Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe

By

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Declaration

I, Petty Silitshena, declare that this thesis contains my own work. All sources that were used or noted have accordingly been duly referenced. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not being currently considered for any other degree at any other university.

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Date: 10 *May 2022*

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As the candidate's supervisor I agree/do not agree to the submission of this dissertation

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Date: **10 May 2022**

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my dear husband (the late Professor Robson Mdlaliso Kudlakwempi Silitshena); and to my biological parents (the late Lucas Matshilo Siziba, and the late Eputseng Siziba (nee Dube). To my late sister, Ntibaleng Siziba, I know you would have loved to see me go through this level of academic work. You were my source of inspiration − rest in eternal peace!!! Thank you to all my siblings, my children, Memory Tetso, Mthunzi, my grandchildren, Baizel Kagiso, and Sanjay Keabetswe. You rendered huge support and love that helped me to complete this study. Friends and colleagues who wished me well and encouraged me to soldier on over the long journey − thank you very much.

Abstract

This thesis applied a mixed methods research approach to eleven employees (lecturers).These participants shared their perceptions on motivation levels of organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe. The study adopted a pragmatic paradigm and a case-study research design. The main purpose of the study was to investigate employees' perceptions of their motivational experiences on organisational performance at selected government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. In this study organisational performance was identified as a dependent variable while employee motivation was an independent variable. As a result, for triangulation purposes, document analysis, an open-ended questionnaire, reflective journals, semi-structured face-to-face interviews, and a focus-group discussion were used as data-generation/production instruments, in order to investigate such employee perceptions. Convenience and purposive methods of sampling were used in selecting three primary teacher-education colleges and eleven lecturers. I needed to find colleges easily accessible to me, and lecturers who were computer literate thus able to access emails and to attend meetings on the Zoom platform. To analyse data that were generated for this study, a guided analysis and a thematic approach were deployed. Five broad themes were engaged each with sub-themes that were presented, analysed, and discussed in detail.

Furthermore, in order to ensure trustworthiness, issues of dependability, confirmability, credibility, and transferability were considered in this study. In addition, ethical issues were employed, such as use of consent letters, anonymity and withdrawals.

Three research questions guided this study, namely: 1.What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Descriptive). 2. How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Operational). 3. Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Philosophical). Furthermore, the following research objectives assisted the answering of the study research questions: 1.To identify employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. 2. To investigate how motivation models are used in motivating employees on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. 3. To understand why employee motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The research questions were useful in guiding the study in reviewing relevant literature on motivation models based on three levels, namely; the system, process, and personal-needs levels. The study thus adopted the Currere model as the theoretical framework of regression, progression, analytical, and synthetic models. This yielded the discovery of a ‘self-identity’ motivation model as a new theory obtained from this study.

The major study findings revealed that all levels of motivation (system, process, and personal needs models) influenced employees (lecturers) in performing their duties in the workplace. It was, however, affirmed that lecturers were by and large influenced by the system and process model, rather than by the personal-needs model. There was limited knowledge of the personal-needs model both from an operational level and from documented literature. This led to a lack of balance between the system and the process models of motivation in addressing the personal-needs level. This effect had a negative impact on the employees, resulting in their demotivation. The study therefore recommends combining the strengths of the system and process models to ensure the development of self-identity, so that one would become self-actualised and be permanently motivated. Finally, this study suggests that further research be carried out on various other organisations in order to inform and add to existing literature. Such would bring awareness within organisations which may then adopt new motivational levels in government learning institutions in African countries and beyond.

Keywords: motivation, system model, process model, personal-needs model, self-identity, propositions

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CHAPTER ZERO:

RESEARCHER'S POSITIONALITY APROPOS OF THE STUDY

STUDENT STATEMENT

In undertaking this study I was influenced by my personal, social, and academic life experiences, which have developed an interest and passion for research. Growing up as a young girl, I was motivated by my parents who were business entrepreneurs. I found my parents always geared up to do anything that made them successful. I was inspired to emulate them in every way possible. My parents taught me to work hard at everything I did so that I could achieve what I aspired to in life. From this background, I was, therefore, a self-driven individual who always wanted to achieve whatever I set out to do. From my childhood, (six years and older) I had a personal determination to be at least as successful as my parents, if not more so. Both my parents, especially my father, always encouraged me to work hard at school. My mother would encourage me to help her with household chores, and to be thorough in whatever I was assigned to do. The encouragement from my parents inspired me to succeed in my academic career. Unlike for other female children in my community, my parents worked hard to pay for my school fees so that I could pursue primary and secondary education. When in secondary education at a boarding school, I was given the opportunity over the years to rise through the ranks of responsibility. I began as class monitor, moving on to vice head girl, and subsequently, to head girl. This helped me understand my colleagues as I played the various leadership roles.

After completing my secondary education (Cambridge 'O' level), I was invited by my previous school to work as an untrained teacher. This gave me first-hand experience to interact on the same level as colleagues who were professionals. I gained much social and academic support from my colleagues. As they expressed their views freely about the system, I learned what either motivated or demotivated them in the workplace. After a year, I pursued my studies and engaged in a three-year secondary-school teacher training programme. I gained a certificate in education specialising in Home Economics, and began teaching as a qualified teacher. During my fourth year of teaching I pursued a Bachelor of Education degree (B.Ed.) on a part-time basis over three years at the University of Zimbabwe, where I interacted with academicians who motivated and inspired me to learn more and to develop myself academically.

This qualification underlined for me that life is all about choices, in realising one's vision. I chose to be motivated in pursuing my studies. As a result, I enrolled for a master's in Educational Administration (Leadership). Since I always aspired to be a leader in education, I was able to gain knowledge about leadership in a well-structured manner. I was influenced to solve leadership challenges in various ways. I understood therefore that employees' perceptions about what motivates them on organisational performance are varied, belonging either to the system or process model or to some extent, the personal-needs model. I discovered that the system model ought to be complemented by the process model to be able to address personal needs.

Moreover, when I studied for the master's degree, I developed an interest in research. Studying helped me to develop in-depth academic knowledge about research concepts and methodologies. I undertook this PhD study with the hope of acquiring a clearer understanding of motivation models and related literature that supports such motivation models. Furthermore, this qualification has equipped me with a wealth of knowledge and ability to carry out research that can enrich my field of study through publications. I can now contribute new theories on motivation on organisational performance in education institutions and other organisations. In addition, this PhD qualification has developed in me an understanding of my own identity. I now clearly understand my own strengths and weaknesses based on my subconscious processes that influence my life actions, especially as I work with colleagues. Furthermore, this has assisted me to understand why people think and behave in a particular manner in the workplace (their perceptions).

When I embarked on the PhD studies I had undergone fifteen years of experience as a teacher in high school, and sixteen years as a lecturer in primary teacher education. I had the opportunity to rise through the ranks and gain experience in various leadership positions when I was a lecturer. Subsequently, I was appointed to the top administrative post in the college as vice principal and ultimately, principal of the college. I thus gained wide experience of understanding and working with people, first as colleagues and next as a leader. I realised that while I was teaching and lecturing at high school and in teacher education, respectively, I was mostly driven by the process model. I always aligned my actions with what the experienced teachers and lecturers were doing. However, after I became a leader in teacher education I was motivated more by the system model (to accomplish the tasks at hand as guided by pre-planned policies): this would make me feel good. In other words, my work life was mainly influenced by the system model, the process model, and very little by the personal-needs model. This PhD study has, however, helped me realise that there is need for one to address their personal needs, through combining strengths of the system model and those of the process model in the work-life situation.

Therefore, in conducting this study, I wanted to gain more insight into employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. This study has helped me to understand the philosophical underpinnings of employee motivation models in line with the Fourth Industrial Revolution in the 21st century. This study has also equipped me with skills and knowledge on developing philosophical motivational needs of employees that would go beyond the personal needs. In other words, it has taught me that an individual ought to address self-identity and become self-actualised in order to develop characteristics helpful in motivating themselves permanently for both organisational and personal growth. Moreover, through this lonely journey of undergoing my PhD study, I have advanced my academic prowess and writing skills. I am now able to theorise study findings, and to generate a new framework, as a contribution to the field of academia. I am also able to generate an article for publication drawn from my current research study findings. I would like to use this study phenomenon (employee motivation) as my ‘niche’ expertise, allowing me to publish even more journal articles as a way of contributing to the existing body of knowledge.

Furthermore, through conducting this study, I have gained understanding that employee motivation models can be driven either by the system or process models, which when combined may address personal needs. These personal needs may contribute towards the development of a unique and self-actualised individual with clear rationale for self-identity that helps them to behave naturally, and to meet their goals in life. This is how I have successfully conducted this study as I have met my academic and personal aspirations and developments.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

There are two main motivation models which influence employees' performance in the workplace. Even though there is no single conceptualisation of what constitutes employee motivation, (Khoza, 2019; Mpungose, 2018) indicate that employees may also be influenced by the personal and self-identity models. Currently, there is a shift from the system and process models of motivation towards the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) that brings about a combination of the motivation models to address the personal-needs model. As a result, natural motivation models that are influenced by self-identity of the individual are developed so that employees can be permanently motivated. Employees, therefore, need to be made to understand that there is more than the system and the process model that can motivate them permanently; hence, they need to be self-actualised. In other words, employees in various workplaces, private or public, can develop motivation models to improve their organisational performances, including personal growth.

Globally, higher-education institutions attempt to remain competitive through the use of motivation models for both academic and non-academic staff as part of moving towards the 4IR. The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) requires one to understand one's own identity first − the 'who' question of motivation, so that one can then address the philosophical 'why' question of motivation as one performs duties in the workplace (Schwab, 2016; Khoza, 2021a). This means that employees need to know and understand who they are. This requires them to self-reflect *on* (the system), *in* (the process), *of* (the environment) and *for* (personal) (Khoza, 2021b). This would enable the employee to make their own choices on the use of those motivation models that would first address their needs ahead of the system and process needs (Biesta, 2015; Czerniewicz & Brown, 2014; Mpungose, 2020d; Khoza, 2020). While there are studies that have concentrated on *what* (descriptive) and *how* (operational) motivation models were used on organisational performance, this study investigates and understands the pragmatic and natural motivation models in the 4IR. Thus, this study found it necessary to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance in higher-education institutions. While several studies have been carried out on employee motivation models on organisational performance, many of these studies have been explored outside higher-education institutions like teacher-education institutions (Nguyen, 2017; Joseph, 2015; Muogbo, 2013; Kiruja & Mukuru, 2013; Ganta, 2014).

Similarly, Khoza (2021a) argues that there has been little discussion on how teacher-education institutions contribute towards the 4IR. Even though the system and process motivation models are used, they may not address the personal needs of an individual. This suggests that there is a need for more studies to be carried out in institutions of higher learning to investigate perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance. This study is necessary because it adds to the body of knowledge on higher-education institutions moving towards the 4IR regarding their motivation models. This investigation is important in the education sector as it allows a deeper understanding on issues of employee motivation models on organisational performance in the workplace. This study, therefore, reveals lecturers' perceptions and experiences as informed by the system, the process, and the personal experiences. This chapter, therefore, aims to introduce the study and its purpose in investigating employee motivation models. The chapter also provides the background of the study, the rationale, the problem statement, significance of the study, purpose of the study, location of the study, research objectives and questions, the research methodology and approach employed, issues of trustworthiness and ethics, and finally, a brief overview of the chapters that outline the entire research.

1.2 Background and Context of the Study

For an organisation to compete favourably and competitively in a rapidly changing environment globally, its success is largely determined by its employees' performance. Nguyen (2017), in his study on the impact of employee motivation on organisational effectiveness, expresses that the human resources of an organisation are an important component of its success. Nguyeni (2017) further contends that personnel use their own competencies and knowledge to support the company in achieving its goals. On administering a questionnaire and interview to a group of staff members, Kiruja and Mukuru (2013), in their study on employee performance in public middle-level technical training institutions in Kenya, maintain that the achieving of its strategic objectives, for an institution, depends largely on the performance levels of its employees. Furthermore, a survey carried out by Joseph (2015) on workers' performance and overall productivity reveals that it is very difficult to manage human resources within an organisation, each individual bringing their own peculiar needs and unique behaviours. However, if their value for the organisation is recognised and well managed, employees can work towards the success and growth of the organisation. This goes to show that employees are actually core to an organisation, determining its success or failure; however, staff need to be motivated. This view is supported by Ganta (2014) in his study on how motivation in the workplace can be used to improve employee performance: employees need motivating to feel good about their jobs. This suggests that motivation models employed within the workplace have a bearing on employee performance. Therefore education practitioners and policymakers ought to develop user-friendly policies and models that help them manage their employees. Understanding of teacher-education motivation models by both administrators and employees is being sought in this study.

Administrators' lack of knowledge of motivation models in the workplaces, if addressed, may promote quality service delivery to enhance both organisational and personal growth. Motivation models are very important, because lack of such leave employees less than innovative and able to produce extraordinary results. This, therefore, has prompted me to carry out a study that investigates the administrators' motivation models. I need to understand which of the motivating models most influences employees on organisational performance. Khoza (2016b; 2016a) alludes motivation models as defined in three visions namely, the content/professional/system vision (traditional view), the process/social/societal vision (contemporary view), and the contextual/personal/individual vision (current issues). Once this is understood, administrators in various organisations, whether private or public, may implement the models to assist employees to appreciate their efforts in the workplace, thus improving the human capital development process. This study therefore investigates motivation models to address the system, process, and personal visions in the workplace, in government-owned primary teacher-education institutions.

There are many models such as humanistic theories of psychology that address the motivation model as an important phenomenon within an organisation or workplace. Some of the proponents of employee motivation models are Maslow (1954) with his hierarchy of needs, Herzberg (1959)'s hygiene “two-factor” theory, Alderfer (1972)'s existence, relatedness, and growth theory, and McClelland (1961)'s acquired needs theory. These proponents of motivation have presented different views on the make-up of a motivation model. Abraham Maslow advocates the view that when one basic need for an individual is met, that brings about a need for an individual to satisfy the next level of needs; hence Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). Alderfer reorganises Maslow's hierarchy of needs model from five levels to three levels of the existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory. Alderfer organised employee needs in a continuum, as opposed to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. In different ways, Maslow is supported by Fredrick Herzberg who presents a dual-factor theory. Herzberg talks about extrinsic and intrinsic motivators, also presented as hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors are also considered maintenance factors. These include company policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, status, interpersonal relations and many others. Herzberg argues that the presence of hygiene factors may prevent dissatisfaction but would not increase motivation. Herzberg further asserts that motivators are those that are associated directly with the job itself. These include aspects of achievement, recognition, advancement, the job itself, responsibility and growth. McClelland and his associates, for example, John Atkinson, focussed on a needs theory, also called achievement motivation. This is concerned with how individual needs and environmental factors combine to form three basic motivations, namely; need for achievement (n Ach), need for power (n Pow) and need for affiliation (n Aff). Each of McClelland's three motivations evokes a different type of feeling of satisfaction.

While Maslow, Herzberg, Alderfer and McClelland present their motivation models that address the needs of employees they have concentrated on the system or content or professional (traditional view), and to some extent the process/societal/social vision (contemporary view).The system/professional vision dwells more on the traditional view. This view portrays employees as staff with needs that must be met for them to improve their performance in the workplace. While this may be true, the model overlooks the fact that employees have process/societal perceptions that they also consider important. These process/social expectations, if not addressed, may result in lower production in the workplace to the detriment of organisational growth. While both system/professional and process social visions are important, it is imperative to fulfil the personal vision of the employee, as suggested by Khoza (2016a; 2016b).

Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2011), present the process, societal, social vision (contemporary views) of motivation. These researchers are of the view that, unlike in the needs theory by Maslow and other proponents, motivation contributes to a person's degree of commitment in the workplace. The above researchers further concur that motivation helps employees to develop particular behaviour that encourages them to remain committed to the growth of the organisation. Motivation is, therefore, is a process that makes employees feel good about their work: this would make them 'tick'. If administrators know what drives people to work, tailor-made assignments and rewards could be put in place to cause these employees to 'tick'. There are contemporary views, also referred to as modern approaches to motivation models, in which ability of an employee, resources, and conditions under which an employee performs their duties are important factors needed in the workplace. The contemporary views address what Khoza (2016a; 2016b) calls the process, societal and social vision, in the case of motivation models. The process/societal vision of these models shows that the personal vision that directly addresses individual needs is not fully addressed.

Furthermore, the motivation models described above, presented in literature to support this study support various motivation models that may be employed by administrators in the workplace. However, these models do not adequately address the personal/contextual/individual vision of the employees. Employees vary in their needs and perceptions of what motivates them. This suggests that administrators may apply the most appropriate models depending on the particular individual and the context, which is the expectancy/personal vision (Khoza & Biyela, 2020; Makumane & Khoza, 2020). No one motivation model in particular, can be considered the most effective or prescribed as most appropriate. This study therefore is different in that it investigates all angles of motivation models of employees including the personal, process, and system visions to address differing needs of employees in the workplace. Thus the study adds to the existing body of knowledge on employee motivation models on organisational performance especially in revealing teacher educators' perceptions on what motivates them in the workplace.

1.3 Rationale for the Study

The interest in this study was triggered by my personal experiences as an employee in my various capacities in the workplace, also by literature on motivation as well as professional experience as an administrator. My background in teacher education in a government set-up has had an influence on my experience. During my early years as a lecturer, all I wanted to achieve was the professional (system) aspect of teaching students so that they would pass their examinations. I would gain satisfaction from that, receiving little or no praise from my superiors. When I was gradually promoted to positions of responsibility, I started realising that I had to socialise (process) with my colleagues in a particular way to win their hearts. This would encourage them to perform well for the section and subsequently for the department in order to receive praise and recognition from superiors. Praise and recognition from superiors motivated us to work even harder; we understood that we were contributing immensely to the overall performance of the organisation. At that time I did not consider my personal (individual) needs but rather, the attitude of the department towards organisational performance.

When I was elevated to a top administrative position, I realised that it was important to consider professional, (system), social (process), as well as personal (individual) needs of employees. I observed that employees expressed varying views about how they would expect to be motivated, after performing a task. Literature informed me of the motivation models that could be employed. I realised that the system (professional) and the process (social) visions were emphasised; however, very little was mentioned about the personal (individual) vision of an employee. It is acknowledged that employees at teacher-education colleges have diverse needs, thus, knowledge of motivation models to address their system (professional) process (social) and personal (individual) needs is key (Khoza, 2016a; 2016b).

Moreover, there is an urgency to investigate the experiences of employees on motivation models in government teacher education institutions. In this study, specifically the employees in teacher-education institutions, lecturing and non-lecturing staff are focussed on. The system (professional) and process (social) views of motivation models are addressed; however, the personal vision remains a gap. It is important that the system and process views of motivation are integrated to be able to address the personal views for members to self-actualise. In essence, teacher-education employees may gain much insight from this study. The study may reveal to them ways of creating neutral experiences, combining the system and process views to address their individual views (identities).Such would develop in them characteristics of a self-actualised individual motivated permanently towards organisational and personal growth.

The results of this study, therefore, may help teacher-education and other education employees and administrators to reflect on the current motivation models within their organisations, taking cognisance of the system or professional, the process, societal, social and contextual or personal individual views of motivation within their organisations. The study may also help employees to appreciate efforts and constraints that administrators of government-run institutions may be facing with an attempt to motivate them (employees).While employee motivation may have a positive effect on organisational performance, it should also be realised by both administrators and employees that a model may work in one given context while the same may not apply in a similar but different situation. The results of the study may also influence policy formulation in order to improve service delivery in teacher education in Zimbabwe and beyond. Therefore, this study is conducted to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the study may reveal the appropriate motivation models that may be employed in the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) as well as during the reign of the Covid-19 pandemic.

1.4 Problem Statement

Some employees in workplaces have problems conceptualising employee motivation on organisational performance. Employees ought to understand their self-identities in order to influence their motivation models. Joseph (2015) articulates that employees each bring to the workplace peculiar needs which must be met, and unique value systems that ought to be carefully managed. Therefore, employees' lack of appropriate motivation models is of great concern. Employees may lack natural motivation that would permanently motivate them towards both organisational and personal growth, as evidenced by Khoza's (2021) study. Theorists and proponents of motivation have presented differing views on what a motivation model entails Maslow (1954); Herzberg (1959); Alderfer (1972); McClelland (1961) and many others. Khoza (2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b, 2019); Mpungose (2017); Khoza and Mpungose's (2019) studies indicate that employee vision is either driven by the system (profession), the process (societal), or personal needs. This present study thus hopes to find out what, how, and why employees are driven by the motivation models on organisational performance (dependent variable). This study further investigates beyond the why question; hence the use of the pragmatic mixed methods research approach that has helped to carry out an in-depth research study. Therefore, the findings of this study may be transferrable to experiences of similar contexts.

Furthermore, several studies have explored issues regarding employee motivation models (Owens & Valesky, 2012, Bush & Middlewood, 2013; Robin & Coulter, 2012; Baron, 1983; Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 2011).These studies have either used the quantitative or qualitative data approach in conducting their research. The phenomenon they explored is the 'types' of motivation models (independent variable). However, the phenomenon investigated in this study is employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges.

Moreover, this study investigates beyond the types of motivation models, thus, digging deeper into rationale (why employees' motivation models are used in particular ways) feelings, perceptions, experiences, and thoughts of teacher-education employees on motivation models in their workplaces (teacher education).This study is also different in that it uses the mixed methods research approach, a more in-depth approach than others. It therefore provides detailed understanding of perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance. This study is also different in that the researcher has worked with teacher education employees (lecturers) who have revealed their perceptions, experiences and their realities of using employee motivation models or organisational performance.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this research study is that it may inform various stakeholders in teacher education on how they can close the gap between the system and process views of organisational motivation models to address the personal vision of motivation

(Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2011). For instance, employers and administrators may benefit by the knowledge and skill of effective motivating of employees with differing needs within the organisation. Employees themselves may also understand how they can combine the system and the process models to address their individual personal needs. Furthermore, the research study may also help inform teacher education in Zimbabwe about personal and self-actualisation motivational gaps that cause demotivation to their employees.

Moreover, administrators and employees may be assisted by this study to understand the process and system models and how these may be combined to contribute towards the growth of the organisation. While administrators may not find it easy to motivate employees, they can at least create an enabling environment for the employees, conducive to good working conditions. Furthermore, through this study, policymakers may be assisted to find ways of improving working conditions that may help motivate employees within their organisations. Finding a way of combining the system and process models of motivation may be used to address the personal needs, or helping individuals to self-actualise. In essence, employees in teacher education and beyond may find this study useful as it may equip them with knowledge and skill of creating a neutral platform on which to combine the system and process experiences, thus understanding their individual motivation needs.

This study may also contribute to existing literature on the use of motivational models in teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe and beyond, providing greater awareness. Overall, the research study may help to restore the organisations to better working conditions and to ensure their effectiveness and existence in the 4IR, as well as in the midst of the Covid-19 pandemic. This study is different in that it uses the mixed methods research (MMR) paradigm, which gives both detailed descriptions and quantitative detail in investigating the phenomenon of motivation models and experiences of both administrators and employees in the workplace. However, I still believe that more research should be carried out on phenomenon, such as on other motivation models. This can help in improving employee motivation models on both organisational and personal growth.

1.6 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance. The focus was on teacher-education lecturers in selected institutions of higher learning. These lecturers provided varying perceptions and experiences on how and why they perceived specific motivation models on organisational performance.

1.7 Location of the Study

This mixed methods case study was located in three government primary teacher-education institutions in three different provinces of Zimbabwe: Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland East, and Harare provinces. One institution was in a rural area, one in peri-urban, and the third in an urban area. The institutions were given pseudonyms (A, B, and C), thus adhering to ethical considerations. The selected institutions were all run by the same ministry, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology Development. Lecturers in these institutions had varying qualifications, ranging from Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) to Master's in Education (M.Ed.). This gave me an opportunity to investigate the phenomenon by means of well-qualified employees. The institutions have more or less similar infrastructure and equipment. Thus they are able to train students for the primary school teaching profession, and have the same conditions of service. These institutions were, therefore, fertile ground on which to carry out a study on employee motivation models on organisational performance.

Recently, researchers have intensively focussed on employee motivation and organisational performance. For instance, Muogbo (2013) asserts that it is important for an organisation to motivate its employees in order to achieve their mandate. It is commonly accepted that, through motivation, employee performance may be improved. Therefore, to improve employee performance, it is important to decide which factors would best motivate an employee.

Furthermore, employees in both public and private sector organisations ought to increase productivity and excellence. We must therefore take cognisance of the economic and environmental challenges that surround us, that may hinder our organisational and personal growth. Despite these challenges, not much serious research work has been carried out to investigate employee motivation on organisational performance in government primary teacher training colleges in

Zimbabwe. Therefore, this study aims to empirically analyse how motivational models are employed at primary teacher-training colleges to effectively drive plans for growth and development through whatever means possible, thus gaining the best from staff members. This would help administrators understand what motivates the employees, as leaders in today's work dynamic, thereby improving employee job performance. Therefore, this study seeks to unravel how staff motivation models impact levels of performance of employees, in selected government-owned primary teacher colleges in Zimbabwe.

1.8 Research Objectives and Questions

1.8.1 Research objectives

1) To identify employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe,
2) To investigate how motivation models are used in motivating employees on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe; and
3) To understand why employee motivation models are used in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe.

1.8.2 Research questions

The study seeks to address the following research questions;

1) What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?
2) How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?
3) Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?

1.9 Study Research Methodology

1.9.1 Research paradigm

This study employed the pragmatic research paradigm which, according to Alise and Teddlie (2010), considers multiple approaches in conducting any particular research study. Kaushik and Walsh (2019) posit that pragmatism embraces plurality methods, hence combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The researcher therefore is free to employ methods from any approach to answer critical research questions (Chapatula, 2016; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The pragmatic paradigm, therefore, ushers in a philosophical perspective that allows research to use a multiple approach. For these reasons, the pragmatic paradigm enabled me to select the most suitable objectives and appropriate research questions for my study. Furthermore, I used document analysis, an open-ended questionnaire, reflective journals, semi-structured face-to-face interviews, and focus-group discussions to generate data for the study. I also used a combination of quantitative and quantitative research approaches to answer the research questions of my study. The study used the pragmatic paradigm as it sought to close the gap between the system and process models of motivation on organisational performance, in an attempt to address personal needs of individuals. Based on the above reasons the pragmatic paradigm was found to be the most appropriate research paradigm for this study.

1.9.2 Research approach

The case study employed the philosophical pragmatic methodological mixed methods research (MMR) approach. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative data was therefore used to collect, analyse, and interpret data in investigating motivation (phenomenon) on organisational performance. Cameron (2014) avers that mixed methods research may be used to investigate a single or series of studies on the same phenomenon. In this study, I collected and analysed data on employee motivational models on organisational performance in three government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The intent in using the mixed methods research paradigm was to bring together the various strengths, and to overcome the weaknesses of quantitative methods (large sample size, trends, generalisation) with those of qualitative methods (small N, details, in-depth) (Patton, 1990). On one hand, I sought opinions from employees (process) on how and why motivation is important in organisational performance. On the other hand, I generated data on what motivates employees. I used both qualitative and quantitative methods of generating and gathering data from college lecturers. Staff included lecturing staff and non-lecturing staff who were considered to have clearer understanding about employee motivation on organisational performance in the workplace. This approach, (MMR), helped me to complement quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings. I was thus in a position to validate and expand qualitative results with quantitative data. It should be noted that the use of MMR was time-consuming because it combines two different types of processes (qualitative and quantitative). However, I made sure that each process was given sufficient time to generate findings/results that would generalise results and allow me to use findings to establish contexts that were similar to this study.

1.9.3 Sampling

Sampling refers to the population of all objects, and/or people that have similar characteristics that can be used for the same study (Kolala & Umar, 2019; Magwa & Magwa, 2015). Therefore, a sample refers to a total number of objects or people chosen from the population to participate in a particular study. Furthermore, sampling helps to organise data gathering in a manageable manner in order to save time, energy, money, labour, and equipment without having to use the whole population. In this study, the population comprised all staff at teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. Out of fifteen (15) teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe, three were for secondary teacher education and twelve for primary teacher education. Three (3) of the primary teacher-education colleges were purposefully sampled to comprise this study. I used purposive sampling together with convenience sampling, allowing me to select the most accessible groups (Khoza, 2018); McNiff, 2013). Three colleges were selected from those that were purely run by government.

Participants for the study were drawn from three government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The researcher found people who were willing to provide information on employee motivation through purposive sampling. Magwa et al. (2015) assert that sampling allows the researcher to gather information about a population without having to use the entire population. Moreover, this allows the researcher to collect detailed information from a small group of subjects that the researcher can easily control (Magwa & Magwa, 2015).

The participants in the study were thus drawn purposively from various departments for the sample. I (the researcher) identified those participants that I considered potentially able to provide significant data for the study. The purposive sampling technique allowed fair representation and selection of samples. The selection of participants in this study deliberately included representation from various posts of responsibility. This was done with the intention that such a sample of participants would provide the necessary variety of information required for this study. Creswell and Plano (2011) comment that in purposive sampling the researcher ought to identify and select subjects or groups of individuals specifically familiar with interviews and with experience of the phenomenon of the study.

My sample had a total of seven participants per college which made a total of twenty-one participants for the study. Of these, eleven participants tendered their consent and thus were used in this study. The sample had a wide representation of employees in the institution, thus findings could be generalizable. Because I involved participants in both quantitative and qualitative study, the sample size was manageable (Mtshali, 2015). Furthermore, some participants helped me to generate rich, in-depth and informative data about a particular phenomenon (Tuckett, 2004).

I used the email and telephone as the purposive recruitment strategies for this study. I used purposive and convenience sampling to select three government primary teacher-education colleges that were easily accessible (Khoza, 2018) to me as the researcher. Heads of selected institutions were initially contacted by telephone to ask whether they were willing to have their institutions participate in the study. A follow-up letter of consent was sent by email to be read, signed and returned to me (the researcher). Participants were further selected through the use of an email to the head of institution to identify suitable candidates for the study. The institution further confirmed the willingness of identified participants by email and also per telephone. I explained to the heads of institutions the categories of participants I sought to be selected for the study: I used purposive sampling to select a specific group that I required to participate (Khoza, 2018); Cresswell, 2014). These participants enabled me (the researcher) to answer the research questions and address the objectives of the study. While purposive sampling may be severely prone to bias I was able to judge the subjects that were typical and representative of the phenomenon under study. Convenience sampling involved the choice of the nearest individuals to participate in the study. Convenience sampling is very easy to carry out and requires less in terms of cost and time. It is, however, likely to be biased, as samples were selected because they were accessible to the researcher (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). The participating institutions were approached through their parent ministry (the gatekeepers) and pseudonyms were used for ethical considerations (Khoza, 2018); Cohen, Manion and

Morrison, 2007). Participants were also required to read consent forms and to append their signatures on issues of confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary participation and withdrawal (Khoza, 2018; Mabuza & Khoza, 2021).The permission to conduct the study was acquired from the principals of participating institutions after seeking ethical clearance from the parent ministry. Pseudonyms were also given to participating institutions to replace their actual names.

1.9.4 Data-generation/-production methods

For triangulation purposes this study employed a combination of data generation/production methods. An open-ended questionnaire and document analysis were used. This established the descriptive-content aspect of the research question on employee motivation models of organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. All the eleven participants who signed the consent forms responded to the questionnaire; and two colleges submitted their strategic plan documents for analysis. The operational-process of how motivation models were used in motivating employees on organisational performance was established through the reflective journal as the data-generation method. Bashan and Holsblat (2017) encourage participants to use reflective journals to reflect on their experiences, writing them down in such a journal. In this study five selected participants were given the opportunity of documenting their experiences of motivation models on organisational performance. Semi-structured (face-to-face) interviews were conducted with five participants to generate more data on perceptions and experiences of employee motivation models. These interviews allowed me (the researcher) to probe participants further on what they had indicated in the questionnaire and reflective journals, matching the information with that found through document analysis and open-ended questionnaires. Therefore, rich and in-depth data was captured from the participants through engagement with the participants, asking them open-ended questions, participants freely responding without limitations (Cohen et al., 2007). Five participants who held leadership positions were willing to be interviewed to allow me as a researcher to generate detailed findings. The interviews were conducted through a Zoom platform while Covid-19 was in the country.

Furthermore, those participants who were not interviewed were willing to participate in a focus-group discussion which was the final research method employed in this study.

I had one group of six participants in the focus-group discussions through the Zoom platform during Covid-19. Through the focus-group discussions participants shared views that augmented data gathered through interviews. The focus-group discussion was conducted via a Zoom platform and combined participants from two out of the three selected instructions as they had indicated willingness to participate. Participants shared their experiences collectively and engaged freely with the researcher (Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick, 2008). I had the opportunity of probing participants further on their perceptions and experiences of motivation on organisation performance

1.9.5 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness helps the researcher to persuade the reader that the findings and conclusions of the the study are of high quality. It is therefore important to pay attention to the following dimensions that increase trustworthiness in a convergent parallel mixed-methods research study: credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. The above mentioned dimensions were thus adhered to in this studyas described below.

1.9.5.1 Credibility

Credibility describes the findings of the study as reflecting the lived experiences of the participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) in establishing trustworthiness. I, therefore, allowed participants to check if findings captured their perceptions and experiences (member checking).

1.9.5.2 Dependability

Dependability relates to reliability and is about providing correct information in the study. In this study the processes carried outwere stated in detail in order to allow a future researcher to repeat the work to get the same results (Guba & Lincoln). I therefore, ensured dependability in this study by clearly describing the research design (convergent parallel mixed-methods case study design. I also used direct quotations and references from scholarly researches.

1.9.5.3 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to whether the findings reflect the experiences and views of the participants without the influence of the researcher (Shenton, 2004). Cohen etal. (2011) posits that for a research study to be trustworthy the findings ought to be confirmed by participants as true reflections of their responses in order to reduce the researcher's bias. I, therefore, acknowledged that I did not influence the findings, to ensure consistency. I also went back to the participants (lecturers) to confirm their findings as a way of transperancy.

1.9.5.4 Transferability

Cohen etal, (2013) describe transferability as applicability of the research findings to a different context. In this study, transferability is enhanced by ensuring that findings from the study are applicable to other government organisations and beyond, who were not involved in this study and may be in another context with similar characteristics to this study.

1.10 Ethical Issues

Ethics is defined as respect for the rights of others to maintain human dignity (Cohen etal; 2013. Christiansen etal; (2013) posit that research that involves humans and animals ought to be ethical by taking the rights ofparticipants into serious consideration. Thus in this study I sought permission to conduct the research by writing to the University (Edgewood campus). After permission was granted, I further sought permission from my Ministry (the gate keepers), who granted me to to carry out the research. Ifurther wrote the principals of each of the government primary teacher-education colleges that I worked with, seeking permission to engage some of their employees (lecturers). It was after I was granted permission that I then contacted each of the participants in writing through emails, and following them up by telephones to ask their permission to participate in the study.

After the participants agreed to take part in the study, I briefly explained to them over the telephone the purpose of the study and explained to them their rights to confidentiality, anonymity and their voluntary participation. I used psudonyms instead of their real names and assured them that information sought from them was only going to be used in this study and not any other purpose. Participants, at their own will, were then asked to sign consent forms that were sent to them via email and were asked to email them back to me. Only those participants who expressed their willingness to participate in the study were thus involved in this study.

1.11 Overview of the Study

1.11.1 Chapter One: Background of the Study

Chapter one spells out to the reader the background and the context of the research study. It also presents the rationale for the study and the problem statement. The significance and purpose of the study, as well as the location of the study, are discussed. Furthermore, research objectives and research questions that guide the study are outlined, followed by the study research methodology that discusses the research paradigm, the mixed methods research approach, sampling procedures, and data-generation/-production methods. Issues of trustworthiness and ethical considerations are also presented. The chapter has also outlined the eight chapters of the study and lastly, the conclusion of the study.

1.11.2 Chapter Two: The System Model

Chapter Two presents to the reader the first part of reviewed literature, the system model of motivation on organisational performance. In other words, the chapter interrogates the use of the system model in the workplace.

1.11.3 Chapter Three: The Process Model

Chapter Three provides detailed literature on the process model of motivation on organisational performance. The chapter utilises the various constructs of the process in the workplace.

1.11.4 Chapter Four: Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents the theoretical framework supporting the research. This research is embedded in the Currere model that utilises regression, progression, analytical and synthetical moments on employee motivation in the workplace. Using this theoretical framework gave me an awareness of the theory and knowledge of investigating a phenomenon, to the extent that I developed a new theory.

1.11.5 Chapter Five: Methodology

Chapter Five focusses on the research approach utilised in this research and how the approaches are used to accomplish the research objectives. The study utilised the mixed methods approach and a cage-study design. Convenience and purposive sampling were employed and data-generation methods deployed were document analysis, an open-ended questionnaire, reflective journals, semi-structured face-to-face interviews, and focus-group discussions. Issues of trustworthiness are presented and explained, together with limitations of the study.

1.11.6 Chapter Six: Descriptive Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

Chapter Six presents descriptive data and analyses; and discusses the data by using the thematic approach. Two broad themes are used to help present the findings. The first broad theme was on lecturers' positive perceptions on employee motivation on organisational performance. The sub-themes were policy framework as a guide, tools of the trade to perform tasks, and collaboration. The second broad theme was on lecturers' negative perceptions on organisational performances. The sub-themes were leadership rigidity, poor remuneration, and inadequate support. To ensure that data gathered from lecturers who participated in the research were verifiable, the direct quotes of participants were used to confirm their views.

1.11.7 Chapter Seven: Operational and Philosophical Data Analysis

Chapter Seven presents the operational and philosophical analysis of data through the thematic approach. Three broad themes were used to analyse the findings, each one with four sub-themes. The first broad theme in this chapter was on the use of incentives. The sub-themes presented were: knowledge incentives (system), financial incentives (process), operational incentives (personal), and financial-knowledge incentives (philosophical). The second broad theme analysed leadership styles. The sub-themes analysed the instructional leadership style (system), the transformational leadership style (process), the operational leadership style (personal), and the transformational-instructional leadership style (philosophical). The third broad theme discussed the work environment. The sub-themes discussed were the institutional environment (system), the people environment (process), the operational environment (personal), and the people-institutional environment. This chapter contains the inferences of the findings discussed in Chapter Six.

1.11.8 Chapter Eight: The Self-identity Model

This chapter discusses the overall purpose of the study by presenting participants' perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance. The chapter discusses the propositions of the developed self-identity motivation model. The summaries of key findings based on the propositions of a self-actualised individual who can be permanently motivated and perform duties naturally are discussed in detail. This is in order to address the three key research questions of the study. Similarly, key responses to key research questions are summarised, and educational implications are addressed, thus leading to the conclusion of the research study.

1.12 Conclusion

The background of employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe was discussed in this chapter. The chapter also presented the rationale for the study, the problem statement, significance of the study, and purpose of the study. In addition, the chapter has outlined the location of the study, research objectives, and research questions. The skeleton of the research methodology covering the paradigm, research approach, sampling, data-generation methods as well as aspects of trustworthiness and ethical consideration have been presented. The chapter lastly outlined the overview of all eight chapters of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

UNDERSTANDING THE SYSTEM MODEL OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one presented the purpose of this research study aiming to investigate and understand employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The chapter discussed the background and context of the study and further presented the synopsis of the whole study, indicating how the study would unfold. The purpose of the current chapter is mainly to review related literature about employee motivation (phenomenon) on organisational performance. Literature review is an essential part of a thesis, in which the researcher discusses and reviews studies, perspectives, theories, and bodies of various work relevant to the phenomenon of the current study. In the process, the researcher determines the gaps or shortcomings in previous research that the research work fills. Literature review justifies the research discussed by the thesis, together with an understanding of both the previous research and general writings relevant to the research. It also demonstrates the ability to critically integrate and evaluate the literature (Steane, 2004).

The literature review of this study employs the construct structure whereby literature is organised according to common constructs or themes. The writer provides insight into the relation between motivation models on organisational performance and the chosen construct. This chapter discusses constructs of the system model as a conceptual framework for the literature review. Lynne (2012) contends that this model focusses on what motivates employees, energising and directing them to work hard. Research has further shown that the system model of motivation tends to address the traditional model of motivation, in which emphasis is on the professional or discipline approach, prescribed plans having to be followed as they are in the evaluation of performance (Khoza, 2016a). In agreement, Lynne (2012) asserts that the system model assumes that organisations ought to treat all employees in the same manner, employees having the same set of needs. It should however be noted that treating all employees in the same manner and expecting them to follow prescribrd rules in an organisation may thwart the creativity of the employees. Employees bring to the workplace different needs hence should be treated differently according to their individual needs.

The guiding principles of the system model to be discussed are the vision, mission, core values, objectives, resources, rules, together with the evaluation process employed to determine the level of performance of both the employees and the organisation. Furthermore, the instructional leadership role of an administrator in the system model is also discussed. Lastly, the conclusion of this chapter will be presented, leading to the next chapter.

2.2 Employee Motivation (the phenomenon of the study)

The term motivation was developed in the 1880s, to replace the term 'will' which was used by well-known philosophers and social theorists when referring to motivated employees (Forgas, Williams & Laham, 2005). Motivation, as a phenomenon, is defined by many authors as a driving force that makes people willing to offer their best in what they do (Owens & Valesky, 2012; Bush & Middlewood, 2013; Robin & Coutler, 2012). Motivation is considered by many authors as an important driving force in the workplace; thus determining and understanding what motivates employees is essential. Al Rasbi (2013) in his doctoral thesis on the motivation of Omani school teachers posits that motivation influences employees' positive or negative performance. Therefore, performance of any organisation is a result of the motivation levels of the workforce. This view is supported by Gage and Berliner (1992), who share a similar sentiment that motivation is central to steering and generating energy, and controls the behaviour of the workforce within an organisation. Baron (1983), on the other hand, defines motivation as a combination of different processes that influence and direct one's efforts towards achievement of organisational goals. Furthermore, in his book on psychology, Pinder (2008) asserts that motivation is a combination of energetic forces that emanate from both within as well as outside the individual (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation). Motivation is further described as that which emanates from the human psychological mindset that influences the individual's contribution towards their work performance (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 2011).

Matar (2010) contends that there is no one clear definition of motivation, various researchers defining the term differently. This could be because the authors, in their definitions, reflect their own perceptions, perspectives, and experiences of motivation in a particular area of study. Analoui (2000) posits that people need to have an internal force motivating them to behave in a particular manner in achieving certain goals that would satisfy their wants and needs. In the same vein, Kast and Rosenzweig (1979) view motivation as that which prompts an individual to act in a particular manner or at least to develop a desire to behave in a particular way. Although the previous definitions vary, generally, there is a common view that motivation is a dynamic process that considers first the human needs which drive people to behave in a particular way. This dynamic process helps people to satisfy their needs through the achievement of both organisational and personal goals and objectives.

According to Khoza (2018; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b; 2018), motivation is influenced by personal, social, and professional visions. In this study, the professional or discipline vision is referred to as a system that influences behaviour or action. Khoza (2015a) alludes to motivation being driven from within an individual, mostly addressing the personal and social needs. When one understands one's identity, one can decide on one's actions, either to be driven by the system (profession) or by the process (social) (Esau, 2017; Ndlovu, 2017). If motivation is dominated by pre-planned processes which influence people to behave in a particular way in order to achieve some specific goal, this addresses the needs of the system (discipline or professional needs) (Govender & Khoza, 2017; Ndlovu, 2017). According to Matar (2010), researchers do not seem to agree on the main characteristics of motivation as a phenomenon. They focus on what influences human behaviour, and how this behaviour is directed, maintained, and sustained within workplaces. The discussion above suggests that administrators ought to understand what actually drives individual employee motivation in the workplace. Understanding whether motivation is driven by a personal, process, or system model would increase chances of positive organisational performance. There would be good alignment between the intended action and performance of the individual towards organisational goals (Khoza, 2017). The term motivation, therefore, appears to have three common denominators: what influences human behaviour (system), how the behaviour is directed (process), and why the behaviour is maintained or sustained (personal) (Latham, 2007). This helps to explain why certain behaviour is linked to certain situations. People behave and act in a particular manner in order to attain a certain end. The next section describes the system model of employee motivation.

2.3 The System Model

The system model tends to address the traditional model of motivation in which the emphasis is on the structured system (professional or discipline) or approach. Prescribed plans have to be followed as they are in the evaluation of performance (Springer Science & Business Media, 2002; Khoza, 2016a). In essence, administrators who adhere to the system model usually align themselves with knowledge of hierarchy; and are driven by written rules and regulations (Peden, 2015; Hoadley & Jansen, 2012). In addition, administrators and employees accentuate the setting of explicit standards to be met (Hyndman & Pill, 2015; Rotidi et al., 2017). This suggests that the system model prioritises the professional or discipline approach as a way of achieving organisational performance (Khoza, 2016a; Peden, 2015; Hoadley & Jansen, 2012). In other words, the employee's responsibility is to implement what is planned. Khoza (2015c; Berkvens et al., 2014) and other scholars share the same view that the system model of motivation is driven by a prescribed vision as a leading principle; thus presents other guiding principles. This model, by and large, is driven by ideas of the chief proponents, namely, Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs model, Clayton Alder's modified need hierarchy model, Fredrick Herzberg's two-factor model, and David McClelland's achievement motivation models (Lynne, 2012).

Maslow's (1954) system model assumes that all employees in the workplace have the same set of needs that are bureaucratic or hierarchical in nature (William, 2010; Pratap, 2016). In a system model, the organisation is driven by a prescribed policy direction that spells out the vision, the mission, core values, objectives, resources, and rules and regulations as guiding principles for achieving their goal. According to Khoza (2016a), this model has prescribed plans that have to be followed as they are. Administrators who employ the system model strictly adhere to the prescribed principles, and expect employees to follow the prescribed plan as a way of accounting for organisational performance. This system has very little consideration for other aspects that employees may require in order to be motivated towards contributing to organisational growth (Redmond, 2010). Alderfer (1969), an American psychologist in his existence, relatedness, and growth model, thus modifies the hierarchical nature of

Maslow's model. This author considers issues of relationships among employees and the need for personal growth as an important need for an employee to exist in an organisation while contributing to its positive performance (Mat, 2016; Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017; Khoza, 2017). This view suggests that prescribed plans need other contributing factors that should be harnessed in influencing employee performance to achieve organisational performance. For instance, Alderfer's sentiments are that, in that beauracratic sphere, employees ought to relate and agree on the demands of the system so that they work towards the same cause. This scenario would help them grow the organisation.

Herzberg (1966), a behavioural scientist, in his two-factor motivation model contends that hygiene factors such as salary, company policies, job security, relationship with superiors and colleagues and work environments that are related to the work conditions, if not met, may cause dissatisfaction of employees in the workplace (Strong, 2015). In agreement, for instance, Manzoor (2012), in his study on the "Impact of Employee's Motivation on Organisational Effectiveness", concludes that no one works free of charge. This confirms that an employee, besides meeting prescribed organisational goals, should also work for a salary that sustains him or her and family. In Herzberg's view, this is considered one of the hygiene factors. Herzberg's view is an improvement of Maslow's and Alderfer's sentiments in that relationships, salary and job security are an important component even in the beauracratic structure.

The issue of employee salary among other views, is echoed by Fredric Taylor in his scientific management theory. Taylor describes money as most important in motivating employees to become more productive (Turan, 2015). These factors are extrinsic; if not fulfilled they may be associated with demotivation (Herzberg et al., 1959). While Manzoor (2012) and Turan (2015) and other scholars agree that hygiene factors create a suitable work environment, their full supply may not necessarily result in employees' increased job performance or productivity. Motivation may mostly be driven by the extent of challenge the work presents to the employee (Steers et al., 2004). McClelland (1961), a Harvard psychologist, and his associates, for instance, argue that an employee who has a high desire for achievement (nAch) is likely to work hard enough and to excel, becoming the best leader, in being focussed on attaining excellent results. This kind of individual is results-driven, which Khoza (2016a) refers to as the professional or discipline vision (system). This individual would want to have their performance continuously evaluated so that they are told how well or badly they are faring in terms of the laid-down principles. Such individuals then try to improve on their work performance. This therefore suggests that there is need for meaningful feedback from administrators so that employees may be influenced to improve on their performance.

From the discussion above, it is evident that, while the system model is driven by prescribed principles, it provides a clear direction of what the organisation aims to achieve. The system model also guides the implementation process with activities to accomplish the objectives set. The dilemma, however, may be that, if these principles are communicated in a hierarchical manner (top-down) there could be resistance or misunderstanding of the direction to be followed. Manzoor, (2012) in his study examining the relationship of organisational effectiveness and employee performance in the telecommunications and banking sector of Pakistan, conducted a survey with a sample of 103 respondents. The results showed that where there is top-down decision-making and employees are directed in how to accomplish tasks, the employees may suppress innovativeness. Their motivation may drop, impacting negatively on their performance and subsequently on both personal and organisational performance and growth. Such a scenario can be circumvented by all the contents of the principles being arrived at through effective employee and stakeholder dialogue or participation. Everyone involved must believe themselves as part of the decision-making process for the vision of the organisation, with their roles clearly defined.

Administrators holding the system model may exhibit deficits. For instance, they may experience challenges in assisting employees who may not understand the prescribed plans of the overall vision of the organisation. Tischler (2004), Chaston (2013), and other scholars propose that good leaders (administrators) should have a clearly defined vision so that they work towards what they want to accomplish. In so doing they can define their desired outcomes and remain focussed on accomplishing their vision. Moreover, it is of paramount importance that administrators engage their stakeholders who can assist them to accomplish their vision.

2.3.1 The vision

A vision can either be driven by the system model (professional or discipline) or the process model (societal) (Khoza, 2016a; Mpungose, 2016; Ndlovu, 2017). When the vision is driven by the system model it addresses the needs of the organisation and suggests the objectives, resources, and activities needed for the organisation. The university of Botswana vision statement, for instance, is a good example of a system-model driven vision, as it speaks to being a leading centre for academic excellence in Africa and the world over. This suggests that the vision is organisation centred and directs what employees should do. Adhering to the rules of the organisation's employee performance would result in the growth of the organisation. Administrators in this instance would employ an autocratic leadership style: employees are motivated to follow the prescribed rules as a way of accomplishing the vision of the organisation. This type of motivation is driven by the professional vision or factual strategy (Khoza, 2016a; 2016b), in which administrators would be more concerned with what was missing, and gives little or no praise.

When the vision is driven by the process model (societal), emphasis is on people's needs. The University of Mpumalanga vision statement presents an example of a process-model driven vision. This vision suggests being an African university that leads in creating opportunities for sustainable development through innovation. The vision is therefore people-centred. The process model thus would employ outcomes, activities, and resources that aim at addressing the needs of the people to sustain them at every level of implementing the vision. The administrator would engage employees to gain their views thereby motivating them to accomplish the vision of organisational overall performance and growth. Therefore involving employees in decision-making may motivate them sufficiently to aid the success of the organisation: they would own the vision of the organisation. Administrators would employ a democratic leadership style to motivate their employees. This view is supported by Al Khajeh (2018). This author conducted a quantitative survey research with employees in randomly selected organisations on how leadership styles impact organisational performance. Al Khajeh (2018) concluded that the participative approach motivates employees who would believe that their views and opinions are valued. This would go a long way in promoting individual and organisational performance. This type of motivation is driven by the process model or societal or social vision, or social strategy

(Khoza, 2016a; 2016b). Administrators would look for what has been achieved more than what still missing in terms of employee performance, thereafter is offering praise.

Vision, as a principle of the system model of motivation, refers to an organisation's road map, indicating a set strategic direction for the growth of the organisation. A good example is that of Bill Gates whose vision was to have a computer on every desk in America (Borden, 1997). Bill Gates' vision is now evident, not only in America, but the world over. This shows that the success of an organisation can be made possible by articulating a clear vision statement. Ozden (2014) further expresses that a vision is a picture of what an organisation make-up aspires to, and where it is headed. It provides a clear mental picture of what the organisation will look like in future, and thus it is presented in the form of a statement. In agreement, Hawthorne, (2019) posits that a vision describes *what* the organisation is trying to achieve in future.

A vision, therefore, describes the position of an organisation in the next 5, 10, 15, or 20 years' time (Bowen, 2016). The organisation clearly states what it would like to have achieved at any given period, so that all stakeholders work together towards attainment of this goal. A vision seeks to motivate and unify all concerned to work towards the achieving of the organisational goals (West-Burnham, 2010). In line with the system model, a vision is a principle considered important for an organisation. The vision directs the planning processes as well as the development of policies that would guide the operations of the employees. Furthermore, the vision also helps employees to prioritise their operations as well as to clarify and articulate common understanding of what the organisation. This helps in effective communication among employees, and would position the organisation as having competitive advantage, globally (West-Burnham, 2010).

A vision focusses on the organisational needs in order for the organisation to grow and align itself with the global perspective. In the view of Khoza, (2019), Mpungose (2016) and other scholars, a vision focusses on the professional or discipline aspect of what can make an organisation grow. In other words, employees are guided by what the vision prescribes; employees should therefore work hard to accomplish the organisational needs. Administrators will give little or no praise to employees who do not work towards the achievement of the dictates of the organisational vision. Therefore, the vision is important not only for organisational growth, but for giving employees a direction on which their performance will be evaluated (Preethall, 2016). Organisational vision then becomes the reference point in directing employees to focus on where the organisation wants to go and why. Papulova (2014) further comments that an organisational vision helps motivate employees on organisational performance.

Taiwo, Agwu and Lawai (2016) wrote a paper that focussed on analysing and explaining the role and significance of a vision. The findings of their study indicate that a well-articulated vision statement differentiates one organisation from the other if it presents each one's unique characteristics. The authors further state that a vision statement that is clearly written and put into operation can motivate employees in the performance of their duties: this would assist in the attainment of organisational goals, with a vision as a guide. Such scholars are of the view that a meaningful vision places the organisation on the right path, and therefore administrators ought to ensure the compliance and performance of employees towards achievement of the set goals (Taiwo et al., 2016). However, Taiwo, Agwu and Lawai (2016) are overlooking the motivational needs of employees enabling them to perform according to organisational growth. Thus it is evident that the system model drives the vision in order to meet performance of employees towards organisational growth.

