown that “people who work remotely are more engaged, enthusiastic, and committed to their work but only if they work outside the office 20% of the time or less (Pandey, 2017). Researchers from earlier studies Allen, Renn, & Griffith, (2003) believe that the body of existing academic literature on working remotely is based on problematic assumptions regarding telecommuting’s impact on the individual and organisational level. These problematic assumptions are employees working remotely full-time and permanently, and that remote work negatively impacts the firm via cost savings (Bailey, Kurland, 2002). In the last 20 years of academic research, inconsistent results have been revealed linking working remotely to job performance, satisfaction, and work-life balance (Golden, 2006); (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Academia has become concerned that executives and researchers in this field do not have reliable guidance in the literature on how working remotely affects individual employees.

Therefore, to fill the literature gap, many researchers have begun to study the positive or negative consequences that remote work brings on an individual level due to the ever-changing working dynamics and rise in information technology (Ferguson & Soekijad, 2016). The idea is that for employees, having flexible working arrangements such as teleworking provides cost savings since less time, money, and effort is spent on transportation, logistics, and commuting to the office daily. Therefore, employees tend to value employers that offer flexible working from home arrangements to meet the workers’ needs. As a result, workers perceive this as the firm’s way of showing appreciation for its workers by modifying the organisational processes to meet the needs and wants of the employees (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). It is for these reasons that authors have opted to study one consequence of working remotely, namely job satisfaction (Schall, 2019).

2.3 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the level of enjoyment employees feel towards their job. A different definition is that job satisfaction is the “positive emotional response” one experiences when working. This parameter is becoming increasingly important, and it is no surprise that leading companies worldwide spend enormous resources trying to measure it. Another aspect of job satisfaction is that it tends to vary from employee to employee since they quantify job satisfaction differently. Job satisfaction is another concept measured at the national level in various industries, including banking (Araya & Miras, 2015), government, and hospitality (Kong, Hu, Liao, & Ma, 2021). Most such studies have been conducted without considering the institutional context. As we have discussed, the institutional context before it contains the following: economic conditions, unemployment rate, levels of inequality, and, among other institutional factors, creates similar working conditions among a range of countries in terms of financial compensation, working hours, job security, and flexible working schedule (Posada Kubissa, 2019). Working conditions are particularly sensitive relative to the institutional context (Díaz-Carrión et al., 2020). Employees tend to learn a lot from their working routines, and if they experience any dissatisfaction will create great trouble for the business entity (Ileri, 2015). Previous research has shown that job satisfaction impacts a wide range of organisational factors that include but are not limited to change, employee turnover, the firm’s strategy, teamwork, and ethics. Together, these factors affect an organisation’s performance. Previous researchers have also shown a relationship between job satisfaction and performance. They have studied the role those demographic variables exert on job performance (such as income, age, and gender). However, relatively few studies have covered the role of job satisfaction on job performance. Only a few papers have been published so far, yet the effect of job satisfaction on work performance has not been the primary research focus. A small number of studies have examined the effect of job satisfaction on job performance (Valaei & Jiroudi, 2016).

Job satisfaction is considered a vital aspect for firms to gain a competitive advantage across all sectors, provided that the employees play a central role in the entity’s success (Kramar, 2014). However, despite the apparent importance of job satisfaction, there is still no defined agreement on what it comprises. Different authors have contributed to the ongoing debate. Spector (1997) provides a thorough definition, where job satisfaction is defined as how employees feel about their job and that the term itself depends on various variables. (Mahdiah & Sotoudehnama, 2018) assert that job satisfaction

depends upon various personal, managerial, academic, professional, organisational, and economic variables. Goetz, Laeven, & Levine (2016) list these four factors as the prime determinants of job satisfaction: professional development, interpersonal relations, economic expectations, and working conditions. Two methodologies exist for assessing job satisfaction: integral measurement of a single factor and comprehensive multidimensional measurement. The difference between these two methods lies in how the former rests on the assumption of a single item that measures job satisfaction, whereas the latter utilises several factors.

Most of the research conducted on job satisfaction utilises the multidimensional measurement approach. The Descriptive work index (JDI), developed first by Locke et al. (1964), includes different job dimensions, such as promotion, payment, and relationships with managers and colleagues. Spector (1997) was responsible for the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) that contained nine items: salary, promotions, additional financial benefits, fringe benefits, superiors, colleagues, operating environment, intrinsic work characteristics, and communication. Eiffe, Parent-Thirion, & Biletta (2018) developed the Job Quality Index (JQI) from seven variables: earnings, prospects, social environment, physical environment, work intensity, skills and discretion and work time quality that is related to the multidimensional nature of work. The JQI has been used in the study since it is more comprehensive in its coverage and transparency and is more widely employed in the research on job satisfaction and the quality of work in the European context (Erro-Garcés & Ferreira, 2019). It serves as the basis for developing the sixth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), which is being praised as a source of reliable information (Grimshaw, 2017). In 2000, the EU launched the European Employment Strategy intending to create more (quality-based) and better (quality) jobs (Ariza-Montes et al., 2019). EWCS asks workers about the intrinsic characteristics of the profession: salary, hours, participation, organisation, security, and others. The EWCS has been used in past studies to analyse the relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction with different perspectives such as new technologies, gender issues, and workers' age (Okay-Somerville & Scholarios, 2019); (Berde & Rigó, 2020). According to the review of the previous studies and theoretical concepts, this study has attempted to examine the impact of five independent variables on job performance, with job satisfaction acting as a mediating variable. The seven independent variables (with job satisfaction acting as the mediating variable) were the following:

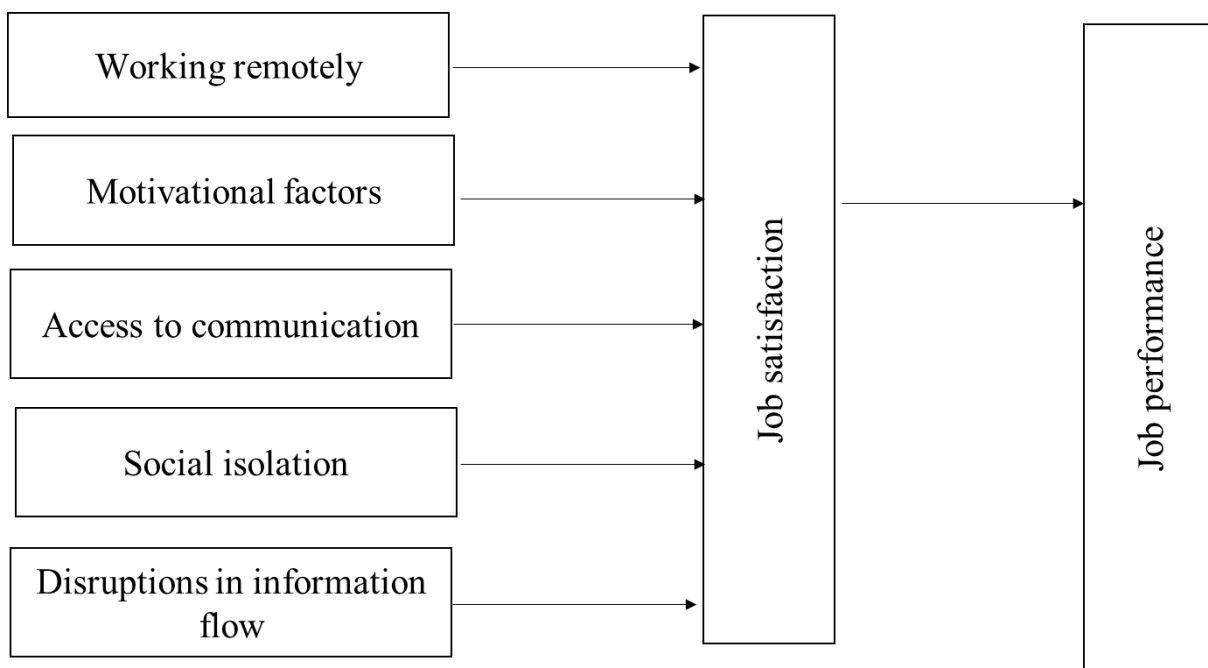


Figure: 1 Conceptual framework

3. Methodology

This research design is largely based on previous seminal papers in the field (Bozionelos, Singh, & Differences, 2017). Research design is a framework to describe how data is collected, analysed and presented (Mohammed Abdullellah Yousuf Saeed, Bekhet, & Dhar, 2017); (Mohd Abdullellah Yousuf Saeed, Bekhet, & Sciences, 2018). It helps researchers ensure

that the collected and analysed data allow them to achieve research objectives and answer research questions as unambiguously as possible (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). This article utilises quantitative research methods (Araya, Dahalan, & Muhammad, 2021a); (Araya, Dahalan, & Muhammad, 2021b). Data will be collected via a structured online questionnaire following (Mohammed Abdullellah Yousuf Saeed et al., 2017); (Mohd Abdullellah Yousuf Saeed et al., 2018), in which the questions that are designed to collect data for independent variables will be in a Likert-scale form with five answer options. The question for measuring the dependent variable will be binary (Yes/No). Analysis of primary data acquired during questionnaires will be executed via quantitative analytical software. For this topic, a descriptive study is chosen that allows for an accurate and valid representation of factors relevant to the research question. Furthermore, this study has used a correlational research design to explore the statistical relationship between the identified variables of the study (Araya, Dahalan, & Muhammad, 2022). A population is an entire group that the researcher concludes. On the other hand, a sample is a specific group from which the researcher collects data. The size of the sample is always less than the population. Sampling can produce more accurate inferences about the population (Bhandari, Krahmer, & Raskar, 2020). The main phases in sampling consist of defining the population, determining the sample frame, identifying the sampling design and size, and sampling process execution.

As discussed earlier, YLNG is a Yemeni company that specialises in oil & gas construction projects. The company's hierarchy is broken down into several blocks, each with its HR department that manages the said employees. All the HR units report to the top management, using this information to direct the entire enterprise. It is important to note that this study is undertaken under an unprecedented pandemic that has created many financial constraints for individuals and companies. At the beginning of the first national lockdown in March, only the top management tier was working at the office. In contrast, everyone else worked remotely or was released from their contracts. Based on the statistics gained from the website, the total number of office and management personnel is 1,683, distributed across various sites and projects. According to the information from the HR department, there are around 160 people in the main office, which will serve as the population of the current study. To determine the sample size out of a known number of the study population (1,683 people), the researcher used (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) estimation. Therefore, the sample size in this study is 113 (assuming a 95% confidence level). The study uses a non-probability convenience sampling approach to select the sample.