In October 2014, in the 33rd meeting of senior government officials on vision, leadership, and innovation, South African government leaders agreed that for any nation to succeed its people should understand its vision. This would help the country to contribute towards the well-being and prosperity of the nation to match international standards. This is an indication that governments are forward-mapping and strategic-thinking. Nearly every country has some sort of strategic vision document on their thinking. Canada has a vision for the public service that shows how it supports government in building collective commitment in the implementation of that same vision. This fact emerged at the October 2014 meeting. The leadership of a country should craft critical policies contributing to a strategic vision for an effective government. Nations derive policies from the top and all other institutions ought to derive their vision statements from the national vision (bureaucracy).

Vision statements vary from one country to the other. Kenya has a vision that directs the nation to work towards becoming a middle-income economy and knowledge society, through the implementation of its Vision 2030 (Kiruja & Mukuru, 2015). Therefore, the Kenyan government is directing all its institutions' operations to be administered in line with the provisions of the stipulated Vision 2030. This has helped to regularise their education training and development systems. The Kenyan vision also aspires to life-long education tailored towards economic, social, and personal development. Such may be achieved through the technical, industrial, vocational, and entrepreneurship training (TVET) institutions that enhance science and technology industrialisation (Kiruja & Mukuru, 2015). Employee performance practices within the education system thus play a central role in developing a knowledge economy by creating a human-resource base. The Kenyan vision 2030 is thus in line with the system model. It passes on a directive from the central government point of view for education systems to comply with. Institutions should thus align their vision statements with the national vision. This may stimulate employee motivation and improve performance in working towards the national vision, sustaining the development of the nation.

Msauki (2019) wrote a paper presentation on *Turning Vision 2030 into Reality*. Libraries in Zimbabwe define sustainable development as a way of transforming a country's economic, social, political, educational, religious, and cultural values towards improvement of human dignity and the general well-being of its citizens. Masuki (2019) further posits that the United Nations in 2015 launched 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) that would help create development goals for all communities in every country to attain Vision 2030. From the SDGs, African countries through the African Union derived Agenda 2063 which would be a framework for the socio-economic transformation of the continent over the next 50 years. This framework seeks to accelerate the implementation of continental initiatives for sustainable growth and development. Zimbabwe subscribes to SDGs and Agenda 2063 to shape the developmental plans, policies, and initiatives. Zimbabwe, in line with the attainment of SDGs and Agenda 2063, has formulated a national vision that speaks to attaining a prosperous upper-middle-income economy by 2030. Policies and economic blueprints have been launched to steer the national development plan towards this vision. In response to the national vision, Murwira, (2018), Minister of Zimbabwe's Higher and Tertiary Education Ministry and ministry officials have thus afforded a doctrine that speaks to the "Modernisation and Industrialisation of Zimbabwe through Education, Innovation Science and Technology Development heritage based education 5.0 philosophy with the pillars of teaching, research, community service, innovation and industrialisation." The ministry vision of a heritage-based higher and tertiary education, innovation, science, and technology development is focussed on the attainment of a competitive, industrialised, and modernised Zimbabwe by 2030. This vision is aligned with the country's national vision, ultimately aligning itself with the regional and global trend. The vision is influenced by the system model with a clear structure that answers to the wider context.

An organisational vision thus must demonstrate the unique context of each organisation, reflecting on the wider factors and influences, as shown in Figure 1 below.

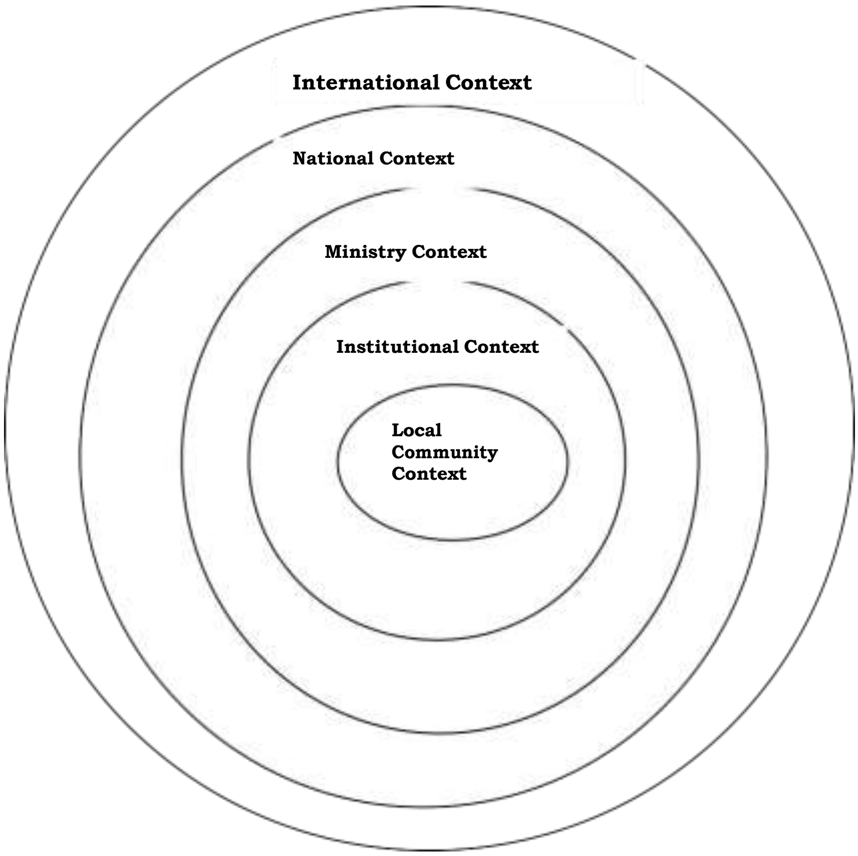


Figure 2.1: The wider contexts that influence organisational vision (West-Burnham, 2010).

Administrators in institutions of higher learning thus have a mandate to craft a well-articulated vision that would enable employees to fulfil organisational expectations in all contexts (shown above) within their individual contexts. The vision statement is key in that it drives the organisation to be innovative. It directs employees to be committed and motivated towards the effectiveness and success of the organisation such that they become competitive in the global arena (Bowen, 2016). Employees should be sufficiently motivated to realise that their individual performance has a bearing, not only on the institution but ultimately, on the world. Education is highly influenced by the system model that answers to all levels of the contexts through the effort by individual institutions in the Ministry. Taiwo et al. (2016) note that vision statements clearly direct the organisations to justify their own existence and reflect where and what they want to be in future. In agreement, Ozden (2014) posits that a vision controls and guides future organisational practices. Each organisation spells out its vision. An analysis of the vision statement may reveal that it is either driven by the system model or the process model. Let each of the selected vision statements speak for itself in the table below.

Table 2.1. Examples of Vision Statements and Models

Organisation	Vision Statement	Model	Reason
University of KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa)	To be a premier university of African scholarship.	Process model	It is concerned with imparting scholarship to the people.
University of Melbourne (Australia)	The University of Melbourne is committed to being the finest university in the world, contributing to society in a way that enriches and transforms lives.	Process model	It aims at contributing to the people's life transformation.

University of Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe)	To be a leading centre of innovative higher education, having cutting-edge research and service provision that is responsible for the developmental needs of Zimbabwe.	System model	It lays emphasis more on the characteristics of the organisation and how the country would benefit.
Madziwa Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	To be a dynamic, progressive, efficient and leading provider of teacher education.	System model	It spells out more about the organisation leading in the educational arena.
Morgan College of Education (Zimbabwe)	A reputable college of education in the production of innovative and transformative educators	System model	It lays more emphasis on the professional aspect.
Seke Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	A hub of excellence for an innovation, technologically competent and heritage-based 21st century teacher.	Process model	Its characteristics aim to address the people's needs.

The vision statements in Table 2.1 above clearly show the direction of each organisation as driven by its vision statement − either by the process model (people or societal) or the system model (professional) in producing what they want. An interesting feature in all the vision statements above is the uniqueness of each organisation. Organisations are autonomous in the way they carry out their activities, however, they should remain focussed on their mandate, for accountability. In other words, even the way administrators motivate their employees on organisational performance is varied. This poses a question on whether administrators are aware of models that impact on employee motivation for organisational performance; hence the need for this study. Descriptive terms used are as listed on Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2 Descriptive Terms in the Vision Statements in Selected Organisations

Descriptive Terms	University of KwaZulu-Natal	University of Melbourne	University of Zimbabwe	Madziwa	Morgan	Seke
Premier	✓	–	–	–	–	–
Scholarship	✓	–	–	–	–	–
Dynamic	–	–	–	✓	–	–
Progressive	–	–	–	✓	–	–
Efficient	–	–	–	✓	–	–
Reputable	–	–	–	✓	✓	–
Leading	–	–	✓	✓	–	–
Provider	–	–	–	✓	–	–
Innovative	–	–	✓	–	✓	✓
Transformational	–	✓	–	–	✓	–
Sustainable	–	–	–	–	✓	–

Descriptive Terms	University of KwaZulu-Natal	University of Melbourne	University of Zimbabwe	Madziwa	Morgan	Seke
Excellence	–	–	–	–	–	✓
Competitive	–	–	–	–	–	✓
Technological	–	–	–	–	–	✓
Industrialised	–	–	–	–	✓	–
21st Century Teacher	–	–	–	–	–	✓
Heritage-based	–	–	–	–	–	✓

Table 2.2 above shows that individual institutions under the same ministry have the autonomy to describe what they intend to do through their vision statements, thus answering the call of the ministry vision. The descriptive terms for each institution's vision statements would influence employee performance to attain their vision. The vision statements give clear direction that facilitates a standard measure of performance indicators.

Darbi (2012) carried out a survey of 120 employees in his research. Darbi (2012) intended to explore the extent to which employees were aware of their vision statements. Also, he searched for their perceptions on their level of ownership; and whether the institution's vision statements impacted or could impact their behaviour or attitudes. The results indicated that most employees had knowledge of the vision statement; however, they rarely came across them. This led to little knowledge of the contents of the vision statements. Employees considered that ownership of the vision was a prerequisite to guide their behaviours and attitudes in the workplace. The question to be answered, therefore, would be how administrators influence or motivate employee behaviour towards appreciating the vision for organisational performance. This indicates a need for a study to look into administrative leadership styles that motivate employees on organisational performance in teacher-education institutions.

Employees in institutions of higher learning and in any other organisation may thus appreciate the importance of a vision statement and may know about the existence of a vision. The question may be how often administrators make an effort to allow the employees to become more acquainted with the vision, in order to shape their behaviour on day-to-day performance of their tasks. The most popular places, according to literature, where a vision statement is found are wall hangings or displays within institute premises. Other, more innovative initiatives, such as constant references at meetings and gatherings should be adopted to augment the traditional statements. Employees ought to have a sense of ownership of the vision. It is the administrator's role to focus on institutionalising the vision statement so that employees develop an appreciation of the vision statement and consider it their own. By doing so all employees are likely to be sufficiently well-motivated to work towards the attainment of organisational goals. Therefore, employees need to have a good knowledge of the vision statement of the organisation in which they work. Bowen (2018) posits that the culture of an organisation should be such that all employees understand the vision statement and should be able to frequently refer to it as a policy guide that would help them measure their performance. When the vision of an organisation is clear and recognised, this helps clarify the mission statement of the organisation. Planning then becomes less complex (Barlely Group, 2015). Without a clear view of the future (vision), it may be difficult or even impossible for an organisation to have a clear mission vision (Andrew, 2013).

2.3.2 The mission

An organisational mission derived from the vision may either be driven by the system model (professional) or process model (social or societal) (Khoza, 2015a; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b; 2017; 2019; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Mpungose, 2018). When a mission is driven by the system model, emphasis is laid on how the organisation will reach its goal by focussing on the organisation or objects (Khoza, 2017). An example of a mission statement driven by the system model is that of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe that speaks to developing and delivering a knowledgeable and skilled human capital through a heritage-based education 5.0

philosophy which would produce quality goods and services. Another example is that of the University of Botswana. This university aims to improve economic and social conditions for the nation while advancing itself as a distinctively African university with a regional and international outlook. The University of Botswana mission statement specifically spells out the need to provide excellence in the delivery of learning to ensure that the society is provided with talented, creative, and confident graduates. Furthermore, the university mission aims to advance knowledge and understanding through excellence in research and its application. Such would improve engagement with all stakeholders. The mission statement that has been derived from the vision (system model) continues to emphasise how the organisations will reach where the missions want them to go. The mission statements presented above are mainly concerned with issues of providing quality goods and services as well as excellence in the profession, and are prescriptive in nature.

A mission that is driven by the process model has its major emphasis on how the organisation is going to reach its goal by focussing on the people (social) and their behaviour (Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Khoza, 2018). An example of a process-model driven mission is that of the University of Mpumalanga that aims to offer high quality opportunities for education and training in a bid to foster holistic teaching and learning of students, research, scholarship, and collaboration with strategic partners. The mission statement concerns itself with people and their behaviour. This suggests that the way the mission is crafted (system or process model) would determine by and large employee performance and behaviour. Administrators whose mission is systems-driven would not deviate from the demands of the mission; and organisational employees who comply would receive praise if their performance is aligned with the mission. For those organisations whose mission is driven by the process model, administrators would motivate employees to work together to address the mission at hand. In the process model, employees are given freedom to interact and in this way find pleasure in work by sharing ideas. Such is likely to improve individual and group efforts. Subsequently, this would allow them to achieve the organisational mission and in that way receive praise and affirmation. In both the system-driven mission and process-driven mission models the mission of the organisation is communicated clearly. Employees can comprehend its direction for the organisation. Failure to clearly articulate the mission of the organisation may lead to misunderstanding and misconceptions of the mission and may lead to poor organisational performance.

Bowen (2018) alludes to an organisational mission statement directing an organisation on how to reach its end goal. Bowen further contends that mission statements help to answer the questions of why goals exist and what their purpose is for the organisation. Bart and Hupfer (2004) aver that when these questions are thoroughly answered, they should provide a more focussed guide for decision-making and the allocation of resources, as well as helping to motivate and inspire staff. A mission thus refers to the mandate of the organisation. In concurrence, Taiwo et al. (2016) state that the purpose of the mission statements is to describe and guide the organisations on how to reach their future desired ends. For that reason organisations ought to define their main purposes that relate to clients' needs, thus operating as a united team. Therefore, mission statements define why the organisations exist and thus they can be used to measure their performance and success. Figure 2.2. Below illustrates the main components of an organisational mission statement.

Why the organisation exists

Purpose

Strategy
Institutions'
Strategy for
Achieving its purpose

Values
What the institution
believes in

Standard and Behaviour
The policies and behavioural
patterns that guide the
institution's operations

Figure 2.2 Components of a Mission Statement (Campbell, 1989).

Khan et al. (2010) concur when they state that a mission is a key element for the organisation and its employees; thus it becomes necessary to remain focussed on its elements. Armisted (1990) avers that organisations with clearly defined mission statements tend to perform well, having a clear strategic intent. Buchannan and Huczynski (2004), in support of the above statement, contend that those employees who align themselves with the organisational mission statement are likely to perform well. The system model therefore grounds itself on the mission of an organisation, for the purpose of organisational performance. Zineldin (1996) outlines that the mission statement and organisational performance are interwoven. Organisational performance is achieved when it seeks to accomplish its mission, as illustrated in Fig

2.3 Below:

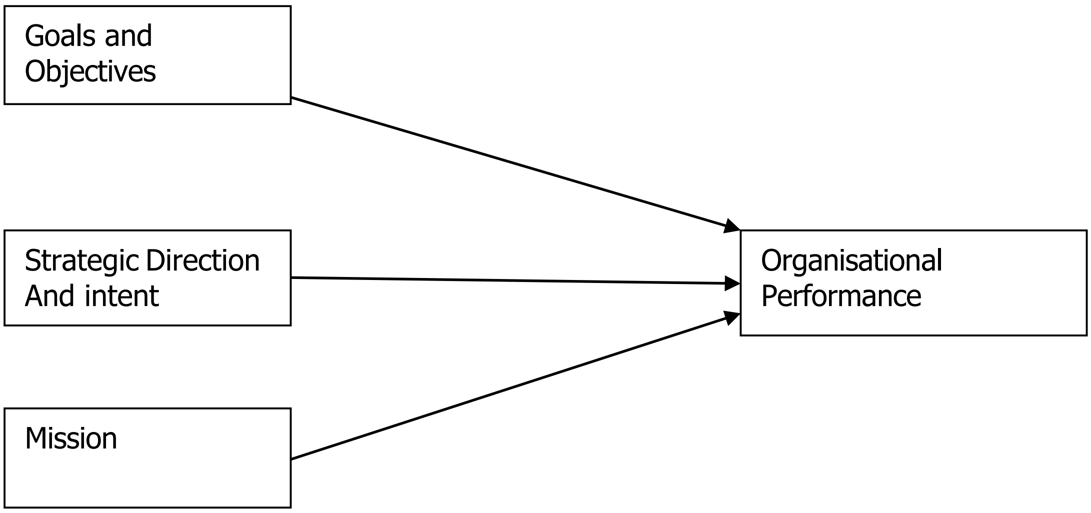


Figure 2.3: Organisational mission and organisational performance model (Zineldin, 1996).

Figure 2.3 above shows that there is a positive link between the mission and organisational performance. Organisations that aspire to enhancing their performance should take into account the mission and its elements for improvement Khan (2010). While most scholars support the need for an organisational mission statement, they are oblivious of the need for orientation of employees on the mission statement as a way of motivating staff on organisational performance. It is important to induct employees on the organisational mission, lest all the intents and purposes of the mission are in vain. In a study that examined six accredited faith-based tertiary institutions in Ghana, on the level of understanding the organisational mission statements, Ganu (2013) discovered that a significant number of respondents attested to ignorance of their institutions' mission statements. They could not recite them by heart. In addition, the mission statement had not influenced employees' behaviour and performance in terms of commitment to duty. The mission statements were therefore not in any way a source of motivation or inspiration for employees. If employees knew the organisational mission statements they could be motivated on organisational performance. A well-conceived mission statement helps to facilitate the communication of the organisation's direction and purpose. This would positively influence employee behaviour and performance. Furthermore, understanding the organisational mission statement would help employees to work from a common understanding together with stakeholders on the direction of the organisation and even on allocation of resources to accomplish the various tasks as enunciated in the mission (Bart, 1998; Bartz & Baltz, 1998).

Table 2.3 below shows how some selected organisational mission statements are phrased, the model, and reasons for them being considered as addressing either the system or process model.

Table 2.3: Examples of Mission Statements

Organisation	Mission	Model	Reason
University of KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa)	A truly South African university of choice that is academically excellent, innovative in research, entrepreneurial, and critically engaged with society.	System model	Emphasises the professional aspect of the manner in which they want to achieve their mission.
University of Melbourne (Australia)	Preparing graduates to make their own impact, offering education that stimulates, challenges and fulfils the students, leading to meaningful careers and the skills to make profound contributions to society.	Process model	Emphasis is on empowering graduates with skills to contribute to society.

Organisation	Mission	Model	Reason
University of Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe)	To provide high-quality and innovative higher-education training, research, and service, under the direction of highly competent and passionate academic staff, in line with the clients' needs to enable significant contribution to sustainable development.	System model	Emphasises training and research for competence of academic staff.
Madziwa Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	. . . an inclusive institution committed to developing positive, exemplary, innovative, competent, efficient and reputable primary school teachers for national and international manpower needs; in collaboration with various stakeholders, through interactive and outreach programmes.	System model Process model	Emphasis is more on the qualities of a competent teacher; however, they also bring in the issue of collaboration with stakeholders through interactive programmes.
Morgan College of Education (Zimbabwe)	To produce skilled and enterprising 21st century educators using a heritage-based philosophy for the attainment of inclusive and equitable quality education.	System model	Emphasis is on the production of inclusive and equitable quality education.
Seke Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	To produce dynamic and patriotic 21st century teachers with digital skills and heritage-based values.	System model	Emphasis is on the quality of the teacher who should be patriotic and 21st century compliant.

The mission statements on Table 2.3 above largely indicate the provisions of service delivery through education for human-capital development. Furthermore, institutions seem to emphasise the aspect of developing universal, sufficient, and competent knowledge among students. Other terms commonly used in mission statements as seen in Table 2.3 above, are competent, efficient, reputable, quality, dynamic, committed, excellent, and leading. These mission statements tend to express the reason for their existence as an organisation, giving the reason for offering a service. Ozden (2011) indicates that universities and colleges give priority to their function of educating a qualified workforce required for the development of the country. Most of the mission statements presented emphasise that quality of the employees (system or professional aspect) can contribute towards employee motivation for organisational performance.

Ganu (2013), in her or his study, concluded that, while institutions had well-documented mission statements, it was disappointing to realise that most of the staff members were not knowledgeable on the mission of their institutions. Teachers were therefore not aligned with the direction of the organisation. Organisations ought to make deliberate efforts to institutionalise the mission statements so that employees can be motivated to work towards the positive performance of the organisation. The mission statements may influence all staff; and commitment of staff is needed for the mission statement to be effective (Stovel & Bantis, 2002). Bowen (2018) purports that the best mission statement should be able to direct the strategic pursuit of the various components of the organisational goals and objectives. The statement should be specific enough to focus and prioritise organisational activities and resources. Bowen further indicates that mission statements have multiple benefits, determining the future of the organisation. They allow prioritisation of operations, and may also motivate employees, fostering a collaborative, and team-driven (process) environment towards achievement of common goals. The mission statement may motivate employees and may influence employee performance; hence it is key to driving that team effort towards common goals. This is supported by Ganu (2013) who states that a mission statement helps to communicate the direction that an organisation intends to take; also guiding decision-making as well as motivation of staff on organisational performance.

Many researchers have revealed the over-arching relationship between the organisational mission statement and employee performance. However, further research ought to be conducted to investigate the relationship between a formal mission statement and its influence on positive behaviours of employees. Bart (2000) suggests that some researchers have undertaken a study on how a written mission statement contributes positively to employee performance. However, in contrast, there is another school of thought that has questioned the benefits and usefulness of mission statements (Ganu, 2013). There are those who oppose mission statements, arguing that these are empty public-relations initiatives. This signifies a gap that a future study may bridge by bringing in-depth understanding on employees' views of knowledge and usefulness of mission statements within their organisations.

Bowen (2018); Hung-Baesecke and Chen (2016) concur that a good mission statement is consistent: it does not cause conflict and confusion among organisational employees. These researchers argue that a mission statement is meant to create harmony in prioritising operations in the organisation, and thus should remain consistent both within and outside the organisation. Over time, that consistency would allow the organisation to meet the expectations of staff as well as stakeholders, building effective long-term relationships. Mission statements are therefore an important component of strategic administration, and a vital tool in building relationships between the organisation and its stakeholders. A visible mission statement should allow both internal and external stakeholders to understand priorities and rationales for administrative decision-making within an organisation. Therefore, mission statements help administrators to organise and prioritise the organisational intent and operations (Bowen, 2018). This infers that organisational core values and organisational goals and objectives are guided by the organisational mission statements. The core values of the organisation thus shape both the vision and mission, directing individual members of the organisation (Bowen (2015).

2.3.3 Core values

Aithal (2016) asserts that the organisation's behaviour and the culture of its employees are determined by core values derived from the college vision and mission of the organisation. Aithal further states that core values guide employees' behaviour and decision-making on day-to-day interactions, and shape the integrity of the organisation and its people. The way the organisation conducts its activities on a daily basis is thus determined by its core values. By the same token, several authors remark that organisational values influence organisational structure, organisational identity, organisational culture, and organisational strategy (Walsh et al., 1981; Kabanoff et al., 1995; Pettigrew, 1979; Scein, 1995; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bansal, 2003), thereby achieving organisational goals.

A plethora of core values is found on educational institutions' home pages, or displayed in strategic positions where employees and clients can view them. A close look at these core values shows that the values in one organisation may depict both the system model (professional vision) and process model (social vision). The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe, for instance, has integrity, humility, innovation, and productivity as its core values to guide the day-to-day activities of the higher-education institutions of Zimbabwe. The University of Botswana has the following core values: academic freedom, academic integrity, cultural authenticity, internationalisation, social responsibility, autonomy, public accountability, and productivity (Swami, Gobona & Tsimako, 2017). These core values address the system model; however, humility and social responsibility address the social aspect (process model), as alluded to by Khoza and Mpungose (2017). The University of Mpumalanga states its core values as excellence, integrity, diversity, collaboration, adaptability, relevance, and inspiration. These values address the process model. What remains apparent about the core values presented is how they influence either the system model or the process model of motivation on organisational performance and growth.

Values within an organisation are those principles that guide the actions of an organisation (Titov, & Umarova, (2017). In the same light, a conduct of behaviour is determined by its values and belief systems that spell out both acceptable and unacceptable behaviour within an organisation or workplace (Bell, 2007). Furthermore, Bell avers that the behaviour of individual members of the organisation is guided by the values that have been set for the organisation: members are expected to abide by these values. Titov and Umarova (2017) further express that every organisation exists because of the people who bring to it their individual values. Their combined values therefore make up the organisational value. Therefore these individual values ought first to be understood by the organisation, being part of every person: no outsider can say whether these are good or bad values. Next, the organisation ought to set organisational values that depict its standard of behaviour and belief systems (Salopek, 2001). These behavioural norms should be rooted in the core values of the organisation. Both administrators and employees, albeit having different viewpoints, should agree upon core values (Block, 1991). Core values have a direct influence on both individual and organisational behaviour. Core values are thus are a major component for both the organisation and the individuals (Gaiya, 2013).

Organisational values can therefore be illustrated in linear form in the system model, as follows:-

Individual values

$\updownarrow$

Organisational values

$\updownarrow$

Organisational behaviour

Robbins and Judge (2012) aver that individuals have their personal values. Organisational values are those shared by people throughout an organisation. Therefore, values have a large impact on what individuals think of the organisation's functioning; they influence organisational behaviour (Versenel & Kopperrriol, 2005). If one values honesty, one is likely to be honest in the workplace. Gaiya (2013) contends that, because values influence individual behaviour, negative behaviour is also the result of negative values. Baker (2009) asserts that when individual values are aligned with organisational values, they tend to develop in an individual a sense of commitment and acceptable organisational behaviour. In his study on the impact of values on individual and organisational behaviour, Gaiya (2013) defines organisational behaviour as that which investigates the impact of individuals, groups and organisational structure on behaviour within organisations. Such would be for the purpose of applying such knowledge in improving organisational effectiveness. While finding the link between values and organisational performance seems to be a challenge, several authors and researchers have proved that this link exists and is strong. This presents an area of study to investigate: the congruence of core values with the motivation of employees in influencing organisational performance. The importance of organisational values and how they are implemented in the running of organisations will thus be sought in this study.

Kumar (2016) alludes to values reflecting that which is important to individuals. Thus, organisations may also have core values that reflect what is important to the organisation. In most education institutions, core values are derived from the mission and vision. They may reflect the systems model, while some reflect the process model. However, these values would be guiding principles of behaviour for all employees within the same organisation. Titov and Umarova (2017) aver that organisational values are found at different levels. The level determines the extent to which the values can contribute to the success of the organisation. The values are therefore divided into three groups, namely, described, propagated, and real (shared) values that are hierarchical in nature (system model). A simplified hierarchy of organisational values is presented below:-

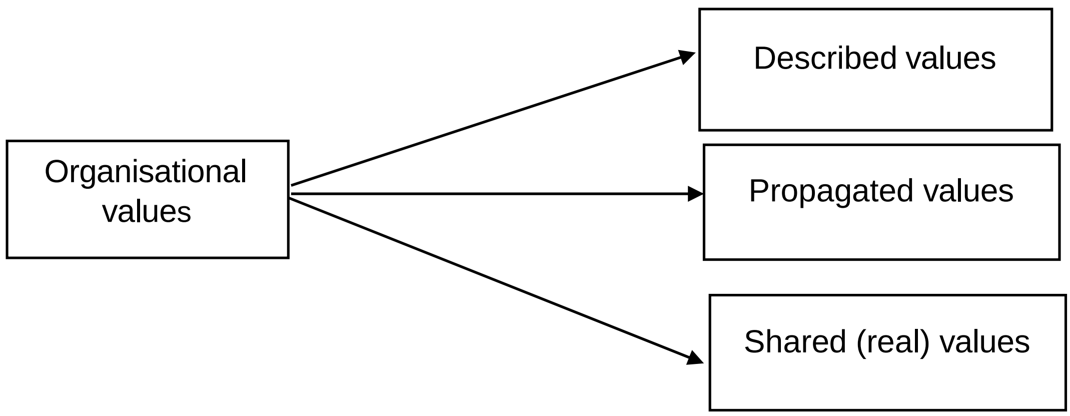


Figure 2.4: Simplified hierarchy of organisational values (Titov & Umarova, 2017).

Described values are those that the organisation wishes to be shown as their values. These are written on the home page or displayed strategically within the organisation for people to see. Propagated values are those values that the organisation passes on to the employees. The leaders reward those who observe them, the administration considering these values important. Shared values are those that are accepted and upheld by the members of the organisation. The levels of the core values of the organisation should be understood, guaranteeing the success of the organisation (Martin & Frost, 1999).

Table 2.4 below shows a list of core values for some selected educational organisations from their home pages. This study has no knowledge of whether these values have been shared (real) with organisational employees. The table, however, shows whether the core values depict the system model or process model.

Table 2.4 Core Values of Selected Tertiary Institutions:-

Organisation	**Core Values**	**Model**	**Reason**
University of KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa)	Respect Excellence Accountability Client orientation Honesty Trust	System model	Emphasis is on the character of a professional individual
University of Melbourne (Australia)	Commitment to a caring community Friendliness Personal growth Quality Valuing Differences	Process model	More emphasis on social attributes
University of Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe)	• Knowledge, Excellence • Diligence, Compassion • Integrity • Innovation	System model	Professional attributes
Madziwa Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	• Ubuntu, Patriotism • Respectfulness, Accountability • Integrity, Resilience • Dedication • Servant Leadership	System model and process model	Both professional and social attributes are emphasised

Morgan College of Education (Zimbabwe)	• Collaboration • Innovation • Ubuntu/Unhu • Patriotism • Equity	Process Model	Combination of both social and professional attributes
Seke Teachers' College (Zimbabwe)	• Teamwork • Ubuntu/Unhu • Patriotism • Professionalism • Transparency • Integrity • Commitment	Process System System Model	Both social and professional attributes are considered

Organisations have presented their core values in their organisational strategic plan documents, as shown in Table 2.4 above, and may have taken all the necessary steps to implement them. In several cases, these organisational values may not be understood or adopted by the employees of the organisation (Titov & Umarova, 2017). In conducting workshops on values with more than 200 organisations, Jalfe and Scott (2001) found that some of the core values, such as integrity, competence, teamwork, communication, autonomy, creativity, and personal growth, were more routine; and thus were common organisational values found among organisations. Therefore, taking these different organisational and individual values into consideration was found to help administrators effectively to motivate their employees.

Centry, Crigss, Deal, Mondore and Cox, (2011) state that most organisations employ individuals from three generational groups (the Veterans, people born between 1922 and 1943); Baby Boomers (those born between 1943 and 1965); Generation X (those born between 1968 and 1980); and Millennials (those born between 1981 and 2002). This has made it difficult for administrators to cater for the alignment of the core values with all the generational groups, without making any common values of a particular generation seem significantly less or more important than the other (Cennamo & Gadner, 2008). It should be noted that each generational group would have different common values. For instance, a 30-year period of research carried out by Twengwe, Campbell, Hoffiman and Lance (2010) assessed the value of each of the generations placed on a series of value systems. These researchers discovered that the baby boomers valued work centrality; the younger generation valued extrinsic factors such as status and pay more than the older generation; the older generation valued making friends and held dear intrinsic values such as interesting work which were rated significantly lower than that which was valued by baby boomers did. The older generations show more respect for positional authority than do younger generations.

Administrators ought therefore to bear in mind that organisational values must consider individual or even generational values, in order to motivate all employees on organisational performance (Gaiya, 2013). Moreover, when an administrator understands the differences in individual and generational values, he or she would be able to align the organisational values with those individual and generational values. This alignment would result in what is referred to as value congruence (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Apropos of concurrence (Hoffman & Woer, 2006) assert that congruence between an individual's values and those of the organisation purportedly has positive effects on employee behaviour and performance. Therefore, focus on the degree to which organisational values are congruent with individual values would help the administrator to manage employees more effectively. Research shows that socialisation in the workplace increases value congruence (Bao, Dolan & Tzafrir, 2012). Administrators thus ought to avoid value incongruence, which would result in incompatibility of values between two or more entities in the same organisation.

When value congruency is upheld, employees feel more comfortable, more readily and openly sharing information (process model or social vision), consequently motivating employees. Organisational values will be more beneficial if they are collectively generated so that employees share the same value system, understanding them. When values are shared and understood, they are likely to guide employees in making better decisions that would subsequently support those values (Titov & Umarova, 2017) for the growth of the organisation. Communication of organisational values can be illustrated in a manner that depicts the system model, as illustrated in

Figure 2.5 below

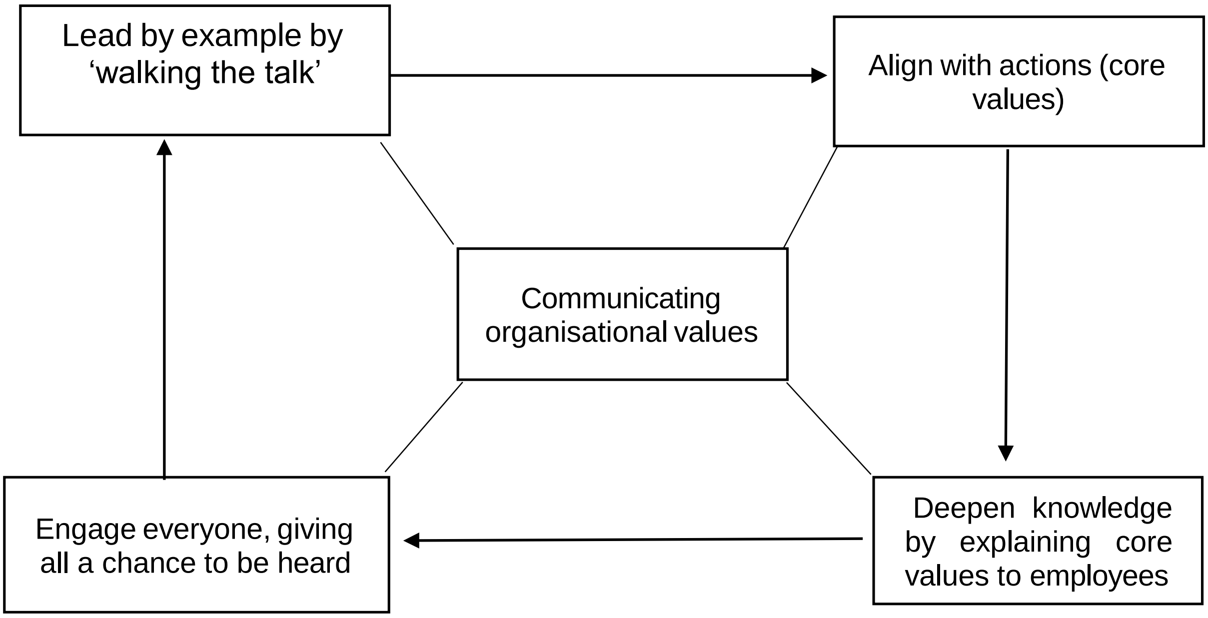


Figure 2.5: Communication of organisational values (adapted from Mueller, 2017).

Real and shared values assist in creating unity within a team and may lead to consistent behaviour (Maccoby, 1998). In addition, when values are shared, administration will know what kind of work and behaviour to expect from employees (Argondona, 2003). It should be noted that individuals with differing values would tend to emphasise different outcomes. They would therefore, require common values to guide them accordingly. For organisations to be successful they need to have clear and well-defined core values. Such would inspire every employee to be motivated to shape and achieve organisational goals and objectives (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Aithal, 2016).

2.3.4 Organisational goals and objectives

According to Matt (2016); Locke and Latham (2012), and other scholars, critical components of administration are goals and objectives of an organisation. Such help administrators and employees to plan, organise, lead, and control (P-O-L-C) their organisational activities. Matt (2016) further posits that the same organisational goals and objectives help to provide the foundation on which employee and organisational performance can be measured according to what the organisation has set out to do in order to accomplish the planned tasks. Goals and objectives also turn aspirations into tangible results which require commitment and action from the employees. Goals therefore set out that which the organisation ought to accomplish. Barney and Griffin (1992) assert that employees are informed by the organisational goals on where and how the organisation has planned to achieve its intentions. Therefore, goals usually are a collection of related programmes, a reflection of major actions of the organisation, providing direction for administrators. In contrast to goals, objectives are very precise, time-based, measurable actions that support the accomplishment of a goal. Objectives are a description of exactly what is to be done in order to meet the goals. Objectives provide clear and specific statements of what must be accomplished (Kotlar et al., 2018).

A principle of the system model is described by Khoza and Mpungose, (2017); Khoza, (2013; 2015a; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b; 2018) and Mpungose (2016). Goals and objectives are derived in a hierarchical manner from the vision and mission of the organisation. Within the facet of planning, the organisational structure should show a clear relationship between hierarchy of goals and objectives, as summarised in Figure 2.6 below.

Figure 2.6: Goals and objectives in planning.

Kotlar et al. (2018) comment that planning typically starts with a vision and mission of the organisation, showing where the organisation wants to go and how to get there. Administrators then develop a strategy for realising the vision and mission. In terms of leadership, it is usually top administrators who set goals and objectives for the entire organisation (system model). However, employees ought to be involved at every stage so that they have ownership of what the organisation has set out to do. In this way employees would be motivated to work towards the accomplishment of the organisational vision and mission. In the same vein, low-level administrators ought to have input into setting the goals and objectives relevant to their respective parts of the organisation. Such administrators would remain accountable for their respective goals and objectives. Kotlar et al. (2018) further posit that goals and objectives of an organisation are important: they can provide a feedback mechanism on how well or how poorly the organisation executes its strategy. Goals and objectives are also a basis for reward systems (motivation), depending on how well they have been accomplished; hence employees remain accountable for their actions in their various organisational units. In other words, success and progress in achieving the vision and mission will be indicated by how well the underlying goals and objectives are achieved. On the one hand, a vision statement describes a broad set of goals and objectives to be achieved. The broad set of goals covers what the organisation aspires to be like in future. On the other hand, a mission statement also has some stated goals. It describes what the organisation aspires to be for its stakeholders. Thus, goals are typically set for the organisation as a whole. Goals set the stage for a hierarchy (system model) of specific and prescribed goals and objectives (Khan et al., 2010; Bowen, 2016). Each department in the organisation should therefore set its own goals and objectives aligned with the vision and mission of organisation. When tracked and measured, such would help to show how its functions are contributing to the organisation’s goals and objectives.

Goals and objectives can be stated such that depict the system model or the process model, as described by Khoza (2015a; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b) and Mpungose & Khoza (2017). Botho University in Botswana has the academic goal of becoming a leading and multi-disciplinary institution of higher learning and continuing education. Botho seeks to offer a diverse range of quality niche programmes, including areas of accounting, business computing, and engineering tailored to the requirements of the region. An objective for the goal presented above thus spells out the need to build a sustainable and successful university for the benefit of the society. While the goals and objectives presented above show how the university aims to contribute to the overall organisational function, the way they have been stated depicts the system model − they both speak more to the needs of the organisation. The Ministry of Higher Education in Zimbabwe also presents its goals and objectives that depict the system model, some of which are: Strategic Goal 1: A higher and tertiary education system that produces goods and services. Strategic Objective 1.1 Reconfigure higher and tertiary education 3.0 to education 5.0 to produce goods and services. Strategic Goal 2: Strong educational programmes supported by modern physical and financial infrastructure. Strategic Objective 2.1: to educate graduates for the 21st century market with strong academic qualifications and strong employability skills. Strategic Objective 2.2: To be a preferred international destination for higher and tertiary education, science, innovation and technology development (The Doctrine, 2018). The goals and objectives presented above are concerned more with the professional aspects (system model) of the organisation. Not much is said about the interactions between and among the employees (process model) within the organisation. The goals and objectives, however, show how they will contribute to the overall function of the ministry.

The strategic plan for the University of Mpumalanga 2015 – 2022 in South Africa has presented some of its goals and objectives that depict the process model as follows: Goal 1: Develop and sustain the research capacity of staff and students. This goal is supported by the first objective that speaks to attracting, nurturing, and developing research potential and talent among staff and students; Objective Two that speaks to providing support to emerging researchers, postgraduate students, and postdoctoral fellows to become research active; and Objective Three that aims to create a culture of research in undergraduate students. Goal 2: Conduct research that contributes to local, regional, national, and global sustainability. The first objective of Goal Two states the establishment and expansion of research partnerships, collaboration, networks and linkages nationally and internationally. The goals and objectives presented above address the needs and interactions of the employees and students at the university and beyond. This addresses the (social aspect) process model as described by Khoza (2018) and Mpungose (2016). Terms used are develop, attract, provide, create, conduct, establish. These terms taken individually tend to depict the interactions between and among individuals.

The table below shows examples of how some goals and objectives are expressed in selected educational organisations stating whether they depict the system model or process model, and giving reasons for the differences.

Table 2.5: Examples of Some Organisational Goals and Objectives for Selected Educational Institutions

Organisation	Goals	Objectives	Model & Reason
University of KwaZulu-Natal South Africa	Excellence in teaching and learning	1. To achieve a diverse socio-economic student body 2. To enhance the quality of teaching staff 3. To enhance student success with quality teaching and learning.	System model Statements refer to issues of quality of the organisation and students to be produced.
University of Melbourne Australia	The university will attract students of the highest academic potential, regardless of background and through an outstanding curriculum and university experience, enable them to develop to their full potential as global professionals, citizens, and community leaders.	1. To attract and support excellent students from all backgrounds 2. To deliver an outstanding graduate education through world class graduate schools. 3. To support students in maximising their graduate outcomes. 4. To encourage and reward excellence and creativity in learning and teaching practice.	Process model The statements refer to attracting, supporting and encouraging personnel within and outside the organisation.
University of Zimbabwe			
Madziwa Teachers' College Zimbabwe	Curriculum development	1 Reviewing the existing syllabi and designing new syllabi 2 Recruiting human resources	System model Statements are relating to the professional

		3 Mobilisation of material resources 4 Delivering quality lectures.	aspects of curriculum development.
Morgan Teachers' College Zimbabwe	Human capital development	1. To review college policies in line with stating operational policies 2. To sensitise college community on standing policies 3. To enforce compliance by 2023. 1. To review teacher-education curriculum in line with Education 5.0 2. To produce syllabi that embrace the heritage-based curriculum.	System model Concerned more with policies and the curriculum and syllabi (professional).
Seke Teachers' College Zimbabwe	A stable, highly qualified, and motivated staff committed to deliver on the College mandate by 2023.	1. To recruit staff with requisite skills on an on-going basis. 2. To provide continuous personal and professional development.	Process model Concerned with the motivation and empowering of employees.

Goals and objectives described above show a desire to drive behaviour (system model or process model) that leads to achievement and accomplishment within an organisation. This guides and motivates individual performance (Matt, 2016). On one hand, organisational (system) needs may motivate an employee to work hard towards overall organisational performance. On the other hand, some employees perform better when they work as a team (social) to achieve a particular goal and objective. Thus, goal-setting increases motivation and may lead to better performance of employees (Locke & Latham, 2012). Teo and Low (2016), in support of the above assertion, posit that goal-setting would have a positive impact on employee effectiveness. Such would improve both employee and organisational effectiveness. A question to ask, however, would be how many employees know their organisational goals and objectives: do they know where to find them? There would be a need to ensure that employees have a clear knowledge of what they should accomplish, so that they focus their efforts on organisational success. Organisational employees and departments ought thus to be well coordinated so that everyone is working towards the same end.

Teo and Low (2016) in XYZ (Singapore) conducted an empirical study to investigate employee effectiveness on organisational effectiveness. Their overarching research question was hinged on whether goal-setting had an impact on employee effectiveness in improving organisational effectiveness. The researchers developed a conceptual model on goal-setting and its relationship with employee effectiveness and organisational effectiveness. The findings of this empirical research suggested that there was concurrence amongst the participants that goal-setting had an impact on employee's effectiveness, and as a result, on improved organisational effectiveness. Matt (2016), however, is of the view that, while goal-setting increases motivation in the form of rewards for employees who have achieved the organisational goals, it still has some limitations. There could be conflict that may arise between administrative processes and organisational goals. Goals may also be too complicated to be achieved; and worse still, employees may not have the requisite skills and competences, leading to failure to accomplish the set goals. This would ultimately lead to demotivation of employees, further impacting negatively on organisational performance. It is important therefore to involve all employees in crafting organisational goals so that they are clear to them from the outset.

Olorunleke (2015) further brings in the effect of organisational politics on organisational performance. The researcher suggests that an organisation is made up of people who manage and coordinate various resources for the achievement of the stated goals and objectives of an organisation within an unstable and complex environment. Where an organisation fails to live up to its expectations in terms of its performance, political behaviours become a common feature. Robins, Judge and Sanghi (2008) posit that politics has an effect on work outcome. Politics can affect organisational processes such as decision-making, promotion, and rewards among other aspects, either positively or negatively. While organisational politics is unavoidable, it should be known to impact either positively or negatively on organisational goals and objectives.

A survey research design that aimed to generate data from a sample size of 152 employees using random sampling technique was carried out by Olorunleke (2015). The research used correlation analysis to determine the direction and strength of the relationship that exists between organisation politics and organisation performance. The study concluded that organisational performance can be enhanced by trying to provide a working environment free from politics in their organisation. The study concluded that organisational performance can be an environment free from politics within their organisation. The study further recommended that administrators use skills and competencies to help them in decision-making; they should avoid politics. This signifies a gap that the study at hand may bridge by bringing in-depth understanding of how organisational politics affects achievement of organisational goals and objectives. This further indicates a need for a local study to explore organisational politics and the impact of organisational motivation on organisational performance.

An administrator must strive to balance the viewpoints of all the departments within the organisation in order to move an organisation forward. Several departments in an organisation may be in conflict with one another. One department may want to prioritise its goals and objectives and override activities of other departments. Furthermore, politics may also arise due to competition between interest groups or individuals within the organisation for power and leadership positions. Mills (2002) posits that whether political activities assist or harm the organisation depends on whether the goals of individuals are consistent with the goals of the organisation. Thus politics is an important element of an organisation. It should receive adequate attention because of its impact on organisational goals and objectives.

Finally, goals and objectives guide administrators to select relevant resources thus attaining organisational success and growth. Ismajli, Zekiri, Qosja and Krasniqi (2015) articulate that, in order for an organisation to achieve its goals and objectives, it must have at its disposal the necessary resources, using them very effectively. The available resources for organisations are human, financial, physical, and information resources (Drucker, 2006). The human resources in an organisation are the most important for successful performance of any organisation (Ismajli et al., 2015).

2.3.5 Organisational resources

Resources are all the material and non-material factors necessary and contributing to the attainment of goals and objectives in any organisation (Dangara, 2016). Rose, Abdullah and Ismad (2010) further state that resources refer to both tangible and intangible entities that an organisation needs to implement its activities, thus achieving its goals and objectives. An interpretive case study conducted by Khoza (2013a) on university lecturers using an online environment in teaching their modules, classified resources into three main types in education. These are hardware resources (any tools or machine or object used in education), software (any materials used in conjunction with tools to carry or display information) and ideological-ware (activities that we cannot see or touch in education, such as theories and suchlike) resources. Ideological-ware resources comprise ideas that manage the mind to deal with hardware and software. These ideological-ware resources are driven by a personal, process, or/and system model (Khoza, 2015b, 2016b). Jiang (2014) further refers to resources of the various organisations within the same sector as heterogeneous. Further to this, the term resources includes all assets, capabilities, organisational attributes, information and knowledge controlled by an organisation to enable it to implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness (Hofer & Schendel, 2006). Mwai (2018) posits that allocation of resources may lead to success in implementation of organisational goals and objectives, and thus help to achieve positive organisational performance. Organisational resources are therefore valuable and necessary, and when combined, become useful in achieving organisational goals (Pearce & Robinson, 2013).

The administration of an organisation ought to bring together various resources, allocating them effectively to different departments to accomplish the goals of the organisation (Mwai, Namada & Katuse, 2018; Dangara, 2016). Dangara (2016) further posits that it is important also for administrators to make sure that they mobilise adequate resources. Such resources should be appropriately distributed and be fully utilised so that they contribute towards the achievement of goals and objectives of the organisation. In an analysis of factors influencing the implementation of strategic plans in public secondary schools in Mukurweini and Othaya sub-counties of Nyeri County in Kenya, among other things, the allocation of resources was considered one of the main strategies needed for the implementation of the organisational strategic plans

(Ndegwah, 2014). There is therefore a need for the resource-allocation policies and prioritisation of budget development. Moreover, there is a need to prioritise team training so that employees develop the necessary skills to put resources into good use. This indicates a gap for a study to explore how employees can be motivated through acquisition of resources, and their distribution and implementation on individual and organisational performance (Mwai, 2018.

The system model views an organisation as a social system consisting of individuals who work together through a formal framework. The organisation draws resources, people, and finances from their environment and places them back into the environment through the services they offer (Breenes, Mina & Molina, 2008). Thus the system depends on the organisation's resources, while they interact with other internal and external factors impacting on organisational performance. Administrators thus ought to focus on the role played by each part of an organisation, rather than dealing separately with parts, both interpersonal and group behavioural aspects, leading to dealing with an organisation as a whole (Mwai, 2018). A local study could explore the role of administrators on organisational resources.

Mwai (2018) presents the resource-based view (RBV) model that was found to be the most suitable model to explain how organisational resources contribute to organisational success. The RBV examines and classifies the combination of employee capabilities, skills, assets, and intangible possessions, as offering advantage to the organisation (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). The underlying premise of the RBV theory is that organisations differ in the way they manage their resources, making use of them to achieve competitive advantage (Pesic, 2007). The RBV model sets the premise that, for an organisation to grow, it depends on the use of its existing resources and the acquisition of new ones (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). The RBV explains why organisations in the same sector are different, arising from the way in which the various resources available are used and managed to advantage. Literature presented about RBV models further suggests that the resources possessed by an organisation are the primary determinants of its performance and success (Kariuku & Kilika, 2016). The RBV model, however, is oblivious of the fact that organisations may have difficulty in resource acquisition, given certain types of constraints such as financial and regulations, among others. Moreover, the relationship between acquisition of resources and their distribution may overlook the aspect of employee motivation on organisational performance.

Crosswell (1998) avers that today's competitive world demands employees who are highly efficient and effective at their daily tasks. He further postulates that efficient and effective employees are made, not born. There is a need to recognise that results within an organisation are a by-product of human action. Actions are the specific behaviours that an employee engages in during the course of the work day. The engagement may depend largely on the motivation of the employee in the workplace. The employee's job description thus ought to be clear right from the outset − that will prescribe the employee's behaviour. In this way administrators can control employees towards a positive, constructive, and powerful way of achieving organisational outcomes. If employers fail to specify what employees should do, results may be egregious; hence the need for a job description. In addition, an organisation should have a system to track employees' behaviour so that corrective intervention of any problems that arise can be addressed timeously. The most important message for administrators is that the human behaviour is one of the most precious resources that an organisation has at its disposal. It should be nurtured, as it is ultimately the basis for organisational success.

Dangara (2016); Mwai (2018), Yilmaz (2015) and other scholars agree that, undoubtedly, human resources constitute a vital part of any organisation. In higher education, human resources include staff (academic and non-academic), students, and a host of stakeholders. The competence, motivation, and effectiveness of its human-resource base determine the success of any organisation. Nakpodia (2010) further posits that the quality of the system and its human resources determines the success in the implementation of the programmes within an organisation in any country. Yilmaz (2015) avers that the human resource is the most important factor affecting organisational performance; emphasising that an organisation can only be as good as the performance of its employees. This suggests that efforts ought to be made by administrators to improve individual performance. Such would ultimately also increase the performance of the organisation.

Organisations have other resources that are basically controlled, utilised, and maintained by the human resources of an organisation. These resources include material or physical resources (structures, equipment, raw materials, vehicles, and tools), financial resources (funds required for the smooth operation of the organisation), time (the most expensive of all resources because once lost it cannot be recovered), Information and Communication Technology (ICT), a diverse set of technological tools such as computers, the internet and many others, and knowledge and skill (the intangible resources) (Dangara, 2016; Khoza 2015a; 2015b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Ugwulashi, 2012; Kalu, 2012). The human resources interact with facilities and equipment at any given time to bring about production of output; hence the ideological-ware that controls the hardware and software, as described by Khoza (2013a). Dangara (2016) posits that the quality and quantity of this output are, to a great extent, dependent on the quality and quantity of resource input. Input and output are thus significantly responsive to the way in which these inputs are put to use. Administrators of organisations, therefore, ought to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in the acquisition of resources, coordination, control and maintenance, in order to motivate employees on organisational performance.

Organisational resources are important in the development of a working environment conducive to attainment of goals. The use of these resources can give direction to the employees more than any powerful efforts without materials. It should be noted that it is not only the availability of these resources that guarantees effective performance of an organisation; but also their adequacy and effective utilisation. Thus, the proper administration and use of these resources that would boost the morale of human resources may ensure the attainment of organisational goals. According to Dlamini (2018), it is important for people to bring to attention the significance of professionalisation, socialisation and personalisation experiences when considering the use of resources in any work environment. The professional (system aspect) attitude comes about through formal learning and research, following specified instructions, meeting discipline needs, following instructional rules and structures and from the professional relationships between the lecturers and students. This is mainly driven by the use of hardware or software resources (Khoza, 2015b; 2016b). While resources may be used for the professional space they also ought to be used for socialisation and personalisation. A study could harmonise professionalisation and socialisation, thus creating neutral personalisation experiences in the use of organisational resources (Khoza, 2019). Personalisation experiences have not been fully developed in literature; whereas all experiences (professionalisation, socialisation, and personalisation) are equally important in the use of resources (Bernstein, 1999; Khoza, 2015; Khoza, 2019). A study could combine strengths and weaknesses of professional and social experiences to inform the personal experiences in the use of resources (Khoza, 2018). Personalisation would help employees find their identities.