Based on the work of Bozionelos & Singh (2017), where they questioned 188 ex-pats in the UAE, the researcher will similarly distribute the questionnaires online. Because of COVID-19, the researcher extracts data from online surveys as the safest way to collect data. The questionnaire contains two sections: background questions (with questions on age, gender and whether the employee works remotely) and the main section, where there is a question on each of the variables: access to communications, information flow, social isolation, and job satisfaction (mediating variable) and the overall effect of working remotely. The questionnaire will be distributed online through the researcher's contacts with the HR department of YLNG and then to the employees. Each respondent's answers are guaranteed to be anonymous and confidential. Unfortunately, due to COVID-19, conducting offline interviews is impossible. Furthermore, not each respondent will consent to such an interview since respondents prefer anonymity. The questionnaire itself is structured straightforwardly and leaves no room for ambiguity. Answers are provided on a 5-option Likert scale. Since primary data is considered the key source of data in this research, the questionnaire is administered personally and distributed online for the convenience of both the researcher and the respondents.

Data was analysed through Stata statistical software, using descriptive and inferential methods. Firstly, the reliability test will be conducted to compute the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each item in the questionnaire to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instrument. Secondly, descriptive statistics of the variables will be computed to determine the frequency and percentages of each item on the scale. Pearson correlation analysis will be applied to identify the relationship between the variables. A series of regression analyses will be conducted to test the research hypothesis. The goal is to examine the relationship between the independent variable (motivational factors) and the dependent (job performance). Control variables, such as gender, age, and educational level, will also be introduced in the model. The statistical significance of p-values is less than 0.05. Finally, various statistical tests will be run to determine if there are statistically significant differences in employees' perception of the effect that motivational factors exhibit on job performance in a remote work setting.

4. Results and Analysis

Several tests have been employed in the current study starting by analyzing the demographic statistics of the respondents, as well as the reliability & validity, direct effect, and mediation effect. The demographics of the respondents were divided into five categories, which are age, gender, working experience, position, and education levels. According to the following table 1, the age ranges of the respondents were divided into 3 categories, where 40% ranged between 24-32 years of age with (n = 40). Also, 39% ranged between 33-44 years of age with (n = 39). There was also 21% ranged between 45-55 years of age with (n = 21). It is confirmed that most of the respondents are below the age of 44 years old. According to the results in the following table 4.2, there was 53% of the respondents belong to the male gender category and (n=53), while there was 47% of the respondents belong to the female gender category and (n=47). The result confirms that male respondents were the majority if possible, to say it was almost split evenly. According to the following table 1 the working experience of the respondents ranged between less than 1 year to more than 5 years. It was found that 7% of the respondents has a working experience less than 1 year with (n = 7). It was found that 9% of the respondents has a working experience of less than 3 years with (n = 9). It was found that 18% of the respondents has a working experience from 3 to 5 years with (n = 18). Finally, it was found that 66% of the respondents has a working experience with more than 5 years with (n = 66). Most of the respondents had working experience more than 5 years.

The positions of the respondents were divided into 4 types of positions, which are assistant, specialist, project manager, supervisor. The respondents who work as assistants were 5% with (n=5). The respondents who work as specialists were 79% with (n=79). The respondents who work as project managers were 7% with (n=7). Finally, the respondents who work as supervisors were 11% with (n=11). This result confirms that most respondents were specialists. Most of the respondents hold undergraduate degree certificates with a percentage of 42% and (n = 42). On the other hand, the postgraduate degree (Masters, PhD) certificates holders were also 41% with (n = 41), as well as the high school certificates holders were 12% with (n = 12), and finally, the vocational education (technical colleges, lyceum etc.) certificates holders, they were 5% with (n = 5). It ensures that all the participants were well educated.

Table: 1 Respondents profile

Age	Frequency	Percent	Position	Frequency	Percent
24-32	40	40	Assistant	3	3
33-44	39	39	Specialist	79	79
45-55	21	21	Project Manager	7	7
Total	100	100	Supervisor	11	11
Gender	Frequency	Percent	Total	100	100
Male	53	53	Education	Frequency	Percent
Female	47	47	High school	12	12
Total	100	100	Vocational education	5	5
Working Experience	Frequency	Percent	Undergraduate degree	42	42
Less than a year	7	7	Postgraduate degree	41	41
Less than 3 years	9	9	Total	100	100
3-5 years	18	18			
More than 5 years	66	66			
Total	100	100			

There are several tests conducted to the collected data regarding the variables (disruptions in information flow, job performance, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely). The tests used are the reliability test, convergent validity test, and factor loading analysis. The reliability test was employed for the purpose of finding out if the variables items are consistent or not. The reliability test has used Cronbach's alpha values and composite reliability values to be greater than 0.70 to be accepted (Hair et al., 2017). According to the following table 4.6, the variables (disruptions in information flow, job performance, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) have got great internal consistencies with Cronbach's alpha values ranged between 0.738 and 0.896, as well as composite reliability values ranged between 0.828 and 0.913.

The convergent validity test was employed in the study to ensure that all the collected data are valid for further analysis. The convergent validity test has used the average variance extracted (AVE) value to be greater than 0.4 to measure the convergent validity Hair et al. (2019). According to the following table 2, the AVEs for the variables (disruptions in information flow, job performance, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) were ranged between 0.520 and 0.619.

Finally, the factor loading analysis has been employed in the study to back up the results of the validity of the data. The factor loadings should be greater than 0.5 to be accepted. According to the following table 2, the factor loading for the variables (disruptions in information flow, job performance, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) were ranged between 0.601 and 0.900.

Table: 2 Reliability and Validity Results

Constructs	Items	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Disruptions in information flow	DIF2	0.776	0.896	0.911	0.597
	DIF3	0.739			
	DIF4	0.859			
	DIF5	0.717			
	DIF6	0.9			
	DIF7	0.611			
	DIF8	0.771			
Job Performance	JP1	0.851	0.84	0.889	0.619
	JP2	0.846			
	JP3	0.879			
	JP4	0.721			
	JP5	0.601			
Job satisfaction	JS1	0.583	0.812	0.865	0.522
	JS3	0.609			
	JS4	0.821			
	JS6	0.735			
	JS7	0.691			
Lack of access to support and communication	JS9	0.855	0.891	0.913	0.601
	LASC2	0.673			
	LASC3	0.821			
	LASC4	0.873			
	LASC5	0.803			
	LASC6	0.715			
	LASC7	0.74			
Motivational factors	LASC8	0.785	0.865	0.888	0.539
	MF2	0.675			
	MF3	0.544			
	MF4	0.545			
	MF5	0.84			
	MF6	0.848			
	MF7	0.774			
	MF8	0.836			
social isolation	SI3	0.642	0.794	0.842	0.52
	SI4	0.668			

Working remotely	SI5	0.683			
	SI6	0.872			
	SI7	0.721			
	WR2	0.658			
	WR3	0.848	0.738	0.828	0.55
	WR4	0.653			
	WR8	0.788			

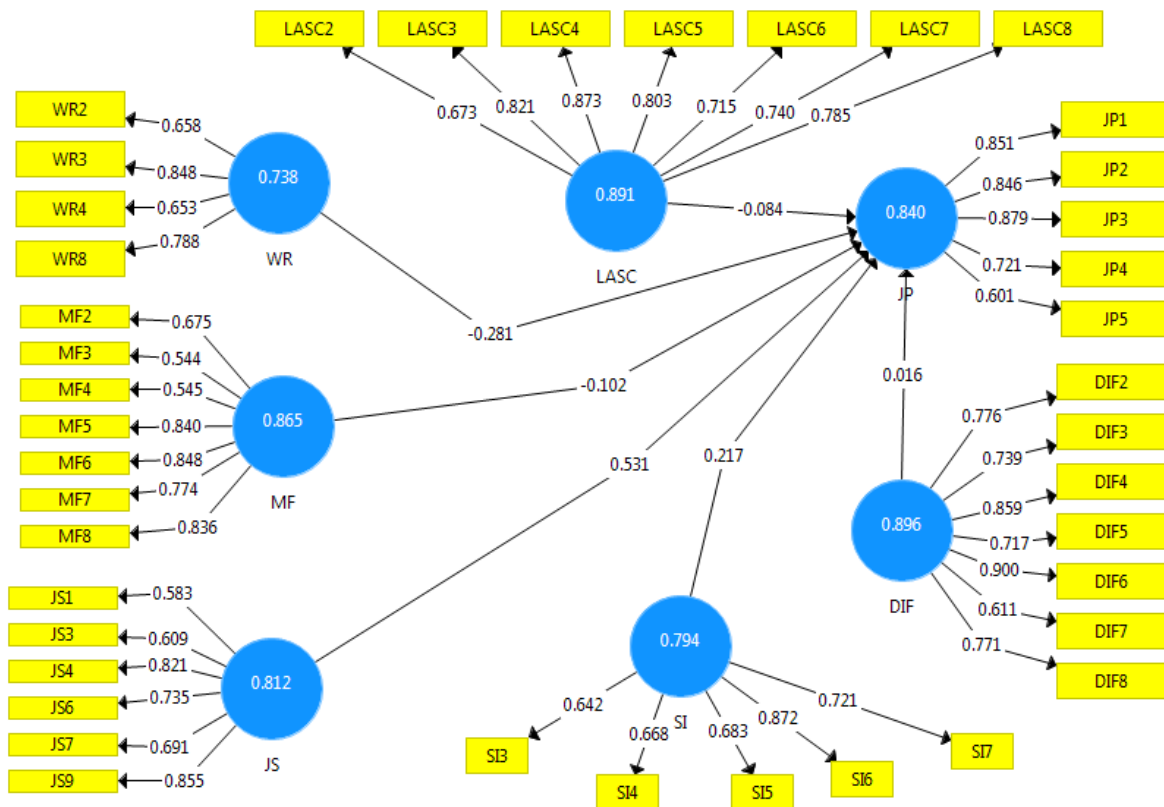


Figure: 2 Model measurements

The direct effect test is used to measure the relationships between the independent variables (disruptions in information flow, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) and the dependent variable (job performance). The following conclusions were drawn based on the results showed in the following figure 2 and table 4.7:

- There is no relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance.
- There is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance with beta = 0.531, T-value = 4.980, and P-value = 0.000.
- There is no relationship between lack of access to support and communication and job performance.
- There is no relationship between motivational factors and job performance.
- There is a positive and significant relationship between social isolation and job performance with beta = 0.217, T-value = 2.101, and P-value = 0.036.
- There is a negative and significant relationship between working remotely and job performance with beta = -0.281, T-value = 2.744, and P-value = 0.006.