Other problems associated with resource availability range from shortage of funds, political issues, misuse of facilities, poor administration, ineffective leadership, supply of sub-standard resources, inadequate facilities to low staff morale. All these factors may impede the achieving of organisational goals and objectives, resulting in poor organisational performance (Dangara, 2016). Administrators should develop methods of prudent resource mobilisation, allocation and use of these resources. Organisational rules and regulations on various facets of the organisation have always been regarded as an essential and integral part of organisational administration in order to offer quality service delivery (Dangara, 2016)

2.3.6 Organisational rules and regulations

Organisational rules are defined as statements about the way the organisation should carry out its mandate. The statements reflect on organisational policies that may help achieve organisational objectives, fulfil clients' needs, deploy resources, and conform to general organisational laws (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 1998). Gosier (2018), in support of the above definition, posits that policies and procedures are an essential part of any organisation. Regulation is broadly defined as the collective processes that constitute the making, maintenance, following, and enforcement of rules by employees in an organisation (de Vaujany, Fomin, Hoefliger & Lyytinen, 2018). Thus rules and regulations are interrelated in the achievement of organisational objectives and are an essential part of an organisation (Kimberlee, 2018; Weichbrodt & Grote, 2010). Kimberlee (2018) adds that rules and regulations protect both employees and the organisation. They help employees understand how they are expected to behave and what happens if they violate the rules. It is therefore important for organisations to have clear rules that also justify their (rules) inclusion. Rules are expressed for guidance, reminding of who should conform, and also circumstances under which the rules are applicable (de Vaujany et al., 2018). Zhou (2010)'s study examined rule-making and rule-changing in a university organisation over its 100-year history. Zhou

(2010) used organisational learning and institutional theories to guide his research into the effects of the rules being adhered to; also how rules were allocated and how government intervened in changing organisational rules. The findings suggest that rule-making and rule change may affect the way the organisational responds to any external crisis; and therefore rules may be regulated within the organisation. The researcher further found that the established rules were adhered to and were considered in the operations of the organisation according to government expectations. Therefore these rules were institutionalised over time. Organisational rules should therefore be taken seriously by employees to guide their behaviour. Rules assist employees to remain compliant with the organisational, stakeholder, and government expectations.

Administrators, therefore, play a pivotal role in implementing rules and regulations of an organisation: rule following guides the practical behaviour of employees (de Vaujany et al., 2018). Employees have to write down the rules, refer to them, and explain what they mean, so that they may be easily adhered to (de Vaujany, 2010). Written rules thus demand effort with respect to explaining them and making sure that employees understand them. As de Vaujany (2010) expresses, rule-making can either be endogenous (created within the organisation) to the social group, or exogenous, with rules created by external sources. In both cases employees are expected to abide by the stated rules. While rules and regulations help in coordinating employees and organisational departments by aligning activities and goals, providing guidance, reducing uncertainty and ambiguity in carrying out the work, they may also have some drawbacks (Weichbrodt & Grote, 2010). Excessive bureaucratic (system model) requirements may hinder creativity, innovation and change. Formal rules are usually put in place with the intention of creating or shaping organisational routines as forms of collective behaviour. However, the social processes which steer this transformation into collective patterns (process model) are ignored, and may not be well understood. Many authors have addressed the aspects of regulation, formalisation, and bureaucracy and how individuals cope with such. Aspects examined include the role and shaping of organisational rules as the system model (Khoza, 2015a, 2015b, Khoza & Mpungose, 2017, Mpungose, 2018).

Administrators in most instances impose some rules within the organisation, and this is a top-down perspective. While rules serve a purpose in defining responsibilities or tasks and allocation of resources, there has to be adequate communication as to why a particular decision has been made (Okhuysen & Bechky, 2009). Rules also ought to allow a negotiation process between different interest groups within the organisation (for example, between administration and labour unions regarding working hours) (Weichbrodt & Grote, 2010). In many instances, administrative decisions are more influenced by fear of public and legal scrutiny, resulting in increased usage of formal policies and procedures, neglecting other criteria relevant to decision-making, such as issues of efficiency and positive employee relations. DeHart-Davis (2009) thus proposed a model of “green tape” or effective rules as opposed to “red tape” or ineffective and excessive bureaucratic regulation. The green tape model suggests that rules of organisations be both supportive (reduce complexity and offer guidance), at the same time having a restrictive role in reducing freedom of action. DeHart-Davis (2009) also adds that it is important for rules to be understood by employees.

Gosier (2018) posits that employees must be made to understand why it is important to follow policies and procedures of an organisation. Gosier is of the opinion that when employees follow policies and procedures, this helps the organisation to run smoothly. Administrative structures and teams should operate as they are meant to. Clarifying anything in the process makes for quick identification and addressing. Furthermore, time and resources are likely be used more efficiently. The organisation will grow and goals be achieved. Gosier, however, is either silent or not emphatic on the need for policies to motivate employees towards organisational performance. A study could explore how rules and policies impact on motivation of employees on organisational performance. This study may address such an impact. Rasmussen and Zou (2014), in addition, address the concept of accountability. This may be the reason for most administrators merely employing rules, regulations and policies. The aspect of accountability in public institutions thus has recently attracted more and more attention in public governance and administration in education.

Countries approach the aspect of accountability in different ways. Rasmussen and Zou (2014) aver that accountability is about the need for responsibility and giving an account of what one is responsible for. Accountability systems of various types are found in education; for instance: a) a detailed account of how institutions are regulated in terms of compliance with their mandate; b) adherence to expected professional norms; and c) evaluation of performance levels of the organisation. While accountability through performance has become more widespread of recent years, institutional rules and regulations still remain of paramount importance. Three types of accountability are elaborated by Rasmussen and Zou (2014) from Anderson (2005), as given below.

Table 2.6: Types of Accountability adapted from Anderson (2005)

Accountability Type	What is accounted for	To whom
Compliance with regulations	Adherence to legislation and official orders	Bureaucracy and political system (system model)
Adherence to professional norms	Professional qualifications and control within professions	Professional peers and political system (system model)
Evaluation of results	Outputs (e.g., completion rates; student achievement; employment)	Bureaucracy, political system and general public (system model)

Accountability is important in education policy at local, political, and national level, as well as at global level. Ball (2012); Dale & Robertson (2009) allude to the modern world being increasingly characterised by a global regime of policy development, enacted partly through international organisations, but also through contracts and negotiations between governments and other important actors. This depicts a system model. The local or organisational policies will be structured in such a manner that they are aligned with the global and national conventions. Higher education programmes are thus adapted to a common set of norms for higher education, as an expected standard model.

China has a system of public state-run education. Accountability is achieved through educational inspection and quality monitoring for the general school sector and undergraduate teaching evaluation, accreditation of professional programmes, and disciplinary ranking for higher education (Zou, 2013). Standardised tests in China are also used as a form of educational accountability. This is similar to the education system in Zimbabwe and depicts a system model. Denmark, a small country without many natural resources (Spinger Science & Business Media LLC, 2018), has developed from an agricultural society to an industrial society and then to a service and knowledge society. Denmark strongly emphasises aspects of collaboration and pluralism (process model), both in national and local matters (Kaspersen, 2013). Examples in China and Denmark show that institutions are linked to global networks; Zimbabwe is no exception. There is increasing awareness of accountability based on professionalism, although there are tensions between professionalism and both results-based and bureaucratic forms of accountability (Rasmussen & Zou, 2014). Professional norms specify the special qualities to which members of the profession have to conform. Accountability through evaluation of results would determine outputs. This information is usually made available to the general public in an effort to inform and encourage the public (Rasmussen & Zou, 2014).

Gosier (2018) states that most of the policies are top-down. On issues of accountability, administrators ought to set an example to their employees by first consistently adhering to the same policies and procedures. Employees must also know the consequences of violating the policies and procedures. In Zimbabwe, for instance, all members of the public service are guided by a statutory instrument (SI 1 of 2000) on rules and regulations of public service, with an amendment (SI 58). At the end of the instrument is a clear list of acts of misconduct: the consequences of each form of misconduct are given. These are clearly written guidelines for administrators, brought to the attention of all newly recruited employees during their induction. The question that remains is how often the employees are reminded of the contents of the statutory instrument. Also, it is not clear whether administrators are knowledgeable on the implementation of the disciplinary action to be instituted whenever there is a case of misconduct. The organisation must therefore have a deliberate structure for discipline and corrective action. Administrators ought to be trained on how to conduct disciplinary reviews. The argument here is that various procedures may be used to implement organisational rules that may be abstract statements (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 2014). In Zimbabwe, experience has shown that higher-education rules, regulations, and policies are structured in a bureaucratic manner (system model). Such are based on the taxonomy for organisational rules as illustrated below

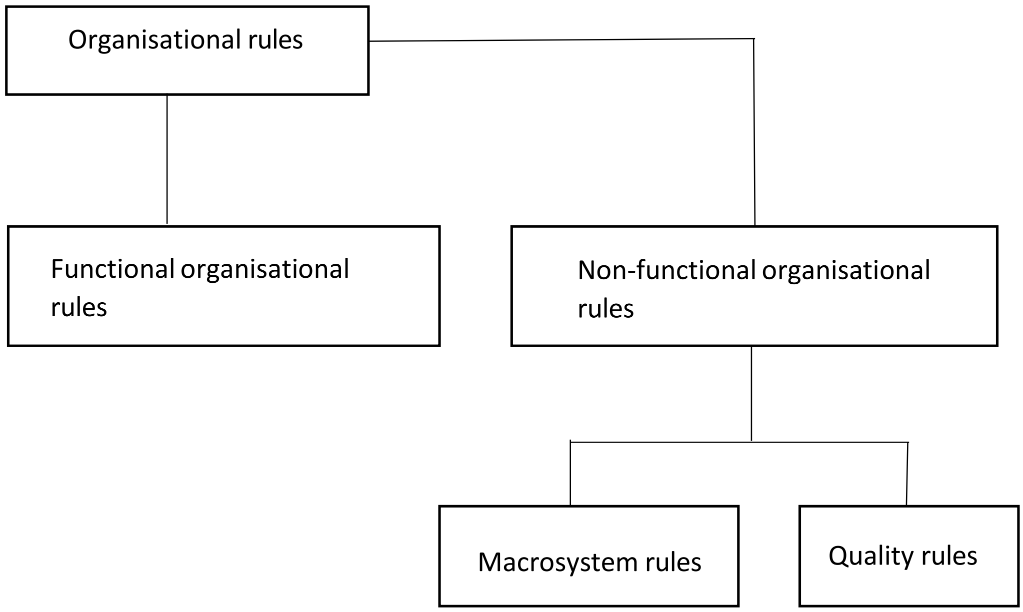


Figure 2.7: Taxonomy for organisational rules by do Prado Leite & Leonardi (2014).

Figure 2.7 above implies that there are different procedures that may be used to enact a policy. An organisation may want to support employees when they engage on business trips (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 1998). The employee can apply for an advance; or after the travel, payment may be made into a personal account as reimbursement. Likewise, the company can provide a vehicle for travel. These options can be applied by an organisation. This describes an organisational rule as illustrated in Figure 2.7 above. The taxonomy further describes functional rule as those rules that regard organisational actions and non-functional as relationships or standards that must be observed by the organisation. The non-functional rules are further divided into those related to the macro system and those related to internal or external quality standards. Should an organisation have a policy regarding its STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) programme, this will appear as a non-functional quality organisational rule. This makes a distinction between organisational rules and requirements. Requirements describe how a given system must work, and as such, employees may comply with the organisational rules (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 2014). Non-functional rules can further be classified as either macro system rules or quality rules. Macro system rules describe policies related to the specific characteristics of a universe discourse or global trend. Quality rules are demands of an organisation on the characteristics of its processes or products. Quality rules usually reflect general policies related to quality standards or quality expectations of an organisation (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 1998). Functional rules are general policies regarding how an organisation should function.

While rules and routines play an important role in any organisation, they also have drawbacks (Weichbrodt & Grote, 2010). Excessive bureaucratic requirements may hinder innovation and change. At the same time, rules may become obsolete and dysfunctional when changes in the organisation or its environment occur. Moreover, if tasks become routine, work can be boring and dissatisfying, since rules may restrict freedom and as a result may not be popular. The question to ask is who makes the rules in any given organisation? Who supervises the adherence to the rules? While the role of administrators is highly appreciated, large bureaucratic systems can thwart innovation and change. It is therefore best to maintain a balance by introducing small changes incrementally: drastic changes may cause resistance to adherence by employees. Rules and regulations can either be enabling or coercive, the former having a positive effect on employee's attitudes (reinforce commitment, increase efficiency); the latter a negative (de-skilling, less job satisfaction). Therefore enabling bureaucracies (system model) should have room to change the rules; have the rules made by employees rather than specialists; and provide rationale for rules to gain internal transparency as well as global transparency. Detailed information should be available to all employees. Rules should allow flexibility so that users can influence decisions on when the rules apply and when deviations are necessary. In this way the evaluation system in the organisation can be successfully implemented

2.3.7 Evaluation system

It has been proven by empirical studies globally, that higher education contributes to the socio-economic development of a country (Donlagic & Fazlic, 2015). Higher-education institutions are therefore being pressured to prove their usefulness. They must state their objectives and methods of achieving such (Tanveer & Karim, 2018; Egginton, 2010). Donlagic and Fazlic (2015) further state that higher-education institutions are being pressured to improve the value of their activities and provide high-quality service to prove their worth. They are also asked by their key stakeholders to account for the resources allocated to them and their priorities to fulfil their corporate social responsibility. This suggests that higher-education institutions ought continually to assess the quality of their services, and establish methods for improving quality. Everyone, from prospective students to the general public, now wants data and proof in favour of the effectiveness of and the need for these institutions to exist. Therefore, quality assurance should be integrated into the mainstream management system and processes of higher-education systems (Donlagic & Fazlic, 2015; Tanveer & Karim, 2018). Monitoring and evaluation are therefore key in assuring and enhancing quality higher-education institutions (Niyivuga, Otara & Tuyishime, 2019)**.** Njenga and Karibu (2009) define monitoring as a continuous and systematic collection of data during the execution of organisational duties. Evaluation, on the contrary, is a periodic and systematic collection of data to make certain judgements about the organisation. The term systematic implies that the process of monitoring and evaluation should be a planned system allowing formal feedback to be given. Both monitoring and evaluation are closely related. Njenga and Karibu (2009) further aver that information from the monitoring exercise helps in conducting an effective evaluation exercise. Monitoring and evaluation both aim towards tracking the progress of activities and performance review within an organisation. Such encourages positive behaviour among employees in a systematic manner, hence being a principle of the system model.

Armstrong (2004) argues that employees of an organisation are the most valuable asset and therefore ought to be managed and appraised appropriately. A number of scholars have written about monitoring and evaluation and its impact on employee job performance (Holondo, 2012; Ngware & Ndirangu, 2005; Siddique Aslam, Khan & Fatima, 2011; Tozoglu, 2006). Literature reveals that a motivated staff is crucial in achieving organisational objectives (Niyivuga, Otara & Tuyishime, 2019; Shah & Nair, 2012). However, the linkage of monitoring and evaluation to staff motivation has not been fully addressed. This research hopes to achieve this end. Niyivuga, Otara and Tuyishime (2019) have expressed that establishing internal evaluation procedures within an organisation is a way of gaining external accountability. In support (Brauckman & Pashiardis, 2010) state that the ability of organisations to critically evaluate their own performance, as well as that of their employees is a vital process contributing towards continuous quality improvement. O'Mahony and Garava (2012) emphasise that the implementation of an effective quality management system in higher education is a dynamic process of monitoring, continuous improvement and change.

Higher-education institutions can be evaluated through a variety of models and frameworks. These models may include but are not limited to evaluation of procedures and designs (Darwin, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 1989), evaluation of evaluators (Ramzan, 2015), and evaluation of objectives (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 20017; Wang, 2009). Evaluation models based on procedures and designs are categorised into two groups: standard and modern (Darwin, 2012; Guban & Lincoln, 1989). Standard evaluations are motivated by individuals, relying heavily on quantitative data from students. Darwin (2012) posits that the standard evaluation model is quantitative student opinion surveys. Such surveys are used in a number of countries including USA, UK, and Australia, among other countries. In comparison, modern or fourth-generation evaluation models are motivated by enhancing student learning, relying mainly on wide-ranging qualitative data. These use developmental continuous processes with programme-development action plans. The fourth-generation models consider situated evaluation practices in which context evaluation plays a major role in shaping the evaluation process (Chinta et al., 2015). Both standard and modern evaluations emulate the system model, following a particular structure. This model will help them reach the intended results. Student evaluation, however, has proved to be fragile, unreliable, and susceptible to various influences. In addition, there has been increasing doubt about the value of student rating as a means of objectively evaluating higher-education institutions; such are complex systems encompassing multiple stakeholders including learners themselves, instructors, and administrators (Chinta et al., 2015). Alternative evaluation models have thus been emerging recently. Viewing modern evaluation as a socio-cultural process (process model) and distinctly different from the standard evaluation model (system model), new models have shifted the basis to negotiated evaluations (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The negotiated evaluations may therefore include the system model, process model, and the personal vision. Such may motivate employees who have different needs in order to contribute to organisational performance and growth (Khoza & Mpungose, 2017).

Another group of evaluation models are evaluator oriented. An example of an evaluator-oriented model is the four-stage model used by European higher-education institutions (Chinta et al., 2015). Ramzen (2015) posits that, since the year 2000, the Bologna Accord and the European higher-education institutions have adopted and followed a four-stage model of evaluation for quality assurance of their institutions. The four stages include a self-evaluation conducted by the organisation, a site visit by an external peer review, report writing and publication by an evaluation committee and quality agencies, and a follow-up visit by quality agencies. In Zimbabwe, higher-education institutions follow the four-stage evaluation model of self-evaluation conducted by both the individual institutions and an associate university. They also are subjected to a site visit by Standards Association and Accreditation Sub-committee (SAAS) from the University of Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) (Garwe & Thondhlana, 2021), and follow-up visits by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (Zimbabwe Higher Education Doctrine, 2018). It should be noted that input, process, and output are considered three principal factors in these evaluation systems. This system model of evaluation is fairly comprehensive. However, it ignores detailed feedback which may be an element that can motivate employees within the organisation. Feedback can be in the form of a written report and certificate of institutional adherence to the expectations of the evaluation board.

Chinta et al. (2015) posit that the objective of a model used should match the needs of the institution for evaluation. For instance, in evaluating a large-scale education system, there is a need for a more comprehensive model. The context, input, process, product (CIPP) model is a management-oriented approach widely used in public schools and higher education systems in the USA and globally. In a conceptual paper whose purpose was to develop a framework using the CIPP model for performance evaluation of higher education institutions in USA, certain steps were followed. Review of literature was conducted to identify an appropriate evaluation model (Chinta et al., 2015). Metrics and benchmarks framework were formed based on practical approaches used in a large university in the USA. Nine perspectives on performance evaluation using the CIPP model and their application in higher-education institutions were developed and discussed. The discussion provided examples, and relative prevalence, including frequency of usage and advantages and limitations of each of the nine perspectives of performance evaluation in higher-education institutions (Chinta et al., 2015). Dahler-Larsen (2011) avers that evaluation is becoming more integrated in current organisational culture as an administration routine at many levels and in many institutions. Evaluation is not only linked to performance improvement but also to social betterment and increased public awareness (Astin 2012). Khoza (2013a, 2013b, 2015a, 2016b, 2016, 2017; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017) and others refer to such as the process model.

Furthermore, the CIPP includes a context stage in which evaluators identify environmental readiness and community needs. Input suggests a project that addresses the needs identified in the context stage. The process controls and assesses the project process; and the product stage measures and judges project outcomes, worth, and significance (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The CIPP is one of the most popular evaluation models that implements social approaches (process model) in each of the four components, the goal being “to improve” not “to prove” the issues within the organisation (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). In simple terms, Chinta et al. (2016) illustrate the systems view of higher education as shown in Figure 2.8 below.

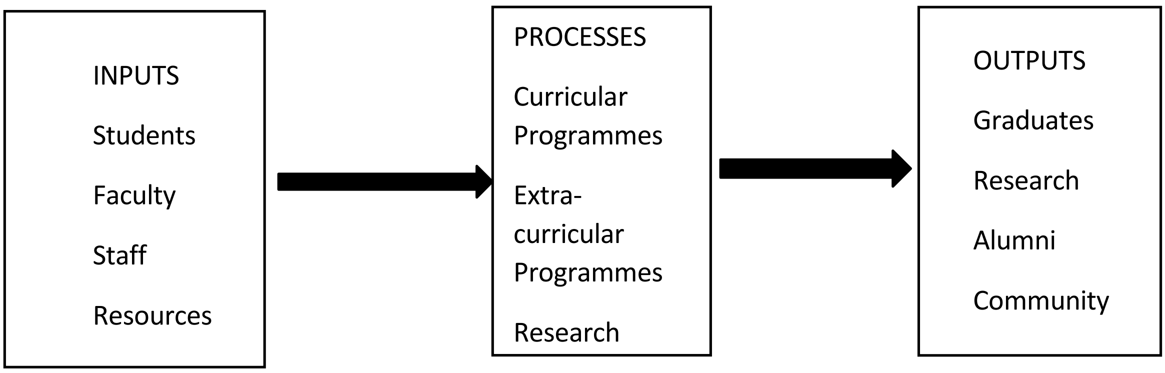


Figure 2.8: Systems view of higher-education institution Chinta et al. (2016).

Figure 2.8 above shows that various inputs enter the system (for example, high school graduates). Outputs (for example, educated students capable of pursuing careers and adding value to society) are finally generated from the system (Chinta et al., 2016). There are obviously many more inputs, processes, and outputs than shown above for a higher-education institution. Such requires use of several metrics in performance management for higher-education institutions (Cave, 1997; Palomba & Banta, 1999) and thus the CIPP model is likely to be user-friendly for higher-education institutions. Chinta et al. (2015), however, state that, while the CIPP model is recommended as an appropriate evaluation model for assessing higher-education institutions, metrics and benchmarks remain a gap.

Tanveer and Karim (2018) mention that performance-management (PM) systems are an important element of evaluation. A study focussed on use of the qualitative research approach on the role of PM in higher-education institutions sought opinions from practitioners, and judgements of those already working in the field, along with those inclined towards policymaking. Findings were that PM is present in higher-education institutions; however, it must be improved upon and tailored to the needs and vision of the institutions. It was also found that performance management and performance appraisal were used synonymously. It has to be made clear that performance appraisal is a part of a PM system. Institutions should implement PM procedures to evaluate and improve the performance of individuals, aligning individual (personal) goals and objectives with organisational strategic goals. This would improve the overall performance of the organisation to achieve its intended end. Performance appraisal must take into account the performance of every employee in the organisation. This includes performance of academics, along with administrative workers (Tanveer & Karim, 2018). Krauset (2017) posits that PM takes into account both inputs and outputs. Such must be considered when measuring performance. The individual PM is generally a part of a broader strategy that involves the whole organisation and focusses on its objectives (Evans, 2017). Thus PM in higher-education institutions is considered a tool for individual (personal) performance management (Melhahi, 2016). In Zimbabwe higher-education institutions, as in other countries, performance management is used for various purposes, for example, identifying and explaining the role of every individual in the organisation, setting goals for the development and growth of the individuals and the institution as a whole, monitoring and examining the performance of every individual, and setting the route for appraisal (Government of Zimbabwe Results-Based Management System, 2019).

According to experts, PM in organisations still has a long way to go in fulfilling its objectives and implementation (Tanveer & Karim, 2018). Research on the perspectives, attitudes, and positions of academics toward quality assurance showed that academics may either resist or comply with quality assurance procedures (Cardoso, Rosa & Santos, 2013). Zhang (2008) maintains that academics find performance appraisals acceptable only if they lead to satisfaction, suggestions for improvement, or rewards (motivation). Zhang (2008) further notes that when assessment is perceived as controlling, it induces pressure and tension and may undermine employee motivation. Aslam (2011); and Niyivuga et al. (2019) further identified ambiguity in the appraisal processes as one of the factors that led to poor motivation. Niyivuga et al. (2019) posit that employees prefer intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation. This implies that employees need personal and professional autonomy in their work and decision-making (Siddique et al., 2011). Therefore, the effect of different monitoring and evaluation practices on organisational motivation should be mediated by quality of feedback provided to the employees. When feedback is provided it can only have either positive or negative effects on employees. Accuracy in performance appraisal is, therefore, a precondition for accurate and meaningful feedback (Govaerts, Van de Wiel & Van der Vleuten, 2012). Govaerts et al. (2012) further allude to feedback on performance reviews being confidential to the individual. Such are likely to have a positive impact on individual performance; however, whatever sources are used, a reward system should be transparent. This suggests a need for a local study on how employees perceive their performance management system in terms of feedback and motivation on organisational performance.

While evaluation of higher-education institutions can be approached in different ways, administrators ought to know the types of goals they should set for their organisation at any given time. These goals would define the metrics and benchmarks without which performance measurement becomes meaningless (Chinta et al., 2015). An internal or self-referencing approach compares present performance to the same quarter of the previous year or years past, that is, it focusses on historical benchmarks (Chinta et al., 2016). An external-referencing mindset examines performance evaluation relative to benchmarks that are outside the organisation. The focus is on comparing one's organisational performance with that of competitors. An aspirational-referencing mindset is one that views performance evaluation relative to ideal achievement levels. Such are essentially the aspirations impelling employees to achieve (Chinta et al., 2015). For higher-education institutions it is crucial to apply the stakeholder approach. Administrators ought to understand demands and perspectives of various stakeholders and be able to manage and shape stakeholder relationships (Donlagic & Fazlic, (2015); Chinta et al., 2015), because stakeholders are involved in both internal and external evaluations of higher-education institutions, thus achieving institutional development objectives. Where stakeholder interest conflicts, administration ought to find an amicable way of addressing the challenges. The needs of a broad group of stakeholders are then met. To the extent that this is done, even more value may be created (Harrison et al., 2010). These stakeholder categories and constitutive groups for higher-education institutions are identified by Maric (2013) as government entities, administration, employees, clientele, suppliers, competitors, donors, government regulators, non-government regulators, and financial intermediaries, among others. There are, however, different approaches taken by various authors to identifying stakeholders for higher-education institutions, depending on the characteristics of the higher-education system in a specific country. The role of leadership, thus, should be to develop their (organisation) own context-specific evaluation model. This would lead to KAIZEN (Paul Brunet & New, 2003) (a Japanese term for continuous improvement, made famous by the Toyota manufacturing processes) which is an unending journey of improvement for them. The evaluation model, however, should motivate employees, taking into consideration the system, process, and personal visions of motivation, as described by Khoza, (2015b, 2016b) and others.

2.3.8 Types of leadership

Leadership is defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2016). Rost (1991) further defines leadership as a relationship between leaders and collaborators that influences changes that reflect their mutual purposes. Kouzes and Posner (1991) believe that leadership is the art of mobilising others in a bid to develop shared aspirations. Furthermore, Eyal and Roth (2010) posit that leadership is the ability to enlist and motivate others to apply their abilities and resources to work towards a given cause. Common themes of influence, collaboration, mobilising, motivation, emerge from these and other definitions. For instance, Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, Rother and Smith (1999) describe leadership as the capacity of a human community to share its future; and specifically, to sustain the processes of change required to do so. It is worth noting that, while human resources are the most important resource in an organisation, none of the definitions above is explicit about how leadership motivates individuals or employees on organisational performance. Leadership in organisations has been a major cause for concern not only in societies but on a global level, leaders being fully responsible for the success of their organisations (Heaven & Bourne, 2016). Too often when an organisation is deemed as failing, the underlying cause is that of poor leadership that does not focus on the organisation (Burn, 2003).

Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa and Nwankere (2011) comment that an organisational leadership style plays a significant role in that it may either enhance or retard the motivation and commitment of the individuals within the organisation. Obiwuru et al. (2011) further aver that an individual will support an organisation if they believe that through it their personal objectives and goals could be met; however, if not, the person’s motivation levels decline. The administrator must therefore find a personal leadership style (Glantz, 2004). Most of the definitions of leadership explicitly or implicitly reflect the ideas of an underlying theory or model of leadership. The most influential of these models of leadership are either transactional or transformational models. These leadership models are described as influencing the pursuit of shared goals, albeit differently, towards achievement of a common good (Bass, 1974; Burns, 1978; Price, 2003). Eyal and Roth (2010) investigated the relationship between educational leadership and teachers’ motivation. The research aimed at converging the main types of leadership styles as a way of motivating employees in the workplace. The central hypothesis was that transformational leadership would help predict controlled motivation. The study used a questionnaire that was completed by 122 Israeli teachers, to establish their perceptions on the types of leadership they preferred. The results of the study suggested that leadership styles among school administrators indeed played a significant role in employees’ motivation and well-being. Transformational leadership was found to illuminate the way in which individuals influence others. It persuaded personnel to devote themselves to tasks that promote their goals. According to Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015a; 2015b; 2016; 2017) and others, such depicts the social or process model of motivation. Furthermore, transformational leadership inspires individuals to exceed their expected behaviour (Yuki, 1998). It motivates followers to identify with their leader and to develop interest in achieving organisational goals and the vision in a collective manner. Transformational leadership subscribes to nurturing employees’ needs. It empowers employees and gives them a sense of commitment to the achievement of organisational goals even beyond their own goals. Transformational leaders are believed to have the ability to articulate a clear vision, providing attention to and consideration for followers (Eyal & Roth, 2010). Nonetheless, there is still need to further examine the relationship between various styles of leadership and how they impact on motivation of employees on organisational performance (Bono & Judge, 2003). Khoza and Mpungose (2017) and others allude to the system or professional, the process or social, and the personal aspects of motivation which literature has not dealt with; this current study hopes to address these aspects.

In contrast to transformational leadership, the transactional leadership style subscribes to monitoring employees for compliance and rewarding them as a motivational factor (Eyal & Roth, 2010). The focus is on maintaining efficient administration by monitoring employees for compliance with organisational rules and policies (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Furthermore, transactional leadership involves an exchange process between the leader and the followers, intended to increase followers' compliance with the leader and the organisational rules (Yuki, 1998). This is what Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015a; 2015b; 2016; 2017), Khoza and Mpungose (2017) refer to as the system model. Leaders who maintain tight logistical control, emphasising compliance with rules and procedures by checking on the progress and quality of work, and by evaluating the performance of individuals and of the organisation, would rate highly for monitoring behaviour (Quinn, 1988; Spreitzer et al, 1999). Eyal and Kark (2004) aver that transactional leaders do not give room to employees to think innovatively, instead, staff are expected to strictly follow the predetermined criteria to be rewarded (Bass, 1985). According to Koech and Namusonge (2012), transactional leaders focus mainly on what and how the employee performs the tasks. They have little or no consideration for why the employee performs the task in a particular manner. Employees in transactional leadership experience sources of external or internal pressure. Such drives them to be influenced by extrinsic motivation, which is found to predict shallow and rigid behaviours as opposed to autonomous motivation that would predict flexible behaviours (Roth et al., 2009; Vansteenkiste et al., 2005).

According to Spahr (2004), transactional leadership focusses on short-term goals, favours structures, policies and procedures, thrives on following rules and applying them correctly, believes in efficiency, is very left-brained, rigid, and opposed to change. Spahr (2015) further insists that transactional leaders tend to ignore the value of creativity and innovativeness among employees. This kind of leadership, however, will get the job done timeously and correctly to achieve the set objectives. Some employees may lack motivation owing to command and military operations that require rules and regulations to complete objectives on time. There may be some employees, however, who feel motivated by laid down rules having assisted them to accomplish the set objectives and rewards. An example of this would be recognition or advancement received (Raza, 2011). However, if employees fail to meet expectations, they are disciplined or penalised for poor performance. Raza (2011) further avers that, since transactional leadership is based on a system of rewards and penalties, it rarely offers much in terms of inspiration, in motivating employees to go beyond the basics. It is worth noting that General Norman Swarzkopf, the former Green Bay Packers coach, Vince Lombardi, and the co-founder of Microsoft, Bill Gates, can all be categorised as transactional leaders (Hickman, 2017). Transactional leaders have a great respect for routine, deadlines, and punctuality. Employees who work well in systematised, focussed environments thrive under transactional leadership (Hickman, 2017). Administrators ought to realise what motivates employees and be flexible enough to meet various individual expectations. A study could be conducted on how transactional leadership impacts employees in primary teacher colleges of education in Zimbabwe.

According to Sheninger (2012), educational leaders are tasked with a multitude of responsibilities on a daily basis. Whitaker (2012) states that, in addition to routine administrative duties (including ongoing observations, addressing parental and teacher concerns, handling discipline issues and more, administering effective leadership), their leadership style ought to be congruent with their organisational culture and climate. Research has revealed that the morale among employees of an organisation is impacted by the leadership style (Mason, 2007). Kouzes and Pasner (2013) thus concur that it is imperative for administrators to remain well informed regarding the leadership styles and behaviours that are most effective in boosting and maintaining high motivation of the employees within their organisations. Instructional leadership improves the quality of education as well as the organisation as a whole. The administrator supervises curriculum implementation and development of human resources, monitoring and evaluation of various activities in the organisation (Supriadi & Mohamed Yusof, 2015). This is attached to employee discipline that may be reflected in organisational performance as employees understand the set of rules of the organisation.

Hickman (2017) mentions that instructional leadership is perhaps one of the most popular leadership styles in education today. Instructional leaders provide their educators with necessary resources and facilities to successfully carry out their tasks. Additionally, they support the instructional processes by modelling desired behaviours and actively participating in professional learning. Instructional leaders have the ability to communicate effectively. This helps promote a positive climate and to boost morale by ensuring that their presence is visible throughout the institution on an ongoing basis (Marzarno, Waters & McNutty, 2005). Their efforts are recognised, and they have a positive influence on teacher motivation. Hejres (2018) alludes to instructional leadership as the type of leadership that has been thought of traditionally as a means of communicating high expectations for teachers and students, supervising teaching and learning methods, monitoring assessments and student progress, coordinating the school's curriculum and creating a supportive network environment (Marks & Prinity, 2003; Murphy, 1990). Heck and Hallinger (2014), in support, reiterate that this kind of leadership contributes to increasing the capacity of schools, thereby improving the teachers' instructional capacity. According to Goddard, R, Goddard, Y, Sookim, & Miller (2015), administrators' instructional leadership may support to a degree the ability of teachers to work together to improve instruction. Instructional leadership may even help the administrators and teachers to collaborate. In that way it may contribute to employee motivation on organisational effectiveness and efficacy.

There has been much discussion on the relative effectiveness of instructional leadership. According to Louis, Leithwood, Dahlstrom and Anderson (2010), twenty-first-century administrators are considered instructional leaders. School administrators play a major role as instructional leaders in improving teachers' performance. However, Mead (2011) argues that it is the policymakers and educators who recognise the importance of administrators in creating effective organisations and improving employee achievement. This is supported by Smylie (2010) who avers that administrators alone account for 25 per cent of a school's total impact on student learning. Both teachers' and administrators' quality accounts for nearly 60 per cent of the school's impact. Instructional leaders should develop good relationships with teachers so that they focus and guide teachers to improve the instructional processes (Rigby, 2014). Restructuring school administrators empowers teachers to implement shared school-based decision-making. This has resulted in a step away from bureaucratic control and toward professionalisation of teaching (Louis et al., 1996). Research has shown that, when leaders communicate with others, morale is increased (Meador, 2016; Pressley, 2012; Fullan, 2011). Additionally, motivation is intensified when administrators regularly praise and recognise employees for their efforts (Hodges, 2005). Likewise, when teachers are provided with frequent opportunities to collaborate (Meador, 2016), and when they attend meaningful professional development programmes (Fiore, 2009), motivation is heightened. Instructional leadership is concerned more with the professional aspect of the student, the teachers' performance, as well as the organisational performance as a whole. A study could find out how instructional leadership can both explicitly and implicitly address the social and personal aspects of employee motivation on organisational performance.

According to Hickman (2017), in the current era of reform, over the last several decades, many states and federal mandates have increased the pressure employees feel on a day-to-day basis. For instance, in 1983, former president Ronald Regan released the report entitled “A Nation at Risk”, that criticised the state of America's education organisations. The report called for a host of much-needed reforms to correct the alarming direction in which public education was seen to be headed (Graham, 2013). In 2001, George Bush signed the controversial “No child Left Behind Act”, which was designed to close the achievement gap between poor and minority students and their more advantaged peers (Klein, 2015). In 2012, the Obama administration launched “Race to the Top”, an education reform designed to increase students' abilities to become college and career ready. As an incentive for education organisations, they received substantial funding to “Race to the Top” (Miller & Hanna, 2014). In Zimbabwe the education reforms have also been enunciated by the current leadership of the day since attaining independence in 1980, ranging from “Education for all”, “Education with Production”, “No child shall be left behind”, Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) education and now “Education 5.0” that speaks to Teaching, Research, Community Service, Innovation and Industrialised Heritage Based Education (Doctrine 2018). These reforms follow the system model since they are communicated from the top; and organisations have to tailor their operations to remain compliant with the directive. While each of these educational reforms is designed to improve the national education system, along with them come new obligations and mandates for education, including the need for organisations to adapt more rigorous standards and to employ stringent leadership styles that ultimately want to remain compliant with the dictates of the education reforms of the time. These new mandates normally take a toll on the motivation of many educators, including the administrators. While these new mandates are applauded for giving direction to education practitioners, they may not necessarily motivate employees on organisational performance, especially when resources are scarce. This may be the reason why some of them die a natural death.

2.4 Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter delineated the definition of employee motivation as the phenomenon of the study. The literature depicted here provided the conceptualisation of the system model of employee motivation on organisational performance. Furthermore, the chapter has outlined the system model principles, which drives higher-education institutions in Zimbabwe. Therefore, this chapter exhibited distinctive principles, namely, the vision, the mission, core values, organisational goals and objectives, organisational resources, organisational rules and regulations, evaluation system, and the role of the leader. The subsequent chapter seeks to denote the process model of employee motivation on organisational performance.

CHAPTER THREE

THE PROCESS MODEL OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter offered the first part of the literature. Employee motivation as the phenomenon of the study was discussed, as well as the system model of employee motivation on organisational performance. The previous chapter (two) further discussed the principles of the system model, namely: the vision, the mission, the core values, organisational goals and objectives, organisational resources, organisational rules and regulations, the evaluation system and the role of leadership. These principles were utilised as the anchor of employee motivation on organisational performance. The previous chapter also provided an in-depth discussion of the system model principles. However, knowing the system model without the knowledge of the major principles of the process model may leave a gap on issues of employee motivation on organisational performance. This chapter (three), the second part of the literature, intends to discuss the process model of employee motivation, together with the principles that frame it, namely: employee recruitment and orientation, work environment, organisational facilities, training and development, employee compensation management, employee commitment and organisational performance, and transformational leadership. Subsequently, the conclusion of this chapter will be presented, leading to the next chapter. Thus, let various scholars discuss the process model and its principles.

3.2 The Process Model

The process model, according to Vasyakin, Ivleva, Porzharskaya and Shcherbokova (2016) shares the principles of the collegiate model. The collegiate model stipulates that organisations not be bureaucratic. It encourages all members of the academic community to be involved in administrative processes. Facilitating the involvement of staff in administrative processes may help to inspire employees to work in unison towards achieving organisational goals. This in turn would increase and strengthen the quality of the organisation's structure, and help to improve performance. According to Khoza (2015a; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b), Khoza and Mpungose (2017) and other scholars, when employees participate and work in groups they are driven by the societal or social vision of employee motivation. Owens and Valesky (2011) posit that the process model is concerned with the way in which employees perceive their work environment, which may either motivate or demotivate them. When employees are involved in setting of organisational goals they are likely to develop a sense of ownership of organisational processes. Such employees would feel motivated and be likely to work towards the success and growth of the organisation. The process model is largely driven by ideas of the chief proponents, namely, Adam's equity model (1963), Vroom's expectancy model ((1964), Locke's goal-setting model (1968), and Skinner's reinforcement model (1957) (Pratap, 2016; Mat, 2016).

The Adam's equity motivation model refers to how employees contribute to the quality and quantity of their work. Adam (1965) contends that three factors are used to understand motivation in the equity model. These are inputs, outcomes, and referents. This occurs when an individual or group of employees compares the amount of work they have contributed to the organisation with that of others in the same organisation. Mat (2016) contends that what the individual brings to the workplace is considered as inputs: age, skills, effort, loyalty, commitment, enthusiasm, inter alia. What the individual perceives in their work as consequences of their relationships with others are outcomes: pay, recognition, security, benefit, reputation and so on. The focus of comparison between the individual and other persons is considered a referent. According to Griffin and Moorhead (2014) the equity comparison takes this form:

$$\frac{Outcome\ (self)}{Input\ (self)}\ compared\ with\ \frac{Outcome\ (others)}{Input\ (others)}$$

Griffin and Moorhead (2014) further assert that when both sides of the equation, as shown above, are comparable there is equity. If it is unbalanced, there is inequity. When inequity in outcome exists as well as in ratios of inputs relative to others, this creates demotivation. Individuals would tend to compare their work efforts with those of others. Therefore, if an individual perceives imbalance or inequity, they may work towards reducing their productivity and quality or may increase absenteeism, or even voluntarily resign.

Ryan (2015), however, articulates that there is no single human motivation model that can cater for all the complex human needs and behaviour. Administrators should maintain a healthy relationship (social) between motivation observed and fairness towards employees in the way rewards are allocated (Neumann, Ritz & Vandenabeele, 2016). According to Adams, the focus of the process model is on the exchange relationship, in which individuals give something and expect something in return. Therefore, administrators need to focus on intrinsic (what matters to the employee) and extrinsic (pay, benefits, promotions) rewards that the individual may appreciate (employee to maximise their motivation and maintain harmony in the workplace). Administrators ought to motivate employees equitably to be able to sustain positive performance for organisational growth (Mat, 2016).

Vroom's expectancy model suggests that an individual's behaviour is determined by the possibility of gaining preferred outcome (Mat, 2016). The expectancy model further suggests that employees who do what is expected or asked of them in the organisation may receive a reward, for example, promotion, or some recognition. Therefore, an administrator needs to know what triggers the employee's success. When an individual's efforts are recognised in the form of a reward the employee becomes motivated, and is likely to make extra effort to achieve organisational goals. The administrator, according to Khoza (2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b) Khoza and Mpungose (2017) and others, thus, ought to understand whether individual employees are triggered by their professional, social, or personal needs. Vroom (1964) states that motivation is a result of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence; and if any one of them is low this will cause an employee to be less motivated. In this case, valence refers to how much one wants a reward; expectancy refers to one's estimation of probability that their effort may result in successful performance; and instrumentality is the estimation of whether one's performance may indeed result in receiving the reward (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). The motivational relationship, thus, can be expressed as: Motivation = Valence x Expectancy x Instrumentality (ibid). Rainey (2014) avers that expectations may be too high or low therefore discouraging to those trying to attain them. Mat (2016) considers the expectancy model very complicated: some parts of the model may lack validity and be somewhat difficult to test. The expectancy model explains how task-related effort may influence employee motivation levels on organisational performance. Oweyele (2017) contends that, despite its criticisms, the expectancy model of motivation remains one of the most widely accepted explanations of work motivation as it links employee performance to rewards received. Administrators should determine the outcomes employees perceive as desirable, providing them in an effective manner.

Edwin Locke, the chief proponent of the goal-setting model suggests that motivation of an individual increases when they have a specific set of goals to achieve. This view is shared by Mat (2016), who states that goals help in providing direction and meaning to an employee on task(s) to be done and effort required to accomplish the given task(s). This would turn aspirations into tangible objects which require commitment and action. Lunenhurg (2012) further states that specific goals can be measured and can lead to higher performance. While goal-setting has the advantage of increasing rewards for an individual to accomplish work efficiency and feel motivated to improve performance, Mat (2016) reminds that it also has some limitations. Sometimes there is conflict between administrative and complex organisational goals that may not be achieved. A lack of an individual’s skills and competencies may result in decline of motivation when set goals are not accomplished. The goal-setting model, however, can be applied in any domain in which a group of people or an individual has control over the outcomes. Applying goal-setting models in organisations promotes drive and also increases productivity within an organisation. Administrators ought to understand employee goals in the workplace, thus developing the necessary skills and competencies that employees may require.

Skinner (1957), the chief proponent of the reinforcement model, believes that the best way to understand human behaviour is to look at the causes of an action and its consequences. Skinner’s belief is inspired by Edward Thorndike’s 1905 Law of Effect. This law states that the responses that produce a satisfying effect in a particular situation become more likely to occur again in that situation (Gary, 2006). Gary further states that the responses that produce a discomforting effect become less likely to occur again in that situation. The reinforcement model by Skinner is born of the concept of the law of effect which states that behaviour which is reinforced tends to be repeated (strengthened); while behaviour which is not reinforced tends to die out or be extinguished (weakened) (Pratap, 2016; Grice, 2011). Presenting a reward after a desired behaviour makes that behaviour more likely to occur in future. If an employee works hard (professionally) an administrator ought to reward them with a performance bonus. This would cause the employee to want to continue to work hard, which may lead to better performance from the individual, subsequently benefiting the organisation as a whole. On negative reinforcement, for example, an employee habitually arriving late for work, the administrator ought to apply punitive measures, perhaps by taking away some of their paid time off: this may deter the employee from coming to work late. The rewards can come either extrinsically, as in the form of salary, bonus and fringe benefits, or intrinsically, as in praise, encouragement, and empowerment.

Adams (2017) maintains that, because employees are different and have different needs, they are motivated differently. Administrators may find it difficult to set stipulations and guidelines that can potentially result in the same rewards for everyone. Some employees are motivated to follow prescribed instructions, rules and regulations (profession), thereby producing good performance. Others are motivated when they work as a team (social), sharing tasks and information. There are those motivated by working on their own and solving problems (personal) towards organisational success (Khoza, 2015a; 2015b; 2016a; 2016b; Khoza, & Mpungose, 2017; Mpungose, 2020). The notion of positive reinforcement has become very popular in the workplace. It will continue to be used as a tool to achieve the most optimal and the maximum output from employees. Administrators ought to understand what motivates individual employees in the workplace (professional, social or personal), using the most appropriate reinforcement tool(s) to promote organisational performance.

The process model suggests that there is a need for continuous engagement and understanding of all employees with the support of administrators. In this way employees may be influenced to improve on their performance. From the discussion above, it is evident that, while the process model is driven by the engagement of the employees' views within the organisation it also enhances employee motivation. The process model allows for a variety of ideas and interests from employees that may actually make the organisation grow. The dilemma, however, may be that administrators may not have the skill, knowledge, and attitude to deal with a myriad of employee issues within their organisations. Such would require continuous staff development workshops for the administrators to be able to educate employees on differing and varied aspects of motivation on organisational performance. Issues of recruitment and orientation of employees would also be part of the staff development training needs for administrators (Ochola, 2018). Madi, Assal, Shrafat and Zeglat

(2017), in their study on the impact of employee motivation on organisational commitment, state that employees are the most important resource of the organisation, thus are considered the major drivers of any organisation. Administrators ought to pay special attention to the recruitment of employees who would have a real desire to work towards the achievement of organisational goals.

3.2.1 Employee recruitment and orientation

Employee recruitment involves a process of identifying and attracting potential candidates both from within and outside an organisation (Ekwoaba, Ikeije & Ufoma 2015, Bogatova 2017). Opatha (2010) posits that recruitment is the process of finding and attracting suitably qualified people to apply for job vacancies in the organisation. Opatha further states that recruitment is a set of activities an organisation uses to attract those candidates who have the needed abilities and attitudes for the job. The quality of applicants attracted for the job would subsequently determine the quality of employees recruited for the organisation (Gamage, 2014). Recruitment, therefore, determines the entry point of the human-resource base into an organisation. The performance of the organisation would, thus, depend on the quality of the employees recruited, and if these employees achieve the goals of the organisation (Ekwoaba et al., 2015). Furthermore, after the recruitment process, selection of the most suitable applicant(s) from the pool of recruited applicants is undertaken to fill the relevant job vacancy (Opatha, 2010).

In a study conducted to investigate the impact of recruitment and selection criteria on performance using Fidelit Bank in Lagos, Nigeria, Ekwoaba et al. (2015) obtained 130 valid responses through a questionnaire that was administered to randomly selected respondents. The results of the study revealed that recruitment and selection criteria have a significant effect on the performance of the organisations. The more objective the recruitment and selection criteria, the better the performance of employees on organisational performance. Employees, therefore, are important to organisations since they offer values and attributes to organisational performance if managed effectively. That is why authors like Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015a; 2015b; 2016, 2017) and Khoza and Mpungose, (2017), Mpungose, (2020) emphasise the people or social or societal aspect in an organisation that culminates in the process model of motivation on organisational performance. Djabatey (2012) further contends that employees ought to be sufficiently motivated to make them feel their worth within the organisation.

Therefore, development of employee competencies is vital to help the organisation grow in leaps and bounds (Djabatey, 2012; Mullins, 1999).

Syed and Jama (2012) and other authors aver that implementing an effective recruitment and selection process is positively related to organisational performance. Osemeke (2012) thus posits that when the best people are selected for the job, productivity in the organisation is likely to increase. Recruitment and selection in any organisation should be taken as serious business (Ezeali & Esiagu, 2010). Those responsible for making selection decisions ought to have adequate information upon which to base their decisions of instituting recruitment and selection criteria so that quality is not compromised. The question therefore is: who is responsible for the recruitment and selection processes in higher education institutions?

Bogatova (2017) attests that the recruitment process is complex in nature and can be divided into five stages, as illustrated in Figure 3.1 below:

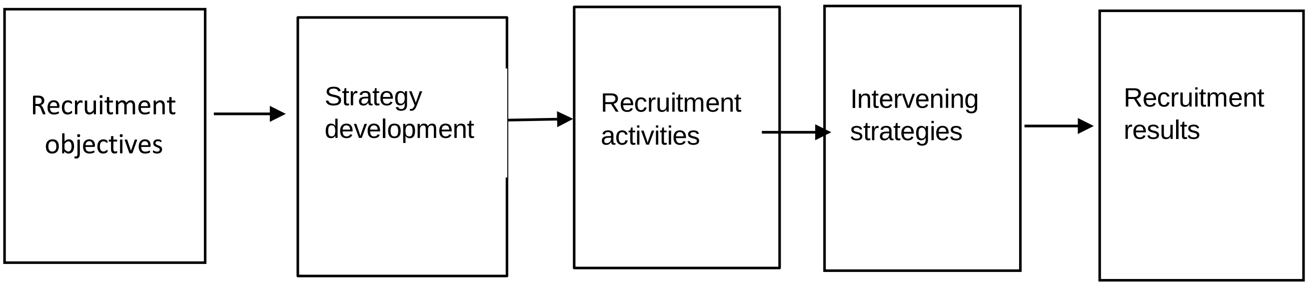


Figure 3.1 Five stages of recruitment process Bogatova (2017).

Detailed recruitment objectives (first stage) are necessary to secure a standard for the next stages of the recruitment process (Hubschimid, 2013). The development strategy is derived from the recruitment objectives and should answer who, where, when and what questions of the recruitment process and communication. After the recruitment strategy, an organisation launches the specific recruitment activities. Such may include recruiters, recruitment sources, and messages to be communicated to the prospective candidates. The right combinations of recruitment activities lead to the desired pre-hire and post-hire outcomes and thus to successful recruitment results. The intervening variables stage helps the employer to understand the possible outcomes (Bogatova, 2017).

Yaseen (2015) posits that, in attracting applicants for a job, administration should identify sources of recruitment that could either be internal sources or external sources. However, Muscalu (2025) suggests that it is appropriate to use both sources so as to increase the organisation’s chances of attracting the most qualified person for the job. This could be from either within (internal sources) or without (external sources) the organisation. Bogatova (2017) thus presents an illustration of the recruitment sources, as shown in Figure 3.2 below:

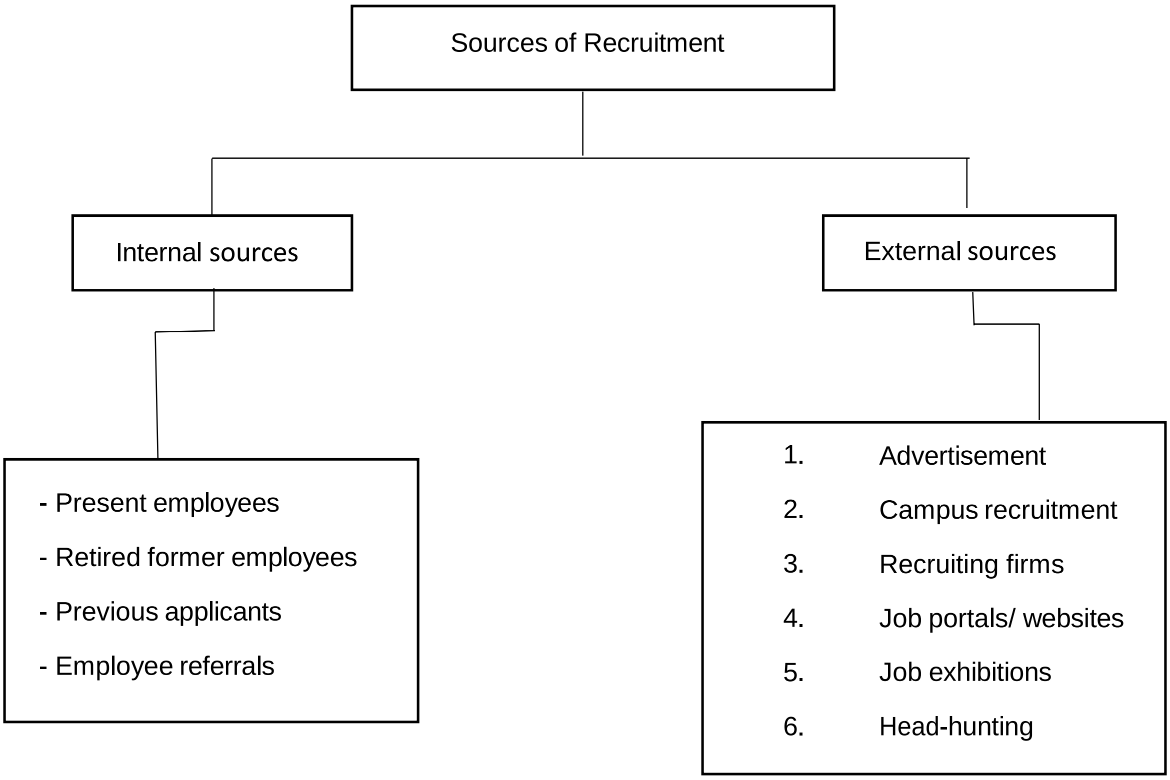


Figure 3.2 Recruitment sources Bogatova, 2017.