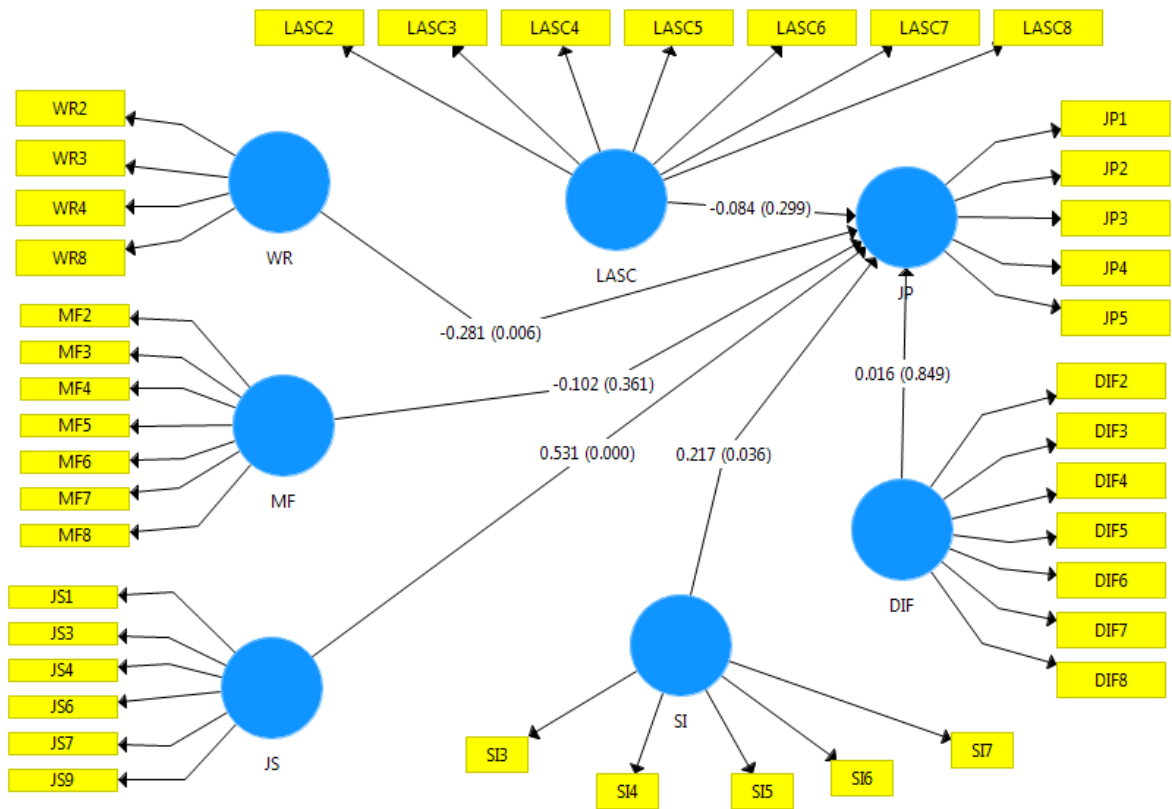


Figure: 3 Direct effect
Table: 3 Direct effect analysis

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
DIF -> JP	0.016	0.084	0.191	0.849
JS -> JP	0.531	0.107	4.980	0.000
LASC -> JP	-0.084	0.081	1.039	0.299
MF -> JP	-0.102	0.111	0.915	0.361
SI -> JP	0.217	0.103	2.101	0.036
WR -> JP	-0.281	0.102	2.744	0.006

Key: DIF: disruptions in information flow; JS: job satisfaction; LASC: lack of access to support and communication; MF: motivational factors; SI: social isolation; WR: working remotely; and JP: job performance.

The mediation test was employed in the study for the purpose of finding out the mediating effect of job satisfaction for the relationships between (disruptions in information flow, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) and job performance. The following figures, tables, and explanations will discuss the findings of the mediation test.

The following figure 3 and table 4 show the results of the mediation effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance. By applying the bootstrapping calculation for the results found, it was found that:

- Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance with significant level = 0.000.

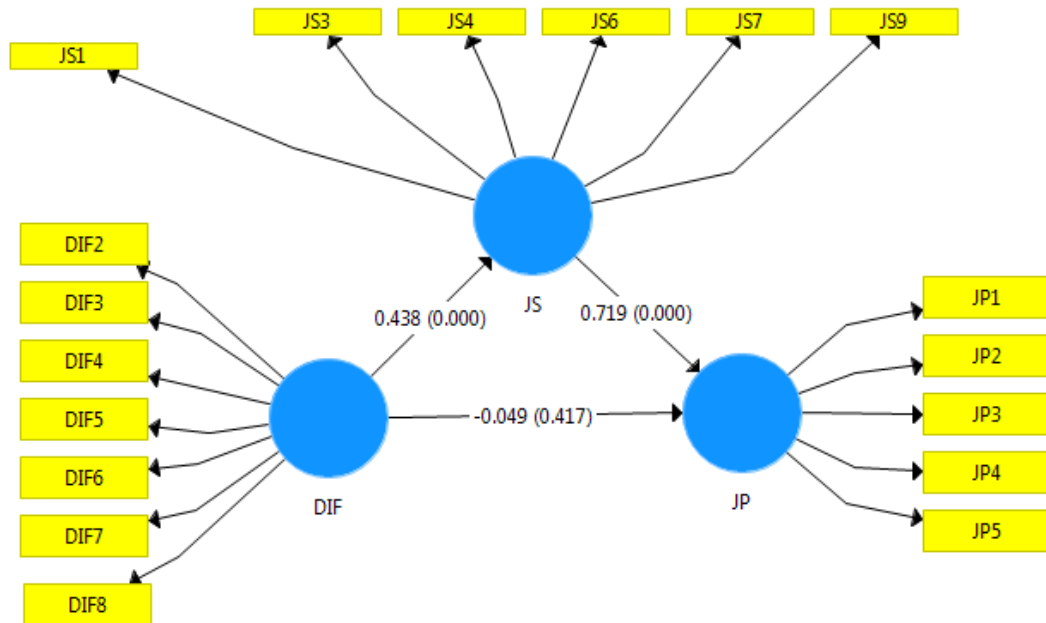


Figure: 4 Indirect effect
Table: 4 Mediation Test (1)

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
DIF -> JP	-0.049	0.061	0.812	0.417
DIF -> JS	0.438	0.085	5.18	0.000
JS -> JP	0.719	0.058	12.476	0.000

The following figure 5 and table 5 show the results of the mediation effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between lack of access to support and communication and job performance. By applying the bootstrapping calculation for the results found, it was found that:

- Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between lack of access to support and communication and job performance.

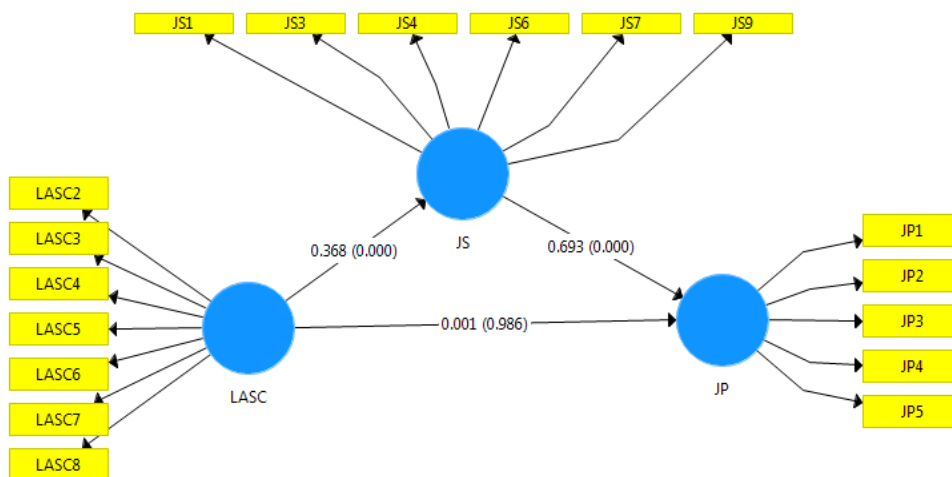


Figure: 5 Indirect effect - 2
Table: 5 Mediation Test (2)

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
JS -> JP	0.693	0.066	10.555	0.000
LASC -> JP	0.001	0.071	0.018	0.986
LASC -> JS	0.368	0.099	3.731	0.000

The following figure 6 and table 6 show the results of the mediation effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between working remotely and job performance. By applying the bootstrapping calculation for the results found, it was found that:

- Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between working remotely and job performance with significant level = 0.021.

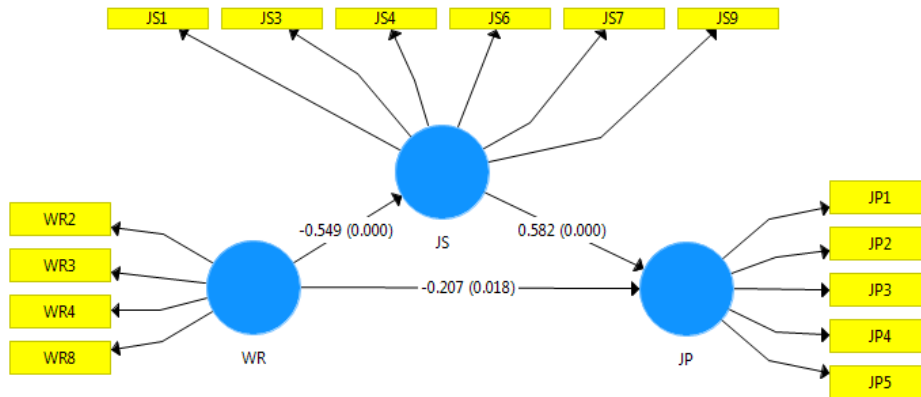


Figure: 6 Indirect effect – 3
Table: 6 Mediation Test (3)

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
JS -> JP	0.582	0.081	7.175	0.000
WR -> JP	-0.207	0.087	2.382	0.018
WR -> JS	-0.549	0.064	8.527	0.000

The following figure 6 and table 4.10 show the results of the mediation effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between motivational factors and job performance. By applying the bootstrapping calculation for the results found, it was found that:

- Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between motivational factors and job performance.