It should be noted that each source reflected in Figure 3.2 above may present its own advantages and disadvantages. The key decision for the administrator and team, therefore, is whether they should hire internally or externally. Internal sources include the existing workforce of an organisation. Whenever a new position arises somebody within the organisation may be upgraded, transferred, promoted or sometimes demoted. Employees within the institution may be given the first right of refusal of an open position through internal advertisements, email, or in person.

Present employees are usually well aware of the skills, qualifications, behaviour and experiences of their colleagues and acquaintances, as well as the job requirements. Thus, when consulted, they may make a match between the vacancy and a candidate (Rag, 2009). Furthermore, internal sources have the advantage of better motivation of employees and opportunities offered for promotion. They can make better utilisation of employees in a different job; this may be more reliable than external recruitment since employees are already known. Such a decision may also promote loyalty. Present employees are more likely to remain longer within the organisation. An internal promotion is a quicker and less expensive way of recruitment than from external sources. Moreover, internal sources require less orientation and training (Patel & Rana, 2007). Rashmi (2010), however, is of the opinion that internal sources may have drawbacks. There could be a limited choice of candidates. Employees may be comfortable in the organisation and may not see possible future perspectives and fresh ideas which an outside (external) candidate may bring to the organisation. Another disadvantage may be that selection of a candidate may be through favouritism, which may lead to disgruntlement across the organisation (Bogatova, 2017). While external recruitment may be expensive, and time consuming, it does supply a wide pool of suitable candidates. Disadvantages can be reduced through good planning.

Ochola (2018) and other authors speak vehemently about orientation of a new recruit in the organisation. Orientation of employees has been considered a motivational factor in the organisation which some organisations have embraced. A recruit may take a long time to fit in well with the organisational team. Socialising with the staff may become a problem. The recruit may become a loner and feel isolated and alienated or even stigmatised (Kokemuller, 2016). A new recruit may even operate independently without being shown care and concern by other employees. Inducting new employees and making them part of the organisational team helps recruits to feel part of the family faster and helps them adapt to the organisational set of standards. If this is not done, recruits could suffer fear and uncertainty which may hinder their performance. It is therefore imperative for organisations to embrace their new employees with concern, inducting them to enable them to adapt faster, thus working to meet organisational goals.

No individual has knowledge of everything. Even after school one still needs to be taught whatever may improve one's efficiency. Ochola (2018) thus opines that it is those employees who are more skilled and experienced who ought to help others to learn whatever is expected of new employees in the workplace. For instance, new recruits in an organisation need to be inducted to gain knowledge and or skill to perform up to the standards required by the organisation. These recruits would need to be subjected to mentorship in which they would be guided and led by experienced and skilled employees (Nyamon, 2015). This would motivate them to emulate their mentors and thus contribute towards organisational performance. It is unfortunate that some organisations may not recognise mentorship as a strategy for motivating employees on organisational performance. In most cases, an employee gains skills and experience in the field when one interacts practically with what is required to deliver. Strategies must be put in place in higher-education institutions to embrace new employees as a motivational factor for organisational performance.

In addition, coaching is also done as a systematic and collaborative process aimed at enhancing the experience of employees within an organisation. Ochola (2018) expresses that the coach always gives instructions on what is to be done (system model). However, administrators and organisational leaders may coach employees through organising seminars or workshops at which employees interact and share ideas (process or social model) thereby building experience or capacity and competence of their employees. Coaching provides skills to perform various tasks as an employee (Bwengi, 2015). This would be a way of motivating employees when they are able to meet high targets set by the organisation. Coaching should be a continuously monitored process for improvement: an employee should be guided to perform as expected. El Achi and Sleilati (2016); Khoza and Biyela (2020) opine that organisations which have adopted coaching of their employees have been able to retain their employees and have also improved their performance.

Matolo and Mukulu (2016) posit that poor performance of an employee may be associated with stress and demoralisation. Such employees may be characterised by low productivity in the workplace. Challenges emanating from meeting family obligations may be cause for stress; and this may be compounded by a stressful workplace environment. The organisation may have to arrange for employee counselling to provide relief in situations considered impossible to overcome. Padmasiri and Jayetilake (2016) view counselling of an employee as provision of a psychological health-care intervention. Many times, stress is associated with dissatisfaction, lack of concentration and anxiety, which in turn lowers employees' performance. Migwe et al. (2017) posit that, on the contrary, a stress-free employee is motivated and provides his or her best to the organisation. Administrators ought therefore to adopt employee counselling as this may help relieve tension of employees, keeping them focussed on achieving organisational goals and objectives. Both new and old employees should not be over-tasked: they may suffer exhaustion which may ultimately demoralise them. Ochola (2018) and other authors thus advocate for a stress-free work environment conducive to attaining goals, so that employees remain motivated by their job, adding to organisational performance.

3.2.2 Work environment and employee performance

Work environment is about creating conditions in which an employee can perform duties comfortably (Gitonga, 2015). Sedarmayanti (2012), in agreement, posits that employees are motivated to perform their work better if their working environment is clean, secure, user-friendly, and safe; this may improve organisational performance. Ochola (2018) avers that employees, at times, are exposed to dusty, noisy, and hostile working environments. At times they are not provided with protective devices or working gear that protects them. Some employees may be working in poorly ventilated facilities that may gradually become hazardous to their health. An employee may be discouraged to work under such conditions and may absent themselves from work. Bushiri (2014) defines working environment as those factors that influence employees' activities and performance. Working environment, thus, is the sum of the interrelationship that exists between the employees and the environment in which the employees work.

Bushiri (2014) further stresses that organisations must move away from their traditional ways of having comfort zones. They must look at new ways of creating modern working environments, motivating employees on organisational performance. Organisations ought to create a work environment in which people enjoy what they do, have purpose; taking pride in what they do, thereby reaching their full potential. This can only happen when the work environment is conducive to work. In his study, Bushiri (2014) aims to assess the impact of working environment on employees' performance at the Institute of Finance Management in Dar es Salaam region. A descriptive research design was used. A random-sampling technique was used to select 50 respondents for the study, of which 25 were senior staff and 25 junior staff: structured questionnaires were used for data collection. The study findings reveal that the organisational working environment has a bearing on employees' performance, and may present some challenges, such as non-flexibility of working environment, work noise, indifferent supervisors, absence of job aid, lack of performance feedback, and unavailability of incentives in the organisation. Such demotivates employees from performing their job. The study recommends that periodic meetings between administrators and employees were necessary. This would allow employees to air their grievances to administration and serve as a motivating factor for employees. Administrators ought constantly to communicate with employees in a bid to motivate them in order to achieve the organisation's mandate, vision, and mission. Waktola (2019) opines that it is the quality of the employees' workplace environment that impacts most on employee level of motivation on organisational performance.

Farh (2012) states that work environment is mainly considered the immediate environment in which employees work. Nevertheless, this is a very broad concept that encompasses the physical setting, characteristics of the job itself (workload, task complexity), including the broader organisational setting (work-life balance) among other things. Employees may be motivated when they believe that both their immediate and broader environment is in tandem with their obligations. A better work environment is likely to boost employees' performance in today's competitive and dynamic organisational world. Hasun and Makhbul (2005) opine that factors of work environment have changed in line with several other factors such as the social environment, information technology, and the flexible ways of organising work processes.

Employees ought to work together and develop cordial relationships with co-workers in a friendly environment (Sani, 2013). This is supported by Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015a, 2015b; 2016; 2017) and Khoza and Mpungose (2017) when they allude to the social or societal aspect of motivation that addresses the process model. The process or people model emphasises the need for employees to work together and share ideas, be it co-workers or employees and supervisors, including employees and administrators. Employees ought to work together for an organisation to be successful and to resolve any conflicts that may arise (Towns, 2019). Glazer and Liu (2017) in support, also remark that people may not operate identically under stressful and non-stressful situations. This factor must be considered when employees work together. Administrators ought to interact with colleagues, employees, department members, and other support personnel to assist organisations in reaching the goals the organisation has in place (Selrali, Goussia-Rizou, Giannouli & Makris, 2016). A productive relationship between administrators and employees makes for a healthy work environment that may lower intentions to leave the organisation (Glazer & Liu, 2017).

Bushiri (2014) remarks that the way the work environment is designed would determine how the whole organisation would be able to share knowledge. This would allow employees to benefit from the interaction on knowledge and skills shared and subsequently help organisations to improve their effectiveness. Bushiri further posits that, when the working environment is designed to allow free flow or exchange of ideas, employees are likely to be motivated towards organisational performance. Zentner, Homestead and Covit (2018), Habib, Aslam, Hussan, Yasmeen and Ibrahim (2014) agree that administrators ought to create a conducive work environment to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals. Msengeti and Obwagi (2015) believe that a positive work environment would instil in employees the desire to come to work because they feel motivated there. Administrators ought therefore to create an enabling working environment in which employees feel safe and able to perform their tasks in the workplace.

Towns (2019) comments that employees may feel stressed on the job. George and Zakkariya (2015) define stress as feelings of dysfunction, poor emotional responses, or perceived threats within an organisation. Administrators ought to create a conducive work environment to reduce job stress from their employees so that they reach the goals of the organisation by increasing job performance (Richardson, 2014). Thirupathi, Sudha and Gopalakrihana (2018) believe that stress is inevitable in educational organisations and has increased as relationships between society and education have become more complicated, globally. Ishaq and Mamood (2017) further assert that employees in the education sector may experience stressful situations, there being demand for professional growth (system model). Khan, Aqeel and Riaz (2014) posit that, due to role overload, high job demands, noise and time pressure, employees are likely to work under stressful conditions within their organisations. Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua and Stough (2001), in their study, concluded that main sources of stress at the workplace are caused by work overload, inadequate administrative policies, job insecurity, insufficient funding and resources, as well as insufficient reward. Administrators ought to improve self-esteem and build self-confidence and emotional intelligence among employees, aiding them to cope with job-related stressors (Reddy & Anuradha, 2013). This also presents a need to carry out local research on what constitutes stress among employees in teacher-education institutions in Zimbabwe.

Several studies have indicated that work environment has an impact on employee performance, productivity, job satisfaction and turnover (Kahya, 2007; Buhai et al., 2008; Bockerman and Ilmakunnas, 2012; Bigirimana et al., 2015). However, views on what constitutes working conditions differ. Kahya (2007) defines working conditions in terms of environmental conditions and hazards. Oswald (2012) expands Kahya (2007)'s definition beyond the physical environment and opines that working conditions include a physical as well as a behavioural component. On one hand, the physical component refers to the level of comfort such as office buildings, space, layout, privacy and infrastructure (water and electricity), and also the presence of working tools and supplies. On the other hand, the behavioural component of the work environment refers to the level of interaction among employees within the organisation (Oswald, 2012). This presents a need for a study on perceptions of teacher-education employees on work environment.

In terms of interaction within the organisation, employees like to feel that they are making a difference to the organisation and that their skills are being utilised effectively and adequately to complete assigned tasks (Peltokorp et al., 2017). Peltokorp et al. (2017) further believe that it is of paramount importance that administrators provide performance evaluations and feedback on employee performance to facilitate improvement for organisational growth. Bushiri (2014) posits that performance feedback is an information exchange and conflict resolution process between the employee and the superior. This consists of both positive feedback as well as feedback on what the employee should improve on. Administrators ought to have the ability to manage the whole spectrum of workplace factors that influence employee performance. There has to be a two-way communication between the administrator and the employee for giving feedback, so that needs from both sides are met. In other words, there has to be interaction between the administrator and the employee. Although this process may be formal, it could still be managed informally by gaining a closer relationship between both the administrator and the employees (Chandrasekar, 2011). The wide gap between employees and their superiors may bring about discomfort of both parties and this may result in poor motivation on organisational performance.

Moreover, it is the organisation that determines what would motivate its employees and, thus, it should set up both formal and informal structures that would reward its employees who have displayed the required behaviour (Bushiri, 2014). Rewards may consist of a mix of internal rewards such as challenging assignments; and external rewards such as higher compensation and peer recognition (Chandraseka, 2011). Employees may perform poorly not only due to poor working environment factors but also to lack of aspects such as recognition of employees who perform well, poor working conditions, poor feedback on performance outcome and many other factors. Administrators ought to keep employees satisfied and in turn sufficiently motivated to increase organisational performance. This suggests that the process model in which there is interaction between employees and superiors contributes tremendously towards employee motivation on organisational performance. However, there is a need to dwell more on organisational facilities and how these contribute towards motivation of employees on organisational performance.

3.2.3 Organisational facilities

Availability of organisational facilities, their maintenance and effective administration may contribute towards employee performance and organisational excellence (Fadahunsi, Utom, Ochim, Ayedum & Oloke, 2019). This suggests that there is a strong connection between the quality of educational facilities provided and the quality of performance of employees and subsequently the organisation. Therefore, organisational facilities are critical to help employees optimise their performance for organisational excellence. These facilities include organisational buildings, electricity, water supply, audio-visual media, recreational facilities, administration offices, employee office space, among many others. Fadahunsi et al. (2019) remark that these physical facilities are a strategic factor in the proper functioning of an organisation. Similarly, the accessibility, appropriateness, and significance of these facilities would allow for effectiveness and improved performance of employees, and subsequently the organisation (Owoeye, 2011). Kegel (2017) emphasises that paying special attention to the value of these physical facilities would help keep organisations competitive. This would have a positive effect on employee performance and organisational success.

Ochola (2018) states that physical facilities play a very important role in organisational performance. He indicates that an organisation with poor facilities demotivates employees who would be left with no alternative than to struggle to perform well. Good facilities therefore encourage and make the work easier for the employees. Poorly ventilated structures would threaten employees' health. Sameer (2015) asserts that employees' welfare is important. This means that all facilities, services and benefits must be provided by the employer to staff for their comfort. Sameer (2015) further posits that employees' welfare, safety, and health are the measures that promote the efficiency of staff. Sameer (2015) further contends that any welfare programmes provided by an organisation to its employees have a direct impact on the physical health and mental efficiency, alertness, morale and overall efficiency of the employees. The process model thus affects employees either positively or negatively as they interact with the facilities available within the organisation.

Focussing on the well-being of employees is important for both the organisation and the people who work there (Kegel, 2017). O'Rilley (2014) emphasises that comfort of employees, considering their needs and what the organisation has set out to achieve would only be determined by the provision of the needed physical environment within an organisation. For instance, the design of the office environment influences the well-being and health of the employees who work there. Jahncke et al. (2011) conducted office environment experiments to measure the effects of noise in open space environments in the workplace. Results revealed that participants were less motivated, more tired, and remembered fewer words in high-noise environments compared with low-noise environments. Ajala (2012) avers that quality lighting can reduce fatigue and eye strain as well as improving overall well-being. It is also obvious that a more open environment compromises privacy for employees. Research by Maalevald et al. (2009) found that some psychological dimensions of the office environment, including pleasant surroundings, sufficient privacy, and good design of the office have a strongly positive influence on employee performance.

Kegel (2017) believes that through the proper design of the physical environment employee collaboration may be enhanced (employees can thus exchange views, knowledge, and skill) which Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015; 2016) and others refer to as the process model. Heerwagon et al. (2004), however, remark that the negative side of collaborative environments could be that of cognitive overload which may thwart individual performance (Cross & Gray, 2013). Hua et al. (2010) suggest that, to avoid cognitive overload, a uniformly distributed cluster of shared spaces would work best for collaborative environments as opposed to centralised or randomly distributed spaces. Therefore, combi-offices (a collaboration of open and half-open spaces) allow communication and social interaction (De Been & Beijer, 2013).

An important aspect to note in today's work environment is that there are now four generations of workers employed in the office environment (Andrew et al., 2014). Pullen (2014) carried out a study on how different age groups impacted various office design types. Results revealed that there were significant differences between age groups. Organisations ought to design their offices with the needs of the various generations in mind. It was concluded that the multi-generational workforce has caused tension in how to design office environments today (Kegel, 2017). As a result, organisations are taking heed and are changing their work environments to attract millennials (Ferri-Reed, 2014) while, at the same time, there is a high concentration of older employees in the workplace, due to the large number of baby-boomers in the overall population. Therefore, there is still a need to accommodate older employees in the design of the work environment (North & Hershfield, 2014). A local study could scrutinise how the multi-generational workforce impacts on organisational office environments. The study could examine the impact of motivation of employees on organisational performance. The configuration of the physical work environment can indeed have a significant negative or positive impact on organisations and their employees to the detriment or success of organisational performance. The layout of the office space influences the way in which organisations perform, communicate, and interact (Kegel, 2017). Chaboki et al. (2013) examined how the spatial variables of visibility and accessibility influence face-to-face interaction. According to their review of literature such increases teamwork and organisational performance. Administrators ought to dedicate sufficient resources to improve personal workspace to support and motivate employees on individual and organisational performance. Asmui et al. (2012) support the role that ergonomics (fitting a workplace to the user's needs) plays in employee performance. There have been significant changes in the physical characteristics of the population; the current ergonomic standards for seating and other office furniture have not been adjusted accordingly. However, technological demands in the twenty-first century have impacted on the ergonomics standards of the office layouts. There is continuous need to align workplace design strategy with the organisational mission and goals (Kegel, 2017). Administrators of organisations ought to better understand the importance of the physical environment on the multi-generational gaps among employees and the times we are living in. Administrators must make more informed decisions regarding facilities and the welfare of human resources.

Welfare facilities for human resources (employees) are classified into four different categories: intramural, extramural, statutory, and mutual facilities (Ochola 2018). Intramural welfare facilities include all the activities relating to organisational fatigue, providing safety measures for staff (lighting, first aid, layout of organisational buildings and equipment), among others. Extramural welfare facilities include the facilities which are provided outside the organisation's boundaries (recreation, better housing accommodation and educational facilities, among others). The provisions of these are voluntary. The third type is the statutory facilities which are passed by government of a country. No organisation can ignore these facilities. Mishandling of statutory facilities can result in an offence punishable under the government Act concerned. The fourth is mutual facilities which are facilities usually outside the reach of statutory law (Sameer, 2015). An organisation with proper office equipment and good physical facilities is likely to motivate its employees and this would increase organisational performance. Health facilities, educational and recreational facilities, among other things, are vital for an organisation (Ochola, 2018).

According to studies described above, the physical work environment and facilities can influence organisational outcomes such as performance, collaboration, and effective human-resource administration, among others. These factors can also influence employee outcomes such as engagement, performance, well-being, and motivation (Kegel, 2017). According to Owoeye (2011), maintenance of organisational facilities would, therefore, go a long way to improving performance. Uko (2015) testifies to organisational facilities being an important factor in accomplishing organisational goals; thus these should be well maintained. Facility management is defined as a profession (system) that ensures functionality of the work environment by integrating people, the place, processes, and technology (International Facility Management Association (IFMA, 2019). Facility management addresses the room, facilities, individuals and organisation, coordinating such. Fadahunsi et al. (2019) believes that this is a process through which an organisation provides and supports its buildings system and support facilities to fulfil strategic requirements and objectives in a good environment. Facilities management thus encompasses management of support services, information technology, maintenance planning, operations, and real estate as core functions, as well as other functions such as inventory management, space analysis, security, and others (Fadahunsi et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the British Institute of Facilities Management (BIFM, 2009) defines facilities management as the practice of coordinating the physical workplace with the people and work of the organisation, integrating planning, management, and delivery of services to meet people’s needs within the living and working environment. Macgregor (1989) in Mike (2015) also defines facilities management as the series of activities which enables an administrator to organise duties through trained skills in ensuring that employees are motivated within a common space. In recent years, a heightened awareness of the facilities-management sector has expanded its scope, seeking new working styles and processes especially in this technology driven age (Mike 2015). Kegel (2017) comments that the way people work has changed considerably over the past 35 years as a result of technology, globalisation, demographic shifts, and constant demand to innovate and compete. Work is becoming more complex, more dependent on social skills and technological competence, and more time pressured (Chan et al., 2007). Workplace design can affect organisational and employee outcomes, such as better communication, collaboration, creativity, and higher employee engagement, motivation, well-being, and employee retention (Kegel 2017). Therefore, work environments today need to be ‘agile’ in order to support employees (the process model), and the nature of the work done, while remaining committed to achieving organisational performance.

As facility administrators, the main obligation is to manage the existing organisational facilities effectively in a cost-effective manner; also ensuring the smooth running of the organisation. The application of information technology in facilities management is thus essential to the success of the task of managing organisational facilities (Mike, 2015). This is because facility administrators can no longer keep track of maintaining work facilities manually. This is a less effective way compared with the use of computerised maintenance-management systems being deployed in the twenty-first century. Such systems have been introduced by technologically able and forward-looking facility administrators. In addition, with the increase in sophistication of various facilities, it has become a priority to provide information to enable the environment in facility management, keeping adequate records of facilities, and monitoring their performance (Mike, 2015). Educational organisations in Zimbabwe and the world over emphasise the use of information technology for multiple purposes culminating in efficiency and improved performance. There may be a need, however, to research the effectiveness of the various management tools used in the facility management. Various constraints may hamper the effectiveness of the approach. It cannot, however, be disputed that a facility-management information system (FMIS) is a system that ensures availability of quality records, feedback, and feed-forward mechanisms in a user-friendly and well-structured way for effective decision-making. Mike (2015) avers that various FMIS packages are available. These range from comprehensive and integrated packages that address all aspects of facilities management, to specialised packages designed to address a particular facility management. Lai and Yik (2012) posit that feedback is key to continuous improvement. The cliché ‘garbage in, garbage out’ is unfortunately very true. The data that is fed into an FMIS will determine the quality and accuracy of the FMIS-generated reports (Lai & Yik, 2012).

Furthermore, it cannot be disputed that the use of well-designed software would make the task easy and at the same time ensure that the maintenance activities are well planned, scheduled, and monitored through pre-established modules and check lists (Mike 2015). Mike (2015) further reiterates the widely used adage that the illiterates of tomorrow are those who cannot take advantage of computer education. A facility administrator who fails to use information technology may fail to perform satisfactorily in the face of modern challenges. Training and development are an important aspect in educational organisations so that both administrators and employees move with the times.

3.2.4 Training and development

Ochola (2018) asserts that we live in a competitive world in which organisations need to improve the capacities, competencies, and capabilities of the employees they have. In support, Al-Mughairi (2018) states that successful organisations recognise the need for a competent and well-developed workforce to achieve their objectives. This is why most of the organisations today are investing much money in the training and development of employees in order to remain competitive and successful (Bashir & Jahanzeb, 2018). Ozkaser (2019) defines training as social, physical, and mental development of individuals. The author further asserts that development of individuals increases knowledge and skills of the individual, making them more effective. Therefore, training and development are actions employed to improve future performance of employees so that they perform more effectively and achieve organisational goals. Ming Hsiang Yap (2019) and Mozael (2015) agree that training is an ongoing and continuous process which aims to achieve better employee performance through improving employees' attitude and behaviour at work. It is also a way of upgrading employee skills enabling them to perform specific tasks (Nischithaa & Rao, 2014). Thus training has become inevitable and indispensable in order to have a capable and well prepared workforce for attaining high quality of work and maintaining an optimal level of performance in achieving organisational objectives and goals (Falola et al., 2014).

Al-Mughairi (2014), in his doctoral thesis on the evaluation of training and development, asserts that organisations face challenges due to globalisation such as rapid modernisation and competition for qualified employees. This is the reason for an ever-increasing emphasis being placed on employee training and development. Training and development are often used interchangeably: many scholars see them as a single unit. However, each term has an independent meaning which varies from one organisation to another, basic components within definitions showing consistency (Al-Mughairi, 2019). Engetou (2017) believes that training and development are a continuous effort designed to improve employees' competencies and organisational performance, and are a way of improving employees' performance. Al-Mughairi (2018), however, avers that the definitions by various authors show that training is a tool that can be used to share specific problems in the workplace. Development, however, is used to describe long-term and durable changes that could affect skills, knowledge, and even the attitude of employees within an organisation. Furthermore, Armstrong (2006) describes development as a process in which individuals learn to progress from a present state of understanding to a future state, in which higher-level skills, knowledge and competencies are required. Development is also described as the planned growth and expansion of the knowledge and expertise of employees beyond the requirements of the present job (Swanson & Holton, 2009).

Bashir and Jehanzeb (2013) posit that internationally, organisations provide training and development programmes to their employees for the improvement of their skills and abilities. These authors further state that employees become more productive if organisations provide them training specifically on the requirements of their job. Engetou (2017) views training programmes as directed towards maintaining and improving current job performance; while development seeks to improve skills for future jobs. Employees are the most important resource within an organisation, hence would feel motivated if they are empowered through training so that they can perform their tasks with adequate knowledge and skill to meet organisational goals. Waiyaki (2017) alludes to this increasing organisational performance. Organisations ought to meet the expenses for employees to participate in training programmes as a motivating factor. In this way employees can perform their tasks, being more motivated and believing that they are recognised by the organisation (Ozkeser et al., 2019). Employees feel important when they are accorded training by the organisation: training activities would increase their motivation levels. The programmes implemented in the organisations thus present many benefits both for the organisation, the individuals, as well as the intergroup and group relations (Ozkeser et al., 2019).

The discussion above shows that training and development are terms that involve filling the knowledge gaps and skills of employees (Al-Mughairi, 2018). Many definitions thus agree that training and development act as a remedy for understandable attitudes within organisations on improving performance of employees. Both training and development are associated with benefiting individuals and organisations; and thus can be used as a single term. Those employees who participate in training have their competences improved and are likely to perform better in the workplace than those who have not participated in training (Ming Hsiang Yap, 2019). Zahirrudin et al. (2012) further attest to a well-trained employee performing tasks proficiently and deliberately. Training becomes necessary for both new employees to the organisation or for seasoned employees: training allows employees to stay ahead of modern technology. Organisational updates enable employees competently to manage any situation that may arise (Tan & Khatijah, 2017; Elnaga & Imran, 2013). Mohan and Gomathi (2015); Khyzet et al. (2012) further posit that, as a result of training, employees become more confident and motivated; hence they improve in performance, becoming more committed and maintaining quality performance.

Various studies have shown that training is important and thus ought to be a central component of the organisation and its administration. Jehanzeb and Bashir (2013) aver that, for employees to perform well towards the organisational vision, administrators of the organisation should recognise the need for training and accord it to its employees. Human-resources management thus plays a significant role in the economic development of most developed countries such as Britain, the US, and Japan. In a developing country like Cameroon, with its rich natural resources and financial support, one can also experience such economic success if the appropriate attention is given to development and training of her human resources (Engetou, 2017). Every aspect and activity within an organisation involves people. Therefore, for an administrator to be successful he or she ought to equip employees with the necessary skills, knowledge, ability and competence (SKAC) to achieve organisational goals (Engetou, 2017). These SKAC are not efficiently taught in the formal education (system model); therefore the administrator ought to afford employees extensive training to bring out substantive contribution towards the individual and the organisation's growth. Employees must believe that they are valued by the organisation they work for. They must experience valuable signs of administrative commitment to their training needs. It can be an advantage for an organisation if they win the hearts and minds of their employees, assisting them to identify with the organisation (Armstrong, 2009). The role of administration thus is to see training as a motivating factor in the workplace (Engetou, 2017). Khan et al. (2011) agree that administrators must wisely invest these "assets" in order to generate better returns. Training and development is seen as a powerful tool worthy of investment in increasing employee performance and leading to better organisational performance and success.

There are a variety of training methods that can be used in organisations to suit individual employees. Engetou (2017) declares that the most popular training and development method used by organisations can be classified as either on-the-job training or off-the-job training. A study on the impact of training methods on employee performance using qualitative primary data through a survey questionnaire was conducted by Ming Hsiang Yap (2019). The questionnaire was based upon various on-the-job and off-the-job training methods. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to all 162 employees in the target population; 136 responses were returned, however, only 124 were accepted, the remaining found incomplete. The collected data were analysed using SPSS software in order to obtain the regression values. The results of the study show that both on-the-job and off-the-job training have a positive significant impact on employee performance. The purpose of on-the-job training is to familiarise employees with the working circumstances. Employees would gain the direct involvement of using equipment devices, materials, and so on (Engetou, 2017). This method of training helps the employees to deal with any difficulties that may occur during the execution of their job. Employees would be guided by their administrators to perform the task. In Zimbabwe this kind of training is known as on-the-job education training (OJET). Off-the-job training is organised at a site far from the original work environment for a specific period. This kind of training is very costly. In Zimbabwe, in teacher training this is known as “Attachment Teaching Practice” (ATP). A student is attached to an experienced senior teacher at the practising school. The student would be paid a stipend every month for the period they are on ATP (University of Zimbabwe Quality Assurance Handbook, 2017). For those already employed, the organisation would have to invest in their in-service training or staff-development programme. Ochola (2018) posits that the knowledge gained from this, together with workshops, can be transferred to the organisation to meet the organisational set objectives. The challenge may, however, arise when an organisation invests in training an employee who may later decide to transfer to another organisation.

The key elements of training effectiveness are based on four major stages: a) identifying training needs; b) deciding on the type of training required to fulfil these needs; c) employing qualified and trained trainers to implement training; and d) following up and assessing training to guarantee its effectiveness (Armstrong, 2013). Al-Mughairi (2018) adds that effective training should cover all training processes which involve clear training goals and objectives, making and delivering content of training related to work context, using suitable methods of training and a qualified trainer. To design an effective training programme it is important to consider the various stages of the training process (Luong, 2015). The following factors should be considered for effective training: identifying aims and objectives, selecting issues for the training content, selecting participants for the training programme, establishing a suitable schedule, identifying training techniques and facilities, hiring skilled instructors, selecting and preparing audio and visual aids, managing and organising the training programme, and following up and evaluating the training programme (Al-Mughiari, 2018). Noe (2016) thus posits that training evaluation ought to be given as a way of measuring specific outcomes. This would determine the benefits of training for the organisation and/or trainees (employees).

Kassie (2017) asserts that training and development are closely related − both influence employee performance. Training and development is influenced by the process model as it is more concerned with the motivation of people on organisational growth and performance. Sridivya and Gomathi (2015) state that employee performance is important for an organisation as it contributes towards organisational performance. Thus performance ought to be continuously analysed so that employees' remuneration and incentives can be justified.

3.2.5 Employee compensation management

Olarewaju (2014) asserts that in the global world of today, for any organisation to have a competitive edge over competitors, there must be in place a formidable competition strategy to attract and motivate people to join the organisation. Ikechukwu, Okeke and Onuorah (2019) posit that in the age of global competition it is essential to identify and retain the efficient, competent, and knowledgeable employees in any organisation. This may be accomplished by developing and maintaining an effective compensation programme for best job performance from the employee. Akter and Moazzam (2016); Calvin (2017); Ojeyele and Okoro (2016), and others, reiterate that employees are the organisation's key resource. The success or failure of the organisation rests on the ability of the employers to attract, retain, and reward appropriately talented and competent employees. Zaman (2011) further emphasises that, in order to gain efficient and effective results from employees their motivation must be assured. To ensure employees' optimal performance and retention organisations must consider a variety of appropriate ways of rewarding employees thus gaining the desired results (Falola, Ibidunni & Olokundun, 2014). It is generally believed that if there is proper management of compensation, individuals can be motivated to perform, and thus have a positive effect on the organisational performance (Olarewaju, 2014). Fadugba (2012) argues that the degree to which employees are satisfied with their job, and their readiness to remain within an organisation, are functions of the compensation package and reward system of the organisation (Snell & Bohlander, 2010).

Olarewaju (2014), on one hand, defines compensation as the total sum of wage or salary, employee benefits and rewards, while Milkovich et al. (2011), on the other hand, defines compensation as all forms of financial returns on tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship. While authors may differ in their definition of compensation, one common view is that compensation is tied to performance. The main objectives of the compensation function are to create a system of rewards that is equitable and acceptable to both parties in an employment relationship, resulting in attracting and motivating an employee to work well for the organisation (Olarewaju, 2014). Compensation is a crucial instrument that organisations ought seriously to consider in retaining talented employees able to achieve organisational goals. Compensation is aimed at backing up organisational goals, attracting, motivating, and retaining hard-working employees (Shieh, 2008; Petera, 2011). Dauda (2010) and Abolade (2012) assert that compensation deals with the design, implementation, and maintenance of reward practices geared towards the improvement of both organisational team and individual performance. Khoza (2016), Khoza and Mpungose (2017), and others refer to such as professional, social, and personal vision. Compensation is concerned with developing a positive employment relationship and psychological contract. Such will address long-term issues relating to employees being valued for what they do and what they achieve (Sisson, 2010; Musenze, Thomas, Stella & Muhammadi, 2013). Armstrong (2003) posits that compensation embraces both financial and non-financial rewards. All reward systems must be taken into account and integrated to maximise the effectiveness of organisational reward policies and practices.

Adeniyi (2013) asserts that the main task in human-resources management is that of compensating employees. This is a complicated task that is undertaken periodically, demanding accuracy and timeous application. Ikechukwu et al. (2019) contend that compensation management requires the integrating of employees' processes and information with organisational processes and strategies, thus achieving optimal organisational goals and objectives. Compensation management is an essential tool to integrate individual efforts with organisational objectives. This comes about through encouraging employees to work well thus improving their performance (Adeyini, 2013; Hsin-His 2011). In other words, compensation management is a powerful means of focussing attention within an organisation. In motivating employees, the compensation system ought to be clearly communicated to employees (Yamoah, 2013; Ikechukwu et al., 2019). Such a system includes the issue of monetary benefits such as salaries, bonuses, incentives, allowances, recognition, among others (Werner, 2001).

Administrators in organisations have an important role to play in designing, managing, measuring and disseminating information to employees on compensation (Olarewaju, 2014). This would help in the recruitment of best individuals for the organisation, in developing and retaining employees, and in improving both individuals and organisational performance. This is supported by a study conducted in Nigeria to establish the relationship between compensation management, motivation, and organisational performance. The study findings revealed that compensation management and motivation of employees are factors that employees can use to boost the performance of employees as well as that of organisations. The study further recommends that compensation management and employees' motivation ought to be given attention by the administration of the organisation (Olarewaju, 2014). The link between compensation management and organisational performance is there to help the organisation set standards that are job related, that reduce employee turnover, as well as retain the best employees that would enhance competitiveness of the organisation (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2011; Khan, Aslam & Lodhi, 2011; Mathis & Jackson, 2011). The administrator thus plays a role in motivating employees on organisational performance by addressing the issue of employee commitment, dedication, training and development, and independent decision-making, among others. This may be achieved through allowing employees a degree of autonomy in what they want to do and how to do it within the organisation (Mathis & Jackson, 2011; Chaudhary, 2012; Inayatullah & Jehangir, 2012; Brevis & Vrba, 2014).

Schan, Kadir, AlHosani & Ismail (2019) consider that the welfare of employees cannot be ignored in increasing their performance. Some organisations take care of employees' well-being by providing compensation and benefits in terms of remuneration, allowances, promotion, and also incentives. Shan et al. (2019) further posit that employee compensation is a form of pay and rewards given to the employees for performing their job within the organisation. Benefits refer to indirect financial and non-financial payments employees receive for continuing their employment with the organisation. Compensation is of various types and may be classified as i) financial, ii) non-financial, and iii) compensation for individuals

(Olarewaju, 2014). Financial compensation is that which is concerned with monetary reward and financial incentives (Armstrong, 2003). Financial rewards provide financial recognition to employees for their achievements, for attaining or exceeding their performance targets or reaching higher levels of competence or skill. Furthermore, financial incentives aim at motivating employees to achieve set targets, improving their performance and enhancing their competence or skills within the organisation (Armstrong, 2003). Romanoff (2008) declares that incentives define both what needs to be accomplished and what the employee would receive in return for accomplishing such. Incentives have greater behavioural and motivational impact. Non-financial compensation does not involve money given directly. It includes the feeling of achievement, autonomy, recognition, development of skills, training and career development opportunities Armstrong (2003); Herzberg (1966). This is made up of rewards that are not costly but boost the employees' morale Danish & Usman (2010); Resurrecion, (2012). Compensation and individual reward links remuneration to personal effort. Worthy reward and personal effort bonuses are the most appreciated and preferred rewards by employees (Olarewaju, 2014). Investopedia (2016) defines a bonus as an additional compensation given to an employee above his or her normal salary or wage. Heathfield (2016) defines bonus pay as compensation over and above the amount of pay specified as a basic salary or hourly rate of pay. Bardot (2014) views a bonus as a payment which is backward-looking and usually discretionary or at least not expected by the employee(s).

Furthermore, remuneration is traditionally seen as the total income of an individual. This may comprise a range of separate payments determined according to different rules (Calvin, 2017). Macibi (2005) views remuneration as pay or reward given to individuals for work done. The author further identifies remuneration to include; basic salary, wages, health schemes, pension schemes, transport allowances, overtime allowances, and responsibility allowances, among other items. Calvin (2017) further refers to remuneration as monetary or financial benefits accrued or given to an employee or group of employees by the employer or organisation. This reward would result from services rendered by the employee(s)' commitment to the organisation as reward for employment. Surbhi (2015) defines salary as a fixed amount paid to the employees at regular intervals for their performance, whereas wages are the hourly-based payment given to the labourer for the amount of work completed in a day. Surbhi

(2015) further argues that salaried persons are generally said to be doing “white-collar office jobs”. This implies that an individual is well educated, skilled, and holds a good position in society. Waged persons are said to be “blue-collar labourers”. Such individuals are engaged in unskilled or semi-skilled labour, drawing wages on a daily basis. Agburu (2012) argues that salaries and wages are important and should not only be adequate to meet basic needs such as food, clothing, and housing, but must also show some element of equity from the point of view of the employees. Anything short of a fair and equitable wage or reward demotivates employees, especially in developing countries. Wages or salaries are crucial issues in organisations. Without sufficient income; life is difficult for employees and their families (Calvin, 2017).

Lowler (2003) argues that when remuneration is strongly attached to the achievement of results of an employee, it promotes effectiveness of performance of the organisation as well that of employees. Lowler (2003) argues that employees put more effort into achieving results when their remuneration package is determined by the effort made to accomplish organisational goals (Lawler, 2003). Fair remuneration has a positive impact on both job satisfaction and employee motivation on organisational performance (Bol et al., 2015; Maas et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2013; Marai et al., 2010).

A study was conducted to identify and evaluate important factors influencing the area of employee remuneration and benefits offered by organisations in the Czech Republic. A questionnaire survey that involved selected organisations in Czech Republic (n=402) was used. Primary data were processed using descriptive and multidimensional statistics. The results revealed that organisations that want to remain competitive paid attention to employee remuneration and fringe benefits which would retain their employees and increase employee satisfaction and loyalty (Urbancova & Snydrova, 2017). Employee benefits distinguish organisations from their competitors in the employment arena (Held, 2016). Fringe benefits offered are one way in which an organisation can differ from other organisations, becoming more attractive (Schlechter et al., 2015). Schlechter et al. (2015) also opine that the offer of benefits to employees may attract and retain talent for the organisation. Therefore, administrators ought to offer a good choice of fringe benefits that would show appreciation of human potential and a willingness to invest in employees (Daly, 2011). However, the absence of fringe benefits would not be the only reason for high staff turnover (Duda, 2007). Chiang and Birch (2011) emphasise that increasing pressure of organisations on reducing costs has led to increase of non-financial rewards (fringe benefits) over financial rewards.

Because employees are different, they also bring to the organisation different expectations and different preferences for fringe benefit types (Pregnolato, 2010). Therefore, providing fringe benefits associated with flexibility is currently the trend. Implementing the possibility of time flexibility regarding working hours, as well as fringe benefits related to leisure activities, can help employees balance work and personal life (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016). According to the results of a survey conducted by Deloitte, (2016), luncheon vouchers, bonuses, and organisational events ranked in the top three acceptable perquisites. Mobile phones, refreshments at the workplace, a laptop, canteen meals, and discounts on organisational products or services, contributions to sports, culture, and leisure time ranked tenth. This suggests that preferences on fringe benefits may certainly differ from one organisation to the other. A local study could examine factors that affect choice of benefits among employees within an organisation.

An effective compensation strategy design significantly influences organisational development. Individual equity allows employees to accept that their potential is fully rewarded, feeling motivated (Hsin-His, 2011). Equity-based compensation not only reduces the financial burden of paying out high salaries, it also attracts employees who are committed to working hard in order to ensure their financial well-being and the success of the organisation (Ikechukwu, Okeke & Onourah, (2019). Let the reader understand more about employee commitment and organisational performance.

3.2.6 Employee commitment and organisational performance

Andrew (2017) asserts that, as a result of the liberation of most countries in the 1980s and early 1990s, most organisations in developing countries have experienced growing competition from other nations. Andrew (2017) further posits that organisations ought to devise ways of becoming more responsive to client expectations, thus competing favourably in the global village (Nabukeera, Ali & Roja, 2015). In the same vein, Fako, Nkhukhu-Orlando, Wilson, Forcheh and Linn (2018); Chordiya et al. (2017) find that scarcity of resources results in challenges of attracting and retaining high quality employees. Sustaining employee morale, motivation and performance and organisational commitment have become topical issues. This economic problem that strikes through indigent, developing, and developed countries has raised the need for efficiency. Evaluation strategies would help assess the performance of government institutions in improving employee performance and commitment (Andrew, 2017).

Akintayo (2010) and Tumwesigye (2010) note that for organisations to perform well there is need for employees to be committed. Commitment, according to Meyer and Allan (1997), Yusuf and Metiboba (2012), Lemba and Choudhary (2013), is a characteristic of employees who relate to their organisation, valuing its success, therefore showing a willingness to remain within the organisation. According to Akintayo (2010), employee commitment is the degree to which the employee feels devoted to their organisation. Ongoro (2007) is convinced that employee commitment is an effective response. This covers the degree of attachment or loyalty that the employee feels towards the whole organisation. Zheng (2010) further opines that employee commitment has to do with the attitude of employee towards the organisation. There are many different views on what employee commitment entails. Views reveal that employee commitment is a broad concept; employees' attitude to the organisation encompasses various components (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). Organisational commitment, therefore, refers to employee involvement and affiliation with the organisation. An organisation ought to maintain a good relationship with employees allowing them to remain committed, to feel fit for purpose, and to develop willingness to work towards organisational success (Fako et al., 2019). Sam Gnanakkan (2010) clearly concludes that organisational commitment is a concept comprising both attitudinal and behavioural aspects of employees; such can determine success or failure of an organisation (Kassaw & Negassa, 2019).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990) as well as Samad (2011), organisational commitment may be viewed from three different dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Andrew (2017); Kassaw and Negassa (2019); Meyer and Allen (1997) and others, describe the affective commitment dimension as that which represents the individual's emotional attachment to the organisation. Such employees would remain within the organisation because organisational goals and values are congruent with their personal goals and values. Furthermore, Meyer and Allan (1997) opine that affective commitment tends to be influenced by such factors as a challenging job, clear roles and goals of the organisation, receptive administration, and ability to participate and receive feedback within the organisation, among other aspects. Thus, affective commitment involves identification and internalisation.

The second dimension of organisational commitment is continuance commitment. Meyer and Allan (1997) and others define continuance commitment as awareness of costs that may be associated with leaving the organisation. This is calculative in nature – individuals would first consider the costs and risks associated with leaving the current organisation (Andrew, 2017). Meyer and Allan (1997) further state that employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain in the organisation because they need to do so. This indicates the difference between continuance and affective commitment. The latter entails individuals remaining in the organisation because they want to. In continuance commitment, thus, the employee's attachment and association with the organisation is based on an assessment of economic benefits gained (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Organisational employees develop commitment to an organisation because of the positive extrinsic rewards obtained through the effort-bargain without identifying with the organisation's goals and values (Andrew, 2017).

The third dimension of the organisational commitment model is normative commitment. Meyer and Allan (1997) and others define normative commitment as a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Internalised normative beliefs of duty and obligation make employees feel an obligation to sustain their membership of the organisation (Andrew, 2017). According to Meyer and Allan (1997), employees with normative commitment believe that they ought to remain within the organisation. In terms of the normative dimension, the employees remain because they believe this to be the proper behaviour. Lee and Chen (2013) found that employee commitment will increase when they believe that the organisation recognises them as part of the organisation. Recognition of an employee is critical for organisational success. Such recognition may increase the commitment level as well as the individual and organisational performance.

Irefin and Mechanic (2014) remark that there are various factors associated with employee commitment. Ongori (2007) opines that the degree to which employees are committed or remain loyal to their organisation depends largely on opportunities related to job enrichment, employee empowerment, and compensation, among other aspects. Camilleri (2002) adds that educational level and position held by the employee in the organisation may influence the continuance and normative dimensions of employee commitment. Individual personality may significantly be stronger for continuance and effective dimensions. Furthermore, employee commitment may also be influenced by organisational culture, especially concerning employee family welfare of the organisation in which they work (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). The organisation must exhibit a high level of commitment to its employees. Should employees fear losing their jobs, there is little likelihood of a high level of employee commitment. Should employees not be given adequate salaries, conducive facilities, and training for continuous professional development, they may not view the organisation as committed to them (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). Value alignment and identification are thus central to every conceptualisation of employee commitment. Fako et al. (2018) alerts that lack of employee commitment results from a negative psychosomatic consequence that can accrue when individuals perceive poor congruence between themselves and their work environment (Southcombe et al., 2005). Such may result in high turnover and attrition.

Tolera (2018) asserts that to ensure the achievement of organisational goals the organisation must create an atmosphere of commitment and cooperation to its employees through policies that facilitate employee satisfaction. It follows that if employees believe that they are recognised in the workplace they become highly motivated. Kabir and Parvin (2014) state that motivated employees may develop loyalty or commitment to the organisation, leading to greater performance and lower turnover rates. If the empowerment and recognition of employees is increased, their motivation to work would also improve, leading to their accomplishments and to better organisational performance (Tolera, 2018). Andrew (2017) emphasises that the quality of employees is an important influence on performance, employees being the "backbone" of the organisation. Organisations thus have a role to ensure that their policies and programmes are implemented sufficiently effectively and efficiently to motivate employees (Fauzilah et al., 2011). Khan, Razi, Ali and Asghar (2013) posit that organisations achieve their objectives when they engage competent and committed employees. Given the harsh economic environment in many developing countries, it has been difficult to attract competent and committed employees, resulting in brain drain. Sharma and Bajpai (2010) assert that employees are regarded as committed to an organisation if they willingly continue their association with the organisation, and devote considerable effort to achieving organisational goals. It is, however, unfortunate that at times employees carry out their jobs merely as routine without having the organisation at heart. The remuneration at the end of the month is the sole motivation. Their commitment is applied in other directions that have nothing to do with the organisation they work for.

Employees who are less committed to the organisation are more likely to look at themselves as outsiders and not as long-term members of the organisation (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). An attractive job offer elsewhere is likely to result in their departure for "greener pastures". It should be noted, however, that while turnover rates can be beneficial in opening doors for new talent and new ideas for employees, high turnover rates may be disruptive to an organisation (Fako et al., 2018). High turnover rates can lead to loss of work progress, performance, organisational reputation and the attrition of trust in clients (Alzubi, 2018). Moreover, high turnover rates can also increase the cost of recruitment, training and retention of staff, as well as negatively affecting organisational effectiveness and success. Motivation, performance, and quality of work of those who remain in the organisation, may also be negatively affected (Alzubi, 2018). Irefin and Mechanic (2014) posit that employees with high commitment to an organisation, however, see themselves as an integral part of the organisation: anything that threatens the organisation may be viewed as an imminent danger to them as well. Such employees become relatively involved in the organisational mission and values and are constantly motivated to improve their performance. This implies that committed employees work for the organisation as though the organisation belongs to them (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014).

No organisation can therefore perform at peak level unless each employee is fully committed to the organisation's objectives, working as an effective team member (process model). Khan et al. (2010) advise administrators to pay special attention to those factors that may help influence employee commitment. All factors that may foster employee performance and subsequently increase organisational performance must also be considered. Administrators should increase commitment of employees by designing motivational packages. Such could include engaging employees in sustainable regular training programmes, social activities that also include the welfare of employees and their families, amongst others (Tolera, 2018; Ali, 2010). Administrators must know those aspects which motivate their employees to remain committed to their work, leading to organisational success (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). Some of the identified factors as determinants of employee commitment include leadership styles (Lo, 2009), and organisational fairness (Ponnu & Chuah, 2010); among many others. Transformational leaders are more able to bring out commitment in employees (process model) than are transactional leaders (system model) (Lo, 2009). Transformational leaders have a significantly stronger influence on employee commitment. Leaders who give advice and support, and who pay attention to the individual needs of employees are likely to enhance the level of employee commitment. Let the reader understand more about transformational leadership.

3.2.7 Transformational leadership

Abazeed (2018) and other authors mention that today organisations face many challenges, both internal and external. One such challenge is that of competition which is growing on a global scale (Al-Hawary & Al-Hawman, 2017). To address the challenges, organisations, both public and private, must have leaders capable of mitigating the challenges and threats faced by organisations (Al-Nady, Al-Hawary & Alolayyan, 2013). These leaders should be capable of developing strategies that enable their organisations to overcome such challenges and threats, helping the organisation to survive in a competitive environment (Al-Hawary & Hadad, 2016). Selecting leaders who can create a positive vision for the organisation, developing and implementing the strategies required is of paramount importance. Al Khajeh (2018) posits that leadership is one of the key determinants associated with either success or failure of any organisation. Manzoor, Wei, Nurunnabi, Subhan, Ali Shah and Fallatah (2019) agree that leadership style can closely predict the performance of the organisation. A good leader, therefore, is considered one who can direct and motivate employees to achieve organisational goals. A leadership style is thus an important factor affecting the enhancement of organisational performance and employees' job performance; and the objectives they should pursue which lead to organisational success (Manzoor et al., 2019).

While there is a multiplicity of leadership styles, many studies view transformational leadership as that which focusses on encouraging employees to work as a team in order to improve their performance, thereby achieving organisational goals (Bass, 1985). For transformational leadership style the leader works with teams to identify changes that can enhance employee commitment to work (Bushra, Ahmad & Naveed, 2011). Alqatawenh (2018) and Robins, (2003) aver that transformational leadership helps leaders to inspire employees to consider their self-interest for the benefit of the organisation. Al-Jaroudi (2010) further argues that the transformational leader works to increase employee motivation on organisational performance. The transformational leader of today (current view) ought therefore to inspire employees to do their best, developing their skills so as to enhance their intellectual levels (Alqatawenh, 2018). Employees ought to be urged to achieve more than what is expected. This is supported by Congo (2002), who views transformational leadership as the leadership that goes beyond expected performance. Such leadership ought to develop employees intellectually and creatively, to be able to transform their own interests into an essential part of the organisation's mission. Kirkan (2011) avers that transformational leadership ought to change the mindset of employees through inspiration, persuasion, and excitement, so that together they work towards a common vision helping them to achieve common goals. Abazeed (2018) thus views transformational leadership as leadership that helps raise the level of achievement and self-development, while promoting the development of groups and organisations.

According to Ghadi et al. (2013); Abazeed (2018); Alqatawenah (2018); and other authors, transformational leadership involves four sub-dimensions, namely, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration or empowerment. Idealised influence refers to the leader's ability to increase the employee's level of loyalty, dedication, and identification with the organisation without focussing on the self-interest (Alqatawenh, 2018). Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) further define the idealised influence dimension as the way the leader behaves leading to the admiration of the employees. This helps to spread the organisational vision and inspire motivation in employees. Ideal influence, therefore, entails certain leadership behaviours such as sacrificing personal interests for the benefit of the group, high moral conduct and employees seeing the leader as a role model to emulate (Susanj & Jakopee, 2012). One of the most important leadership behaviours associated with ideal influence is the ability to gain trust and respect for employees, to follow ethical standards and higher values, to avoid taking power to achieve personal gain or to force others to play organisational roles (Al-Shanti, 2016).

Inspirational motivation refers to the leader's ability to create a vision that helps employees to play a vital role in the organisation (Alqatawenm (2018). Inspirational motivation sets and presents the future vision, and encourages employees to work hard to achieve the organisational vision (Susanj & Jakopee, 2012). The motivation of the leader indeed inspires the employees. It sets the vision of the organisation and encourages employees to adopt and pursue the same by motivating employees through enthusiasm towards organisational goals (AL-Shantu, 2016).

Yet another dimension of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. Alqatawenh (2018) defines intellectual stimulation as the ability of a leader to guide employees to be innovative, becoming risk takers. Bass and Avolio (1994) state that, in a way, intellectual stimulation helps an employee to think individually about how to carry out given work assignments (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Therefore, intellectual stimulation refers to the ability of the individual to be rational; to think independently, and intelligently, and to generate new ideas. Researchers have added that intellectual stimulation allows an individual to look at old ways of doing business, creatively improving on old ways to achieve organisational goals (Abazeed, 2018). The leader should allow employees to address the challenges they face by using new methods to logically resolve those challenges independently. Employees should view challenges using a new method, finding new solutions to those challenges. The leader motivates employees to maximise their potential, thus achieving organisational goals (Susanj & Jakopee, 2012). Accordingly, intellectual stimulation means encouraging the employee to accept and tolerate risks in order to develop new practices and ideas that improve organisational performance (Ghafoor et al., 2011).

Lastly, individualised consideration is one of the characteristics of the transformational leader, linking staff priorities to the development of the organisation, directing them toward organisational goals and providing opportunities for training and career development (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Individualised consideration refers to the leader's appreciation of the employee's interests and career needs, including training development and promotion (empowerment) (Abazeed, 2018; Alqatawenh, 2018). The transformational leader depends on his interaction with his employees' fair treatment, giving each employee special attention which motivates the employee to work. Fair treatment of employees by the transformational leader ought to focus on individual needs and individual performance (Susanj & Jakopee, 2012). The individual consideration takes care of employee needs and desires, as well as an analysis of the employees' abilities to work and achieve given tasks (AL-Shanti, 2016). Alqatawenh (2018) posits that transformational leaders give employees the authority to make decisions to accomplish their tasks.

A study was conducted by Abazeed (2018) on the impact of transformational leadership style on organisational learning in the Ministry of Communication and Information Technology in Jordan. The study shows that idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration have a significant and positive effect on the organisational performance. The researcher recommends that administrators raise loyalty and sense of belonging of employees by involving them in the decision-making process, allowing them to solve challenges found in the workplace.

Based on the discussions above, transformational leadership style develops the employees and considers their needs (Al Khajeh, 2018), which Khoza and Mpungose (2017) and others refer to as the process model. The administrators who focus on transformational leadership dwell particularly on developing the overall value system of the employees, developing moralities, skills, and their motivation level (Al Khajeh, 2018). Furthermore, Bass and Avolio (1994) state that transformational leadership demonstrates superior leadership performance when such broadens or elevates the interests of employees. Transformational leadership describes the process by which a leader can encourage employees to align their personal interests with the interests of the organisation. Therefore, interaction between the leader and the employees should be managed in such a way that employees feel sufficiently supported to work towards achieving personal and organisational goals (Ghafoor et al., 2011). Bass (1985) argues that the term 'transformational leadership' depicts a type of leadership which transforms employees to high levels of performance in achieving organisational outputs. Kark et al. (2003) suggests that transformational leadership means transformation of an employee into a leader by providing them with opportunities for career development, empowerment, and independence, among other factors. Furthermore, Avey et al. (2008) aver that transformational leadership helps stimulate employees in three forms, namely, increasing the level of authority and personal confidence of the employee, achieving mutual understanding between the employees and the organisation, as well as linking the organisational values with those of the employees (Abazeed, 2018).

The transformational leadership model has, however, been subjected to criticism, and its potential weaknesses have been identified over the years (Tafvelin, 2013). For instance, transformational leadership has been viewed as elitist and anti-democratic, with too much emphasis placed on the “heroic” aspect of leadership (Northouse, 2007). Northouse further states that transformational leaders create and communicate a vision in an effort to achieve change, and may seem to be acting independently of their employees. This criticism, however, has been opposed by Bass and Riggio (2006) and others, who argue that transformational leaders can be either directive or participative, and either authoritarian or democratic. The leader therefore employs both the system model (for direction) and the process model (for engagement of employees). That transformational leadership has the potential to be abused, however, cannot be ruled out. Transformational leaders change employees’ values and provide a new vision of the future. The question is, who decides whether the new vision is better than the old? The other aspect is: who determines whether the new direction taken is a good one? (Tafvelin, 2013) Wright and Pandry (2010) comment that most scholars, particularly in the public sector, are still very hesitant about the usefulness of transformational leadership. They argue that transformational leadership is both less common and less effective. Public sector organisations rely heavily on bureaucratic control mechanisms such as centralisation, formalisation and routinisation (Bass & Riggio, 2006: Pawar & Eastman, 1997) which provide institutional substitutes for leadership (Lowe et al., 1996). The many formal guidelines and rules of a bureaucratic organisation may therefore neutralise or replace the positive effects of a transformational leader (Tafvelin, 2013).

Empirical studies conducted in the public sector so far, show that there are mixed feelings about possibilities and usefulness of transformational leadership in the public sector. This suggests further research on transformational leadership on motivation of employees on organisational performance in teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe, which this study hopes to unravel. This is in view of shrinking revenues in the public sector, public criticism, and increased global competition that tends to force public sector leaders to focus more on output and performance, and to be more responsive to clients’ needs and expectations within the public sector (Tafvelin, 2013).

3.3 Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter has presented literature on in-depth understanding of the process model of motivation on organisational performance. Furthermore, the chapter has delineated the process-model principles that are driven by employee engagement in the organisation. Therefore, this chapter has revealed distinguishing principles, namely, employee recruitment and orientation, work environment, organisational facilities, training and development, employee compensation management, employee commitment, organisational performance, as well as transformational leadership.

The succeeding chapter seeks to discuss the theoretical framework that may serve as a frame for employee motivation on organisational performance.

CHAPTER FOUR

PERSONAL VISION OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

4.1 Introduction

Chapters Two and Three discussed the existing literature on the system and process models relating to employee motivation on organisational performance. This chapter (four) utilises the Currere model to harmonise the literature provided in previous chapters (two and three). Further to this, this theoretical framework is driven by combining both the system (cognitive) and process (psychomotor) models to address the personal (affective) vision of employee motivation on organisational performance. Thus, this chapter presents the foundation of the personal needs model based on Currere principles of regression, progression, analysis and synthesis as factors that influence employee motivation on organisational performance. These factors will inform who the ideal person is and why they are motivated in a particular way as unique individuals in the workplace. Maslow combines the system model and the process model to offer complete motivation, that is, a self-actualised “ideal” individual with unique characteristics. This chapter will thus present the personal needs model, the main constructs enhancing employee motivation, the theoretical framework, the Currere model, the complete motivation (self-actualisation), and the overall role of administration as a guiding framework to this study. There will be a conclusion of the chapter.

4.2 Personal Needs Model

Figure 4.1 Synthesising system and process models.

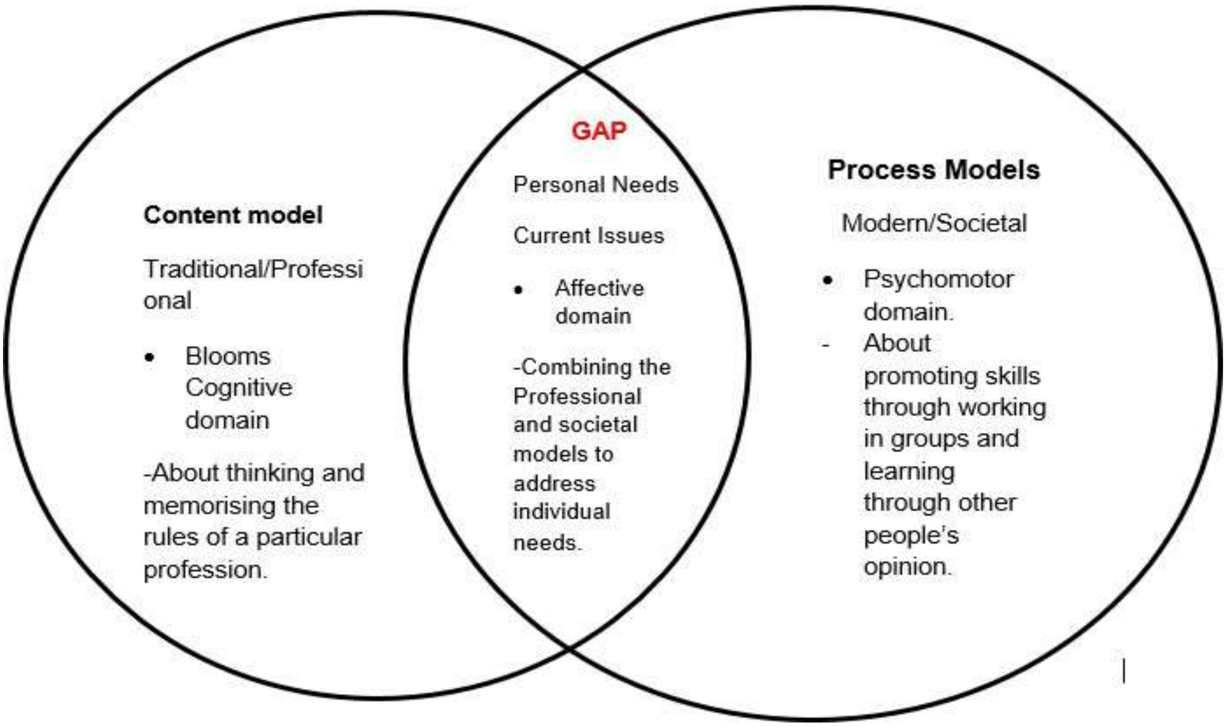


Figure 4.1 above synthesises the system or professional models (traditional) and the process or societal models (modern), which when combined addresses the personal or individual needs (current issues) which literature has not fully dealt with (gap) (Khoza, 2016a; 2016b; 2017; 2018; 2019). Some employees are motivated by the knowledge they bring to the workplace concerning their profession; they are motivated when they are able to follow the rules of the profession to the letter (Govender & Khoza, 2017; Khoza, 2017; Mpungose, 2016). These employees are influenced by what Bloom expresses as a cognitive domain of thinking and memorising the rules of a particular profession. These individuals look for 'what' is still cognitively missing in their job as they strive to excel in their profession (Budden, 2017; Khoza 2016a). Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alder's modified model, Herzeberg's two-factor model, and McClelland's achievements model tend to focus more on the system or professional models of motivation. There are employees who, when given scholarships to further their studies, would feel motivated. They would excel and stand in line for promotion (Khoza, 2017; Nkohla, 2017).

However, some employees look forward to go to work, finding joy in interacting with colleagues, working as a team (societal), and learning from other people's opinions (Khoza, 2017; Christensen et al., 2001; Hoodley & Jansen, 2014). The reinforcement model by Skinner, expectancy-based model by Vroom, equity model by Adam, and goal-setting model by Locke focus more on the process models of motivation. Certain employees are influenced by the psychomotor domain and are driven by promoting skills that they learn from opinions of their colleagues and not from reading anywhere. These employees are motivated by the collaborative approach in which they reflect-in-action as they strive to answer the 'how' question of their profession to achieve their outcomes (Budden, 2017; Khoza, 2017; Van Manen, 1977). Employees therefore develop skills required by their societies.

A common factor motivation model that allows employees to combine their strengths through the system or professional or process or societal models would help employees' identification and understanding of their own strengths. Alder (1991) and le Grange, (2016) in support, posit that when employees understand their strengths and identities (affective domain), this assists in control over their performance (professional driven) and competencies (societal driven), thus supporting the growth of the organisation (Budden, 2017; Fomunyam, 2016). When employees develop a tension between system or professional model and process or societal model they have the potential to address their personal or individual needs (Khoza, 2018; 2019; le Grange, 2016; Amory, 2012; Badat, 2010; Schon, 1983). The individual needs are a reflection on the professional and societal models, helping the employee to understand their identity. These individuals who reflect-on-their job and reflect-in-their job are considered by various authors *self-actualised*. They have unique characteristics of objectivity, problem solving, creativity, and reflective thinking, among others (Khoza, 2019; 2018; Maslow, 1970; McLeod, 2014). Administrators must understand what motivates the individual employees who have varied needs. These employees, when supported, may contribute to the growth and performance of the organization.

While research has been unable to verify these models fully, they have provided administrators with a framework on which to understand motivation models and their various settings. The importance of motivation has grown in the 21st century as organisations are focussed on increased productivity and competencies. In this regard, system and process models can provide a helpful framework to design meaningful motivation programmes in the workplace. Organisations can achieve the efficiency to develop a good working environment, and the culture to attain their overall goals (Uzonna, 2013) through reading, understanding, and utilizing the models appropriately. Personal needs can help individuals to transform the organisation. Thus self-actualised individuals' efforts should not be thwarted, but should be enhanced in the workplace.

4.3 Main Constructs enhancing Employees' Motivation

From the literature gathered for the study, the constructs that enhance employee motivation, inter alia, are fair pay, incentives, leadership, decision-making policies, recognition, and empowerment. I am going to describe these constructs and align them with relevant types of motivational models that have been discussed above.

4.3.1 Fair pay (remuneration)

A study on the evaluation of the impact of job satisfaction on absenteeism of employees at a plastics manufacturing industry in Nigeria revealed that money remains the most significant motivational model (Obasan, 2011). Obasan further contends that fair pay may attract, retain, and motivate employees towards higher performance in the workplace. Dobre (2013), in support of the above notion, states that money is the most important incentive for employees to work the way they do. This assertion is in line with the process model of motivation. Financial resources, according to Maslow's needs, may address the physiological (basic needs of employees) needs to fend for their families. Financial rewards may maintain and motivate employees towards higher performance as their basic needs would be addressed. Once their basic needs are addressed this is likely to motivate employees to acquire the next highest need, which is in line with the content model of motivation by Maslow. Remuneration, therefore, is a key motivator for employees and is likely to develop their diligence and commitment towards work. Nevertheless, studies have shown that pay may not necessarily boost productivity in the long term − financial gain may not improve performance significantly (Dobre, 2013). According to the system model, focussing only on this aspect might undermine employees' attitude, as this might encourage them to pursue only financial gains. There are, however, other non-financial factors that have a positive influence on motivation, such as rewards, social recognition, and performance feedback. Dobre (2013) further emphasises that rewards are a most efficient tool of administration in influencing employees' behaviour to improve organisational effectiveness. Where possible, employees' efforts are addressed through fair pay for deserving cases, catering for both basic needs and individual's performance for organisational achievement. Fair pay addresses both the system and process models mentioned above. This study attempts to find to what extent financial reward motivates employees of an organisation.

4.3.2 Types of incentive

Solomon and Mehdi (2012) believe that an incentive is additional compensation given to employees for special performance within an organisation; such may be either non-financial or financial. On one hand, non-financial incentives, as the name implies, are non-monetary. They include recognition of achievement, a feeling of participation, and pride in good performance which all tend to stimulate good performance. On the other hand, financial incentives are monetary in nature and may either be direct or indirect incentives. Direct financial incentives may come in the form of higher pay through increased performance and productivity of an employee in the workplace. Indirect incentives include equitable pay structure, merit increase, pension and profit-sharing, and other benefits that are financial in nature but are not directly dependent upon the contribution of an employee (Solomon & Mehdi, 2012). This construct of incentives is related more to the process model of motivation. Employees find pleasure in receiving incentives from the workplace and in this way they may feel appreciated. However, this does not necessarily mean that they will improve their performance. In some instances, however, a professional employee may be motivated to perform well after receiving an incentive. This may follow the approach of the content model of motivation. Experience has shown me that when employees are not rewarded after performing a task well, they are demotivated. Those who work for the sake of work alone will work with or without an incentive, as long as they meet their goal. If the situation permits, incentives should be accorded to employees. This may result in varied reactions from different individuals, their needs, priorities, and perceptions being different. This kind of approach may benefit both the individual employee and the organisation. In this study, the extent to which incentives influence employees is sought.

4.3.3 The role of leadership

Leadership is the ability and willingness to influence the way of thinking of other people yet not under compulsion (Oweyele, 2017). Leadership is a construct necessary to influence employees' behaviour to achieve organisational goals and job performance (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Hsu, 2001). A professional leader, therefore, is meant to give guidance and to identify job direction for employees to follow. Two types of leadership are related to employee motivation − the instructional and the transformational leadership. Instructional leadership is aligned more with the system model of motivation since it is concerned with following rules to the letter in employee management (traditional model). Instructional leadership is autocratic. Decisions are generated at the top and come down to the employees as a directive. This type of leadership may receive resistance from employees thus affect organisational performance. For some employees, rules, policies, and directives are the hallmark of an organization to meet its mandate; they may carry out their tasks without any question. Transformational leadership, on the contrary, is associated with the process theory of motivation. This is concerned more with the contemporary view of motivation in which democracy plays a pivotal role when dealing with employees, hence the democratic leadership style. Furthermore, transformational leadership also refers to charismatic leaders who would provide intellectual motivation and individualistic consideration (Bass, 1985). Bass & Avolio (2004) further indicate that a transformational leader may inspire employees to exceed their expected performance by enforcing, communicating, or leading them willingly to carry out organisational objectives. Both the instructional and transformational leadership do not fully address how they impact on the individual (personal vision). This study should, thus, add to existing literature in addressing how leadership impacts the personal view of organisational performance.

Experience has shown that employees are motivated through leadership that helps them achieve the work correctly. In order to achieve organisational goals, the leader ought to engender trust in him or her by employees. Trust creates an invisible bond between people at the workplace, between administrator and employee, colleagues, and friends. If there is a culture of distrust, this could lead the organisation to underachieve (Oweyele, 2017). However, in order for them to complete their tasks well, employees ought to be motivated on organisational performance (Dobre, 2013). Moreover, the leaders and employees help one another to attain high levels of morality and motivation. Therefore, trust is an important factor for an organisation that wants to be successful. Trust enhances employees' motivation and fosters interpersonal communication (Dobre, 2013). Good communication between the administrator and the workforce can inspire motivation, as the degree of ambiguity decreases. The kind of leadership employed must take care of both the system and process of leadership described above. Today's employee (current view) requires proper direction to perform organisational tasks. The leadership must be able to win their employees' hearts to contribute to organisational performance and achievement. Employees will believe that they are part of the organisation if they are trusted, and given a clearly defined task to perform with minimal interference from the leader. In this way employees are motivated and may work towards the achievement of organisational goals. Modern leadership involves building trust between employees and administrators as well as ensuring that everyone in an organisation shares a common vision of its goals. Modern leadership requires employees to adhere to principles of honesty and integrity in their own behaviour (Wang Shiqian, 2018). However, trust may not be important to professional leaders who could be more concerned about employees following prescribed rules for everyone than being trusted by people. Their organisations may also achieve what they need. This study, therefore, seeks to establish why motivation models either influence or do not influence employees in particular ways in organisational performance.

4.3.4 Joint decision-making

Still related to leadership, autocratic or authoritarian rules apply when all decision-making is generated only from top administration; employees are simply given orders to follow. Accomplishing different tasks may be detrimental to organisational growth because employees may be demotivated. The work environment may result in employees suppressing innovativeness and lack of motivation that has a directly negative effect on organisational performance, growth, and effectiveness. Dobre

(2013) alludes to autocratic leadership and top-down decision-making creating a rigid work environment in which employees are merely given orders on how to achieve tasks. This may stifle innovation, and motivation may decrease. However, employee involvement increases commitment with employees less resistant to change. Literature has it that a motivated employee is actually a productive employee. Therefore, employee participation is important. Employees must believe that they are contributing to the decision-making processes of policies, objectives, and strategies of the organisation. Employees then feel motivated and part of the organisation (Dobre, 2013). Administrators, ought therefore to involve employees in decision-making so that they (employees) have ownership of the organisational goals, and can work towards the achievement of these goals. In this way employees work towards organisational performance, growth, and effectiveness.

4.3.5 Employee recognition

Rewards and recognition are essential constructs in enhancing employee motivation to achieve organisational performance (Kamalian, Yaghoubi & Moloudi, 2010) Taking time to recognise employees may influence them to do more than they would normally do. Recognition may be in the form of written or verbal appreciation of an employee's achievements, skills, or overall performance. Recognition may be considered people-centred. Those who believe that their inner drive has been recognised in the workplace are likely to be more effective and to contribute towards the achievement of the organisation. Maslow's hierarchy of needs model proclaims that once the sense of achievement is attained, the next level of self-actualisation is eagerly sought. Such thinking accords with the system model of motivation. The process model of motivation in recognition of employees is addressed when an employee notes that their efforts have been acknowledged. Manzoor (2012) asserts that recognition correlates significantly with employee motivation. Manzoor further states that job satisfaction is directly associated with internal work motivation of employees. Such motivation escalates concomitantly with satisfaction of employees. Lack of appropriate recognition and reward is likely to reduce work motivation to enhance organisational performance. Administrators of organisations ought to have a rewards and recognition policy so that employees' motivational levels are satisfied. When an employee is recognised, they often want to increase their performance, leading to organisational achievement. This study may reveal how recognition affects employees' self-esteem in the workplace.

4.3.6 Empowerment of employees

Empowerment, according to literature, is defined as an approach to leadership that gives employees power as a main constituent of administrative and organisational effectiveness (Manzoor, 2012). Literature further reveals that empowerment permits employees to formulate decisions (Clutterbuck & Kernaghan, 1994; Sibson, 1994; Amin, 2010). Empowering is giving authority to and liberating the potential of employees. The main driving force of empowerment is having larger control of employees over "how" jobs are carried out in the organisation, to allow for more growth and productivity (Oweyele, 2017). Empowerment may be achieved in many ways, such as on-the-job training, workshops for employees, continuous professional development courses and seminars offered to employees, etc. In this way, employees grow and may then support the organisation to perform better. This suggests that the employee may be motivated when afforded a chance to grow professionally. Such a scenario accords well with both the system and process models of motivation. While there is self-actualisation through professional growth of the employee, staff members may also feel empowered and become motivated. They may therefore want to contribute more towards the performance of the organisation. The distribution of power and control enhances organisational effectiveness, efficiency, and innovation, while also boosting employee work motivation on organisational performance (Oweyele, 2017).

Furthermore, empowering employees makes them believe that they are appreciated. It is therefore important to give continuous and positive feedback on the performance of employees, keeping them motivated in the workplace. Employee contribution and their participation in decision-making in the organisation are important aspects of their work situation. Their participation in administration and decision-making associated with policies, objectives, and strategies of the organisation, are essential tools for employee motivation and organisational effectiveness. Empowerment creates motivation in employees to do their work efficiently and effectively. Employees become dedicated and trustworthy members of the organisation, and their level of motivation is increased. Some employees, even after they have been empowered may leave the organisation for greener pastures. However, other employees may feel an obligation to remain in the same organisation, thus may be retained.

The summary of constructs enhancing employees' motivation as illustrated by Manzoor (2012) is given in a model as shown below.

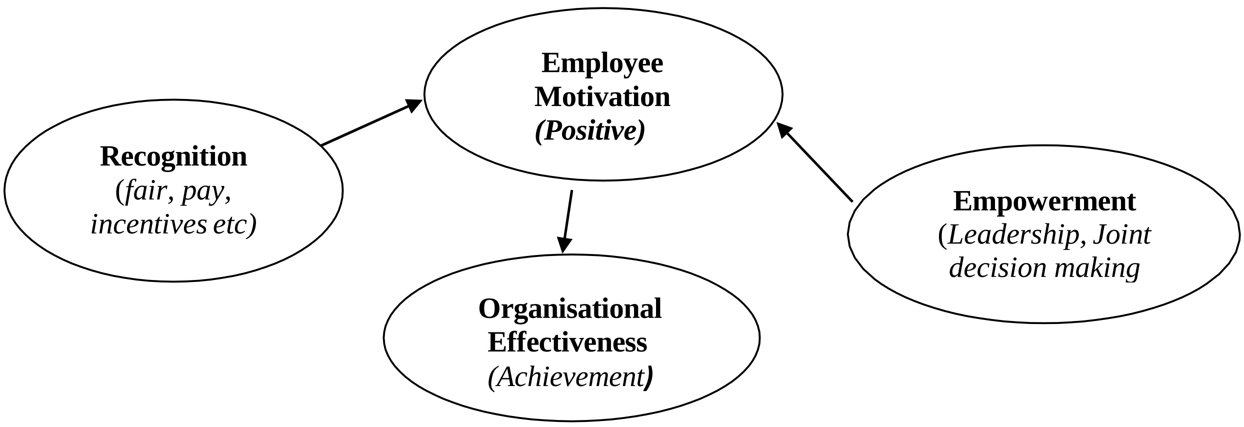


Figure 4.2 Constructs enhancing employee motivation (Manzoor, 2012).

While Manzoor includes all factors of employee motivation in the model above, it tends to fall short in that the reverse may also be true. That the organisation has achieved well can alone be a motivating factor to employees who may want to continue to be recognized and empowered to excel all the time. This may have a positive impact on the performance of the organisation. The model has tended to lay more emphasis on the process model of motivation. Arrows should be pointing either direction, and in that way addressing the content model. There will be better performance of employees when motivated to work for the benefit of the organisation.

A (3 Ps) model that summarises the various factors of motivation may address the sense of achievement of people (process), and the precision or object (system) models. Where they meet they may motivate the self (personal or individual). This model takes cognisance of the traditional model, the contemporary views, and the current issues of motivation, as discussed earlier, being addressed by the various constructs.

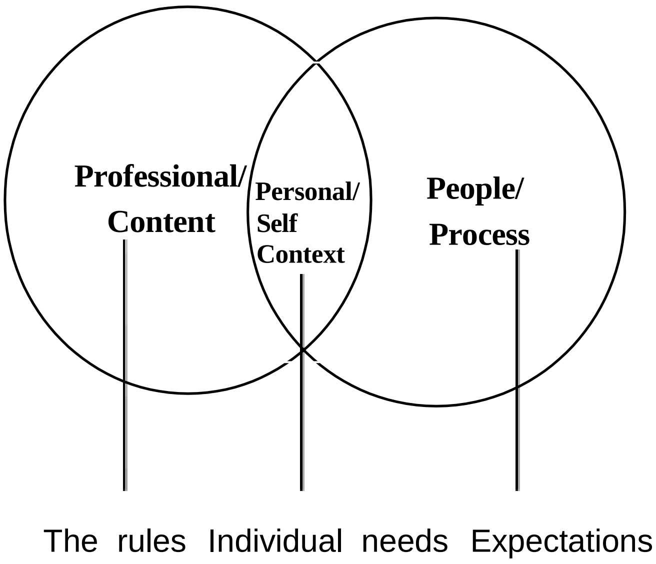


Figure 4.3 The 3 Ps (professional, personal and people) model.

The model above suggests that administrators should manage to balance the system or professional, and process or people-centred vision, to address the personal context of the individual for positive organisational performance.

4.4 Theoretical Framework

Grant and Osanloo (2014) stipulate that a theoretical framework is the basis on which research knowledge is created. It helps in supporting the findings from the related review of literature, and findings generated from the actual study. Sunday (2016) adds that theoretical frameworks shape how researchers perceive and understand social phenomena. This suggests that a theoretical framework informs the way in which one understands a particular topic; this understanding further guides research decisions. Lysaght (2011) posits that the choice of a theoretical framework reflects a researcher's personal beliefs and understanding of a particular topic. Using a theoretical framework in a study provides a guiding lens on a specific worldview (Labaree, 2009). Sunday (2016) further stresses that a theoretical framework can aid in generating new research derived from a researcher's personal findings and interpretations. From Lysaght (2011) and Sunday (2016), understanding a theoretical framework can reflect a personalisation experience in that it projects a researcher's lens through which to view issues. Sunday (2016) further argues that theoretical frameworks are not fixed substantiation. Rather, they are open to additional developments and revisions thus providing more comprehensive explanations for social phenomena. Researchers can extend theories and contribute to the existing body of knowledge on a particular theory.

Grant and Osanloo (2014) also stipulate that the vision and the structure of a study are only clear when it is guided by a particular theoretical framework, frameworks providing philosophical support for the entire study. In the above analysis of studies, Govender and Khoza (2017); Khoza (2016); Grant and Osanloo (2014); Labree (2009); Lysaght (2011); and Sunday (2016) have indicated that a theoretical framework can be used to promote three experiences (professional, social and personal). Such provides a holistic view of a phenomenon from a researcher's perspective. In this research, administrators ought to be aware of the professional and social models of motivation that inform the personal or individual needs.

My theoretical framework was thus influenced by two categories of models of motivation, the system model and the process model. The understanding of these motivation models helped me to analyse the sources of motivation that drive individual employees to perform and become productive in the workplace. Higher employee motivation has been linked with higher performance. Administrators, therefore, ought to motivate their employees to perform better in the workplace. Kitiya and Mukuru (2013) highlight that employee performance in institutions results in a motivated workforce that aims for higher productivity, quality, quantity, commitment, and drive. People are driven by many factors − their passion for the job, their need for money or financial security, or for the sake of recognition. However, since people have different needs, their motivation levels are also driven by different factors.

4.4.1 System models

System models focus on "what" motivates individuals while process models focus on "how" human behaviour is motivated. As stated earlier, system models are the earliest models of motivation. Within the work environment these system models have had a great impact on administrative practice and policy frameworks, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. System models are also referred to as <u>needs</u> models: they try to identify <u>what</u> employees' needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of those needs. The system models, however, may fail to entirely explain "what" either motivates or demotivates employees.

The models focus on those factors that sustain and motivate employees on organisational performance. Some of the best-known proponents for system models are Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg, and McClelland. These models have been helpful in understanding motivation; however, they still need to be fully verified through research. The system models mainly imply that individuals are unique and may have unique sources of motivation. It would thus be useful for administrators to understand the sources of motivation for each individual employee. The basis for a system model, in real-life terms, is that absence of motivating factors may create tension. Such tension is likely to trigger negative behavioural performance that may stifle organisational growth. Therefore, the system or professional aspect of motivation requires appropriate skills through training, acquisition of the rules of the game, and resources which would be tools of the trade. When employees have all that they need to perform a task they may feel motivated and may improve their organisational performance.

4.4.2 Process models

Process models are concerned with processes of "how" employees may be motivated in the workplace. The process models, therefore, explore "how" behaviour may be caused, sustained or stopped by the various motivational factors. There are four predominant process models that include reinforcement, expectancy, equity, and goal-setting. The process models mainly imply that individual choices are based on preferences, reward factors, and a sense of accomplishment. The administrators, thus, should understand the process of motivating employees. The reinforcement model is connected with the works of Skinner, with the assumption that consequences are referred to as operands (hence the term operant conditioning) that affect individual behaviour. The expectancy model focusses on the likelihood of an expected outcome. However, in the case of the equity model, employees compare their efforts and rewards with those of other employees under the same conditions. The goal-setting model reflects that goals have to be more specific to drive performance. Vague goals may fail to motivate employees, unlike specific goals. To meet the societal or people goals, employees may feel motivated if they feel appreciated in the work place. Some employees may be motivated when they feel recognised through fair pay and incentivised to meet their physiological needs. Employees may also improve their performance whereby they set goals that may drive them to achieve the organisational goals.

4.4.3 Personal or individual needs

The system or professional and process or societal models do not fully address the personal or individual needs of employees. A personal or individual needs model seeks to address "who" the individual is who needs to be motivated. Motivation, however, does not end with identifying the motivated person. This study, thus, further seeks to address 'why' motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance. The study combines the 'what' (system or professional) and 'how' (process or societal) models to address the 'who' and 'why' (personal or individual) needs of motivation models, employees varying in their needs. Some individuals are not motivated by the system or professional models or process or societal models because, according to Khoza (2019), they are self-actualised, in other words, they know what motivates them. Instead of doing what one is supposed to do, one asks why one does it, who benefits from it, and how can it connect with the person's original thought (Said, 1996). This study applies Pinar's 'Currere' Model. The author posits that self-actualised individuals reflect on the past and the present to understand the future, a unique way of understanding real-life situations (Pinar, 1995). Some employees in the workplace are motivated by self-identity, interrogating what they do at the workplace. Administrators may not be aware of these individuals, or may ignore them or thwart their efforts; yet these individuals may transform the institution.

4.5 'Currere' Model

Pinar describes the model of 'currere' (which means 'to run the course') as consisting of four moments that depict reflective moments in the study of educational experience. Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery and Taubman (1995) refer to these as the regressive, the progressive, the analytical, and the synthetical moments. The regressive moment expresses that one's lived experiences become the data source. This suggests that for one to generate data, one utilises the psychoanalytic technique of free association to recall the past, thus transforming one's memory. Therefore, regression requires one to return to the past, to recapture it as it was and as it hovers over the present (Pinar et al., 1995). Meanwhile, in the progressive moment one looks toward what is not yet present, what is not yet the case, imagining possible futures. The analytical moment involves distancing oneself from the past and asking how the future is present in the past, the past in the future, and the present in both (Pinar et al., 1995). Finally, the synthetical moment brings it all together as one re-enters the lived present and interrogates its meaning. Pinar (2010) posits that the consequence of Currere is an intensified subjective engagement with the world. The Currere model thus involves looking at relationships between academic (system/professional) experiences, life histories (process/social/societal) and identity (personal) construction. This study employs the 'Currere' model to understand why employee motivation models operate in particular ways on organizational performance in teacher-education colleges. Understanding individuals who utilize the four moments of reflection is important for administrators; these individuals, through their reflection, may promote growth and transformation of the organization in many ways.

4.5.1 Collaborative approach

Literature has it that the process of transformation that Currere describes develops a collaborative approach in the workplace, in which information or skills are shared with others, helping individuals to understand their identity (uniqueness) (Pinar et al., 1995; Stenberg, 2005; McWilliams, 1995). This notion fulfils Pinar's idea of the 'regressive' and the 'progressive' data. Currere implies that employees gain the capacity of voice as individuals within the workplace either for or against the system. These individuals are motivated if they participate and are heard by their colleagues, including administration. The voice can be used to implement transformative change in the workplace. This may help colleagues to find their voice; however, this voice may not be easily supported by the system of bureaucratisation and standardisation (Connelly & Cladinin, 1990).

4.5.2 Personal practical knowledge (pragmatism)

Currere also has the potential to make the employees understand that their everyday work is guided by their personal practical knowledge. This personal practical knowledge is the combination of theoretical (system/professional) and practical (process/societal) knowledge found in their lived experience (Pinar et al., 1995). When they understand that knowledge, employees may feel empowered to make transformational change in the workplace rather than simply adjusting to what is dictated to them. Currere also provides a connection of public and private spaces of employees. This allows employees to understand their identity in a holistic manner (Grumet, 1988b). The philosophical practical approach (pragmatism) to solving problems and affairs was formulated by the American philosopher, Charles Sanders Pierce, psychologist Williams James, and several other authors (Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2014a; Pansiri, 2005; Ormerod, 2006). The philosophical movement of pragmatism began as a consequence of the fundamental agreement of these scholars over the traditional assumptions about the nature of reality, knowledge, and inquiry (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Pragmatism is the practical and philosophical position of solving or addressing problems practically in the real world (Biesta, 2010). This philosophical pragmatic approach in this study, brings together the system model and process model to understand the personal practical knowledge (personal needs model).

4.5.3 Complete motivation (self-actualisation)

Maslow conducted a qualitative biographical analysis in which he studied eighteen people he considered self-actualised (including Abraham Lincoln, Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, William James, Albert Schweitzer, Jane Addams, Thomas Jefferson and others) (Maslow, 1970). Self-actualisation is achieved when one moves from the personal needs, which are the foundation of who one is, to reaching their full potential, where people would be working to meet more pressing needs (Cherry, 2019). Abraham Maslow (psychologist) outlines what is known as a hierarchy of needs, representing all the various needs that motivate human behaviour. The hierarchy is often presented as a pyramid, with the lowest levels representing basic needs. The more complex needs are located at the top of the pyramid, the peak of this hierarchy being self-actualisation. The hierarchy suggests that when the needs at the base of the pyramid have been met, one can then focus attention on the highest need of self-actualisation that describes who people really are and why they behave in any particular way that manifests in the eyes of others. Such behaviours are found in the workplace. Administrators ought to pay attention to unique behaviours that can transform the organisation.

Maslow (1970) identified fifteen characteristics of self-actualised individuals, some of which are objectivity, spontaneity, and creativity. Self-actualised individuals are well-experienced, self-accepting and democratic, realistic, autonomous, enjoying solitude and privacy, having a thoughtful sense of humour, enjoying a journey toward achieving a goal, and problem-centred. The list of characteristics outlined may or may not exist for every self-actualised person. For instance, one can be self-actualised without being humorous, if a number of other positive characteristics are found relating to one’s work environment. Maslow’s biographical analysis could, however, be criticised from a scientific perspective. It was biased in that he limited his sample to highly educated white males. He included only a few white females in his study, thus the validity of his findings remains questionable, and thus his findings cannot be generalisable. Maslow did not include low-class society members of different ethnicity, who may also be self-actualised, albeit differently. This research suggests further studies to include autobiographies of a sample of people of other races and different social classes. Understanding could be shown of how they are or were self-actualised. Nelson Mandela in South Africa, Robert Gabriel Mugabe in Zimbabwe, Julias Nyerere in Tanzania, Oprah Winfrey, Joyce Meyer, Mother Theresa, Margaret Thatcher, Chinua Achebe, Michael Jackson, and many others. Maslow’s study, however, gives a useful framework that can be used in this study that involves employees in the workplace and provides a premise on which to investigate employee motivation models on organizational performance.

4.6 The Overall Role of the Administrator

The discussion above shows that both system and process models of motivation provide a framework on which to understand motivation models and their applications in the workplace. The personal needs, however, are not explicitly addressed; hence this study attempts to address that ‘gap’ and to add onto existing literature. Administrators of both private and public institutions, thus, must make employees “want to do the job” that is, to “motivate” them. Administrators ought to acquire knowledge and skill of the concept of motivation models and organisational performance (Turabik & Baskan, 2015). Administrators would then be able to place increasing attention on human-resource management to maintain and motivate their employees. Administrators must find appropriate methods of motivating employees even in the educational organisations that have an important role in national development. Motivation of employees within an organisation helps provide quality and efficient operation for the respective organisations. In this regard, entire education administrators from the minister of education to the principals have an important role to play in motivating employees. They are expected to recognise various aspects of the employees in educational organisations, to identify their needs and to determine how they can motivate them sufficiently to improve their performance. The motivation, in turn, is likely to increase the employee’s efficiency towards the education and quality of the students who would ultimately contribute to the development of the country (Turabik & Baskan). In this way motivation can be considered an advantage at a macro level.

4.7 Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter embodied literature that provided in-depth understanding of the personal-needs model of motivation on organisational performance. Furthermore, the chapter has presented the personal or individual needs model which is driving the Currere model. Therefore, this chapter shows the personal needs factors that describe the Currere model as regression, progression, analytical, and synthetical. These factors develop a collaborative approach, personal practical knowledge, and self-actualisation (complete motivation). In essence, the literature exhibits that the personal needs model factors are in line with pragmatism and capable of bringing balance between the system model (professional) and process model (societal). The above suggests that the system, process, and personal model theoretical framework is firmly recognised by this study. It is the most appropriate frame to ensure complete motivation practices on organisational performance in both public and private teacher-educator institutions in Zimbabwe and globally. As a result, Figure 4:4 below delineates the Currere model of motivation framework.

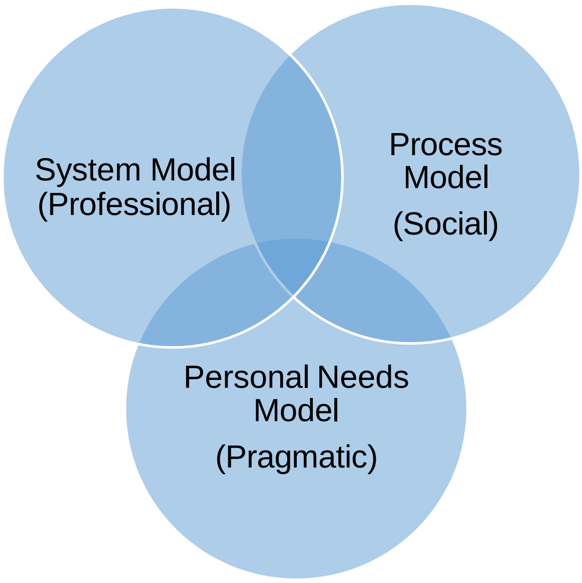


Figure 4.4 Currere model of motivation framework.

Figure 4.4 above defines the Currere motivation model as attained through the intervention of the system (professional), process (social) and personal needs (pragmatic) models. Therefore, the literature provided solid evidence that the Currere model theoretical framework is optimal for the analysis of data. In other words, system, process and personal needs models may inform motivation models on organisational performance in primary teacher-education institutions in Zimbabwe as a way of addressing the needs of individuals. This indicates that employee's personal needs are dominated by internalised principles stored and produced by the conscious mind (from either professional or social factors). Such are accepted as beliefs and thus retrieved from the subconscious mind. The "who" and "why" questions have been most prevalent as they help employees find their identities, thereafter self-actualising (Khoza & Biyela, 2019; Schwab, 2017). The conscious mind drives the system model, which employees adopt and accept as their belief. When the use of prescribed rules, regulations, and policies is mandatory, they have to be followed. Employees, however, ought to be given room to socialise with colleagues and administrators in the workplace. Additionally, administrators need further training to gain competence on using motivation models in the workplace. In this regard, administrators may adhere to set policies and procedures in order to motivate employees in organisations. Thus it is the administrator's duty to identify and combine the strengths of both the system and process models, applying such to unique persons whose individual needs must be catered for.

In addition to the above, the system, process, and personal needs framework may bring in-depth discernment on “what” (system models) policies or prescribed rules employees employ during their performance of duty. The framework may subsequently denote “how” (process models) employees integrate social experience in the workplace. Above all, this framework may bring better understanding of “who” and “why” employees behave in particular ways. In other words, the “why” may be the result of internalisation, externalisation, conscious or subconscious mind, culture and historical background? The subsequent chapter unpacks and describes the pragmatic research design as well as the methodology employed to produce data that may answer the what, how, and why questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

UNPACKING THE METHODOLOGICAL REALITIES OF THE STUDY (MOTIVATION MODELS)

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter extensively discussed the personal vision of employee motivation on organisational performance, as well as the theoretical framework that is employed by this study. The Currere model is used as a lens to explore the use of motivation models in organisational performance. The theoretical findings and concepts from the Currere model are used to produce a new analytical framework for data analysis of the present study. The analytical framework is formed by selecting concepts from the Currere model to yield a new philosophical lens through which to explore employee motivation models on organisational performance. This chapter discusses the pragmatic paradigm, the mixed methods research design, purposive with convenience sampling, the instruments used in this study (open-ended questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journal, semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions), data analysis (guided analysis), validity and issues of trustworthiness, research ethics, and limitations of the study. Lastly, the chapter is concluded.

5.2 Pragmatic Paradigm

The term ‘paradigm’ is used in social research to refer to the philosophical assumptions or the basic beliefs that guide actions and define the worldview of the researcher (Lincoln et al., 2011; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2016). A worldview (paradigm), is described as a way of thinking and making sense of the real world complex situations (Patton, 2002). Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) explain that a research paradigm is a lens through which the researcher explores the world. Denzin and Lincoln (2008b) further define the concept paradigm as a perspective that indicates where the researcher is coming from in constructing meaning embedded in research findings. Thomas Kuhn (1970) introduced the term paradigm to discuss the shared generalisations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists on the nature of reality and knowledge; and to be able to interpret research data (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rahi, 2017). Research paradigms are essential to research because they provide a philosophical orientation of how a study should be conducted. Davies (2014), states that the choice of a particular paradigm is crucial because it guides researchers in understanding the explored phenomenon, data generation, and interpretation of findings. Research paradigms or worldviews include post-positivism, constructivism, and pragmatism, to mention a few. These paradigms are all philosophical in nature with the following common elements: *axiology,* that spells out beliefs about the role of values and morals in research; *ontology,* the assumptions about the nature of reality; *epistemology*, referring to assumptions on knowledge of the world, how we gain knowledge, the relationship between the knower and the known; *methodology,* the way we can best gain knowledge about the world, and *rhetoric*; the shared understanding of the language used in research (Lincoln et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2018; Gray, 2013; Jackson, 2016; Mpungose, 2018).

Each paradigm has a different perspective on the axiology, ontology, epistemology, methodology, and rhetoric of research. For instance, post-positivism is often associated with quantitative methods and highly formal rhetoric which focusses on precision, generalisability, reliability, and replicability. Post-positivist researchers view inquiry as a series of logically related steps. Knowledge is based on objectivity, standardisation, deductive reasoning, and control within the research process (Creswell, 2013; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Lanham, 2006). Constructivism is mainly associated with the use of qualitative methods and use of informal rhetoric in which the researcher relies as much as possible on the participants' views, and develops subjective meanings of the phenomena. Furthermore, constructivist research is generated from individual perspectives, to delineate broad patterns, and ultimately, to accept broad understandings (Creswell & Clark, 2011). This study has adopted the pragmatist paradigm that aims to bridge the gap between the scientific method and structuralist orientation of older approaches, and the naturalistic methods and freewheeling orientation of newer approaches (Creswell, 2013; and Clerk, 2011). Pragmatism embraces plurality of methods (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019), and therefore combines both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

5.2.1 The history of pragmatism

Pragmatism (a philosophical movement) originated in the 19th century in the United States. American founding scholars like Charles Sanders Peirce (a philosopher), William James (a psychologist) and many others (academicians and non-academics) rejected the traditional assumptions that social science inquiry can access reality using a unilateral scientific method (Maxcy, 2003). Alise and Teddlie (2010) concur, opining that a mono-paradigm approach is not enough, what is needed is a set of beliefs (worldview) that speaks to the research problem. The pragmatic paradigm, therefore, ushers in a new era of philosophical understanding. Such allows researchers to employ a design and methodologies (plural methods) that would best answer the key research questions of their research studies (Chapufula, 2016; Teddie & Tashakkori, 2009; Kaushik & Walsh).

The word pragmatism originally derives from the Greek word “pragma” which means action, and which is the central concept of pragmatism (Pansiri, 2005; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Pragmatist philosophy is of the view that human actions are a result of past experiences and beliefs that have originated from those experiences (BIliesta, 2010). Therefore, human thoughts are intrinsically linked to action. This suggests that people use the results of their actions to predict the consequences of similar actions in the future. Pragmatists also believe that reality changes at every turn of events and, therefore is not static. Similarly, the world is not static; it is also changing through actions, and thus is in a constant state of becoming. In other words, action is the way to change existence. As a result of this worldview, researchers who make use of the pragmatic paradigm usually employ mixed methods to find and understand personalised meaning in participants’ experiences (Biesta, 2010a; Brierly, 2017; Denzin, 2010; Feilzer, 2010). Actions are, therefore, pivotal to pragmatism (Goldkuhl, 2012; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2014a).

5.2.2 Characteristics of pragmatism

Morgan (2014a) emphasises that pragmatism focusses on the nature of one’s life experiences, actions not able to be separated from the situations and contexts in which they occur. This is a world of unique human experiences in which instead of universal truths, there are warranted beliefs, which take shape as we repeatedly take actions in similar situations, experiencing the outcomes. Morgan (2014a) further opines that what people believe in is a result of the repeated experiences that predict the outcomes. Furthermore, actions are linked to consequences in ways that are open to change: if the action changes, the consequences also change, despite the actions being the same. Pragmatist philosophy maintains that it is not possible to experience exactly the same situation twice. Our beliefs about a possible outcome may not be predetermined: our beliefs about how to act in a situation are inherently provisional (Morgan, 2014a). Finally, actions depend on worldviews that are socially shared sets of beliefs. Pragmatists believe that no two people have exactly identical experiences, so their worldviews may not be identical. However, there are also varying degrees of shared experiences between any two people that lead to different degrees of shared beliefs. The likelihood of acting in the same way in a similar situation and assigning similar meanings to the consequences of those actions depends on the extent of shared belief about that particular situation. Therefore, worldviews can be both individually unique and socially shared (Morgan, 2014a).

5.2.3 Strengths of pragmatic paradigm as a research paradigm

Pragmatists believe that there is an objective reality that exists apart from human experience. However, this reality is grounded in the environment and can only be encountered through human experience (Morgan, 2014a; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2008). Pragmatists believe that knowledge and reality are based on beliefs and habits socially constructed, that all knowledge in this world is socially constructed; however, some versions of those social constructions match individuals' experiences more than others (Morgan, 2014a). Pragmatists argue that reality cannot be determined once and for all: as a normative concept, it is determined by what works at a particular moment (Pansiri, 2005). For pragmatists, reality is true as far as it helps us to get into satisfactory relations with other parts of our experiences (James, 2000). However, pragmatism does not simply mean that if it works then it is true (Boisvert, 1998). Its meaning is inseparable from human experience and needs, and is dependent upon context (Dillon et al., 2000). Pragmatists accept that people are free to believe anything that they want, although some beliefs are more likely than others to meet our goals and needs (Morgan, 2014a). Biesta (2010) reminds us not merely to understand pragmatism as a philosophical position but rather as a set of philosophical tools of value for addressing challenges. Pragmatism orients itself toward solving practical challenges in the real world. It has emerged as a method of inquiry for more practicalminded researchers (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Maxcy, 2003, Rorty, 2000). For pragmatists an inquiry is effective only if it achieves its purpose (Hothersall, 2019).

This study is, therefore, aligned with three models. For instance, research is systematic in approach, following a system to obtain facts about employee motivation models (phenomenon). The evidence is objectively produced by participants' data (Mpungose & Khoza, 2017). Further to this, research in this study is a process (social). Data produced will include everyday knowledge and the evidence subjectively produced by employees' opinions (Khoza, 2017). Moreover, research is personal: it focusses on providing extensive comprehension regarding the researcher's personal clarification of the results (Mpungose & Khoza, 2017). In order to discern employee motivation models on organisational performance, research addresses logical procedure (system), data production (process) and interpretation and data analysis (personal) Devos, Strydom, Fousche and Delport (2011; 2014); Creswell and Poth, (2017). Cohen et al. (2013) and others affirm that, in any research, paradigms play a vital role; however, whatever paradigm you chose to adopt for your study will always be challenged.

5.2.4 Limitations of pragmatic paradigm

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2002) argue that the pragmatic paradigm is a confusing paradigm that mixes methods and does not have total agreement upon the level of employing methodologies from either a qualitative or quantitative approach. Burrel and Morgan, (2019); Guba and Lincoln, (1988); Denzin, (2010), in addition, concur that mixing paradigms should not be entertained in research: such is outstandingly inappropriate and may foster confusion. Contrary to this, Patton (2002) avers that the pragmatic paradigm is useful because it recognises participants' realities, thus seeks sensible and creative ways of exploring these realities. To overcome the "confusion" that may occur as a result of using the pragmatic paradigm, methodologies used and approaches to be followed ought to be explained in detail, substantiating reasons for using the methods chosen in relation to the research.

5.2.5 Why pragmatic paradigm for this study

The pragmatic paradigm helps to address the contestation between professionalisation and socialisation. This paradigm, therefore, is the most relevant for this study. It aims to bridge the gap between quantitative (professional or system) and qualitative (social or process) research. This study, by using the pragmatic paradigm, aligns with the personalisation experience, providing a neutral platform consisting of either quantitative or qualitative approaches. The pragmatic paradigm also accommodates participants' individual needs. This paradigm draws from either professionalisation or socialisation experience on personal needs for motivation on organisational performance. Based on the above literature, this study, thus, employs the mixed methods research **(MMR)** approach.

5.3 Mixed Methods Research (MMR) Approach

This section first defines research, and later justifies why the mixed methods research approach was used for this study.

5.3.1 Defining research

First, research includes formal systematic steps to be followed in the information-seeking process in order to find facts or truths about the phenomenon being studied (in this case employee motivation models on organisational performance) (Mpungose, 2017; Christiansen et al., 2010; Creswell, 2012). This definition takes a formal (system) model of enquiry, dependent on scholarly knowledge and not on everyday knowledge (Christiansen et al., 2010; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017). Second, research is based on generating evidence from various sources such as participants in the study, in order to construct facts. This part of the research definition is influenced by the informal (process) model because evidence is subjectively constructed based on opinions of other people (Khoza, 2017). Last, the third part of the definition dwells much on the personal model, in which research is based on providing more insight in conjunction with personal interpretation of findings by the researcher (Creswell, 2012; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017). Research involves a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information with a view to increasing understanding on a phenomenon one is interested in knowing more about (Ramrathan, 2017). Research thus addresses issues of a system, a process as well as personal model in order to understand the phenomenon (employee motivation models on organisational performance). Research comprises research approach and methodology (Cohen et al., 2013).

Research is conducted in order to understand the challenges faced by human beings in their own social context, hence research requires formal procedures to be administered (Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2013; Creswell, 2014; McNiff, 2013; Ramrathan, 2017). Research design is a structural process of research preliminary to research methodology (Mpungose, 2017). Research design thus takes the direction of a system in the context of this study. It takes the formal approach to understanding the phenomenon of the study. Research methodology, conversely, propagates a process since it is informed by data generation from participants' ideas and opinions. While literature uses different terminology to refer to research design, such as research approach, research plan, and others, this study uses the term research approach to refer to research design (Mpungose, 2017; Ramrathan, 2017). Research design addresses the end product of research. Research methodology focusses on the process of achieving research objectives, including instruments and methods to be used (Cohen et al., 2013). Research methodology is mostly dominated by the process in advocating for collaborative sources of data in order to address the research phenomenon, in this case, employee motivation models.

5.3.2 Why mixed methods research approach?

Mixed methods research is a current research approach that merges the two main approaches (quantitative and qualitative approach), by considering both the objectivity and the subjectivity of the research (Mpungose, 2017). This suggests that quantitative is more scientific, and is mostly driven by system, whereas qualitative is more societal, and is addressing the process. The qualitative approach is dependent on experiences of social human being in their own social context (Mpungose, 2017). On the contrary, the mixed methods approach addresses personal needs. The personal identity is focussed on in order to understand the phenomenon being studied from the system and process world of research (quantitative and qualitative) (Mpungose, 2017). In the context of this study, the mixed methods approach seems the most suitable research approach to offer understanding on employee motivation models on organisational performance in teacher education.

Research methodology refers to ways in which research is conducted; this includes generating data, organising, and analysing all information Mamabolo & Jjallinks (2010). Mohajan (2018) declares in support that research methodology indicates the researchers' strategies and techniques used to address the objectives and research questions of the study. Research methodology should include all methods and analysis techniques that describe how research was executed in a logical way to answer the key research questions. Leedy and Omrady (2014) view research methodology as the plan of procedures for collecting and analysing data intended to evaluate a particular theoretical framework. The above researchers further argue that an effective research approach is systematically and objectively designed towards generating new knowledge. This study, therefore, reveals that there are three distinct approaches to conducting research, namely, the quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. While the quantitative and quantitative approaches are regarded as the most dominating methods, the supporters of a pragmatic paradigm believe that a mixed methods approach helps the researcher to obtain true knowledge (Almalki, 2016; Rahi, 2017).

On one hand, quantitative approach is a scientific method which is grounded on a positivist paradigm (Rahi, 2017). Quantitative research studies aim to produce valid and replicable findings that add to knowledge and understanding in ways that improve respondents' outcomes (Abulela & Harwell, 2019). Rahi (2017) further states that the quantitative strategy works on objectives that help the researcher to describe data in numbers (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Therefore, a quantitative method is concerned with attempts to quantify social phenomenon, collecting and analysing numerical data (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Quantitative data may be utilised to support and expand qualitative data, effectively enriching the description of the phenomenon (Mackenzi & Knipe, 2006). Quantitative researchers consider the quantitative research approach to be of primary importance in stating one's hypotheses, thereafter testing hypotheses with empirical data to see whether they are reported (Antwi & Hamza). In the quantitative research approach the researcher examines significance, which allows the researcher to gain a level of confidence in the results of the study (Jamilakhon, Singh, Subramaniam & Suppramaniam, 2020). These results are obtained by subdividing the data into smaller, manageable pieces, for the purposes of the study, so that this information can be understood (Almalki, 2016). It is within these smaller subdivisions that hypotheses can be tested and duplicated with regard to relationships among variables (Almalki, 2016). Moreover, quantitative researchers attempt to ignore factors that are not being investigated (Antwi & Hamza).

On the other hand, a qualitative approach is used to find the meaning of the phenomenon from the viewpoint of the research (Creswell, 2013). According to Hakim

(2000), a qualitative approach is used for examining studies leading into more organised studies. Such is used to generate in-depth details from participants on a particular phenomenon. Therefore, this study also employed as part of the MMR, a qualitative approach in exploring employee motivation models on organisational performance, and to conduct a more organised study. In addition, a qualitative approach is usually related to specific data, such as words, verbal or non-verbal expressions, rather than numbers (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). As a result, more than one data-generation technique was used in MMR to help analyse data using both numerical and non-numerical procedures to answer the study research questions (Ruvimbo, 2014).