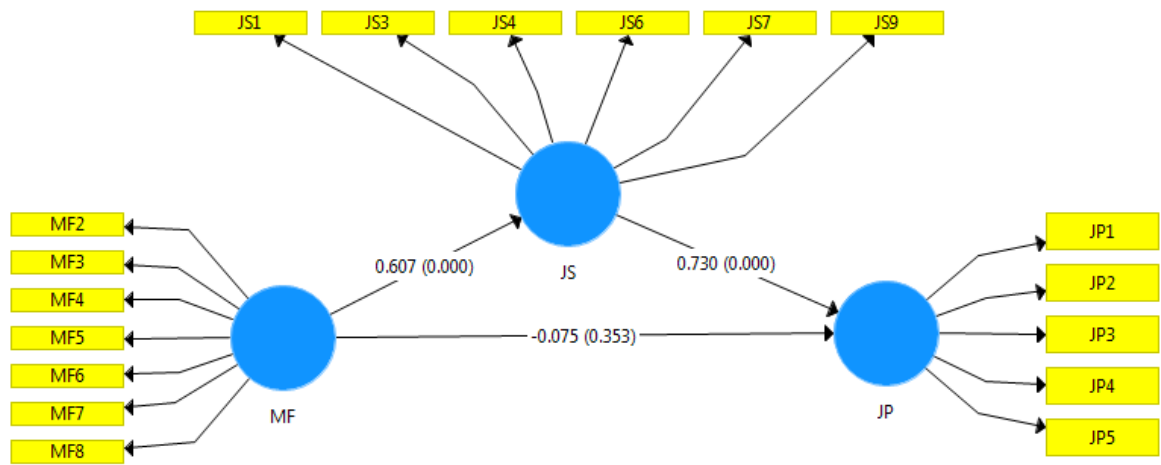


Figure: 7 Indirect effect – 4
Table: 7 Mediation Test (4)

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
JS -> JP	0.73	0.07	10.407	0.000
MF -> JP	-0.075	0.081	0.929	0.353
MF -> JS	0.607	0.053	11.528	0.000

The following figure 7 and table 4.11 show the results of the mediation effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between social isolation and job performance. By applying the bootstrapping calculation for the results found, it was found that:

- Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between social isolation and job performance.

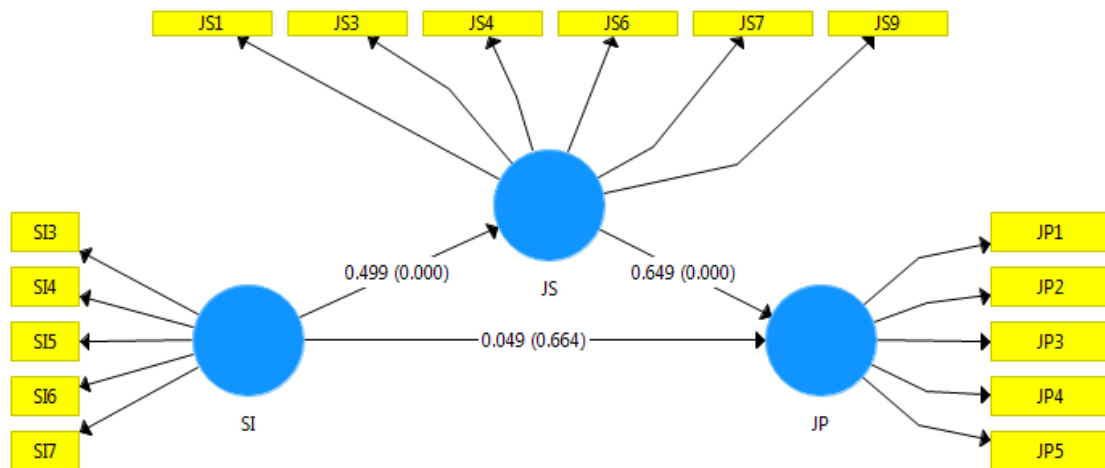


Figure: 8 Indirect effect – 5
Table: 8 Mediation Test (5)

Paths	Beta	Standard Deviation	T Values	P Values
JS -> JP	0.649	0.085	7.62	0.000
SI -> JP	0.049	0.113	0.435	0.664
SI -> JS	0.499	0.099	5.03	0.000

5. Discussion

This study employed the direct effect test and found no relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance. There is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance with beta = 0.531, T-value = 4.980, and P-value = 0.000. There is no relationship between lack of access to support and communication and job performance. There is no relationship between motivational factors and job performance. There is a positive and significant relationship between social isolation and job performance with beta = 0.217, T-value = 2.101, and P-value = 0.036. There is a negative and significant relationship between working remotely and job performance with beta = -0.281, T-value = 2.744, and P-value = 0.006. Also, this study employed the mediating effect test, and it found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between disruptions in information flow and job performance with a significant level of 0.000. Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between lack of access to support and communication and job performance. Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between working remotely and job performance with a significant level of 0.021. Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between motivational factors and job performance. Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between social isolation and job performance.

These results are consistent with the results of the previous studies, which have explored how businesses can use uninterrupted flow of information in an organizational setting that inevitably helps to increase employee performance, reach the business entity’s profitability goals, and increase the employee’s loyalty. Communication in a business entity can be inherently complex, as it is transmitting information from one stakeholder to another. Effective communication can help employees to bond together and increase their job performance. The study had a cross-sectional survey design that evaluated the influence of business communication on job performance, with the dependent variable being employee performance and various forms of communication affecting it. Researchers have explored the effect of academic-related factors and working conditions on life satisfaction. Their paper has shown statistically significant results for the correlation between working conditions in life and overall job satisfaction. However, job performance was relatively weakly correlated to working conditions for females. Research has explored to effects of face-to-face supervision (namely, abusive supervision among Chinese managers) on job performance. Job performance was measured through the six-item scale adopted. The findings indicated a negative relationship between abusive supervision and job performance. The study proposed that face-to-face supervision can boost the employees’ job performance and that it is necessary to consider cultural differences since the management style of Chinese executives differs from their western counterparts.