5.3.3 Strengths of MMR approach

Literature defines the **MMR** approach as one that combines the qualitative and quantitative paradigms of generating and gathering data. Despite the numerous differences between qualitative and quantitative research it can still be argued that they do complement each other (Newman, 2003). Guidelines from the British Educational Research Association (BERA) emphasise that there is no one strategy which is always appropriate for every piece of research undertaken (Gorard & Taylor, 2004). Gorard and Taylor further posit that by combining methods in one study the researcher is in a position to confirm and explain, verify, and generate theory, all at the same time. They further argue that data produced in this manner are more informative and, therefore, more useful in enhancing social science research.

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in a complementary way to achieve triangulation. The mixed methods approach requires a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods with the integration of statistical and thematic data, leading to greater depth and breadth of overall outcomes. Such allows researchers to reach more precise conclusions that are likely to be more reliable (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012; Stentz et al., 2012) than when taking a single approach (Molina-Azor in Cameron, 2010). According to Morgan (2014) and Creswell (2015), the use of mixed methods provides deeper understanding of the phenomenon which may be difficult to achieve if only one method is used in isolation. Although breadth of evidence may be achieved with quantitative methods, qualitative methods enabled me to gain deeper insights into individual perspectives (O'Carroll, 2017; Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan & Hoagwood, 2013). Bryman (2004) emphasises that the use of a range of methods produces more accurate and objective results, building greater confidence in the findings. The use of only either quantitative or qualitative research may produce limiting and incomplete findings for many research problems. Mixed methods research integrates both quantitative and qualitative approaches without criticising either one of the approaches. This suggests that a variety of research methods is required to understand the complexity of a phenomenon and its impact on various aspects of society (Mumford, 2011).

5.3.4 Limitations of mixed methods research

While the mixed methods have strengths that are quite convincing, the methodology also has some shortcomings (Hafsa, 2019). For instance, Johnson and Onwegbuzie (2004) aver that, due to shortage of resources, time, knowledge, and skill, adopting mixed methodology can be a daunting task for the researcher. Similarly, Zou, Sunindjio & Dainty (2014) have also identified lack of time, energy and resources as the main limitations of mixed methodology as a research approach. Furthermore, besides the operational issues, the mixed methods research approach has been criticised for its philosophical underpinnings and research-method typologies (Fiorini, Griffiths & Houdmont, 2016).

Despite offsetting the shortcomings of either the qualitative or quantitative research method, MMR has faced the condemnation of mixing two distinct approaches in one research study (Zou, Sunindijo, & Dainty, 2014). First, the epistemological (the theory of knowledge including its method, validity and scope) juxtaposition of two contrasting philosophical positions found in mixed methods research is questioned (Bryman, 2012). For instance, the constructivist school of research commonly aligned with the qualitative research approach believes that reality is socially made by and between the people experiencing it (Hafsa, 2019). In other words, reality is considered subjective and need not be shared by others. Hafsa (2019) further states that, on the contrary, positivism, usually aligned with quantitative research methods, views reality as objective, measurable, and worldwide. This suggests that reality is the same for everyone and can be scientifically traced and quantified the world over (Darlaston-Jones, 2007).

Second, it is argued that qualitative and quantitative approaches are two quite distinct branches of research. For instance, quantitative research embodies an objective role of the researcher, a deductive approach (theory a priori) to test theories, and analyse data, developing a generalisable finding. In contrast, qualitative research proposes a subjective role of the researcher, holds an inductive approach to developing theory, collecting data in a comprehensive way to obtain a subjective, in-depth understanding of a phenomenon (Antwii & Hamza, 2015).

5.3.5 Justification of use of MMR

Pragmatism focusses on philosophy that “works”, and thus utilises both objective and subjective knowledge. Several researchers have mentioned MMR as the most appropriate philosophical approach for mixed methods research (Cameroon, 2009; Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011; Johnson et al., 2007; Morgan, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatism rebuts the criticisms by the methodological conformists that quantitative and qualitative methods belonging to two completely diverse genres cannot be incorporated in the same study (Fiorini, Griffiths & Houdmont, 2016). However, pragmatism considers the advantages and disadvantages of different research methodologies as complementary (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011). The methodologies complement each other by integrating two distinct methods to offset the probable drawbacks of either (Scott, McCone, Sayegh; Looney & Jackson, 2011).

This methodology is a combination of two dominant research approaches and thus has a potential to offset the shortcomings of one single method. Therefore, it offers more validity and reliability to the findings of a research. Today's research world is becoming increasingly interdisciplinary, complex and dynamic; therefore, many researchers need to complement one method with another. All researchers need a solid understanding of multiple methods used by other scholars to facilitate communication, thereby promoting collaboration and providing superior research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

5.3.6 How the mixed methods was used to address the study research questions

The mixed methods research (quantitative and qualitative methods) was used in this study to strengthen the data generated singly from each method, thus providing an array of evidence (Yin, 2014). First, the use of a quantitative method was the key strength related to explaining various aspects. Such enabled the researcher to address the first research question of the study (What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?) − A descriptive question. Second, the qualitative approach of the mixed methods enabled the researcher to address the second research question (How are motivation models used in motivating employees in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?) of the study, an operational question. This question was related to explaining employees' practical experiences of the enablers and barriers to employee motivation models. This qualitative method provided the researcher with the opportunity of gaining deeper insights into the results from the quantitative data (Morgan, 2014). The third research question further employed the qualitative method to gain insight into the philosophical aspect of self-identity of the employees (Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?). In using the mixed methods research, the same rigour was applied to each method (quantitative and qualitative) and their key components, as had they been used alone (Creswell, 2015; O'Carroll, 2017).

5.3.7 Convergent parallel mixed-methods design

Since my research was seeking both system and process models of motivation on organisational performance I used the convergent parallel mixed-methods case-study design. A ***case study*** design was employed to obtain an in-depth understanding of the effect of motivation models on employees for organisational performance in government teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The convergent parallel mixed methods case-study design helped me to generate a more descriptive, holistic, explorative, and contextual data to produce a rich description of the explored phenomenon (Cresswell, 2014). Two sets of data (quantitative and qualitative) were collected concurrently for this study and the two components were independently analysed and results were interpreted together (Cresswell & Pablo-Clark,2011). A case study is described by Cohen et al. (2011) as providing a thick description of participants' experiences, which includes their thoughts and feelings. Ponelis (2015) further contends that the purpose of a case study is to provide a holistic and intensive description and analysis of a case bounded to a specific context to give insight into a real-life situation. A case study aims to answer questions such as 'how' and 'why' to produce in-depth data (Yin, 2017). In addition, Cohen et al. (2007) opine that case studies display a close view of reality and a detailed description of what it is like to be in a particular situation. A convergent parallel mixed-methods case-study design was thus employed to enable the researcher to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance using multiple approaches, and to understand issues related to the context of the study.

Baxter and Jack (2008) also insist that case-study research is useful when seeking to answer real-life phenomena made of complex realities. The cases in a case study are based on participants' personal experiences regarding certain issues (Johnson, 2007). Moreover, Gustafsson (2017) explains that case studies are more appropriate for research that is attempting to gain deeper understanding about the explored phenomena. Understanding participants' personal experiences thus fostering in-depth understanding tallies directly with the intentions of this present study. Case studies can either be descriptive, explanatory, or exploratory, among others (Yin, 2003; 2009; 2017; Leppaaho et al., 2016).

5.3.7.1 Descriptive case study

Descriptive case studies describe real-life phenomena in the context in which it occurs (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Merriam, 1998). Davies (2014) adds that a descriptive case study describes the characteristics of the phenomenon, how the different variables relate, or explaining the relationships between phenomena. Cohen et al. (2007) discuss that descriptive case studies give a thorough account of participants' personal narratives which are obtained in depth. Similarly, Marsella (2018) observes that descriptive case studies reflect participants' detailed involvement with a particular experience. In descriptive case studies, the researcher has to describe the data as it occurs (Zainal, 2007). Avery (2019) further opines that the credibility of the research study is formed by allowing participants to describe their actual thoughts, feelings, and beliefs regarding their experiences of the phenomenon. The researcher, therefore, has to be present in the field to witness participants' experiences unfolding naturally. The researcher can then develop a document that fully illustrates their experiences (Armfield, 2007; Stake, 2005). The researcher in this study could not be present in person due to Covid-19. However, colleagues collected observation data on my behalf. Yin (2011) also postulates that descriptive case studies are useful for research seeking to answer the question 'what' on the explored phenomenon. Descriptive case studies present great detail of the phenomenon within its context. In addition, Sonoda et al. (2017) aver that descriptive case study is used to review the development of policies and regulatory frameworks for professionals, to improve implementation of the same in a system. Based on the above literature, the descriptive case study is, to some extent, relevant for the current study as it attempts to answer the 'what' research question.

5.3.7.2 Explanatory case study

Explanatory case studies seek to understand the 'how' and 'why' of an experience occurring in a particular way (Yin, 2003). Thus Yin (2011) emphasises that explanatory case studies provide in-depth explanations as a means of addressing the 'how' and 'why' questions regarding a specific phenomenon. Hill (2018) comments that explanatory case studies explain how events happen, also revealing those influenced by particular outcomes. For the reasons given above, explanatory case study was, to a reasonable degree, appropriate for the current study: it addresses the how and why research questions. However, Griffin (2017) posits that an explanatory case study is carried out to investigate aspects of an historical event (which this study did not do) relating to participants or organisations. However, in this study, the most appropriate questions on how and why were addressed in order to collect rich in-depth data (Little, 2017). Furthermore, the researcher was able to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of interest (Lane, Tiwari, & Alam, 2016).

5.3.7.3 Exploratory case study

In exploratory case studies, phenomena are explored with an unknown outcome (Baxter & Jack; Yin, 2003). Swedberg (2018) concurs that it is not easy to predict the outcome in exploratory studies because researchers have to generate detailed data from participants' experiences prior to establishing any conclusions. This requires researchers to interrogate the topic deeply by probing for more information from participants in order to generate detailed data (Zainal, 2007). Thus, the focus of exploratory case study is to investigate participants' experiences driven by their personalised perspectives, thoughts and feelings so that new interpretations, theories and conclusions can be made (Swedberg, 2018). Essentially, exploratory case studies are mostly used to frame future research (Yin, 2003). This suggests that researchers utilising exploratory case studies have to generate thick data that they understand in order to be able to produce a theory that can guide future research (Zainal, 2007).

In this study, I used predominantly the exploratory case study over the other case studies. The exploratory case study aimed to explore employee motivation models on organisational performance with the aim of generating in-depth data that fostered an understanding of employee experiences. The study also sought to explore employees' experiences, finding the personalisation experiences which may lead to production of new theories or recommendations for future research. This study, being a doctoral thesis, aims to theorise findings and produce a new theory that may impact on future research. I had an opportunity to reflect on the participants' experiences and to understand the meaning of employee motivation models. There was meaningful interaction between the participants and researcher that was created by a carefully planned case study. This provided a strong supportive platform of examining any doubts concerning understanding of employees' motivation models (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Gray, 2013).

Multiple sources of data generation such as the questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions were used in this study. This process allowed for flexibility in exploring the new aspects of the current research (Davis, 2014). The convergent parallel mixed-methods case study design was thus adopted in this research to offer insights into the nature of employee motivation models in the workplace (Rahi, 2017; Cohen et al., 2011a). I therefore gained a holistic and real-world viewpoint through the participants (Yin, 2014). Case studies, by their nature, require little funding and time investment. I selected a few individuals to become participants in the study. Through the use of observation, interviews, and focus-group discussions I was able to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the subject of employee motivation on organisational performance.

5.3.8 Disadvantages of a case study

A case study design has its limitations. Several authors see it as irregular to social research design (Aczel, 2016). Popil (2011) further states that developing a case study may be difficult and time-consuming. In conducting case studies, there is a risk of lack of objectivity, quantification, representative significance and strength (Aczel, 2016). Furthermore, a case study is perceived as too subjective (Gog, 2016). For that reason, there could be lack of transparency in a case study, which could result in loss of trust of readers in case study findings. Case studies, thus, may lack reliability and validity, which may be inconsistent with other studies (Cohen et al., 2011a). For this reason some investigations have avoided the use of case studies as a research method (Yazan, 2015). Despite all the limitations mentioned above, case studies, however, investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin, 2003). In this research, the case study design had the disadvantage that participants may have felt intimidated by my interrogating them, given my position as their senior; or for many participants knowing me as a principal in a similar institution to theirs. This may have led to dishonest statements of opinion. I encouraged all participants to express their views freely, neither their names nor names of their institutions being revealed.

5.3.9 Overcoming limitations of a case study

Yin (2014) avers that, in order to overcome limitations of conducting a case study, the researcher ought to possess certain skills such as questioning and listening skills (Popil, 2011). These skills have helped me to treat all the participants equally, without interference in the research. I kept my personal views to myself. Yazan (2015) alludes to case study having an advantage of flexibility, in which the researcher may make changes even after proceeding with the research. I therefore used the case study to elucidate employees' understanding and perception of motivation models on organisational performance in three government primary teacher-education colleges McMillan & Schumacher (2014). This shows that the case study is an important means of gaining in-depth understanding of a phenomenon (Tumele, 2016).

In this research, I used a case study because, as a researcher, I had little control over events (Rahi, 2017). This allowed me in the 'new normal' of Covid-19 pandemic and subsequent lockdown, to gain skill and knowledge on ways of accessing participants online throughout my data-gathering processes. I gained more in-depth explanations and descriptions in recording and transcribing data online (Gog, 2016). Peers, informants, and participants authenticated descriptions generated from the case study (Massaro et al., 2019). I allowed the generated data in the case study to speak for itself (Cohen et al., 2011b). I used direct quotations rather than paraphrasing, to address issues of transparency (Massaro, et al., 2019). I therefore undertook the research without distorting the data generated. I used a **survey** in conjunction with the case study. A **survey** collects data in a structured way. I used a questionnaire that helped to gather data from a wider population to augment information generated through the case study. The main disadvantage of the survey is that data gathered may be overgeneralised and not give a true reflection of what is obtaining on the ground. Some respondents may also not consider the questionnaire seriously, thus giving answers that do not reflect a true meaning of the demands of the question. To curb this, the researcher used an open-ended questionnaire that would allow participants to be precise in giving their responses.

5.4 The Process of sampling Participants from the population

Choosing participants for a study is an essential step in any research (Marshal, 1996). Naderifar et al. (2017) aver that sampling of participants is a process by which a researcher chooses the participants of the study. Mpungose (2017) asserts that studying the whole population is challenging and not user friendly − it may present a myriad of challenges. Population is defined as the total number of people or groups or organisations and suchlike that can be included in a study (Mpungose, 2017). Challenges of using the whole population include time frame, financial constraints, and others. The only solution to this challenge in conducting any research is sampling (Babbie, 2010; Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Esau, 2017; Kemmis et al., 2013). The purpose of this study was therefore to sample the appropriate small population easily accessible and knowledgeable on the topic.

In support of the above, Christiansen et al. (2010) aver that sampling involves making decisions about which people, settings, events, or behaviours to observe. The researcher must decide how many individuals or groups or institutions will be studied. Cohen et al. (2010) further assert that it is not only the methodology or data-generation methods that are important, but also the appropriateness of the sampling. Nkohla (2017) posits that it is impossible to collect data from the entire population because of the number of people, animals, places and other items within the population. A sample, therefore, is the sub-group of a population that selects a particular and relevant portion of the population representative of the entire population to be studied. In the context of this study, sampling was taken as the most important process in order to explore employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe.

Sampling is an important step to be considered in any research study − there can be no findings and research results without the relevant sample of participants from a particular field (Kemmis et al., 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011 & Creswell, 2014). Devos et al. (2014) and Creswell (2014) remark that samples studied produce a different and unique account of the phenomenon. The process of selection of the samples from the population should be sequential and purposive and not entirely predetermined. Khoza and Mpungose (2017) further suggest that the researcher should personally decide the kind and the number of participants to be involved in the study. Such would meet the study plan and time frame so that the purpose, objectives, findings, and other aspects of the study would ultimately be attained.

5.4.1 Sampling in mixed methods research

The choice of sampling is guided by the approach (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods) which the study is taking (Cohen et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Esau, 2017; Kemmis et al., 2013). This study, being a convergent parallel mixed-methods research, employed the two main types of sampling in educational research, namely, probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling, also known as random sampling, assists in generalising the findings drawn from the sample to the entire population. It is also known for its neutrality that everyone in the population stands a chance of being selected, irrespective of whether one has the qualities and the potential needed to fulfil the research objectives. There are several examples or types of probability sampling: simple random sampling stratified random sampling, systematic random sampling, cluster sampling, amongst others (Mpungose, 2017; De Vos et al., 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Thus, probability sampling (random sampling) was employed to make strong statistical inferences about the whole group of lecturers. Every member of the group had a chance of being selected to provide the quantitative data whose findings would be representative of the whole.

On the contrary, non-probability sampling was selected in order to provide clear thoughts, practices, as well as behaviours of participants holding certain specific qualities of the study (Mpungose, 2017; Babbie, 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In non-probability sampling, the study does not aim to generalise the findings, but for others in the same context to refer to the findings. The interest is more on the generation of in-depth, rich and thick data from a small sample of the population which can lead to the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Thus, non-probability sampling is influenced by the system, process, and personal exploration of choosing participants holding attributes or experiences relevant to the study, according to the researcher. Non-probability sampling was the best option for selecting samples of lecturers from teacher-education colleges. It entailed identifying and selecting individuals knowledgeable about the phenomenon being studied (employee motivation). The sample selected participants from those members of the population through convenience and purposive sampling. Convenience sampling is cheaper as only those selected would be at easy reach to the researcher. Moreover, non-probability sampling in this study is subject to the small number of samples and this helped to avoid unforeseen circumstances such as biases and errors in the study (Mpungose, 2017; Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2013).

5.4.1.1 The need for purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is used when a specific group is required to participate in a particular research study (Cresswell, 2014). According to Luciani et al. (2019), sampling processes should be purposeful and chosen because they best answer the clearly articulated research questions. In purposive sampling, the researcher uses own judgement to select a group of people who know about the problem (Rahi, 2017). Purposive sampling is also called judgemental sampling because this sampling allows the researcher to use judgement in order to select participants with characteristics, attributes, and features that serve the purpose of the study (the social or process). In purposive sampling the researcher identifies participants considered potentially able to provide significant data for the study. The purposive sampling technique allows fair representation and selection of samples. Participants were thus drawn **purposively** from different departments for the sample.

In the context of this study, the selection of participants deliberately included all categories of staff from each of the sampled government primary teacher-education colleges, the principal, vice principal, heads of departments (academic and human resources), lecturers-in-charge, heads of subject, and lecturer without a special post of responsibility. This was in anticipation that such a sample of participants would provide the necessary variety of information required for the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) also state that purposive sampling should involve identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals specifically knowledgeable on the phenomenon being studied. Because the study was carried out during the lockdown period due to the Covid-19 pandemic, I had to ask my colleagues (principals of sampled institutions) to help me identify lecturers who would be readily available and would answer questions on employee motivation.

Creswell and Poth (2017) posit that purposive sampling explores the basic knowledge, opinions, histories, and experiences of participants. I identified the most important issues that would unpack the phenomenon. I was able to engage lecturers holding various posts of responsibility, vice principals, heads of departments, lecturers-in-charge, heads of subjects, and lecturers without special posts of responsibility. What was common to all was that they were employees at government primary teacher-education colleges. The selected participants were willing to participate and possessed relevant experience thus could articulate and express their opinions on the phenomenon of the study (Etikan et al., 2016). Convenience sampling was also used in this study to select participants.

5.4.1.2 The need for convenience sampling

The study made use of convenience sampling. According to Fourie (2000) convenience sampling is the type of sampling that involves the most accessible or convenient population. Convenience sampling is also referred to as accidental or opportunity sampling. Such involves considering those individuals who are easily reached to participate as respondents in the study, that is, those individuals who happen to be available and accessible at the time of the study (Cohen et al., 2013; Leedy & Naderifar et al., 2017; Ormrod, 2010). Farrokhi and Mahmoudi-Hamidabad (2012) add that convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which participants are selected for easy access to the researcher. Furthermore, this sampling also includes those participants who voluntarily agree to participate in a specific study. This affirms that this sampling relies on available participants (Mpungose, 2017; Babbie, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

In this study, in addition to purposive sampling, I also used convenience sampling as the most suitable method of selecting participants most accessible, and with whom it was easy to conduct data generation. I conveniently selected from each of the three institutions, the vice principal, two heads of departments (academic and human resources), one lecturer-in-charge, one head of subject and one lecturer who did not hold a special post of responsibility in the college. My targeted sample had a total of six participants per college, which made a total of eighteen (18) participants in the study (See Table 5.1 below). Not all of the lecturers were willing to participate in the study despite receiving consent letters requesting them to partake in the study. Even after I contacted them per telephone, they did not show a willingness to participate in the study; this was due either to their busy schedules or to a lack of confidence in the use of online communication. The study therefore, centred on only eleven (11) lecturers as participants. Those who finally participated in the study made convenience sampling affordable, participant-friendly, and easy in exploring employee motivation models on organisational performance.

5.4.1.3 The strengths of sampling (purposive and convenience)

There is no stipulated number of participants to be included in a sample from the population; however, sampling is well informed by the rule of “fitness for purpose” (Cohen et al., 2013). Sampling also saves time and money in attaining outcomes of the study (Mpungose, 2017; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014). This suggests that selecting and using both purposive and convenience sampling is free of charge. In this context, I, as the researcher, did not spend any money on conducting the selection process. I simply sent emails to the heads of institutions who helped me to select participants. I subsequently sent emails consulting potential participants in order to recruit them. This resonates with the social and personal model in that participants were solicited to buy the idea of participating in the study. Therefore, findings as a result of selected participants were not generalised and comparable, but were made available for access by others of the same context of employee motivation models on organisational performance.

5.4.1.4 Overcoming the challenges of sampling (purposive and convenience)

Several studies (Cohen et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Edwards & Skinner, 2010; Leedy & Omrad, 2014; Mpungose, 2017) are of the view that sampling may lack credibility. The researcher may possibly yield poorly generated data. In purposive sampling, for instance, the study may be prone to bias. The researcher is the only one responsible for judging who should be included in the study. The researcher might ignore other people who may possess relevant knowledge on the phenomenon (Budden, 2017). Techniques are, however, used to locate the sample. With the assistance of the heads of the selected institutions, I was able to judge the subjects that were typical and representative of the phenomenon under study. As such, the findings were not generalisable (Lamula, 2017). The purpose of the study was not to generalise the findings, but to generate in-depth information, learning in depth about issues of central importance (Patton, 2015).

Convenience sampling also has its own challenges**,** for instance, inconsistency and bias which cannot be measured or controlled (Achrya et al., 2013); thus this strategy is criticised (Landers & Behrend, 2015). Magwa and Magwa (2015) aver that convenience sampling is likely to be biased as samples are selected because easily accessible to the researcher. Nevertheless, convenience sampling assisted me to overcome many challenges associated with the research (Tuherdoost, 2016). Furthermore, convenience sampling does not seek to generalise beyond the wider population (Kvam, 2019), but continuously interprets the results of the study (Acharya et al., 2013). The knowledge gained from the study should only be generalised to the population from which the sample was drawn (Budden, 2017). For that reason, convenience sampling was chosen to suit the purpose of the current study

Table 5.1 Research Targeted Sample

Participant(s)	**Institution A (md)**	**Institution B (mg)**	**Institution C (sk)**	**Total**
Vice Principal	1	1	1	**3**
HOD	2	2	2	**6**
LIC	1	1	1	**3**
HOS	1	1	1	**3**
Lecturer	1	1	1	**3**
Total	**6**	**6**	**6**	**18**

I sent letters of consent via email to request participation of the targeted sample. This was to avoid bias of participants during the sampling process. The profiles of participants who tendered their willingness to participate in the study are indicated in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Participants' Profiles

College	Gender	Age	Post of responsibility	No. of years in current position
A	M	35+	HOD	5 years
	F	35+	LIC	5 years
	F	35+	HOS	5 years
	M	35+	HOD	5 years
	M	35+	Lecturer	3 years
B	F	35+	VP	4 years
C	F	35+	VP	2 years
	M	35+	HOD	1 year
	F	35+	LIC	4 years
	M	35+	Lecturer	5 years
	M	35+	HOS	5 years

Once the target population and sample size were established, the next step was to generate data (Taherdoost, 2016).

5.5 Procedures of Data Generation/Production

Esau (2017); Ramrathan (2017) and Mpungose (2017) assert that in any research, the exploration of the phenomenon depends on the process of engaging participants. This is in order to generate data aimed at understanding the research objectives, purpose, and research questions of the study. In support (Christiansen et al., 2010) define data as the information that a researcher generates in finding answers to the particular research questions. Such is achieved through adopting a particular research method in a study. The procedures in which data is generated are known as research methods. Further to this, (Cohen et al., 2013 and Mpungose, 2017) assert that research methods are the procedures, tools, or instruments used to generate data through the responses given by participants based on the phenomenon of the study.

Data-gathering instruments to be used are not prescribed: all depends on fitness for purpose (Cohen et al., 2011). The selected instruments for gathering data should be appropriate to the study research questions so that the best data for addressing the research questions are gathered and analysed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In mixed methods, data are generated from multiple sources to ensure that the data are rich and that they confirm the findings (Boblin, Ireland, Kirkpatrick & Robertson, 2013). Research studies seek the process of triangulation which incorporates multiple procedures or methods of generating data (Creswell et al., 2014; De Vos et al., 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Esau, 2017; Patton, 1990; Yin, 2013). These studies further confirm that there are various procedures of generating data frequently used in educational research. With the purpose of this study in mind − to explore employee motivation models on organisational performance, and for triangulation purposes, the researcher adopted a combination of five data-generation/-production procedures, namely, an open-ended questionnaire, document analysis (descriptive-content/system), reflective journals (operational-process/social), semi-structured interviews (one-on-one) and focus-group discussions (philosophical-personal) (See Table 5.3 below).

Table 5.3 Research Questions and Data-generation Methods

	Research Question	**Data-generation Method**
1	What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (descriptive − content/system)	▪ Questionnaire ▪ Document analysis;
2	How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (operational – process/social)	▪ Reflective journals
3	Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (philosophical – personal)	▪ Semi-structured interviews. ▪ Focus-group discussions.

The next section helps the reader understand how each of the above-mentioned methods of data-generation/-production was used in this study.

A questionnaire as data-collection instrument, also document analysis, were used to establish the descriptive-content aspect of the research question on employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The operational process of motivation models' usefulness in motivating employee performance was established through a reflective journal as the data-generation method. Semi-structured interviews (one-on-one) were carried out in order to establish the philosophical-personal aspect of why motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance. Focus-group discussions were used to augment data generated on the same phenomenon. The five sources of data generation were used for the purpose of authenticity of data and achieving measures of trustworthiness (Cohen, et al., 2007). Due to the Covid 19 pandemic, educational institutions in Zimbabwe were not fully operational at the time of data gathering. In view of World Health Organisation (WHO) protocol, to observe social distancing as one of the health guidelines, I was obliged to conduct data-generation procedures online to avoid physical contact with the participants. The detailed description and use of each data-generation instrument is thus given below.

5.5.1 The use of an open-ended questionnaire

Questionnaires are any written instruments that provide respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to respond either by writing out their answers or by selecting from among existing answer (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). Chiromo (2006) echoes that a questionnaire is that form of inquiry which contains a systematically compiled and organised series of questions sent to respondents. Nkohla (2016) describes a questionnaire as a written task that requires a participant to answer a series of questions on the research phenomenon. It involves questions that trigger participants to reflect on the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Creswell et al., 2014; Ramrathan, 2017).These studies further allude to open-ended questionnaires consisting of questions to participants but not pre-supposing any responses. This suggests that a questionnaire is influenced by system model, because it consists of formally set questions that seek an answer from participants. Moreover, the questions are presented in written form and systematic format. Participants are expected to explain their experiences of the phenomenon in a detailed manner in writing (du Preez & Reddy, 2014; Ramrathan, 2017; Mpungose, 2017).

The questionnaire (Appendix A) and document analysis (Appendix B) were the first and most suitable data-generating methods before reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions. Both the open-ended questionnaire and document analysis in this study were mostly influenced by the system in order to address employee motivation models on organisational performance. As a result, I sought lecturers' opinions through the use of a questionnaire consisting of twelve questions, followed by analysis of the college strategic-plan documents. The questionnaire was sent by email to the participants (lecturers) who were given five (5) days to respond to the questions, returning them to me by email or soft copy. This enabled respondents to write and edit their responses freely in elaborating on their experiences of employee motivation on organisational performance. In the case of not being able to complete the questionnaire online, I advised participants to seek assistance from those who were knowledgeable within their institutions. I also advised participants to contact me should they have questions that needed clarification. I received all the eleven questionnaires, which was a 100% response rate.

The questionnaire posed twelve questions including open-ended and closed questions. Based on Appendix A , questions 1-4 provided the demography of the respondents on gender, age, position at the time of the study and the number of years they had been working in their current position. Question 5 sought the motivation levels of the respondents, followed by how their motivation models affected their performance in the workplace (Question 6). Question 7 sought to establish whether respondents could be motivated to reach their full potential even though the organisation did not fulfil their needs. In Question 8 respondents were to select the main factors that motivated them among those constructs discussed in Chapter 2. The top reasons given for respondents remaining in their current job was sought in Question 9. In Question 10 respondents were expected to rate their feelings about their work by responding to a Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Question 11 sought whether respondents had ever thought of giving notice; while the last question (12) aimed to establish whether respondents would recommend their organisation to others. Participants were expected to give their reasons by way of elaborating on responses in the space provided.

The questionnaire assisted me to appreciate views of participants on employee motivation on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education institutions in Zimbabwe in a quantitative manner. The questions were intended to set the content and description of what the respondents considered as motivation models in the workplace. Furthermore, their responses assisted me in developing further questions for the study. The use of a questionnaire proved to be a faster and less expensive way of collecting data from participants. The main limitation, however, was that participants were possibly not honest enough to give the actual response required − there was no control over the respondents' responses. To augment findings obtained through the use of the questionnaire, I had initially analysed the college strategic-plan documents to identify aspects that would motivate employees in the workplace. The selected participants for the study answered the questionnaire individually online before the interviews and focus-group discussions were conducted. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews and also focus-group discussions, therefore, assisted in verifying data gathered through the questionnaire.

5.5.2 The use of document analysis

Document analysis is a method that is non-reactive, the information from the participants being generated without direct interaction. Information is generated by means of documents. The evaluation of all documents on the phenomenon being studied (Chiromo, 2006) is known as document analysis, used to eliminate bias and to obtain comprehensive information. There are three narratives in document analysis. These refer to primary and secondary documents as well as to objects (Cohen et al., 2011a; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2014). According to MacMillan and Schumacher (2010), a primary document refers to the first-person narrative that defines an individual's action, experiences, and beliefs. Primary documents are diaries, letters, photographs, policy documents, e-calendar appointments and minutes (Pearse, Rickard, Keogh, & Lin Fung, 2019). Secondary documents are formed through an analysis of primary documents to provide an account of the process in question (Cohen et al., 2011). On the contrary, objects are well-defined as created symbols and tangible entities that reveal social processes, meanings, and values (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010), for example, a computer, laptop, telephone, or cellphone.

I adopted the use of primary and secondary documents. The primary documents used were college strategic-plan documents (see Appendix B). The purpose of analysing these documents was to establish the extent to which they spelt out issues of employee motivation in teacher-education institutions. I coded the documents to allow linkages between data contained within primary documents (Boblin et al., 2013). I used information gathered concerning employee motivation and guided by concepts of the Currere model as a theoretical framework. These concepts are system, social and personal (regression, progression, analytical and synthetical moments of self-actualisation) models of motivation. Such assisted me in determining whether employee motivation was influenced by these concepts. All data from these documents were in the form of transcriptions (Hashim, 2016) clarifying employees' views and perceptions, thus helping the researcher to develop themes and sub-themes reflected in the next chapter.

5.5.2.1 Advantages and limitations of document analysis

Document analysis method is less time consuming and therefore, more efficient than other methods (Bowen, 2009). It requires selection of data instead of collection of data, since the data have already been gathered (contained in documents). Bowen (2009) further states that documents are 'unobtrusive' and 'no-reactive', that is, they are not affected by the research study. Therefore, document analysis counters the concerns related to reflexivity (or lack of it) inherent in other qualitative research methods. In this study document analysis allowed the researcher to generate data while participants were not aware that they were subjects of the study, at the same time eliminating some bias.

This method, however, has its own drawbacks, for example, documents may not provide sufficient detail since they would have been produced for other purposes than research. Furthermore, documents may sometimes not be retrievable or may be deliberately blocked, causing biased selectivity from an incomplete collection of documents (Yin, 1994). Records used may also contain some institutional biases, documents being written to safeguard the interests of the institution. They therefore, require careful analysis and interpretation (Cohen et al., 2011a; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). I therefore carefully analysed and interpreted the strategic-plan documents against studies concerning employee motivation. In addition, I performed data analysis simultaneously with data gathering. I gave myself enough time to analyse the documents, gaining the relevant information guided by the research questions and themes framed around the theoretical framework in Chapter Four. The record method was thus more useful since it was combined with other methods as described above for complementarity. I asked the heads of each of the sampled institutions to email me their college strategic-plan documents: two colleges responded (See Table 5.2 above). The strategic-plan documents from each institution that I used during literature search were further analysed for content on issues of employee motivation on organisational performance.

5.5.3 The use of reflective journals

This study employed reflective journals to generate data from lecturers, addressing the second research question (process). Reflection is an activity in which an experience is recalled by the participant (Martins et al., 2015). Owens and Tinning (2009) further state that reflection is an instrument which is used in different methods through the context, to reveal lecturers' own experiences, beliefs, knowledge and perceptions which assist them to understand how these shape their identities and actions. A reflective journal is a way of thinking in a critical and analytical way about one's work in progress. Marcosa, Miguela and Tillema (2009) argue that, through reflections, the lecturer might better understand and extend his or her professional engagement, and that reflection might lead to new insights into practice. Bahan and Holsblat (2017) aver that reflective journals comprise an important part of documenting the practice of different professions, among them education. As an individual activity, in a reflective journal, participants are bound to put down their thoughts, ideas, feelings, and reflections (Goker, 2016).

Journals are multi-dimensional instruments that can be found in different forms. Reflective journals help the participant to reflect on their experiences in the context in which they work and on their relationships with colleagues (Bagnato, Dimonte, & Garrino, 2013). Luttenburg et al. (2018) aver that there are four categories of reflection, namely, scientific, technical, artistic, and moral. This study focusses on scientific (system), technical (process) and moral (personal) reflections. Scientific knowledge focusses on demotivation of lecturers in their attempt to gain more control of their job (Mortari, 2015), indicating the professional or system or content understanding. This form of reflection, also known as reflection-in-action helps one to understand future behaviour (Gray & Coombs, 2018). Technical reflection focusses on the efficiency and effectiveness of the means to achieving an end (Zhu, 2011). Technical thinking can be about what lecturers actually do in practice, indicating personal understanding. Furthermore, artistic reflection can be described as the personal significance of the lecturer in the real situation of his or her practice (Luttenburg et al., 2018). On the other hand, moral reflection is concerned with general values that apply equally to everyone in every situation, indicating public understanding (Luttenburg et al., 2018).

Reflective journals are, therefore, one of the methods of collecting data, considered an effective way of obtaining information on a person's feelings (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). Basha and Holsblat (2017) aver that the data from the journals constitute process data. They show what occurs during the implementation of any programme and the participants' perception of these occurrences. The structure and format of reflective journals could include free stream-of-consciousness writing or a structured analysis of critical events. The essential goal is to develop self-awareness and have a better concept of comprehension (Goker, 2016). Journal writing is considered a new learning tool for lecturers to create awareness on their current practice. Ultimately, lecturers should be able to reflect, analyse, and change their practice when necessary. When reflective journal writing process is performed, the results should allow them to become better lecturers.

Data were collected during this study to explore employee motivation models on organisational performance. The data collected for the study allowed the researcher to learn more about the process of the employee motivation models (phenomenon) as they developed among lecturers during their practicum. This was based on the information about their experiences and impressions provided in their reflective journals (Bashan & Holsblat, 2017). The aim was to allow the participants (lecturers) to reflect on their opinions of the strengths and weaknesses of the constructs that address employee motivation in the workplace. Lecturers were asked to complete their entries following a guide (see Appendix C) and the reflective journal was conducted once. The reflective journal with guidelines was sent to four participants via email, to be completed over two weeks and returned per email. This reflective activity outlined the main constructs of the Currere model, which is the theoretical framework of the study. The expected duration and measures were used as a strategy to ensure privacy and confidentiality (Marshal, Brereton & Kitchenham, 2014). The reflective journal assisted me to understand lecturers' views of employee motivation on organisational performance. The participants were encouraged to express themselves freely, as the journals were not graded.

Question one of the reflective journal interrogated lecturers' understanding of the concept of employee motivation models (phenomenon) on organisational performance in the workplace. Responses were expected to address the system, process, and personal needs models of motivation. Question Two sought the lecturers' opinion on the constructs of motivation models as guiding principles of motivation on organisational performance. Question Three intended lecturers to articulate how the constructs of resources, rules, and regulations of the performance management system impacted on their motivation levels. Leadership styles described by the lecturers would help the researcher to realise how they perceived their administration and how they were or were not motivated in the workplace. Question Four sought to discover whether the constructs of the process model such as recruitment and orientation, the work environment (teamwork, staff relations), organisational facilities (work space, office space), as well as training and development motivated the lecturers, enhanced their performance levels in the workplace. Question Five expected lecturers to articulate their opinions and experiences on individual commitment levels to work and employee motivation on organisational performance. These constructs were framed by the system, process, and personal needs of employee motivation on organisational performance. Furthermore, the use of the reflective journal assisted the researcher to gather light from lecturers for study purposes, objectives, and research questions.

5.5.3.1 The strengths of the reflective journal

In accordance with the above discussion, Lee, Edwards and Team Lee et al. (2015) are of the view that the use of a reflective journal may help participants understand and orient themselves to long-term and deeper goals. This means that they would have learnt from their reflections and experiences (Gray & Coombs, 2018). According to Kolb (2014), through a reflective journal, an individual might learn from experience. The knowledge generated from the reflective journal becomes a learning experience. Karatepe and Yimlaz (2018) are convinced that that being reflective is an essential asset for lecturers. It empowers them to learn from their experiences, while reflecting on their practice, evaluating and changing whenever necessary. As a result, reflective journals were written up in this study in order to improve participants' reflectivity (Ozkan, 2019). Bashan and Holsblat further opine that the use of reflective journals provides an opportunity for researchers to hear the voice of the participants who express the thoughts and changes they experience as a part of their work experience. The journal data provide significant insights that are not always achieved through other data-collection methods. Journals serve as an instrument for the improvement of performance by creating a connection between theory and practice.

5.5.3.2 Dealing with limitations of reflective journals

Most lecturers are busy with preparation processes; therefore it becomes difficult for them to complete a reflective journal within a limited time (Ozkan, 2019). In dealing with such limitations, the participants were given two weeks to complete the reflective journal. Furthermore, the participants might possibly not be honest enough to give a truthful response in the reflective journal. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews thus assisted in verifying whether the reflective journal portrayed a true reflection (Zuma, 2016). Therefore, in addition to the methods used to elicit the participants' reflections, one-on one semi-structured interviews were also conducted.

5.5.4 The use of semi-structured (one-on-one) interviews

Cohen et al. (2011) opine that the use of interviews provides a considerable rate of information exchange between the researcher and respondents. An interview is defined as a commonly used data-collection method comprising personal interaction between an interviewer and interviewee (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). An interchange of views takes place between two or more people on a particular phenomenon (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). This is regarded as a powerful means of gathering information and gaining insight into people's perceptions, experiences, beliefs, behaviours, and attitudes. Manion and Morrison (2000) further assert that an interview is a technique whereby research participants become involved in a study, sharing their views on a topic of common interest.

There are different types of interviews, namely, structured, unstructured, and semi-structured interviews (Cohen et al., 2011a; Young et al., 2018). On one hand, structured interviews are based on a fixed set of predetermined questions. Such does not give interviewees the opportunity to shape the discussion (Punch, 2005; Young et al., 2018). Structured interviews provide exact wording of questions that follow a precise sequence with specific rules for coding responses (Leffler, Riebel & Hughes, 2014). On the other hand, an unstructured interview is used when the researcher is unaware of what is unknown; hence, the researcher relies on the respondents to supply the information (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Furthermore, in unstructured interviews, the interviewer leads the conversation and follows what the interviewee says, since questions are not pre-planned (Wilson, Onwuegbuzie & Manning, 2016), However, semi-structured interviews are suitable for gathering data for the qualitative aspect of the research study (Marshal et al., 2014). This study therefore employed a one-on-one semi-structured interview format on the Zoom platform.

Interviews have the advantage of yielding the richest data, details and insights into the questions. Interviews thus give the researcher an opportunity to probe for more information; hence there is greater chance of flexibility. An interview has a high response rate and the response is immediate. Interviewers, however, can include bias towards an interviewee because of the participant’s demographics; for example, race, gender, or age. In this research I treated the participants purely as professionals in the workplace without discrimination. Certain information may be difficult to transcribe in reducing data. To mitigate such, I used an audio recorder during interviews. When organising the data I selected relevant information according to the themes and research questions.

I used semi-structured one-on-one interviews to address two vice-principals and two heads of department (academic) (See Table 5.2 above). Semi-structured interviews were adopted and used in this study. This data-generation method was, therefore, the link research method between the system/content (descriptive) model and the social (process) model.

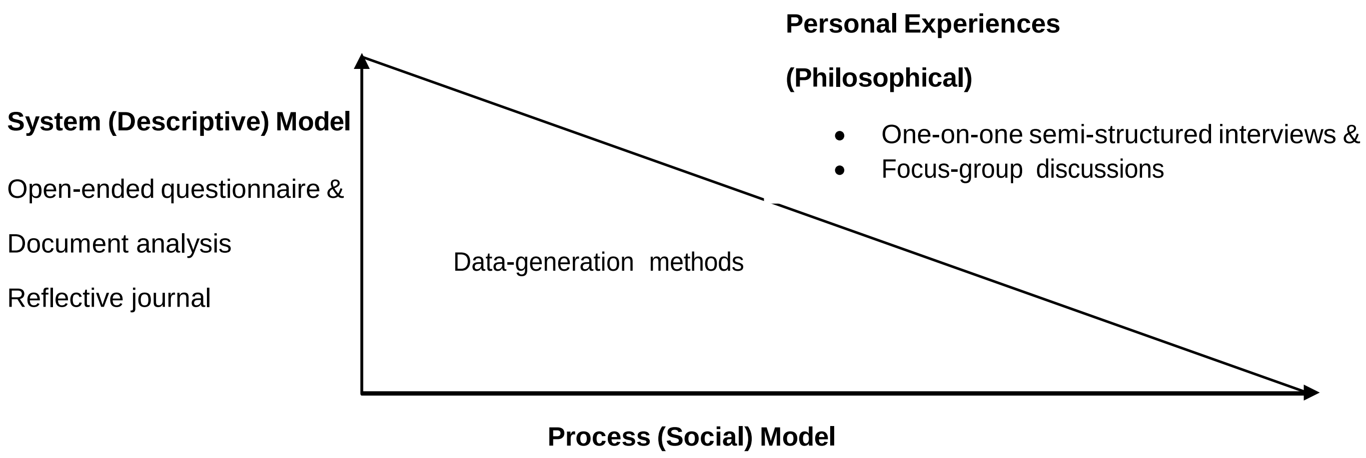


Figure 5.1 Data-generation methods with models adopted from Mpungose (2017).

The semi-structured interview was used to provide a diagonal direction which would connect the descriptive and process models via personal experience, as depicted in Figure 5.1 above.

One-on-one semi-structured interviews have proved to be adaptable and flexible (Kallio, Pietila, Johnson & Kangasniemi, 2016). The assumption of individual semi-structured interviews is that rich, in-depth knowledge may be obtained through a free, open and polite atmosphere (Budden, 2017). In individual semi-structured interviews, the questions should be broad and few in number. Creswell and Poth, (2017) and Cohen et al. (2013) remark that the aspect of ethics during the process of one-on-one semi-structured interviews should be observed. I made sure that before each interview started, issues of anonymity, confidentiality, as well as voluntary participation were fully explained to the interviewees. Furthermore, participants (lecturers) responded with understanding on the questions posed, being familiar with their own situations in the workplace. I had an interview schedule that was followed. This kept the questions logical, and I was able to save time (Christiansen et al., 2010; Creswell et al., 2014).

In this study I combined both structured and unstructured interview questions to discover participants' views of employee motivation on organisational performance (See Appendix D). In structured interviews all participants were asked questions using the same wording and in the same sequence (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). This method makes it easy to analyse and compare data. Unstructured interviews take the form of conversation, in which the interviewer has no predetermined questions. Ramrathan (2017) asserts that one-on-one semi-structured interviews allow for a set of leading questions to be asked to all participants. There is the possibility of including unplanned questions that would allow the researcher to further ask questions based on the responses of the participants, thus gaining more information and clarity. Follow-up questions were thus asked, to probe for further information. The questions were intended to encourage participants to describe their personal experiences, including feelings and emotions. Often the focus was on participants' understanding of employee motivation. The average time for each of the four interviews was 20 minutes. The shortest interview lasted 10 minutes and the longest interview lasted 30 minutes. All one-on-one semi-structured interviews were recorded and transcribed during the Zoom meeting, with the permission of the participants. After the interview I thanked each participant. There were some strengths observed on undertaking personal interviews as a data-generation method.

5.5.4.1 The strengths of one-on-one semi-structured interviews

One-on-one semi-structured interviews give participants the opportunity of personally expressing their feelings and perceptions on the phenomenon (Christiansen et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2017; De Vos et al., 2014). Furthermore, I observed that each participant was free to share personal perceptions and opinions. Interviews also allowed and created a democratic environment. Both participants and interviewer could speak freely, and were not reticent in exploring the phenomenon. Lecturers felt free to share and express their feelings and views about employee motivation models in the workplace. This method also allows for probing: interviewees (lecturers) were able to provide more detail on the phenomenon. Thus data analysis would be made simple and was easily presented. There were, however, some limitations of one-on-one semi-structured interviews found in this study.

5.5.4.2 Dealing with weaknesses of one-on-one semi-structured interviews

One-on-one semi-structured interviews could be time-consuming. Also, some questions may not be clear to the participants (Creswell & Poth, 2017; De Vos et al., 2014; Mpungose, 2017). A relaxed atmosphere was therefore created at the beginning of each interview. An introduction and also initial remarks were used to reassure the participants. In addition, very clear instructions were given: participants were free to ask for more clarification should they have difficulty in understanding the question.

According to Cohen et al. (2013), if participants are all asked different questions by the researcher when interviewing for a research study, data generated would be difficult to analyse. To overcome this weakness, all questions were set prior the interview. However, this did not stop me from probing further to gain more information about the phenomenon. Thus the same participants who underwent the descriptive/content and process questions were selected to participate in this interview, and this allowed for consistency.

Yet another drawback of one-on-one semi-structured interviews was reliance on the ability of participants to communicate. It was possible that the quality of the data generated may have been limited (Marshall et al., 2014). In this respect I, as the researcher, provided guidance to meet the interviewee’s point of view (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). According to Khansa (2015), participants may alter their responses during the interview, once they knew why they were being interviewed. To obtain the best quality data, open-ended questions were employed to relieve participants of their fear of exposure, in order to help them feel relaxed when expressing their opinions (Makumane, 2018). In addition to the above, I also used a focus-group discussion to augment information gathered per open-ended questionnaire, document analysis, and the reflective journal. Dealing with the weaknesses of this method invoked the process of triangulation.

5.5.5 The use of focus-group discussions (FGDs)

I used focus-group discussions to augment and verify data gathered using one-on-one semi-structured interviews. Focus groups are generally used to gather in-depth knowledge about attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and opinions of individuals regarding a specific study phenomenon (Then, Rankin et al., 2014). Focus groups can also be used to generate constructs, in-depth understanding of phenomena of interest and in clarifying the meaning of certain behaviours (ibid). Focus-group discussions consist of 6-12 participants who are interviewed at the same time. As a method of in-depth qualitative inquiry, focus-group discussions provide opportunities to gain greater insight into the phenomenon. In this regard, Priest (2006) is convinced that open discussions are a reliable way of listening to research subjects about their achievements, challenges, and possible prescriptive measures against peculiar undesirable local conditions. Christiansen et al. (2010) further attest that understanding the nature and goals of the group instils unity among participants. To a greater extent, focussed discussions promote self-disclosure among participants. Bagnoli and Clark (2010) believe that the information gathered through such encounters helps participants to develop short- and long-term needs for their programmes, designing the structure and future composition of the group and generating policies and organisational rules of the group.

In this study, I hosted one multiple-participant Zoom meeting for a focus-group discussion session that brought together six participants distributed as follows: one head of department (human resources), two lecturers-in-charge, three heads of subjects and one lecturer from two of the three sampled institutions for this research (See Table 5.2 above). The questions for the focus-group discussion were organised according to the study research questions (See Appendix E). I combined both structured and unstructured discussion questions to solicit participants' views of employee motivation models on organisational performance to augment data that were gathered from one-on-one semi-structured interviews. Follow-up questions were asked to probe for further information from the participants. The focus-group discussion lasted 55 minutes and, with permission from participants, the session was recorded on Zoom. Before the discussion ensued, preliminary warm-up questions were asked, and participants were assured that the purpose of the discussion was for the research study only and not for any other. Participants were all actively engaged in the discussions and were free to share their views and experiences of employee motivation models on organisational performance.

5.5.5.1 Strengths of focus-group discussions

The advantage of focus-group discussions is that the researcher can obtain a variety of opinions on the issue at hand within a limited time. Then et al. (2014) aver that focus groups may reduce the bias of individual interviews, as participants singly, may try to impress the interviewer or say what they believe is a socially acceptable response. The researchers further opine that the focus-group method has the opportunity for direct, intensive contact with individuals, collecting rich, in-depth data. The researcher can encourage interaction with other participants in a relaxed group setting. Moreover, individuals feel listened to and the discussion is spontaneous and honest as the participants express their opinions and beliefs during the discussion (Then et al., 2014).

5.5.5.2 Limitations of focus-group discussions

The major limitation of the focus group is that it may be impossible to protect the confidentiality of participants (Liamputtong, 2011). I therefore emphasised the issue of research ethics and made sure that I explained to the participants before the session started, that any information discussed was to be used for the purposes of this current study only. In the event that the researcher does not have control of the group, the discussion may divert to irrelevant issues, wasting valuable time (Then et al., 2014). I therefore applied a focus-group schedule of pre-planned questions to direct the discussion. This did not deter me from probing to gain more insight as the discussion ensued.Through focus-group discussions, participants are able to influence the improvement of their motivational strategies in their workplace for organisational performance. This will impact positively on the policy formulation for better working conditions in teacher education as a system.

Table 5.4 below depicts the data-gathering instruments; and the number of participants per instrument and per institution for this study from each of the sampled institutions. A total of eleven (11) questionnaires, two strategic-plan documents from two institutions, two reflective journals from each of the two institutions (making a total of 4), four (4) one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and a six (6)-member focus-group discussion, were used. The table further shows the distribution of the use of the named data-gathering instruments per sampled institution.

Table 5.4 Summary of Data-gathering Instruments and Number of Participants

Instrument	**Institution A(md)**	**Institution B(mg)**	**Institution C(sk)**	**Total**
Questionnaire	5	1	5	11
Document analysis	*		*	* *
Reflective journal	**		* *	* * * *
Semi-structured interviews	1	1	2	4
Focus-group discussions	3	0	3	6

Furthermore, for each of the instruments shown above, data gathered were carefully presented. Direct quotes from participants (lecturers) were presented using pseudonyms and alphanumeric codes. The alphanumeric code consists of the research method's first letter(s), participant's first letter(s) of their pseudonym and the page number where the verbatim is found. For example, if the data excerpt was extracted from the reflective journal indicating Deborah's words in Page Four of the transcript, it will reflect RJD4 (see Table 5.5 below). However, Table 5.5 only indicates the alphabet codes, excluding page numbers.

Table 5.5 Codes used to identify Participants' Responses in Transcripts with N/A indicating Non-participation in a Particular Data-generation Method

Participant's Pseudonym	Code used for Questionnaire	Code used for Document Analysis	Code used for Reflective Journals	Code used for Interviews	Code used for Focus-group Discussion
1. Gabriel	QG	N/A	N/A	IG	N/A
2. Deborah	QD	N/A	RJD	N/A	FD
3. Rachel	QR	N/A	RJR	N/A	FR
4. Jacob	QJ	N/A	N/A	N/A	FJ
5. Paul	QP	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
6. Esther	QE	N/A	N/A	IE	N/A
7. Hannah	QH	N/A	N/A	IH	N/A
8. Adam	QA	N/A	RJA	IA	N/A
9. Leah	QL	N/A	N/A	N/A	FL
10. Benjamin	QB	N/A	RJB	N/A	FB
11. Noah	QN	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

The actual names of the participants were known to the researcher only for reasons of confidentiality. Table 5.5 above shows that eleven (11) participants responded to the open-ended questionnaire; document analysis was conducted by the researcher only; four (4) participants were selected to respond to the reflective journal; four (4) were involved in the semi-structured interview; and six (6) participants were involved in the focus-group discussion.

5.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis, according to Punch (2005), involves organising information generated, breaking it down into easily understood and manageable parts. Such can be presented in a form that enables the researcher to answer the research questions. The multiple sources of data when used enhance authenticity/triangulation of data and help achieve measures of trustworthiness (Cresswell, 2013). In this study, a questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, as well as focus-group discussions were used. For ease of transcription, a Zoom video-recorder was used to record interviews and focus-group discussions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Data analysis started during the process of data generation (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Boeije (2010), the data gathered must be managed so that they are ready to be analysed. To be able to administer, as well as to have an understanding of the data generated, the researcher must be immersed in the data, 'living' the data (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). In this way, the researcher would be able to identify as well as to classify patterns and themes into categories (Given, 2008).

Based on the above literature, the data of this study were analysed by drawing the interpretation from the raw data generated. The raw data were processed prior to analysis (Marshall, 2014). These data consisted of the questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, as well as focus-group discussion. The first step I took was to administer an open-ended questionnaire that helped me to explore knowledge, opinions, and meanings that participants had on motivation models. I also analysed the college strategic-plan documents and end-of-year college reports that were available. These documents were analysed to establish whether they contained aspects of employee motivation and the motivation models employed. The documents were analysed using the research questions and theoretical framework of the Currere model.

In the second step, I used the thematic method guided by an apriori analysis. For this method I used a questionnaire, reflective journal, semi-structured interviews, followed by a focus-group discussion. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussion on the Zoom platform remained appropriate for investigating exploratory questions (Panahi, Watson, & Partridge, 2014). These methods helped me to explore employees' experiences of motivation models on organisational performance. I first transcribed all data that had been generated from semi-structured and focus-group discussions. I engaged a research assistant to transcribe data collected through semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussion. However, this did not stop me from interrogating the data by repeatedly playing the video recordings, going forward and backward until I was satisfied that data transcribed was verbatim − every word of each participant in the semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussion. Themes were then established by combining data from all the data-generation methods.

In using the thematic approach, I was able to find patterns in the data, by assigning codes to segments of the text, and translating the codes into higher-order themes (Riungu-Kalliosaar, Makinen, Lwakatare, Tiihonen, & Mannisto, 2016). New themes that emerged from generated data were allowed (Wilson et al., 2016). This helped me to analyse the text as an accurate and true reflection of the data generated (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Making informed decisions about assigning codes and identifying categories, concepts, and themes is based on scrutinising the data at hand (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Dhunpath and Samuel (2009) declare that data analysis can be guided *a priori*. Subsequent analysis would then guide the categories to be modified through interaction with the data. In this study, themes were created from employees' responses and were guided by research questions. The themes were thus created from the three propositions of employees' understanding; the system or content (descriptive) understanding, the process or social understanding, and the personal or individual understanding. These propositions were modified through interacting with the data, guided by the research questions as well as concepts of the Currere model (regression, progression, analytical, and synthetical moments). These themes assisted in generating the information employees had on motivation models, while categorising the concepts of the Currere model in order to reach a meaningful conclusion (Makumane, 2018).

As this study adopted both a quantitative and qualitative method, it required analysing of data in the form of interpreting both numbers (quantitative) and words (qualitative) (Rakotsoane, 2012; Tuckman & Harper, 2012). The data analysis method used for this study is *guided analysis*. This method, according to Samuel (2009), is a generation of grounded theory and *a priori* analysis (Makumane, 2018). According to Mertler (2009) and Evans (2013), grounded theory used the qualitative aspect of the study that attempts to determine a theory relating to a particular phenomenon.

In an *a priori* analysis, categories were established prior to the collection of data (Makumane, 2018). In other words, I went into the field already armed with categories that would help me in the analysis process. This, according to Welman, Betram and

Land, (2005) is a deductive method. Theories would be predicted in advance, and an empirical study conducted to test a particular theory through interaction with data. I independently predicted categories that were either proven or refuted by general patterns or laws that emerged (Nkohla, 2016; Welman, et al., 2005).

From the assertions described above, it is clear that guided analysis involves determining categories from the data generated before modifying the pre-determined categories at the analysis stage (Khoza, 2015a; Samuel, 2009). Categories were determined deductively, that is, prior to interaction with data; and inductively, that is, through reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions on generated data (Makumane, 2018). This method of analysis was fitting for this study. Various data-generation methods were used that made it possible for categories to emerge that I may not have envisaged. For instance, via one-on-one semi-structured interviews, I applied open-ended questions in this study that gave room for spontaneity, deep probing, and clarifying responses to complex issues. Such issues were closely related to their experiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Newman, 2007; Makumane, 2018), resulting in unpredicted responses that yielded emergence of new categories.

Since data were gathered through the use of multiple sources, open coding was used to make sense of the data. Open coding requires the researcher to organise data, identify themes and categories, and use labels/symbols to describe a piece of text (Makumane, 2018). Through guided analysis, participants' responses, in this study, were coded in order to establish themes and categories. Data generated from open-ended questionnaires, document analysis and reflective journals were transcribed in record form, and common themes were established. From one-on-one semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions, first, data were transcribed from the video-recorder (by a research assistant). Second, themes were determined by the researcher, through thorough reading of data after the research assistant had completed the initial transcription. The identified sub-themes from the study were then matched with the established themes and categories for proper classification and categorisation.

5.6.1 Dealing with weaknesses of data analysis

One of the shortcomings of data analysis is that it is time-consuming (Cohen et al., 2011a). Wilson et al. (2016) assert that full transcriptions of data generated from all interviews are necessary to avoid bias through selective data withdrawal from the study guided by particular themes. I therefore used participants' direct quotations in order to avoid bias in the data generated. While the process described above was time-consuming and expensive (a scribe was employed) I preferred to use a research assistant to transcribe the recorded data while I was busy analysing data from the open-ended questionnaire, document analysis, and reflective journals during my spare time. I then read through the transcriptions and listened carefully to the video recordings to establish whether all relevant data were captured. This also helped to acquaint me with the data in view of selecting relevant and appropriate information. According to Cohen et al. (2011b), the way the researcher understands the field under study that his or her experiences may influence, may even jeopardise the data-analysis process. To avoid such interference in the study, I went back to the participants for validation (member checking) of the results before I wrote the conclusion. The data analysis from open-ended questionnaires, document analysis, reflective journals, one-on-one semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions ensured validity and trustworthiness.

5.7 Validity and Trustworthiness

Magwa and Magwa (2015) explain validity as referring to the extent to which the instrument used measures that the researcher intended to measure, or claimed to have measured. By claiming that a measure is valid the researcher implies that it is also reliable. Punch (2005) alludes to reliability as the extent to which the instrument produces the same results or answers when used more than once in a particular research study. A valid inference occurs when there is no conflict between messages received as a result of a variety of different methodical procedures. Let the reader; therefore, understand the validity, reliability and rigour applied in depicting the trustworthiness of this research study.

Makumane (2018) states that validity refers to the integrity of the conclusions generated from a research study. The conclusions should depict the researcher's ability to measure what is set out to measure (Kumar, 2012). Check and Schutt (2012) add that validity of a study is confirmed when conclusions on an empirical measure satisfactorily echo the reality of the concept under study. Validity is thus related to trustworthiness as it affords readers an opportunity to audit the instruments used by the researcher while attempting to measure what the research set out to measure. Validity also enables a researcher to persuade readers that the study is worth researching. Internal validity is about the extent to which the relationships between the variables are correctly interpreted and logical, and is mainly defined in the quantitative context (Punch, 2005). Punch further echoes that external validity on the other hand, is the extent to which the findings of the study are generalisable.

For the purpose of this research study, which is a mixed methods research, the term trustworthiness is used. Trustworthiness of the research depends on the extent to which the research delves into the participants' experiences and not merely their theoretical knowledge (Streubert & Carpenter, 1991). Trustworthiness involves elements of *credibility, dependability, confirmability,* and *transferability.*

5.7.1 Credibility

Credibility ensures that the results are believable from the point of view of the participants of the study (Mertler, 2009). Makumane (2018) posits that credibility also entails acceptability of the research findings by the participants. Both quantitative and qualitative (mixed methods research) research approaches were used. To fulfil the credibility criterion, the use of qualitative data-generation instruments such as reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions enhanced the chance of gathering reliable information that was reasonably acceptable in educational research. The researcher's personal views and individual biases may, however, present shortcomings in establishing credibility of the study. The triangulation of data-collection instruments reduced researcher bias and minimised the impact of each of their weaknesses. I was also aware of this factor and guarded myself against imposing bias in the research (Kolb, 2012). I also learnt from the identified participants, which I believe is an added advantage. Data-analysis results were made available to the participants to confirm that the findings were a true representation of the participants' motivation strategies for organisational performance. Makumane (2018) suggests that adjustments may be made in relation to suggestions and recommendations without jeopardising the authenticity and representation of raw data.

5.7.2 Dependability

Dependability is concerned with whether the same results would be found were the study to be replicated (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). In other words, dependability infers reliability and consistency. It is critical to note that the researcher learnt a great deal from the participants through the qualitative aspect of the mixed methods research approach (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). Various findings should be viewed as indicative of multiple realities. There could be a variety of solutions when appropriate methods are applied to tap into new ideas and skills. To achieve dependability, a full explanation of the research process was presented during data gathering. The evidence gathered from the questionnaires, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions confirmed dependability. The use of recordings from the Zoom video recorder, and direct quotations led to more valid, trustworthy, and diverse construction of realities (Golafshani, 2003). I carefully listened to the recordings, after data were transcribed by the research assistant. I believed that it accurately described employees' understanding of motivation models. To avoid bias, direct quotations of the participants were used to provide empirical evidence.

5.7.3 Confirmability

Confirmability is concerned with ensuring that the researcher's personal values or theoretical inclinations have no visible effect on the findings, thereby creating biased research (Makumane, 2018). According to Kumar (2012), bias is a calculated attempt to magnify a problem. It is, therefore, essential to eliminate bias. To avoid bias during data production, I employed triangulation. I used multiple data-generation methods, namely, questionnaires, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions. Graig (2009) attests that triangulation is used to confirm the researcher's findings, where analysed data generated from multiple data sources demonstrates similar results. Triangulation occurs when data from various sources do not contradict but rather feed into the ultimate findings of the study (Mertler, 2009). In this study, triangulation, which denotes the use of more than one method of collecting data were, therefore, used to reduce bias. The interview findings were used to cross-examine bias and consistency in the document analysis and the questionnaire findings. Such would determine whether my theoretical inclination affected the data-analysis process. In addition, reflective journal and focus-group discussions were used to confirm whether what was portrayed in the document analysis was a true reflection of what was experienced in actual practice. This process aided in yielding reasonable, unbiased, and valid findings.

5.7.4 Transferability

Transferability deals with identifying how transferable and generalisable research findings of a study are to other contexts (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Kumar, 2012; Koonin, 2014). The element of transferability of research results is of paramount importance. Generalisability, as Check and Schutt (2012) posit, has to do with the extent to which the results of one study can be used to relay other persons or events that were not studied. In this study a rich and thick description of data was gathered through document analysis and from the employees who participated, by means of questionnaires, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions, recordings from the Zoom video recordings and direct quotations. This allowed the individuals to evaluate the conclusions drawn, which could be transferable to other settings (Pandey & Patnaik, 2014). In order to ascertain the extent to which the results collected were representative of reliable motivation strategies as part of teacher-education administration, similar projects can be undertaken in other administrative environments in Zimbabwe and beyond. It is not the responsibility of the first researcher to ensure transferability of results: the one intending to apply the newly established knowledge in another situation must ensure transferability.

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Social research involves issues of ethical considerations. This is because people are involved in collecting data about people (Punch, 2005). Researchers, thus, must take cognisance of ethical principles, which include policies regarding informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, and caring (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). The researcher must maintain the dignity of the participants as human beings. Ethics in research are, therefore, very important. For this research I ensured that the study did not harm the participants in any way nor expose them to any kind of danger. I asked participants voluntarily to consent to taking part in the study. I also sought permission (in writing) to conduct the study from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development in Zimbabwe, through the Director for Tertiary Education Programmes. I wrote a letter to the permanent secretary through the director, explaining the nature of my study, spelling out the research ethics of how confidentiality, anonymity, and consent would be dealt with during the study. This was achieved by submitting a letter (hard copy) to the director through the office of the permanent secretary of the parent ministry. The ministry in return, granted me permission to access teacher-education colleges per letter (See Appendix F). I also wrote a letter requesting permission from the sampled institutions' heads (principals) to conduct the study at their colleges (See Appendix F). On approval, I asked the respective principals to contact participants within their institutions via telephone, requesting that they participate in the study. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic there was lockdown at the time of the study; movement from one city to the other was not possible, according to World Health Organization (WHO) protocols, guidelines, and regulations. I therefore considered ethical principles in this study to avoid any issues that might arise. I sought permission from participants per telephone, following up with a letter of consent emailed to the participants, for their signatures (see Appendix G).

I explained to the participants the nature of the study. I requested participants to declare their consent by signing and returning the consent letter to me via email, before I engaged them. Clauses that were explained in the consent letter covered issues of no harm and confidentiality (anonymity); information generated was to be used for the purpose of the study only. Privacy was ensured to participants through the use of pseudonyms. Moreover, participants were informed that there was no financial gain for participating in the study. I asked the participants whether they had full understanding of their role in the study and gave them room to seek clarity where necessary. According to Christiansen (2010), the research should be beneficial to the participants or the researcher and society at large. I therefore explained to the prospective participants that the case study might be beneficial to them in gaining understanding on and improving the motivation levels of the teacher-education employees, administrators, the parent ministry, the education system as a whole, and possibly in informing policy. Once satisfied that the participants had understood their participation in the study by returning their signed consent letter via email, I then started engaging participants in data generation. I kept checking with the participants whether they were still willing to take part in the study at every new stage. Those engaged in the study insisted that they were willing to participate. The above-mentioned procedures and processes, therefore, adhered to ethical principles to eliminate any possible ethical problems.

5.9 Anticipated problems/limitations of the study

Marshall and Rossman (1999) aver that there is no research without limitations. Being a doctoral student, I had my personal expectations concerning this research, which might lead to bias. To overcome this limitation, I tried to avoid interfering with the participants' submissions in the research. The participants were given space to provide their own information without being influenced during data generation and data analysis. Furthermore, participants might choose to withdraw from participation during the process of data generation. To deal with this issue, I made sure that I had more participants than required to allow for attrition, to avoid disappointment. In addition, of the eighteen participants in this study, only eleven participants accepted my request. This number included two vice-principals, three heads of departments, two lecturers-in-charge, three heads of subjects, and one lecturer who did not hold any post of special responsibility. The other seven were not willing to participate for personal reasons. Another compounding factor might be that, since the research data-generation processes were largely done online, some of the potential participants were computer-illiterate and thus quietly withdrew. Yet another limitation of this study was that, since the study used small numbers of participants, the findings and results may not be generalised. The purpose of this study was to gain rich and thick data rather than to allow for generalisation.

5.10 Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter has unpacked the research methodology to clarify why the pragmatic research paradigm and the mixed methods research design were deemed the most appropriate approach in executing all the research processes required in this study. This paradigm is good for this study because it provides a neutral platform for the system and process models of motivation. It has highlighted that the main intention of carrying out this study was to gain in-depth understanding of employee motivation on organisational performance. To achieve this, the mixed methods approach was most suitable to provide the descriptive, operational, and philosophical aspects of the key research questions of the study. The chapter concluded by discussing ethical issues and limitations that would threaten credibility of this research. The next chapter deals with data presentation, interpretation, analysis, and discussion of research findings.

CHAPTER SIX

DESCRIPTIVE DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter 5) of this study provided a detailed discussion and justification of the research paradigm (pragmatic paradigm) and methodology (mixed methods) employed for data generation. This chapter (Chapter 6), presents data analysis of data generated of employee motivation on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. Literature outlines that data analysis seeks to give meaning to data generated from participants through themes and sub-themes (Creswell & Poth, 2019; DeVos et al., 2014; Ramrathan, 2017; Ritchie et al., 2013; Mpungose, 2017). In support of this, guided analysis was used which sought to describe and group similar concepts so that they could be put together into themes that would automatically produce categories. The data analysis in this study sought to answer the following research questions; i) What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? ii) How are motivation models used in motivating employees in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? iii) Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe?

In this study, data were analysed using data generated through open-ended questionnaires, document analysis, reflective journals, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions. Documents were analysed using the research questions and the Currere model (regression, progression, analytical, and synthetical moments) as the theoretical framework. The data findings were analysed and interpreted using reviewed literature found in Chapters Two and Three of the study. The researcher's understanding of the data generated was also used to foster meaningful discussion of the phenomenon (employee motivation models).

The data analysis of this study is divided into two chapters. This chapter (Chapter 6) forms part one of the descriptive question of data analysis which discusses the first research question of the study as follows: 1) What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in

Zimbabwe? This first part of the analysis interrogates the ‘what’ question and interprets data generated through the use of written responses and structured data-generation methods. Content for this section is deduced from the participants’ responses to the open-ended questionnaire (this includes the quantitative methodology), document analysis, and reflective journals. The data are presented per codes to indicate the data-gathering instrument(s); and the figure denotes the question item. For example, data from the reflective journal, Question 1a by Deborah appears as ***(RJD1a).*** All direct quotes in this study are presented in Italics.

The chapter forms Part One of the descriptive data analysis which discusses two broad themes and six sub-themes. Graphs, charts, tables and write-ups are used to present, analyse, and interpret data generated from both quantitative and qualitative methods. It is worth noting that interpretations of the data were based on what the researcher understood. There are, however, many perceptions of understanding phenomena. Let the reader understand the first part of the results of the data generated for the descriptive content of this study.

6.2 Presentation of Themes and Sub-themes

This section presents themes and sub-themes that emerged from participants’ perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. Table 6.1 below shows two broad themes and six sub-themes used in this chapter. Theme one presents lecturers’ positive perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance. There are three sub-themes, namely: policy framework as a guide; tools of the trade to perform tasks; and collaboration to achieve goals and tasks/teamwork. Theme Two presents lecturers’ negative perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance; the three sub-themes are: leadership rigidity; poor remuneration; and inadequate support system.

Table 6.1 Descriptive Themes that emerged from Lecturers' Experiences of Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher-education Colleges in Zimbabwe

Broad Themes	Sub-themes
Theme One: Lecturers' *positive* perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance.	• Policy framework as a guide • Tools of the trade to perform tasks • Collaboration to achieve goals and tasks
Theme Two: Lecturers' *negative* perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance.	• Leadership rigidity • Poor remuneration • Inadequate support system

6.2.1 Theme One: Lecturers' positive perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance

This broad theme emerged from data findings. It presents discussions about what was perceived by lecturers (participants) as positive experiences from employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. In this theme, the participants describe their perceptions of the workplace that contributed to their positive experiences. The broad theme is divided into three sub-themes, namely: the use of policy framework as a guideline to give employees direction to meet their mandate; availability of the basic tools of the trade (resources) for performing and accomplishing their various tasks; and collaboration/teamwork among themselves (lecturers) and administration in achieving their organisational goals and objectives (see Table 6.1 above). The following section discusses the three sub-themes in greater detail.

6.2.1.1 Policy framework as a guide

A number of participants attested to their appreciation of the policy framework as a guide in giving them direction to meet their mandate. Each college/institution had the autonomy to formulate their own policies, for example, the vision, mission, core values, goals and objectives, as evidenced in their respective strategic plan documents. However, lecturers indicated that they were motivated because they were directed towards achieving their mandate. Upon analysing the strategic-plan documents, the policy framework for each institution was found to be aligned with the ministry policy document (The Doctrine, 2018), which addressed the national strategic agenda of Zimbabwe of becoming an upper-middle-income society by the year 2030. Teacher-education colleges fall under the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Innovation, Science and Technology Development. The policy framework of this institution speaks to contributing to the national agenda through Heritage Based Education 5.0 (Teaching, Research, Community Service, Innovation, and Industrialisation) (The Doctrine, 2018). Lecturers thus revealed that they were motivated to work towards contributing to a clearly articulated policy framework. Examples are as follows:

> *"The college vision makes me feel as part of the college and would want to see myself as promoting the vision since it was clearly explained to me"* ***(RJB2a)***.

Benjamin:

> *"I am highly motivated by the college vision because it ignites me to work hard towards its achievement"* ***(RJB2a)***.

Reason given:

"The knowledge and understanding of the vision would guide my day to day operations in the organisation" ***(RJB2a)***.

Benjamin:

> *"If the college environment is always favourable I would work towards the vision of the organisation"* ***(RJB2a)***.

This implied that, to him, the college environment was also an important element in achieving the vision of the college. Adam also explained how policy guidelines were useful in motivating him.

Adam:

> *"Policy guidelines are made reference to, from time to time in performing college activities"* **(RJA2a)**.

Adam:

> *"The policies should be well articulated for easy understanding"* ***(RJA2a)***.

Adam particularly mentioned clarity of policy guidelines to avoid working at cross-purposes, having wrong expectations of the institution. Lecturers were able to work in tandem with the dictates of the ministry and the national agenda of attaining an upper-middle-income economy by year 2030. Bowen (2016) posits that there is a need to institutionalise the organisational vision statement through its organisational culture, so that that it is understood by all involved, active and known. In this way, the vision may be frequently referred to, and may not be forgotten, the policy document collecting dust.

Deborah:

> *"The college vision keeps reminding me that the institution should remain a leading provider of quality teacher education, hence that pushes me to play my part in accordance"* ***(RJD2a)***.

When lecturers abide by the policy guidelines, they follow a system that helps them achieve the college vision and mission, the ministry mandate, and subsequently, the national agenda for Zimbabwe's 'Vision 2030' (The Doctrine, 2018). Lecturers thus contribute to national development as has been indicated by Deborah. The mission's major emphasis is on how the organisation is going where it wants to go, by focussing on the people (social) and their behaviours (Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Khoza, 2018). However, Adam stated that there were those lecturers who wore 'blinkers' and wanted to do the job simply as prescribed.

Adam:

> *"Actually those blinkers could act as demotivation in some instances where people have ideas which could be better, but because the system directs them on what to do... yes they may be demotivated"* ***(IA2d)***.

His view was different from that of earlier participants.

Hannah:

> *"My main motivation comes from my work. When I have my work and I am doing it and I feel I am <u>doing it well</u>, then I am motivated to do more. Ee also the kind*

of reception you get especially from your administration when you are doing that kind of work and they give you feedback that perhaps you are doing it along the <u>*right lines,*</u> *then you know with such encouragement and support you get motivated"* ***(IH1a,2a)***.

This perception from Hannah brought in the issue of a supportive administrator (leader), who is encouraging. This depicts the process model. Hannah further stated that the lecturing staff was a motivated group of employees:

> "*The way they do their work, which sometimes is very demanding especially when approaching the Department of Teacher Education (quality assurance and examining board), the member of staff puts an effort, even works until late in the evening. You can see they want their work to be good, they want to shine and because of that they really show a kind of interest in their work, that portrays a high level of motivation and …"* ***(IH1a)***.

Hannah may have overlooked that some staff members are motivated to be successful in the examinations; they are not fully inwardly motivated. Because policy requires students to pass, lecturers may work towards merely passing them. Hannah's perception in this case is driven by the system model.

Esther:

> *"In one way of the other, if one does not motivate staff nothing will come to fruition"* ***(IE3a)****.*

This assertion implies that administrators and/or supervisors should motivate their lecturers to meet the mandate of the institution.

Hannah:

> *"Some lectures came to college to become lectures not knowing exactly what it involved and what should be done. They have low knowledge of work that may lead to low appreciation of the work and ultimately develop a bad attitude of not wanting to be involved in getting college work done"* ***(IH3b)*** *(*and this she referred to as human nature).

Hannah:

"Motivation is important, because it carries the day, it makes one give an extra mile and you want to do what you are supposed to do. If you do what you do with the will and the right attitude, you end up <u>doing it well</u>. If employees are motivated at work it means they will be more productive, they will look at quality and will want to achieve quality. They will feel they belong to the institution and will want to work towards the college brand. The moment one wants to work towards achieving the college brand, then they are motivated" ***(IH3a)***.

Hannah was convinced that the system that she works with guides her to perform well (to excel in her job). In other words, Hannah's self-actualisation in job performance was influenced by her understanding of what the system expects of her.

Noah agreed with Hannah and Deborah:

"Motivation is very important because if the college appreciates that you are putting an effort towards the goals of the institution it drives you to want to work and put an effort towards whatever you are doing" ***(FN2.1)***.

Noah further reiterated that, without motivation, he would not put maximum effort into his work.

Ruth:

"*There is joy that comes into me when I am appreciated because I feel I am doing the right thing. And personally inside me I feel happy and put a lot of effort so that I achieve the organisations objectives and aims"****(FR2.3)***.

Noah presented inner feelings on being driven to achieve organisational goals (personalisation). The above accounts from Hannah, Deborah, Ruth, and Noah suggest that lecturers, if supported, can be a catalyst for others to perform well. Most participants who appreciated policy guidelines also appreciated the system as a whole.

Leah brought in her perception specifying the need for support in policy guidelines. Leah:

"Motivation is the oil that makes things happen in an institution. When you are oiled you are bound to perform better, you are bound to go the extra mile" ***(FL3.3)***.

Leah further encourages administrators to continue motivating their workers so that:

> *"At the end they realise organisational goals..."* ***(FL3.3)***.

Other than achieving organisational goals, Ruth further brings in the aspect of employee retention through motivation.

Ruth:

> *"It is very important to motivate employees at the workplace so that we keep our workforce and we also achieve organisational goals"* ***(FR3.3)***.

Ruth's perception suggests that it is an advantage to retain employees within the workplace. Deborah's perception of employee motivation is that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are necessary:

> *"I feel that there must be a balance between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Because eee if for instance there are no means to motivate staff, the intrinsic motivation can serve still to achieve organisational goals"* ***(FD3.3)***.

Extending the discussion on the usefulness of policy guidelines, Ruth brought in her perception of clarity on these policy guidelines.

Ruth:

> *"Clear goals and objectives are easy to follow; I have a target to meet, so I put a lot of effort to achieve the organisational goals and objectives"* ***(RJR2d)***.

Benjamin:

> *"With goals and objectives the behaviour of employees in an organisation is not haphazard, it is well co-ordinated and directed towards organisational goals"* ***(RJB2d)***.

Benjamin:

> *"These goals and objectives of the organisation guide and motivate my performance as an individual"* ***(RJB2d)***.

Benjamin has offered his personal experiences about the policy guidelines and how they impact on his motivation. This sentiment is further supported by Deborah.

Deborah:

“Goals and objectives generate in me the desire to want to achieve them and this pushes me to work hard" ***(RJD2d)***.

Deborah and Benjamin reiterate the same sentiments about what motivates employees in the workplace:

“Motivation is that which pushes employees to want to work hard to achieve or exceed set targets” ***(RJD1)***.

Benjamin:

“Motivation of employees enhances effectiveness that is the degree of goal achievement by an organisation” ***(RJB1)***.

Among other aspects of institutional policy guidelines that were shared by participants is that of organisational core values. Firstly, both Benjamin and Deborah’s responses indicate the usefulness of core values (which are part of policy guidelines) in the discharge of their duties. Gaiya (2013) asserts that administrators are interested in the concept of values because they have direct influence in individual and organisational behaviour, and thus are a major component of both the organisation (system) and the individual (personal). Secondly, what is particularly interesting are the expressions used in their description of the organisational core values?

Benjamin:

“Constant reference to the organisation’s core-values would guide me on my operations. I would work to maintain and uphold the relevance of these core-values to the organisation” ***(RJB2c)***.

Benjamin:

“I would want all stakeholders to know that we abide by those core values, therefore, my performance level will always be high if I know the core values of the organisation. I would try as much as possible to avoid putting the college into disrepute by failing to observe these core values” ***(RJB2c)***.

Benjamin:

“Commandments which guide our day to day operations” ***(RJB2c)***.

Deborah*:*

"Core values remind me of the college brand and help me to do what is required of me" ***(RJD2c)***.

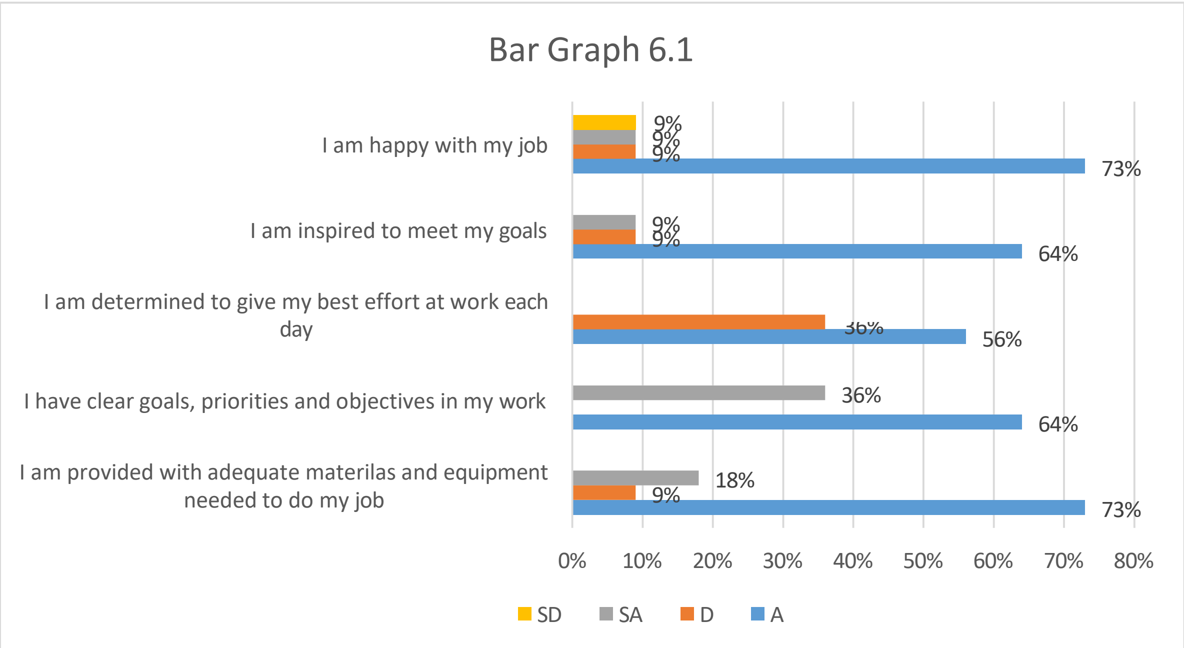
It is evident from Benjamin and Deborah's perceptions on core values that policy guidelines play a positive role in motivating lecturers in the workplace.

Referring to her perceptions about policy guidelines, Ruth asserted:

"If I am involved in crafting the vision, mission, core values, goals and objectives of the college, then I feel I am part and parcel of the institution and will be motivated in accomplishing the mandate of the college" ***(RJR5)***.

Ruth's comment validates her previous assertion that involvement in formulating policy guidelines adds positive perception. However, it is not only positive perception but also feelings. Feeling enthusiastic to execute one's job to the fulfilment of set goals stimulates great interest in Ruth when performing her duties. Colleges involve various stakeholders (social) in the process of drafting the college strategic-plan document. This is the main source document in guiding the operations of the college (as evidenced in analysing the documents).

By and large, lecturers expressed positive perceptions about the use of policy guidelines as a motivating factor. This was also summarised in their responses to the open-ended questionnaire (**Q10**). When participants were asked how they felt about their work, the answers were given as shown on Bar Graph 6.1 below:



Bar Graph 6.1 How participants felt about their work

The bar graph above shows that 73% of the respondents (majority) agreed that they were happy with their job; while 9% strongly agreed, 9% disagreed and 9% strongly disagreed. Sixty-four per cent agreed that they were inspired to meet their goals; while 9% strongly disagreed, 9% disagreed, and none strongly disagreed. Thirty-six per cent (36%) of the respondents strongly agreed that they had clear goals, priorities, and objectives in their work. The majority, 64%, agreed with this statement. Interestingly, 56% of the respondents agreed that they were determined to give their best at work each day; 36% disagreed; and none strongly agreed nor strongly disagreed. This indicates that lecturers had a positive perception, particularly on their clear goals, priorities, and objectives.

Goals and objectives are an important component of administration, both in terms of the planning-organising-leading-and-controlling (P-O-L-C) framework. (Matt, 2016; Locke & Latham, 2012). Matt (2016) further states that goals and objectives provide a basis for measurement of employee and organisational performance. They provide direction and meaning for accomplishing a given task. Lecturers, therefore, are likely to be motivated to perform well to meet the demands of their mandate (professional).

6.2.1.2 Tools of the trade to perform tasks

Sub-theme Two emerged from the participants' positive responses on their perceptions of the tools of the trade in performing their tasks in teacher-education institutions. They shared that various tools of the trade (resources) motivated them to perform their tasks, even though these were not adequate. In order for an organisation to achieve its goals and objectives, it must have at its disposal the necessary resources, using them effectively. An interpretive study conducted by Khoza (2013) on university lecturers who were using an online environment in teaching their modules identifies three types of resources in education. The study identifies hardware (any tools or device or object used in education), software (any materials used in conjunction with tools to carry or display information), and ideological-ware (theories and other intangible aspects).

When participants were asked how they felt about their work (Q10), the majority (64%) indicated that they agreed that they were provided with adequate materials and equipment needed to do their job. However, (27%) strongly agreed, and (9%) disagreed. This is presented in a pie chart as indicated in Figure 6.2 below.

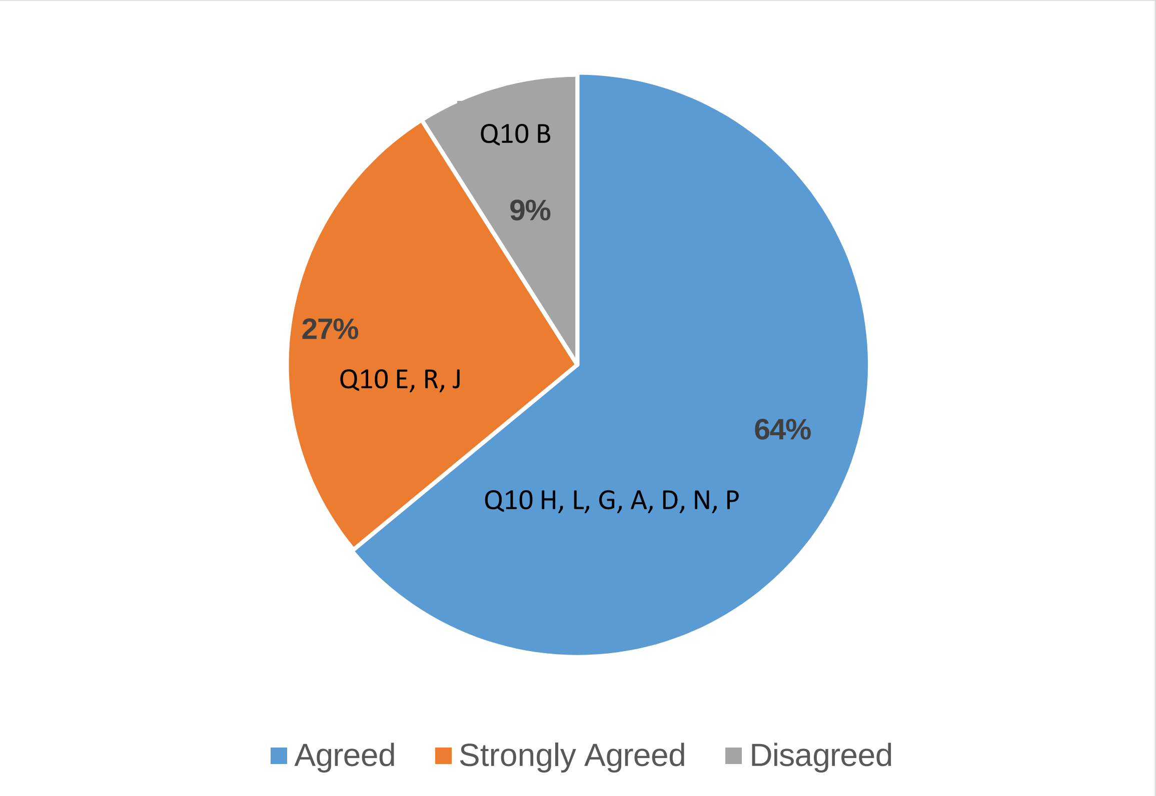


Figure 6.2 How participants felt about their work.

The scenario presented in Figure 6.2 above depicts that, according to the Currere moments of motivation, employees are progressive when resources are made available to perform their duties in the workplace. These resources may motivate them as individuals (personal), as a group (process); overall, the organisation achieves its objectives (professional system).

Ruth:

> *"When the college has resources, it makes one want to work because they have what they need to perform the tasks"* ***(RJR3)***.

Ruth:

> *"However, some tasks are not done when there are no resources"* ***(RJR3)***.

Deborah and Adam shared the same perceptions as Ruth:

“I get highly motivated if resources are available. If they are not available I get demotivated” ***(RJD3)***. *“Availability of resources motivates me to work hard and I am assured that all my plans/expectations will be met”* ***(RJA3)***.

Adam:

“Unavailability of resources demotivate me and I may end up not planning for the future” ***(RJA3)***.

In other words, lack of resources may make one regress, to the detriment of the organisation, the individual becoming demotivated to perform duties.

Benjamin expressed a similar view about the availability of resources and productivity:

“The most productive efforts by the employees could be spurred by availing the necessary resources” ***(RJB3)***.

Benjamin:

“Procurement and equitable distribution of college resources increase motivation of the employees” ***(RJB3*****)**.

The above comments suggest that employees are indeed motivated to perform their duties if resources are made readily available. Benjamin further made an analysis of how the distribution of the college resources impacts employee motivation. Benjamin emphasised the issue of *“equitable distribution”* as a motivating factor. In other words, it is not only the availability of the resources, but also how they are shared among employees, which sustain resources to remain a motivating factor. A resource-allocation policy and prioritisation budget development should depict the system model (Ndegwa, 2014). The relationship between acquisition of resources and their distribution may overlook employee motivation and organisational performance.

Adam:

“Little resources may lead to competition among staff where everyone would want to get what is not enough” ***(RJA3)***.

His response implied that resources could be scarce. Adam agreed with Benjamin that resources should be equitably distributed so that all employees could perform their duties well. Once all employees are motivated, they would work towards the accomplishment of organisational goals. Benjamin:

"Lack of resources lowers standards of performance and achievements among staff" ***(RJA3)***.

Ruth and Hannah, when asked why they would recommend their organisation to others as a great place to work ***(Q12)***, spoke highly of the availability of resources.

Ruth:

"Most of the resources needed for the job are provided" ***(Q12R).***

Hannah:

"The organisation at most times has adequate materials and equipment needed for the work" ***(Q12H).***

Deborah:

"The fact that the institution also supplies resources that we need to carry out our duties is motivation on its own" ***(FD1.2).***

Leah:

"another way of motivation is that we are enjoying the resources to carry out our duties, we are given gadgets such as laptops, desktops, just to mention a few and this is a way of motivating us" ***(FL1.2)***.

Govender and Khoza (2017) aver that hardware resources are physical resources that assist lecturers during the instructional processes.

Benjamin:

"Lecturers perform better if there are adequate resources such as well-furnished lecture rooms, well-stocked libraries, laboratories, textbooks, finances and the relevant curriculum" ***(RJB3).***

Both Leah and Benjamin considered hardware resources; however, they did not consider software and ideological-ware resources as a motivational need. Khoza (2013), earlier in this section, reminded us that software resources assist the hardware resources to display information; while ideological-ware resources help drive the work, such as theories, to be referred to. Having the resources without the knowledge and skill of using them may be as bad as having no resources for one to effectively perform their duties. The use of hardware resources is driven by the system model while the use of software is driven by the process model (Mpungose, 2017; Govender & Khoza, 2017; Bitzer & Botha, 2011). Furthermore, the use of ideological-ware is influenced by personal needs (Khoza & Mpungose, 2017). The participants' perceptions on availability of resources were thus driven mainly by the system model.

Benjamin:

> *"For instance, lecturers at our college were highly motivated when they were allocated teaching resources like laptops and fixing of clever boards in the lecture rooms. Morale was high among staff"* ***(RJB3)***.

The main question on Benjamin's sentiments would be: Were those resources used to advantage by these lecturers, or was there provision of the same for the sake of it? There is no mention of the staff members gaining the requisite skills to utilise the 'tools of the trade' that were made available for them (resources) to add value to the organisation. Morale could be high for the wrong reasons − these resources could lie idle or be used for personal interests other than for organisational use.

Most of the participants appreciated the use of hardware resources more than software resources. Interestingly, those participants who indicated the use of resources highlighted that employees were motivated by the availability of the hardware resources. This suggests that participants were influenced by the professional needs as they expressed professional perceptions (Mpungose, 2017). As a result, the use of hardware resources aligns with the system as the centre of discharging of duties. This suggests that the use of hardware resources such as computers and laptops afford a platform for participants' perception of performing their duties well.

Hardware resources can also be referred to as input resources, processing resources, and output resources (Cruz, 2013). Furthermore, professional perceptions influence the system (Mpungose, 2017; Khoza, 2017). This means that hardware resources were used by lecturers as input, process, and output. Therefore, the use of hardware resources allowed lecturers to have control over their work and performance (Mohammadyari & Singh, 2015; Mpungose, 2016).

Benjamin:

“Now we are talking online lecturing but the college does not provide bundles for the poor lectures as they operate from him” ***(QB6)****.*

This is an awakening statement that indicates that, while the gadgets may be provided, they may not serve the purpose without software resource ‘bundles’ for the lecturers to be able to work from home. Therefore, these gadgets may not be useful especially during the Covid-19 pandemic and lockdown, when lecturers are expected to perform their duties from their homes. Benjamin indicated that he disagrees that he was provided with adequate materials and equipment needed to do his job ***(QB10).*** Providing a resource without availing a supporting requisite need may be tantamount to lack of adequate tools of the trade. This suggests that Benjamin was driven by the personal needs model.

Noah also pointed on another element on the question of how often they were being appreciated as employees in the workplace.

Noah:

“Motivation depends with circumstances and the resources that are available. For example in the advent of the concept of Education 5.0 we agreed as a college about what we needed. It all depends on the circumstances and availability of resources. Motivation continues to come depending on the availability of resources” ***(FN1a)****.*

Deborah:

“if staff rely more on extrinsic motivation then, when the resources are not available due to the economic hardships then the organisational goals cannot be achieved. So I think there must be a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation so that the intrinsic motivation may help one to go beyond the target” ***(FD1.6)****.*

Noah and Deborah’s perceptions demonstrate that resources may be available for employees to perform their duties; however, there are times when there may be constraints that may compromise successful implementation of the programme. Noah and Deborah felt strongly that their personalisation experience through intrinsic motivation could go a long way towards maintaining organisational performance. In this regard, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are vital in motivating employees on organisational performance.

6.2.1.3 Collaboration to achieve goals and tasks/teamwork

This sub-theme emerged as a result of participants' positive perceptions of their love for teamwork in the workplace. Participants shared that they enjoyed collegial work relationships where employees shared information, trusted one another, and had supportive administrators, among other aspects. Such would impact positively on their motivation to work towards organisational performance. Analysis of the college strategic-plan documents showed that administrators involved a plethora of stakeholders in crafting the college vision, mission, core values, goals and objectives of the college. The college strategic plan is the main policy document that guides college operations. With the institutionalised strategic plan (that is understood by all employees involved in carrying out the college mandate) a working pace is set. Banker, Kaestle and Allen (2010) aver that administrators' support lies in the foundation that the habit of the administrator creates either a productive or counter-productive environment. Tewari and Sharma (2019), state that a motivated employee is likely to be a valuable asset and may add immensely to the value to the organisation.

Benjamin:

> *"The climate of the organisation determines the motivation and behaviour of members of that organisation. People tend to perform better if the work environment is good. The climate of the organisation creates particular expectations and encourages particular values and attitudes. In a good working environment there is teamwork, cooperation, commitment, communication and creativity. Performance levels of the members are high and they will have high concern for organisation success."* ***(RJB4b)***.

Deborah and Ruth:

> *"A work environment which is conducive helps one to stay focussed"* ***(RJD4b)****.*

> *"A conducive environment will motivate employees. An environment where individuals are allowed to express their feelings and also offer suggestions on how they can improve their performance will motivate employees* ***(RJR4b)***.

Sani (2013) avers that employees ought to work together and develop relationships with core-workers to create a friendly environment. This view is supported by Khoza and Mpungose (2017) who allude to the social, societal aspect of motivation that addresses the process model. The workplace environment is an important component for employees. Employees spend a significant part of their time at work: such affects them in one way or the other (Hafeez, Yingjun, Hafeez, Mansoor & Rehman). Kamarulzaman, Saleh, Hashim, Hashim and Abdul-Ghani (2011) posit that, when employees are satisfied with their work environment they may be motivated to work towards the growth of the organisation. Furthermore, with a comfortable environment employees can focus on their work and this may lead to better employee performance, which may further lead to improved organisational productivity (Kamurulzaman et al., 2011; Hafeez et al., 2019).

The perceptions shared by Benjamin, Deborah and Ruth above are further supported by Leah. Leah responded positively on the question of why she would recommend her organisation to others as a great place to work.

Leah:

> *"The working environment is healthy and conducive. It is more like family to most people."* ***(QL12)***.

Hannah:

> *"The organisation encourages good and collegial working relationships"* ***(QH12)***.

Noah:

> *"There is good working culture"* ***(QN12)***.

The process or people model emphasises the need for employees to work together and share ideas, be it core-workers or employees and supervisors, including employees and administrators. When individuals are given a chance to participate and be heard by their colleagues, including administration, they gain capacity of voice and should be supported by the system. This notion fulfils Pinar's idea of the regressive and progressive moments of motivation. The voice may be used to implement transformative change in the workplace and may also help colleagues to find their voice. However, this voice may not necessarily be supported by the system of bureaucratisation and standardisation (Connelly & Cladinin, 1990).

Esther:

> *"The college administration is selfish and does not consider other people's contributions. There is a lot of self-centredness"* ***(QE12)***.

Esther's perceptions reveal that teams have a powerful impact on the performance of the employees and the future of the organisations, and therefore, should not be ignored. Studies have been conducted on the subject of teamwork and have indicated that teams help facilitate the development process of the organisation through enhanced employee performance (Oseiboakye, 2015; Sanyal & Hisam, 2018). Esther's submissions further reveal that her administrator did not seem to realise the social drive of working with colleagues as a team. The kind of administration she described seemed to be driven by the personal needs (of the administrator), more than the social needs (of the employees). In the long run, such may work against employee motivation on organisational performance.

The majority of participants shared positive perceptions that their institutions had a good working environment which actually motivated them to perform well. This implies that participants' perceptions were driven more by their social perceptions of employee motivation on organisational performance. However, with Esther's assertion, it appears as though there may be some administrators who may not satisfy the social and personal needs of employees. They would not consider their contributions and remain self-centred (probably due to professional perceptions of their job). Such a scenario is likely to demotivate employees and may stifle organisational success.

An individual becomes more productive when working in a team acquiring or enhancing relevant work skills through unlimited learning, cooperation, and exchange of thoughts and various experiences. Teamwork, thus, is an essential element that may motivate employees towards the development and better functioning of an organisation. Tripathy (2018) avers that organisations can achieve more and better results when employees combine their efforts and work as a team.

Jacob, Hannah and Ruth, however, when they were asked the top reasons for remaining in their current jobs, indicated that they were involved in the work ***(QJ9,***

QH9, QR9). Involvement in the job made them feel motivated to remain there, even though there could be other factors that did not motivate them well. This implies that employees may be retained in an organisation because administrators have motivated them. Another employee-support determinant is that of exchange of information among core workers. Moreover, information exchange is a crucial part of the organisational process, and being well informed is necessary for both individual and organisational effectiveness (El-Said & Shaaban, 2014).

Hannah:

> *"Our Principal is always encouraging us to work as a team and because of that, most of the people want to be part of the team, and they want to work towards the goal of the college, and they want to achieve what we should achieve as a teacher education college"* ***(IH2b)***.

Esther:

> *"Motivation is very important ma'am in a lot of things, because if you don't..., we work with people and automatically to achieve, we do not achieve alone. And for the name of the institution to grow as to be given particular award, it is because of the efforts of the people whom you are working with*** " (IE3a)***.

Hannah's and Esther's sentiments were that, for an institution to achieve its goals, it is driven by the social aspect of working together (team work). This goes along with the adage that *'together everyone achieves more'* **(TEAM)**. Hannah mentioned the aspect of their administrators who always encouraged them on the importance of teamwork (socialisation) and how this motivated individual players to work towards organisational achievement. Tewari and Sharma (2019) stated that in the workplace, happy employees are more likely to be productive workers. Based on this fact, administrators are driven by the social or process model, as they work to make their employees happier by introducing measures to make the workplace a pleasant and productive place.

Adam:

> *"I personally love the spirit of teamwork among staff as working together makes the task easy and achieve more"****(RJA4b)***.

Adam:

> *"There are those members who are not willing to work as a team. Such individuals are always on the opposing side, as they see nothing good in whatever people do unless it is coming from them"* ***(RJA4b)***.

Hannah:

> *"Some people/individuals are just not team players. Where they are called to play team, they want to play individual, they want to go to the Principal individually and show him/her what they can do individually. When one is not a team player by nature it becomes difficult for him or her to be part of a team"* ***(IH3b)***.

What one gains from Adam's and Hannah's articulations is that some employees enjoy individuality, which are not motivated by working as a team but are satisfied by what they can do as individuals. Such people's efforts should not be and bringing them closer to the team fails they are better off left like that.

Hannah:

> *"Efforts can be made to encourage those who want to work as individuals so that they are part of the team. Such people can be given work that would, in a way, make them work with others, and eventually realise that teamwork is critical in the workplace"* ***(IH3b)***.

Esther:

> *"Yes, there are people who even though they may not want to work with others, given a chance to work as a team they will realise that they are benefiting when they share ideas. They, sooner or later, realise that they are part and parcel of the institution and feel they have ownership of the programme"* ***(IE3b)***.

In this case, Hannah and Esther are implying that administrators may actually change attitudes of some employees by making them work with others in a team. Thus they are able to share ideas (social) rather than continue to work as individuals (personal needs). It should be noted, however, that even those who are driven by personal needs can still add value to the institution. Some employees are driven by individual needs and some by social needs. In the workplace they meet the professional needs of the organisation.

6.2.2 Theme Two: Lecturers' negative perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance.

This broad theme presents participants' negative perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance. This broad theme is divided into three sub-themes which include: leadership rigidity, poor remuneration, and inadequate support system (refer to Table 6.1 above). The three sub-themes are discussed in detail.

6.2.2.1 Leadership rigidity

When participants were asked about their perceptions and experiences of leadership, they mainly perceived a rigid leadership style as most prevalent in their organisations. In most cases, these perceptions were in line with participants' negative experiences.

Benjamin:

> *"College leadership can impact positively or negatively on my motivational level. Leadership styles are patterns of behaviour favoured by leaders during the process of directing and influencing others. My motivation levels will be high if the college leadership follows a democratic or participatory approach. In this style members are made to feel important in an organisation. Members are allowed to participate in the decision making process. Participative decision making allows inputs by other people. Broad participation creates a sense of commitment. As a result I will be more committed and dedicated to work. This will assist in the achievement of the goals of the organisation (college)."* ***(RJB3d)***.

Adam:

> *"The type of leadership can motivate or demotivate staff. I enjoy a leadership style where I am recognised, given the opportunity to explore in my area of specialisation, supported in different activities in the organisation, appreciated for excelling, guided in my day-to-day activities and rebuked if I make mistakes"* ***(RJA3d)***.

Ruth:

> *"If leadership is accommodative, it can even assist those individuals who may have negative attitudes, to improve on their performance; hence achieve goals for the college. For example, one might not be giving students' feedback in time. If the leadership takes time to find out reasons why, then a solution can be sought. However, if the leadership just blames the individual without looking for the root cause, then they may have a serious problem"* ***(RJR3d)***.

Benjamin, Adam and Ruth's responses implied that they had similar perceptions on the type of leadership they expected from their administrators. All three indicated the type of leadership that would either motivate or demotivate them. Northhouse (2016) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Benjamin indicated his understanding of the leadership styles as patterns of behaviour favoured by leaders. Benjamin described how a democratic leader should behave. This implied that if the leader was not democratic employees would not be engaged in decision-making. Adam expressed that a leader should be one who recognises employee effort in their area of specialisation. In other words, if the leader did not recognise the good efforts of employees, they would become demotivated. However, he admitted that if the employee made a mistake they should be 'rebuked'. He did not elaborate on the term 'rebuked', which sounded too strong to be applied by a leader. Ruth, in her own description, indicated that a leader should be 'accommodative', implying that if they were not accommodative, as an employee, she would be demotivated.

Participants were clear about the type of leadership that they preferred − one that would make them contribute meaningfully to the achievement of the organisational goals. Their responses may have revealed their negative perceptions about leadership rigidity without directly addressing the negative behaviours of the leader in detail.
Benjamin:

> *"The college Principal in a democratic leadership style listens to staff requests and seeks to support such requests whenever reasonable. The administration is seen by both lecturers and students as supportive, caring and trustworthy, all of which help to create conditions of excellence"* ***(RJB3d)***.

Adam:

"People would want to be involved in decision making" ***(IA1a)***. When he was probed on how employees would be involved he elaborated: *"I see Academic Board members making decisions here and there, the Finance committee makes decisions here and there. Yes people are involved, but at the end of the day, it is actually Administration that seems to make the final decision, maybe they think that is what is right"* ***(IA2b)***.

Adam's sentiments revealed that an academic board and finance committees involved several staff members (social), something he appreciated; however, administrators went further to make final decisions. On further probing, Adam expressed that possibly administrators did what they did because they were answerable to higher authority elsewhere (professional vision). Adam's sentiments revealed that administrators could be rigid because they remained accountable for whatever happened in their organisation.

Gabriel's response on what motivated him at the workplace:

> *"When there are opportunities, the boss allows us to make use of such opportunities. He gives us support in order to do one or two things which is a rare occasion in other institutions"* ***(IG2a).*** He further on uttered that:*"In other institutions you are even barred from participating in activities that fill in the gap in order to support your vision, to support whatever you want as a human being, as a person who needs to survive under difficult conditions"* ***(IG2c)***.

Benjamin and Gabriel indicated that having a good boss was one of the top reasons for remaining in their current job ***(QB9 & QG9)***.

Esther's sentiments on leadership:

> *"When one is at the top (an administrator/leader), one must look after the welfare of the employees, the surroundings and the community around. Governance issues areal embracing"* ***(IE2b).***

Esther:

> *"I am motivated in the workplace in that, when I need something pertaining my day-to-day duties, of course they are availed and I also try to make sure I communicate it in right channel and explain reasons why I need whatever I*

need. In that way automatically get what I need to perform my duty" ***(IE1a)*** *But at times it's like I am forcing to get what I need, but because of the nature of my job I am accorded what I need. I sometimes can read that I have pushed my boss to provide what I need against his wish"* ***(IE2b)***.

What Esther may imply is that her boss was rather rigid and would not take any requests at face value. She would have to communicate per the right channel (professional) for her to obtain what she needed from the administrator. She believed that it was necessary to assert herself to achieve what was needed in her job. Esther was driven by personal needs. She was able finally to convince her boss to accord her what she needed. The professional and social vision assisted her in convincing her leader to meet her personal needs.