Russell et al. (1980) attempted to study social relationships by analyzing perceived coworker support. Social isolation and the loneliness it create has been considered important factor affecting job performance. The study adopted the UCLA Loneliness Scale, measuring satisfaction levels with social relationships. The study concluded that it is necessary to revise the previous scale because this measure's validity has never been proven. Díaz-Carrión et al. (2020) study was focused on the measurement of job satisfaction and the quality of work (i.e., job performance) within the European context. The study was based on the sixth European Working conditions Survey (EWCS), which was initially launched to create better quality jobs. The EWCS asked workers to self-evaluate the intrinsic characteristics of the profession critically. The study results showed the discrepancies across working conditions and how workers in different countries evaluate their job performance based on cultural differences. Researcher examined how working remotely impacted workers' motivation and job performance. The survey included items on remote working experiences ranging from how their perceptions of working remotely have changed, what improvements could be made in their work setting, and the organizational work culture. The study yielded that overall, workers were very satisfied with the results of working remotely and would continue to pursue this option in the future. However, questions about the firm's remote working conditions and lower social interaction were raised.

Another study explored the relationship between working remotely and job satisfaction, with the following variables considered in the scope of the paper: work autonomy, work-family conflicts, and the extent of telecommunication. The results yielded overall satisfaction with a remote work setting, indicating that increasing remote work might lead to increased job satisfaction. The reasoning was that under remote work conditions, employees exhibited higher levels of autonomy, less work-family conflict and more intense telecommunication, leading to higher job satisfaction.

The study evaluated which factors of working remotely lead to employees' productivity. The study identified that working remotely makes employees feel more productive without constant interruptions in the office. However, they also tend to feel more socially isolated since they lack face-to-face communication. Furthermore, working conditions are important in allowing the workforce to perform their tasks better with suitable ergonomics. Another important factor is that working remotely allows employees to spend more time with their families, increasing job satisfaction. Others explored how the workforce adjusted to teleworking following the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Many employees cited the lack of face-to-face communication as an important factor in reducing job satisfaction. However, remote work helped employees adjust their work-life balance, allowing greater flexibility. The study concluded that working remotely under COVID-19 reduced work motivation and job performance. Other work focused on the work remote setting and its effect on job performance. The study yielded that gender, which acted as a control variable, was responsible for different remote work experiences. Some coping mechanisms proved less successful for females than their male counterparts. The study also contributed to the impact that supportive management and internal telecommunication can profoundly impact job performance in a remote work setting.

6. Conclusion

Remote work, one of the most prominent components of flexible working conditions in recent years, was a concept based on preferences. Today, we can run our business by working from home, a cafe, or any location. While these practices are a preference for employees for personal reasons and their motivation, for companies, both financial gains were preferred from the perspective of employee engagement. Some of the employees - especially young people. They see the workplace/working environment as an opportunity to socialize, develop long-term relationships, establish social networks, and "experience the environment". For this reason, working remotely may not be attractive to them. It's not just about generation or age. Some employees like the idea of "being in the crowd" because of our personality. Some of the employees have turned out too much. Some of the employees love teamwork and take inspiration from colleagues to stay motivated. Some of the employees can't provide enough self-discipline when we're alone. On the other hand, some employees feel that an institution, a brand is a part of the purpose and that belonging with physical environments and working together. On the other hand, the issue can sometimes appear as an obligation rather than a choice.

As a result of the war with Covid-19, millions of people worldwide work from home. Working life is very important for the individual and the country's economy. Therefore, the policy-making process should consider revealing and evaluating the epidemic's impact on employment. Of course, every employee can't work from home. In some professions, it is necessary to be physically at the workplace. The key question in this process is determining which individuals-professions can and cannot work from home. This study was developed to test and examine the impact of (disruptions in information

flow, job satisfaction, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely) on job performance. Testing the mediation effect of job satisfaction on job performance (disruptions in information flow, lack of access to support and communication, motivational factors, social isolation, and working remotely). After performing the tests and examinations needed, it was found that (job satisfaction, social isolation, and working remotely) impact job performance significantly. Also, this study has employed the mediating effect test, and it found that job satisfaction mediates the relationships between (disruptions in information flow, working remotely, and job performance).

The opportunity to work remotely is higher for those with a high education level, with permanent employment contracts, and those working in urban areas and large enterprises. While those with a large part of the income distribution will be able to work from home, those at the bottom have very little potential to work from home. However, those who use computers in the workplace can also work from home. Physical space is not a problem for those who work on computers. Executives, experts, white-collar workers, administrators, academics, teachers, educators, real estate agents, media workers, artists, and online salespeople rank high in the group working from home. Similarly, in his research for Turkey, media, advertising, service, technology, e-commerce, energy, and the results of their work remotely located high in the education sector have been reached. In future studies, exploratory research that will evaluate the views of the parties who experience and experience the change in the process will contribute to science to fill the existing gap and identify the problems and difficulties related to work from home and offer solutions.

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