Esther:

> *"What demotivates me the most, however, is that when you have a talent to work hard and you are prevented from going an extra mile, at the end of the day you are someone, who is maybe just seen as if you are useless"* ***(IE1b)***.

Esther:

> *"I am not given a chance to air my views nor to explore areas where I think I can improve my workplace and the welfare of my colleagues. As I perform my day-to-day duties my colleagues come in and help me because when you are working in an organisation you are not existing on your own, you work with people"* ***(IE1b)***.

On the contrary, Jacob indicated that he enjoyed his work and he was allowed to make decisions concerning the work ***(QJ6)***, implying that he was motivated by a leader who involved him in the workplace.

Hannah:

> *"I am demotivated especially when I am not appreciated, when I put effort and my superiors do not seem to see the kind of effort I am exerting into my work. This is demotivating, especially when I try to do the correct thing and I am looked upon by superiors as if I am overzealous, as if I want to show that I know too much and I receive negative comments, that destroys my morale"* ***(IH1b)***.

Leah, however, indicated that her management was user friendly and recognised the individuality of its workers ***(QL12)***.

Hannah:

> *“At times the attitude from administration would imply that they are concerned so much about cutting down on expenditure rather than what should be done, and this demotivates me’****(IH1b)***.

Sentiments from Esther and Hannah imply that administrators ought to understand whether individual employees are triggered by professional, social, or personal needs (Khoza, 2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017).

Esther:

> *“As a leader, the way you speak to your colleagues, the way you greet them, the way you support them in times of need means a lot. If someone gets sick, as a leader, you need to make a follow up to find out how they are feeling - just a phone call from the comfort of your office will motivate someone. One would feel good that my leader has thought of me during this dire need, when I need someone to talk to. This is because there are times when one needs to hear their boss’s voice just to say hello, how are you feeling Esther? By so doing one automatically feels motivated to come back to work where the leader shows care”* ***(IE2c)***.

Esther:

> *“A leader can even support colleagues by supporting their family programmes, attending funerals or weddings, not even giving them anything but just being there for them”* ***(IE2c)***.

Esther:

“Some lecturers can do much better than administrators, so these lecturers need to be listened to, give them an ear. The administrator can take on board what the lecturer would have shared, can improve on the ideas as a leader and at the end of the day that idea can help them to improve the organisation. The administrator can even change the idea from the lecturer to come up with something brilliant out of it. The

leader should, therefore, allow lecturers to share their ideas openly without deterring them. You (leader), therefore, need a platform where you can interact with colleagues to tap on their ideas either individually or as a group" ***(IE2c)***.

Benjamin:

> *"As staff we have different talents. Since we have different talents, as a leader, if you want something done, you know who is good at doing what. If someone is good at sport you assign that particular person because he/she has a talent in that area. So the best way is to know your staff"* ***(FB3.4)***.

Al-Khajeh (2018), in his quantitative survey research with employees in randomly selected organisations on the impact of leadership styles on organisational performance concluded that the participative approach motivates employees to perform better. Employees then believe that their views and opinions are valued. This would go a long way to promoting individual and organisational performance. That could be the reason why the majority of participants indicated personal growth and satisfaction as one of the main factors motivating them at work. ***(QJ8, QH8, QN8, QD8, QA8, QR8)***.

Jacob:

> *"Motivation depends on the individual and the type of leadership. If you do something good and you are given a pat on the back that is a way of motivating besides the monetary or materialistic way of motivating. A leader can also throw a party, for example after good work has been achieved (for example good results at the end of an academic year). A leader can take staff out for a braai as a way of motivating staff. So it all depends on the leadership style of a particular administrator".* ***(FJ1.2)***.

Hannah thus indicated that 'management style' is one of the reasons for her remaining in her current job ***(QH9)***.

Jacob:

> *"Motivation approaches used by administrators are varied. Motivation is psychological, and when an employee comes to work, because people are different, they bring different expectations. Leaders usually identify what one*

would want to achieve their task, hence use different approaches to motivate them" ***(FJ3.1)***.

Jacob:

*"Motivation is used for many reasons, not necessarily for organisational needs and aspirations, but also career development. For example, career guidance will in the long run help one to achieve organisational goals. Therefore, both the individual and the organisation benefit from career development of an individual." (****FJ3.2)***.

Al-Mughairi states that successful organisations are those that recognise the need for competent and well-developed employees to help achieve their organisational objectives. Most organisations today invest a great deal of money on the training and development of employees so that they remain competitive and successful (Bashiri & Jehanzeb, 2018). Kassie (2017) asserts that there is a positive relationship between training and development and employee performance. Such is influenced by the process model as it is more concerned with the motivation of employees on organisational growth and performance.

Benjamin, in his concluding remarks on motivation models used in the workplace expressed that:

"There is organisational politics in some of these institutions where there are allegations on the part of the Principal that he practices nepotism. At the same time, there are these employees who are glory seekers, who try to impress the Principal by rumour angering. The attitude of the Principal thus is very important in such a scenario. The Principal needs to be very careful how he/she takes the rumours that are circulating. Public reprimand of staff is demotivating" **(*FB3.3)***.

Leah in her concluding remarks stated:

"I personally feel that leaders should not stick to one type of motivation. We need to have varied motivation models depending with workers that we want to motivate, because, ideally we are different. No two individuals are alike; therefore, the leader should try to vary the motivation levels" ***(FL3.3)***.

Benjamin and Leah, in this case, were describing those employees who were driven more by individual needs than by social or professional needs.

Deborah:

> *"The powers that be must be consistent in the manner that they motivate employees. How would someone feel for instance, as an individual you may have achieved something and you are just given a pat on the back. The next person may be two months later, or two weeks down the line, somebody achieves something and they are given a hamper. The administrator should actually decide on what to give people for their achievement and should be consistent. This is because, in the process of trying to motivate someone, you might actually demotivate the other person during the same process. So the issue of motivation really needs to be clearly thought about"* ***(FD3.4)***.

Deborah's submission implies that an institution should have a policy framework (professional) that would guide them. The policy should remain consistent on employee motivation. Ryan (2015), however, asserts that no single model of human motivation offers an all-encompassing and comprehensive view of the complexity of human behaviour. This suggests that administrators need to develop and maintain a healthy relationship (social) between motivation of employees and fairness in the allocation of rewards. These concepts are strongly associated with a successfully motivated employee (Neumann, Ritz & Vandebeele, 2016).

6.2.2.2 Poor remuneration

This sub-theme shares participants' perceptions on issues related to compensation management for the work they do. Issues raised include remuneration, rewards, and incentives as critical drivers of employee motivation on organisational performance. Fonseka (2019) states that remuneration is a consequential factor which sways the performance and motivation of the employees of an organisation. The participants in this study shared negative perceptions about remuneration compensation management as a motivator on organisational performance for employees at the workplace. Let the reader understand what they shared.

Gabriel:

"*Aaah as for now there isn't much because I expect quite a lot from my workplace, from my employer, but what I expect from the employer is not forthcoming. There isn't much to talk about, so you find that now the desire to work is the only thing left for me to be motivated to continue working"* ***(IG1a)***.

Gabriel:

"First and foremost we work in order to be able to take care of our families, in order in order to progress, in order to survive upon retirement. And when you cannot see the light ahead, you become demotivated. It's not pleasing at all" ***(IG1a)***.

Deborah:

"Sometimes I feel like exceeding the set targets, but when I think about what I then get after working that hard, I simply decide not to go beyond the stipulated" ***(QD6)***.

Gabriel and Deborah's sentiments revealed that they had personal expectations at the workplace, personal expectations that would take care of their social needs. Should those expectations not be met they would become demotivated. Remuneration, therefore, seems to be the mainspring for motivation of employees (Fonseka, 2019).

Deborah went on to express that she could not be motivated to reach her full potential when the organisation could not fulfil her needs:

"Intrinsic motivation can push someone to reach their full potential, yes, but that coupled with extrinsic motivation can actually make someone perform beyond their full potential. So in short, a person can never perform better if the organisation cannot fulfil workers' needs" ***(QD7)***.

Adam:

"People work so that they take care of their families. It becomes very difficult for them to work when they cannot afford basic human needs. I have noticed that the way I work around my pay days is very different from the work I do throughout the month" ***(QA7)***.

Gabriel:

> *"I am not highly motivated because there is nothing coming from the employer to motivate me. Imagine from 2015 to date, I have been receiving 15RTGS HOD's allowance and nothing else. I am expected to be at work during holidays at times weekends on administrative work. Imagine with the salary civil servants are getting, it becomes very expensive to be on this responsibility. Colleagues who are not on this responsibility can at least have an opportunity to supplement the meagre salaries. We do work because we are supposed to do so, and love working. The little motivation I have is an understanding Head of station who tries to find ways of motivating his staff"* ***(QG6)***.

Adam:

> *"As a head of department, I am given an allowance of 15RTGS per month which suggests that public service commission does not value this position"* ***(QA6)***.

Adam further expressed what demotivated him at the workplace:

> *"One obvious thing is unfair reward system. Low salary is obviously demotivating. Usually I see it when I get to pay days, it's very difficult to concentrate to work issues. You are trying to make ends meet, the salary is just meagre"* ***(IA1b)***.

Deborah, Adam and Gabriel's excerpts imply that the professional and social vision of employees make them who they are, in realising their personal vision. They (employees) are demotivated when the professional vision (salary) does not meet their social expectations; and hence feel demotivated as their personal needs are not met. Their only solace seems to be the heads of institutions, who, therefore, should understand employee motivation needs on organisational performance. Deborah indicated that she was driven by her personal vision that should be supported by her social drive to reach her full potential. Adam on two different occasions mentioned that his work performance, especially on remuneration, was very low. Because he was socially driven, the meagre salary could not fulfil his personal needs. Gabriel and Adam were both disgruntled about the 15 Rtgs only per month for being heads of department. Gabriel added that the work was demanding; he worked even during holidays. He went on to compare himself with those colleagues who were not in the same position as he was, who had time to supplement their poor salaries (social vision). However, because he was driven by his love for work (personal), Gabriel continued to work. He also mentioned that he was motivated by his head of institution who found ways of motivating staff (socially driven).

Asked how he was motivated at the workplace, Gabriel said:

> *"I have a positive boss, who takes care of my needs. A boss who understands how things should be done and who also understands the gaps that are there and comes in to fill in and provide the comfort. In that way I get motivated"* ***(IG2a)***.

Adam:

> *"Aah, to talk of any financial benefit, aah, these are far-fetched"* ***(IA2a)***.

Gabriel and Adam's sentiments confirm that employees' solace is the administrators; otherwise, salaries and indeed financial benefits are demotivating. Cahyanugroho, Hubeis and Wijayanto (2016) aver that remuneration should stimulate employees to be motivated to work.

Ruth:

> *"When I am motivated, I feel the urge or drive to do even better. I put extra effort to achieve my goals"* ***(QR6)***.

Ruth:

> *"It all depends on an individuals' personality. However, mostly when one is not motivated they are likely to lose focus on their work and see no need to put effort. Most individuals might concentrate on finding ways of fulfilling those needs hence there will be divided attention"* ***(QR7)***.

Similarly, Adam:

"I personally feel that reasonable remuneration motivates me to work hard. If I am well paid it means I will fully put my efforts in the organisation - there is no room to "kiya-kiya" (doing other things to make money). I suggest that employees be given chance to work also on what pays them back, for example, engaging in projects, researching, going out to supervise students on attachment teaching practice and many others".

Sentiments shared by Ruth and Adam reveal that people are different: the way they respond to motivation or lack of it will, therefore, be different (personal vision).

Cahyanugroho et al. (2016), however, posit that remuneration has a positive relationship and influence on motivation of employees; thus has a positive relationship and influence on employee performance.

Gabriel's perception on whether he would recommend his organisation to others as a place to work indicated that:

> *"The workplace is okay, but what the job offers one would be disappointed"* ***(QB12)***.

Adam:

> *"If someone is looking for financial benefits, this organisation is not good for them. Imagine people we left in schools earning much higher salaries when compared to those who are in colleges. A lecturer getting a salary that is almost the same to that of a teacher who has just qualified from the college. A person whom the lecturer has trained, who has no teaching experience"* ***(QA12)***.

Gabriel and Adam shared the same sentiments that the workplace was good; however, they could not recommend anyone to the organisation if they (employees) needed a high salary. Adam fell short of saying that he would rather remain a teacher than become a lecturer. Adam, however, may not have realised that for some, the title of lecturer would suffice to move them from being a school teacher. Such people would be motivated by their social elevation in form of a title (lecturer), not necessarily focussing on financial benefits.

Ruth:

> *"Everyone works so that they can benefit out of it. Where there is guarantee of compensation, employees tend to stay longer, hence there is continuity and goals are achieved"* ***(RJR4e)***.

Deborah:

> *"The poor remuneration that I get coupled with the absence of incentives highly demotivates me"* ***(RJD4e)***.

Benjamin expressed that the level of motivation affects his performance:

"My current position is Principal Lecturer, but my remuneration is lower than that of a teacher in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. I have a government authority to drive and at the same time a lecturer. College trips which attract hefty payments are reserved for college drivers. Accommodation on campus is very limited forcing most lecturers to lodge in the neighbourhood. Besides, the college does not provide transport for lecturers who stay out of campus. The ministry does not support lecturers for further studies yet they encourage us to study. On completion of, for example PhD, no salary adjustments or reimbursement of the incurred fees expenses like what the private sector does. Some organisations do provide full breakfast and lunch for their employees at the expense of the company. Staff associations like ZIMTA provide its members vehicle loans, housing schemes, funeral cover of which COLAZ has no such benefit. Promotions in MHTEISTD are scarce. The HOS does all the laborious work but the HOD and LIC enjoy the benefits on monthly basis" ***(QB6)***.

Benjamin harboured a great deal of disgruntlement. He outlined how unfair the whole system was and he looked at how other organisations motivated their employees through various strategies. Such was not happening in his workplace. Benjamin went on to share that as a head of subject he did not receive any benefits that supervisors in the same institutions received; referring to heads of departments and lecturers in charge. As a result, he was demotivated in the workplace; and thus his level of performance was negatively affected.

Benjamin:

"An organisation which offers better rewards for its employees would tend to yield better results. Performance levels are higher if employees get better remuneration. High salaries and incentives would motivate employees to work harder. A highly motivated staff performs better ***(RJB4e).***

Excerpts shared above reveal that employees are driven more by individual needs and they (employees) react differently in a bid to satisfy their needs. Benjamin and Adam's perceptions are supported by Stuart (2011). Stuart posits that attractive remuneration systems are likely to retain employees: this would save costs of recruitment, since the retention rate would be very low. Furthermore, good relations between the employer and the employees are likely to be enhanced. Employees may be very committed in their work and their productivity maximised, enabling an organisation to achieve its objectives.

Adam:

> *"An effective organisation has highly committed, motivated and dedicated workforce. Employees render their services in full in an organisation where they feel their efforts are recognised and rewarded. If members are committed to work, they will always be ready to work even overtime in order to achieve organisational goals* ***(RJB5)***.

Adam, in his concluding remarks about employee motivation on organisational performance expressed that:

> *"Motivation is key to employees in an organisation. Maximum benefit is achieved if workers are motivated. Each organisation should find ways of motivating its workers. Ideas on coming up with incentives should also come from staff. They should be allowed to make suggestions on how the organisation can raise funds to motivate its workers. The challenge when employees are not incentivised is that they go out looking for better opportunities elsewhere. For example, most lecturers find jobs as part time lecturers in three or four universities. They work from Monday to Sunday. What that means is that they only pay lip-service at their colleges and performance is negatively affected, thus is the organisation that suffers at the end of the day. Incentives would, therefore, lure the employee's attention to the organisation. However, there are people who are not grateful to the efforts made by the organisation no matter what they do. Such people are common in an organisation and they keep administrators on their toes. The long and short is; an organisation should thrive to find ways of motivating its workers so that the shared organisational vision is achieved."* ***(RJB5)***.

Ruth:

> *"Government should look into financial issues of employees, because in as much as people would really want to work, they may be motivated by their immediate superiors who are doing everything they can to retain the workforce,*

> *but as long as the financial aspect is left the way it is, very few people would work hard enough to achieve organisational goals. See, when people go to school to learn, to acquire better qualifications, their aim is also to improve quality of life. If the physiological needs are not met, then they may not perform well at work"* ***(FR3.3)***.

Human capital, being the most valuable asset of an organisation, determines the success or failure of organisation's programmes and activities (Fonseka, 2019). Fonseka further posits that attractive remuneration systems tend to retain hardworking employees and reduce employee turnover rates.

Participants also brought in the aspect of a need to feel appreciated in the workplace.

Gabriel:

> *"The worker should be appreciated and this should start from the employer. There must be a reasonable salary and benefits whilst I am at work. We should have a decent life after retirement, when the future is uncertain as it is now, how can one be motivated?"* ***(QG7)***.

Esther:

> *"One should feel recognised at work and enjoy the work related benefits"* ***(QE7)***.

Hannah shared mixed perceptions about her work.

Hannah:

> *"At my workplace most of the things are in place, for example, the way I work with my Principal and my subordinates as Vice Principal I get a lot of respect and to me that is motivating enough. I really like my work".* On the other hand, she said: *"But what we get at the end of the month, which may not have anything to do with my workplace as such, but that could be an area of improvement. Because we are government employees, the package that we get at the end of the month is not pleasing at all. This may not have anything to do with my workplace"* ***(IH2b)***.

Ruth, Gabriel and Hannah, like the rest of the participants, are in agreement that the employer does not seem to appreciate the work they do. The staff members perceive their remuneration as too low to motivate them sufficiently to achieve organisational goals. Ruth refers to the Currere model when she looks back at the qualifications she has attained (regression); and the salary that is not commensurate with her qualifications (progression). Ruth realises that she cannot afford a good quality life (analytical). When her physiological needs are not met she may fail to perform well enough to achieve organisational goals (synthetical). Gabriel added that one ought to have a comfortable life after retirement. He is already thinking about the future and what the present job would bring him in practical terms (personal). While Hannah showed understanding that there was an employer responsible for remuneration (professional), she enjoyed her work relations with the principal and subordinates. This implies that she was driven by the socialisation or people aspect. However, Hannah made it clear that the employer was not paying them well enough. As a government employee, one should not expect to be well paid. This view did not accord with Ruth's view who had considered her qualifications a gateway to a better salary.

Adam:

> *"More could be done to motivate staff because the financial benefits are just not enough"* ***(IA2c)***.

Gabriel:

> *"Workers need to survive. Staff can only be motivated when first and foremost they earn an acceptable salary which can allow them to have a 'standard' kind of living. If they cannot get that, definitely one cannot work on an empty stomach. One cannot work when they cannot afford even to have a stand; have a car which is new, not from Japan (ex-Jap). We cannot afford to send children to school and yet we are lecturers, we are supposed to be able to live a life above average. We cannot do that, so how can we be motivated?"* ***(IG2c)***.

Adam:

> *"I am speaking on behalf of everyone because we are at the same level and we are experiencing the same hardships. We are sending our children to poor schools while society expects us as lecturers to send our children to schools that are well resourced and with good pass rates. Workers are therefore demotivated"* ***(IG2d)***.

Ruth later on seemed not to give much weight to her living standards:

> *“Personally, I enjoy helping other people to achieve their goals. I am happy when my students grow and have hope for the future. As a person coming from a disadvantaged background, I know for some, this is the only hope out of poverty. This drives me to work hard to help such individuals achieve their goals”*

Ruth went further to say that one of the top reasons for her to stay in her current job was:

> *“The opportunity I have to help the less privileged of our society. At times I just feel like it’s my calling. I enjoy working with students and helping them grow”* ***(QR9)***.

Ruth’s statement implies that she may not be overly concerned with remuneration. Ruth was personally driven to help students out of poverty. This personal drive came from her socialisation experiences of growing up in impecunious circumstances. Ruth has used her past experiences (regression) to propel her future endeavours (progression), according to Pinar’s Currere model. This shows how people perceive their work, which informs the reader that people in the workplace are of diverse needs and backgrounds.

While Adam thought he represented all his colleagues, he did not consider such colleagues as Ruth and others. There could also be other employees who do not consider good remuneration as critical in the workplace − they may have other resources that would cater for their basic needs. Their coming to work may just be to keep themselves occupied, thus issues of poor remuneration are irrelevant to them and their basic needs. Such people would always remain motivated to achieve organisational goals in their workplace (with or without a good remuneration package).

Kitiya and Mukuru (2013) state that a motivated workforce employee in institutions has the drive for higher productivity, quality, quantity, and commitment. This suggests that people are driven by many different factors, for instance, their passion or their quest for better remuneration. The sources of motivation may vary between individuals − people have different needs, thus, the same factors do not drive all people (Kitiya & Mukuru, 2013).

Leah:

"Motivation drives one to perform. So if the level of motivation is low, so is performance and the reverse is true" ***(QL6)***.

Leah:

"Fulfilment of needs takes precedence because it leads to motivation which then leads to improved performance" ***(QL7)***.

Hannah:

"One's needs have to be fulfilled first before one can perform to their full potential" ***(QH7)***.

Benjamin:

"If the organisation cannot fulfil my needs, the next thing is to 'vamoose' ***(****leaving the job) and vacate to greener pastures. I will not perform to the best of my ability. No wonder why most lecturers are in the diaspora"* ***(QB7)***.

Benjamin, therefore, indicated that he had 'always' thought of giving notice ***(QB11)***.

Leah, Hannah and Benjamin's sentiments were driven more by personal needs than by professional or socialisation needs. Fadguba (2012) argues that the compensation package and reward system of an organisation should motivate employees sufficiently for them to remain within the same organisation. Alzubi (2018) agrees that high turnover rates may lead to decrease in work progress, performance, and organisational reputation, among other things.

Deborah in her conclusion remarks indicated the following:

"Commitment to work is as a result of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Some employees are pushed more by extrinsic motivation factors, while others are pushed more by the passion to work hard. However, I think a balance between the two types of motivation should be struck to achieve organisational goals because extrinsic motivational factors may not always be availed to push members to work especially considering the economic environment of the day. On the other hand, administrators should make effort to provide that which makes their members work hard" ***(RJD5)***.

Deborah's view shows that people are different in the workplace. Some may be extrinsically driven and some intrinsically driven to perform well. While administrators may want to motivate employees extrinsically, Deborah is aware that economically they may fail, the economy fluctuating (social). This, in her opinion, would require an employee who is intrinsically motivated (personal vision) to achieve organisational goals.

6.2.2.3 Inadequate support system

Participants shared negative perceptions on the support system from both the employer and the organisation. Issues raised covered lack of support in furthering studies, promotion, training and development, recruitment and orientation of employees, and conflict resolution.

Benjamin:

> *"Motivation at the workplace covers a lot of things, from the Ministry down to the employer. At our institution we are more of a family and there is a lot of support especially from the Administration. They really try to motivate us. But when it comes to the Ministry itself, there is demotivation. Like for example, if I want to advance my studies, I must first get clearance from the Ministry, my fees are not paid for and when I complete my studies there is no social mobility. I will not be promoted even if I acquire a Masters' degree or Doctoral degree. I remain where I am and the salary does not change. One feels demotivated and the next thing that one would do is to think of moving to greener pastures* ***(FB1.2)***.

Gabriel:

> *"We do not have a support system when one wants to advance their studies, the Ministry does not pay your fees, but the skills you acquire from these studies are ploughed back in the Ministry"* ***(IG3b)***.

Benjamin, however, confirmed that at the institution there were some staff development programmes:

"There are so many staff development programmes which take place at the college. At the end of it you feel empowered and motivated" ***(FB1.2)***. *At our college we have a research and staff development committee that is responsible for planning programmes to empower staff. The implementation of the programmes is followed up, even by administration, to establish if all that was planned for the year had been covered. If it was not covered, the committee would have to explain why"* ***(FB1.2)***.

Ruth:

"Staff development programmes help to improve confidence in employees. It also helps them to improve on performance hence organisational goals are achieved" ***(RJR4d)***.

Benjamin shared that one way of supporting staff at the workplace was through training and development.

"Performance levels could be raised if workers in an organisation are sent for training and development in order to acquire new skills needed in the organisation. For instance, in the advent of a new curriculum, members (employees) ought to be sent for workshops for continued Professional development programmes. These workshops, seminars, conferences, learning activities would help in contributing to my Professional growth and development. My performance levels could be improved in line with current trends since knowledge is dynamic ***(RJB4d)***.

Adam:

*"On-the-job-training helps me gain new knowledge and skills that assist me to maximise my potential in the organisation. For such training, it is important that employee needs are identified first and then invite vibrant resource persons for the programme to be effective" (****RJA3.2)***.

Deborah:

"*Regular training and development refreshes and renews knowledge and skills therefore, highly motivates me"* ***(RJD4d)***.

Employee recruitment and orientation of personnel in an organisation is a way of supporting existing staff and the programmes.

Deborah:

> *"Getting more personnel who have been oriented reduces work load and improves on quality. This highly motivates me"* ***(RJD4a)***.

Ruth:

> *"If recruitment is done in a more transparent manner, it will help employees to work towards achievement of organisational goals. Orientation of staff also helps to give employees direct. They become aware of the expectations and are motivated to work towards achievement of goals"* ***(RJR4a)***.

Benjamin:

> *"Recruitment to the appropriate position which requires my abilities and capabilities enhances my performance level. I would be having the best performance in the organisation. Orientation of personnel makes me feel welcome to the college environment and locality. It is during this orientation process that I would be getting the necessary assistance to do the job. The administration would prepare my service load taking into account my qualifications, interests and desire. All this would enhance my performance levels because very soon I would feel to be part of the organisation. I would know what to do and the expectations of the organisation"* ***(RJB4a)***.

Adam:

> *"Orientation is part of a welcome gesture to me as a new member and thus needs to be done early before one gets lost"* ***(RJA4a)***.

Sentiments shared above imply that recruitment and orientation of personnel are important in the workplace. Ruth confirmed that recruitment ought to be done in a transparent manner. In other words, participants perceived that if recruitment was not done transparently, it could demotivate staff. Selection of candidates may be through favouritism (social vision), which may lead to disgruntlement across the organisation (Bogatova, 2017). Again, if staff numbers are not increased, the workload may be too demanding for existing staff. Such may demotivate personnel and negatively affect organisational performance (professional vision).

Deborah revealed that new staff at the institution ought to be oriented to the new organisation and work so that they quickly fit into the new environment. In other words, if orientation is not achieved, new staff would feel dejected and demotivated; this may negatively affect both individual and organisational performance (Ochola, 2018). Benjamin also reiterated the need to deploy staff to their appropriate positions. Such may professionally enhance staff performance levels in their area of specialisation.

Benjamin raised a pertinent issue about the use of motivation in the workplace:

> *"In any organisation, conflict is inevitable among staff, between staff and administration, staff and the employer. One way of dealing with these conflicts is by motivating staff. Conflict resolution strategies involve satisfying employee needs and in that way conflicts are less likely to happen in an organisation. In other words, conflicts are reduced through motivation techniques"* ***(FB3.2)***.

Benjamin's sentiments imply that the administrator and the employer can reduce conflict in the workplace through motivation of staff. Conflict is therefore a social process that can be managed within the workplace. Where conflict is rife, productivity is likely to be thwarted; and thus should be avoided at all costs.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the first part of the descriptive analysis, which consisted of two broad themes and six sub-themes. This descriptive analysis has offered discussions on participants' positive and negative perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary-teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe. The findings in this chapter were also analysed using the researcher's interpretation and literature in order to make sense of the findings. In the broad Theme One, participants shared their positive perceptions about employee motivation models in the workplace. These positive perceptions were driven by professionalisation experiences. Discussions relating to participants' positive perceptions were presented using three sub-themes, namely: policy framework as a guide, availability of tools of the trade (resources) to perform tasks, and collaboration to achieve goals and tasks/teamwork. The second broad theme consisted of participants' negative perceptions of employee motivation models in the workplace, mainly driven by their socialisation experiences. Discussions relating to participants' negative perceptions were presented in three sub-themes, namely: leadership rigidity, poor remuneration, and inadequate support systems. The following chapter presents the operational and philosophical analysis of data generated in the st

CHAPTER SEVEN

OPERATIONAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the descriptive analysis of data generated from the participants of this study. The chapter (Chapter Six) presented interpretation of data from two broad themes: lecturers' positive perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance and lecturers' negative perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The present chapter presents how the operational issues were applied (process) and why (philosophical analysis) they were applied in a particular manner. The data generated thus addresses the 'how' and 'why' questions of the study. The two research questions addressed in this chapter are: How are motivation models used in motivating employees in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe, and: Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? The observation method of generating data was limited; however, data used in this chapter were derived from the reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions. The codes used to present participants' direct quotes are similar to those in Chapter Six.

7.2 Presentation of Operational and Philosophical Themes and Sub-themes

This section presents three broad themes and eight sub-themes that influenced participants' perceptions of employee motivation models on organisational performance in this study (see Table 7.1 below). The three broad themes each discuss the **system, process,** and **personal** views of employee motivation models on organisational performance. Theme one is a broad theme: use of incentives. The sub-themes are as follows: knowledge incentives (system), financial incentives (process), philosophical view of incentives, and financial-knowledge incentives. Theme Two discusses types of leadership. The sub-themes are instructional leadership (system), transformational leadership (process), philosophical view of leadership, and transformational-instructional leadership. Theme Three presents another broad theme: the work environment. Sub-themes are institutional environment (system), people environment (process), philosophical view of work environment, and people-institutional environment. The system and process models of each broad theme will be combined to apply the personal-needs model (pragmatic). Lastly, the author suggests a model that would address self-actualisation as a way of motivating employees permanently, under each broad theme.

Table 7.1 Operational Themes and Sub-themes on Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher-education Colleges in Zimbabwe

Broad themes	Sub-themes
Theme One: Use of incentives	• Knowledge incentives • Financial incentives • Philosophical view of incentives • Financial-knowledge incentives
Theme Two: Types of leadership	• Instructional leadership • Transformational leadership • Philosophical view of leadership • Transformational-instructional leadership
Theme Three: Work environment	• Institutional environment • People environment • Philosophical view of work environment • People-institutional environment

7.2.1 Theme One: Use of incentives

This broad theme discusses the use of incentives as participants' influence on employee motivation towards organisational performance. Incentives in this study are divided into four sub-themes: knowledge incentives, financial incentives, philosophical view of incentives, and financial-knowledge incentives. The following discussion provides details of how these incentives impacted on participants' perceptions of employee motivation on organisational performance.

7.2.1.1 Knowledge incentives

Liu (2012) states that knowledge incentive mechanisms are a fairly new development in the way knowledge is managed. Liu (2012) further posits that knowledge incentive mechanisms enhance the psychological ownership by the individual, allowing the knowledge innovation to be conducted. In this study participants expressed how they were driven by the system to gain knowledge through compliance with policies as a guide, resources to enable them to perform their tasks, and the need to advance their qualifications.

Participants expressed how compliance with policies as a guide helped them perform their duties well in the organisation. Benjamin, Adam and Deborah made reference to policy guidelines motivating them in performing college activities. Benjamin:

> *"The policy framework was needed to promote college vision and for the achievement of the college goals and objectives"* ***(RJB2a).***

Benjamin's sentiments implied that he was driven by the system to know and understand the college vision, goals and objectives, thus satisfying the needs of the institution and helping it grow. This further implies that administrators had to make it clear to employees why the vision, mission, goals, and objectives of the institution are important. Both employees and administration should work towards a common goal. Therefore gaining knowledge of the direction of the institution (system) is of paramount importance. Once the direction of the institution is known by all the stakeholders, employees could work intelligently. They would feel motivated and contribute positively towards the achievement of the goals and objectives as well as the growth of the institution. In the view of Khoza (2019), Mpungose (2016), and other scholars, a vision focusses on the professional aspect (system) of organisational growth. In this instance, the vision may contribute to the growth of the organisation and also that of the employee.

Adam:

> *"Policy guidelines are made reference to in performing college activities* ***(RJA2a)***.

Adam's view implies that it would help employees to follow a given policy framework. Employees would work with confidence to the expectations of their mandate. Such employees would follow the rules and regulations as prescribed by the organisational needs (system). Knowing that one is working within given guidelines and expectations would motivate one to perform the work with zeal towards the attainment of what is expected. Employees are guided by what the vision prescribes. As such, they tend to work intelligently to accomplish organisational needs. The knowledge of the policy guidelines would also make it easy for both the administrators and employees to carry out the evaluation processes of the job done − they would be guided by what to expect (system). Preethall (2016) posits that the vision is important, not only for organisational growth, but for giving employees a direction from which their performance would be evaluated. However, working according to given policy framework may impede one's ingenuity and innovativeness (personal vision); some employees would be strictly following the given directives. Some employees, however, would still be innovative within the given framework, and still achieve both personal and organisational goals. Such employees would be motivated to excel in whatever they did in their workplace and are likely to remain in the same organisation. Boxal and Purcell (2011) comment that organisations aware of how to manage their internal knowledge would typically lower turnover rate of employees and would be able to foster both individual and collective thinking. Such would enable the organisational learning and foster adaptation to changes within the organisation.

Deborah:

> "*The vision keeps reminding me that the institution should remain a leading provider of quality teacher education, hence pushes me to play my part in accordance"* ***(RJD2a)***.

Deborah's submission, unlike Benjamin's and Adam's, shows that she is guided by the policy framework. Deborah is also reminded that whatever she does should address the issue of quality service in teacher education. Papulova (2014) alludes to the vision acting as motivation, offering possibilities on how employees succeed. Deborah would therefore go beyond merely addressing the vision mission, goals, and objectives of the institution. Employees like Deborah are motivated to work because they have the best needs of the institution at heart. These are employees who go the extra mile to produce excellence in whatever they do; this is likely to make the institution grow. Such excellence would result in a good reputation for the institution. This would attract stakeholders likely to give great support to the college. College support from the stakeholders including the corporate world would foster institutional growth even in terms of infrastructural development. Infrastructural growth would further motivate employees as they would be working in a more conducive environment.

Deborah:

> "*Goals and objectives generate in me the desire to want to achieve them and this pushes me to work hard"* ***(RJD2d)***.

The likes of Deborah are motivated to work hard to achieve organisational goals. This implies that administrators should encourage such individuals by recognising their efforts and rewarding them in various ways, so that they continue to work hard for the growth and development of the organisation. Deborah defined motivation as:

> *"That which pushes employees to want to work hard to achieve or exceed targets" (***RJD1)***.

Noah:

> *"Motivation is very important because if the college appreciates that you are putting an effort towards the goals of the institution it drives you to want to work and an effort towards whatever you are doing"* ***(FN2.1)***.

Ruth:

"*It is very important to motivate employees at the workplace so that we keep our workforce and we also achieve our organisational goals"* ***(FR3.3)***.

When one has the knowledge of the organisational goals, working intelligently to achieve such, and motivated intrinsically and extrinsically, then both the employee (personal) and the organisation (system) will benefit. Knowledge incentives, therefore, would help the employees to perform to the best of their ability. The overarching question, however, is: Should one limit one's knowledge incentives to the organisation?

Knowledge incentives are acquired through the knowledge of the policy framework; necessary tools of the trade must be supplied for staff to perform the tasks. Participants like Adam, Hannah, and Ruth made reference to the need for resources.

Adam:

> *"Lack or resources lowers standards of performance and achievement among staff"* ***(RJA3)***.

Therefore one may have knowledge of what needs to be done at the institution but may fail to perform the task fully due to lack of the necessary resources. This would directly affect the achievement of the goals and objectives of the institution and may demotivate staff. Administrators thus ought to make sure that the organisation has adequate tools of the trade (system) in order for employees to perform their tasks in full, and thus remain motivated.

Hannah:

> *"The organisation at times has adequate materials and equipment needed for the work"* ***(Q12H)***.

The fact that she used the term "*at times"* may imply that resources ought to be in adequate supply to avoid erratic performance of tasks by employees.

Benjamin laid emphasis on the need for adequate resources, in saying:

> *"Lecturers perform better if there are adequate resources such as well-furnished lecture rooms, well stocked libraries, laboratories, textbooks, finances and the relevant curriculum"* ***(RJB3)***.

While adequate resources may be availed, there could also be need for employees to know how to use them appropriately and accurately. Employees, therefore, need a support system that would assist them to acquire the requisite knowledge and skill for the job, and adequate tools of the trade. This would, therefore, require the type of administration that would be vigilant in terms of providing on-the-job training and staff-development workshops to help employees grow professionally. This view is supported by Ochola (2018) who asserts that, because people live in a competitive world, organisations need to continuously improve employee capacities, competences, and capabilities. Bashir and Jehanzeb (2013) posit that organisations ought to provide training and development programmes for their employees to improve their skills and abilities so that they may become more productive. Ozkaser (2019) adds that development of individuals' knowledge and skills helps them to be more effective. Training and development are therefore actions that improve employees' existing and future performances, increasing their ability to perform effectively. Employees would also need support to advance their qualifications.

Deborah, Adam, Benjamin and Gabriel shared sentiments on the need for training and development for staff as a motivating factor.

Deborah:

> *"Regular training and development refreshes and renews knowledge and skills, therefore, highly motivates me"* ***(RJD4d)***.

The fact that she mentioned 'knowledge' and 'skills' indicates that she is driven by the system. This implies the need to refresh and renew employees' knowledge on the policy guidelines (both existing and new), as well as skills to use resources (old and new) as tools of the trade in a competitive environment. Training is defined as a way of upgrading employees' skills thus enabling them to perform a specific task (Nischitaa & Rao, 2014). Al-Mughairi (2018) further avers that training is a way of sharing and finding solutions to specific challenges in the workplace. Development describes long-term and durable changes that could require new skills, knowledge, and even a change of attitude of employees within an organisation. Training and development are therefore key in helping employees acquire the necessary knowledge and skills which would motivate them to perform their duties.

Adam:

> *"On the job training helps me gain new knowledge and skills that assist me to maximise my potential in the organisation. For such training, it is important that employee needs are identified first and then invite vibrant resources persons for the programme to be effective"* ***(RJA3.2)***.

This view is supported by Armstrong (2013) who indicates that the key elements of effective training are based on four major stages: a) identifying training needs; b) deciding what type of training is required to fulfil these needs; c) employing qualified, trained trainers to implement training; and d) following up and assessing training to guarantee its effectiveness. Adam's perception above shows that he is prepared to learn and gain new knowledge and skills. He would like to contribute immensely to the growth of the organisation (system). Adam even suggested a needs-assessment programme and underlined the need for knowledgeable resource persons. This implies that employees would be motivated by an administration that realises that employees need new knowledge and skills for them to be effective, thus growing the organisation. This suggests the need for employees to make use of the acquired knowledge and skills for the organisation, also for their own growth and development.

Benjamin:

> *"Performance levels could be raised if workers in an organisation are sent for training and development in order to acquire new skills needed in the organisation.... These workshops, seminars, conferences, learning activities would help in contributing tom professional growth and development. "* ***(RJB4d)***.

Performance levels to be raised through training and development would go a long way to benefitting both the organisation (system) and the individual (personal).

Benjamin:

> *"At our institution we are more of a family and there is a lot of support especially from administration. They really try to motivate us. But when it comes to the Ministry itself, there is demotivation. Like for example, if I want to advance my studies, I must first get clearance from the Ministry, my fees are not paid for and when I complete my studies, there is no social mobility. I will not be promoted even if I acquire a Masters or Doctoral degree. I remain where I am and the salary does not change. One feels demotivated and the next thing one would do is to think of moving to greener pastures"* ***(FB1.2)****.*

Benjamin's submission is a true reflection of employees' perception of their need for training and development, engaging in further studies for organisational growth. Employees should also advance themselves for personal gain. If they concentrate only on training for the organisation, they will forever remain demotivated. Employees should be told that the advancement in knowledge and skills acquisition could help them develop even outside the organisational needs. Employees would thus be motivated.

Gabriel:

> *"....but the skills you acquire from these studies are ploughed back in the Ministry"* ***IG3b)***.

Gabriel's statement implies that when employees engage in further studies they may have limited understanding of reasons for undertaking those studies. Employees should be thinking beyond the workplace, so that they avoid feeling dissatisfied. Armstrong (2006) describes development as a process in which individuals learn to progress from a present state of understanding to a future state. At this level higher-level skills, knowledge and competencies are required. Thus Currere's model speaks to moments of regression, progression, analytical, and synthetical. Some who have remained in the same workplace would feel demotivated. The financial compensation is not commensurate with their current qualifications. Worse still, the salary does not offset what they would have paid in fees for their studies. Those who may want to go to 'greener pastures', may realise that those pastures, in the long run, may not be so green. Employees ought to work for the organisation while also promoting their own gains and motivation in life.

While the knowledge incentives promote the system model, there is limited evidence that professionals are always trained to be motivated, thus one may move to financial incentives. Let the reader understand how financial incentives may motivate employees on organisational performance.

7.2.1.2 Financial incentives

Manzoor (2012) in his study on "the impact of employees' motivation on organisational effectiveness" concludes that no one works free of charge. Besides meeting organisational goals, an employee also works for a salary that sustains him or her and family. Herzeberg's view (1966) is that this is one of the hygiene factors. Financial incentives are considered important by all the participants in this study. Financial incentives are expressed either in monetary or non-monetary terms. These incentives are also referred to as direct or indirect financial incentives. Direct financial incentives are in the form of a salary, wage, bonus, allowance, or any other form of direct monetary payment. Non-financial incentives can be in the form of rewards, accommodation, and transport; any other reward or perquisite not in direct monetary form. This section discusses participants' perceptions of their quality of life, low remuneration, and lack of financial support as demotivating them in the workplace.

Gabriel:

> *"First and foremost we work in order to be able to take care of our families, in order to progress, in order to survive upon retirement. And when you cannot see light ahead, you become demotivated"* ***(IG1a)***.

Gabriel:

> *"We should have a decent life after retirement. When the future is uncertain as it is now, how can we be motivated"* ***(QG7)***.

Adam:

> *"People work so that they take care of their families. It becomes difficult for them to work when they cannot afford basic human needs"* ***(QA7)***.

Gabriel and Adam's sentiments imply that they are dissatisfied. They have experienced demotivation to work when their basic needs are not met. While they are not precise on their basic needs, Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs are outlined as shelter, food, clothing, amongst others. In other words, when employees fail to take care of their families (process model) they feel demotivated. Gabriel also mentioned fear of survival after retirement. This implied that he would have inadequate funds to sustain himself. Both Gabriel and Adam seemed to have all their hopes on their work to provide for their basic needs now and in the future. Neither participant seemed to have any alternative source of improving the quality of their lives. To them, money remains the most significant in motivating them in their employment, satisfying their basic needs (Obasan, 2011). These employees would therefore remain demotivated for as long as they expected their salaries to be the only source of sustenance.

Ruth:

> *"When people go to school to learn, to acquire better qualifications...the aim is also to improve the quality of life, for example, how they dress themselves when coming to work, the food they eat. "* ***(FR3.3)***.

Ruth indicates that when one is employed at an institution of higher learning one is educated enough to earn good quality life for oneself and the entire family. However, the knowledge one acquires at that level should help to find strategies to augment one's level of quality of life. The education one acquires should help unlock the potential to find other avenues of earning a better living. Knowledge incentives are important because one would know how to generate funds using the knowledge they would have acquired.

Ruth:

> *"At our institution, being a rural college, we have been given accommodation. At times we are given transport to go shopping. But looking at the economic challenges that we are currently facing, people do not usually value those. We value money because of the economic challenges we are having. It is not always easy for us to appreciate what we are given because we are thinking more of the financial aspect"* ***(FR2.2)***.

Employees seem to value direct financial incentives more than indirect financial incentives like accommodation and transport, among other things. Ruth's sentiment is supported by Dobre (2013) who posits that employees want to earn reasonable salaries, money representing the most important incentive. Ruth stated that, due to economic hardships, people value direct financial benefits. Ruth and colleagues may fail to appreciate that the non-financial incentive when translated into monetary terms, is of great benefit. Indirect incentives include those benefits that are financial in nature but are not directly dependent upon the amount of contribution of an individual in the workplace. It is unfortunate that employees believe in hand-outs in the form of direct financial benefits − these are considered more valuable than indirect benefits.

Gabriel:

> *"Workers need to survive. Staff can only be motivated when first and foremost they earn an acceptable salary which can allow them to have a 'standard' kind of living. If they cannot get that, definitely one cannot work on an empty stomach. One cannot work when they cannot afford to have a stand have a car which is new. We cannot afford to send children to school and yet we are lecturers, we are supposed to live a life above average. We cannot do that, so how can we be motivated?* ***(IG2c)***.

Gabriel is dependent on his employment to cater for all his needs. He mentioned a standard of living, having a standard of living, acquiring a new car, sending children to school, and overall, living an above-average lifestyle. Gabriel and colleagues nevertheless chose to work for a government whose coffers are overstretched, working on a strict budget. If the employer is overstretched, remuneration for employees in various sectors of government in developing countries may fail to satisfy everyone. It would all depend on the national budget; hence low salaries ought to be expected in a developing country like Zimbabwe. Employees seem to have little knowledge of the source of funds that afford them the salaries that they are paid. Knowledge of the reasons for lecturers' salaries to be "low" should give rise to creativeness, depending on other personal skills to avoid depending on the government salary. Employees are unrealistic in expecting a government on a strict budget, like Zimbabwe, to pay handsome salaries.

Gabriel:

> *"We are sending our children to poor schools while society expects us as lecturers to send our children to schools that are well resourced and with good pass rates workers are therefore demotivated"* ***(IG2d)***.

Gabriel seems to be waiting for hand-outs from the employer that would allow him to send his children to a 'good school', with good pass rates. Gabriel may be oblivious to the fact that all schools should be good and should have good pass rates. Unfortunately, society has those who have and those who do not have. Being a government employee, one is obliged to find other means of generating sufficient resources to allow one to send children to a 'good' school, where fees are expensive. A lecturer at a government institution seems to expect the employer to pay them good salaries from an overstretched budget in a developing nation. The so-called 'good schools' are likely to be private schools that are run by affluent community members. Such schools normally have a low teacher-pupil ratio of perhaps 1:20, compared with 1:60 in government-run schools.

Benjamin:

> *"If the organisation cannot fulfil my needs, the next thing is to 'vamoose' (leaving the job) and vacate for greener pastures. I will not perform to the best of my ability. No wonder why most lectures are in the diaspora"* ***(QB7)***.

Benjamin shares similar sentiments with Gabriel. He expects the organisation to fulfil all his needs. He has considered leaving the organisation for greener pastures, joining the diaspora. Benjamin may lack understanding that not all lecturers can enter the diaspora. Even those who have pursued direct financial benefits by going into the diaspora may still have some of their needs unfulfilled. Going into the diaspora may have its own challenges, one of which may bring about serious repercussions to family members. For one to separate from family members may result in challenges of a broken family unit. The broken family unit may cause delinquency among children, spousal infidelity, and insecurity of the remaining family members (process). One ought thus to have knowledge of how to sustain their lives while they are at home and with their families.

Employees in institutions of higher learning appreciate their support from the administrators.

Gabriel:

> *"I am not highly motivated because there is nothing coming from the employer to motivate me.... The little motivation I have is an understanding head of institution who tries to find ways of motivating his staff"* ***(QG6)***.

Gabriel:

> *"I have a positive boss, who takes care of my needs. A boss who understands how things should be done and who also understands the gaps that are there and comes to fill in and provide the comfort. In that way I feel motivated"* ***(IG2a)***.

Gabriel seems to be waiting for hand-outs even from his 'understanding' boss. He ought to have an initiative other than waiting to gain further financial help from either his employer or his administrator. Employees find pleasure in receiving incentives from the workplace (process model). However, can the boss fulfil all their needs? Gabriel must think beyond his employer and his administrator, filling the 'gaps' and providing himself with an income boost. Certain administrators behave differently in institutions of higher learning, thus leaving a 'gap' among employees. In addition, some institutions may be more productive than others; hence employees would receive different treatment. Providing incentives to employees' results in various reactions from different individuals, their needs, priorities, situations, and perceptions all being different.

Adam:

“Employees should be given chance to work on what pays them back, for example, engaging in projects” ***(QA7***).

Administrators would have to engage employees in various income-generating projects at the workplace to cushion their meagre salaries. This would be of great advantage for those who work hard and engage in viable projects. Direct financial incentives would provide an opportunity for one to earn a higher salary, should the individual increase productivity and effectiveness to the benefit of both the organisation and the self. Some employees, however, may fail to cooperate, wanting to work but still expecting hand-outs from the employer and the organisation whose source of funds they do not know. A production policy document was put in place for tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe: proceeds from any project will benefit those who have enabled the project to thrive. Employees, should, however, continue to engage in similar projects even outside the institution. Thus they may generate own funds to cushion themselves and their families, instead of waiting for hand-outs from the employer. Tolera (2018) and Ali (2010) maintain that administrators ought to increase commitment of employees by designing motivational packages. Such could include engaging employees in sustainable regular training programmes and social activities. This would add to the welfare of employees and their families, among many others.

Irefin and Mechanic (2014), however, posit that employees who are less committed to the organisation are more likely to look at themselves as outsiders as opposed to belonging to the organisation. For this reason an attractive job offer elsewhere is very likely to result in their departure for “greener pastures”. This suggests that employees should thus apply a concerted effort to generate finances, rather than waiting for the employer to always provide. This further suggests that employees need knowledge incentives that would help them work hard to generate funds to cushion themselves and their families (financial incentives) and in that way they would be motivated to work hard.

There is, however, no strong evidence that employees receiving financial incentives would be more motivated in the workplace. Certain payments are one-off events which cannot be sustained. A model could provide both knowledge incentives and financial incentives. Employees could attend a short workshop, being trained once a week or once or twice a year, to give them knowledge. Those who perform well can be given bonuses for making use of the knowledge acquired to work hard to generate financial incentives. In that way both knowledge and financial incentives complement each other. Employees can then work on their own personal way of motivation.

During interviews, participants revealed that they were paid low salaries. In focus-group discussions the same participants indicated that they would want to be engaged in projects to be able to generate funds. This suggests that they needed to gain knowledge to help them work hard to earn a living. This is evidence that there is a need to combine the system and process model to address the personal need model. Let the reader understand why knowledge incentives and financial incentives should complement each other to address the personal or philosophical view of incentives as a motivating factor for employees in the workplace.

7.2.1.3 Philosophical view of incentives

When employees develop a tension between the system and process model they have the potential to address their personal or individual needs (Khoza, 2018; 2019; le Grange, 2016; Amory, 2012; Badat, 2010; Schon, 1983). Participants in this study shared perceptions that reflected on the system (knowledge incentives), process (financial incentives), and personal views about employee motivation models on organisational performance. Having views on what motivates or demotivates and how they are motivated as individuals requires a holistic understanding about employee motivation (phenomenon) in promoting the three experiences (system, process, and personal). Both employees and administrators need full understanding of the phenomenon.

Khoza (2018) proposes that in addition to the ‘what’ and ‘how’ questions relating to employee motivation models, employees ought to learn to address the ‘who’ and ‘why’ questions. These questions help them identify and understand their personal identities in the workplace. For example, employees should understand what the job offers relevant to them, thus using that which addresses their needs. When employees believe that they are badly paid, those who understand their identities would be able to source funds to sustain themselves. In other words, employees should find ways of generating funds to fend for themselves and their families.

All the participants (lecturers) in this study averred that they were earning a salary from government (employer) that was inadequate to meet all their needs. It was, therefore, paramount that they (employees) used the knowledge incentives (system) that they received through training and staff development workshops at the workplace to engage in projects that would help them augment their meagre salaries (financial incentives). These financial incentives (process) generated from their hard work would help them meet their family needs (process model). There is, therefore, need for employees to balance knowledge incentives and financial incentives to satisfy their personal vision (philosophical).

Deborah:

> *"Commitment to work is a result of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Some employees are pushed by extrinsic motivation while others are pushed more by the passion to work hard. However, I think a balance between the two types of motivation should be struck to achieve organisational goals....On the other hand, administrators should make effort to provide that which makes their members work hard* ***(RJD5)****.*

Deborah:

> *"The poor remuneration that I get, coupled with the absence of incentives highly demotivates me"* ***(RJD4e)***.

Deborah's sentiments are testimony to employees earning low salaries, gaining no incentives in any form at the workplace. Employees, therefore, should avoid waiting for hand-outs from the employer or the organisation (system). Employees should learn to fend for themselves (personal) through hard work (social), making their lives more comfortable (personal). Administrators ought to empower employees with knowledge (system). They should encourage employees to work hard (process) for both the organisation and also for themselves, fulfilling their individual needs (personal). An empowered employee is given authority and liberation to unleash their potential in the workplace. Oweyele (2017) posits that the main driving force of empowerment is to allow the employee to have control over carrying out their job with little or no interference from their superiors. Therefore, if employees are given knowledge first, they may be able to use that knowledge to work hard and generate funds, instead of waiting for hand-outs.

Benjamin:

“There are so many staff development programmes which take place at the college. At the end of it you feel empowered and motivated. At out college we have research and staff development committee that is responsible for planning programmes to empower staff” (FB1.2).

Ruth:

“*Staff development programmes help to improve confidence in employees. It also helps improve on performance, hence organisational goals are achieved” (RJR4d).*

Employees ought to find job satisfaction in their workplaces and make use of the knowledge acquired through training and staff development in the workplace. Employees ought to engage in projects within and outside the workplace to be able to satisfy their much-needed financial incentives. Administrators, thus, ought to provide employees with the needed hardware and software tools of the trade, to develop employees’ ideological-ware, rules of the game for best performance for the organisation (system), for self (individuals), and for their families (process). Internal intelligence would make one generate funds. One can own a company using knowledge one acquires from the workplace, to satisfy one’s needs (personal). Khoza (2019) argues that introspection helps people find their identities (love, passion, creativity). Employees thus get to know their strengths and limitations. Such assists them in improving their practices and engaging effectively in their workplace. In other words, effective performance starts with employee’s inner self.

Life is practical when one uses knowledge incentives (system) to create financial incentives (process). In that way, one becomes motivated to meet the personal vision. When one’s personal needs are satisfied, one is likely to have self-identity. Reflection on employee motivation models is a useful introspection process undertaken by employees to tackle challenges in the workplace (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 2013). Such introspection helps employees to “have control over the system and processes of their own work”. This suggests that reflection enables employees to recapture, relive, make sense of, think about, and assess their experiences for effective discharge of their duties (Mpungose, 2020). Scholars like Mpungose (2020) concur with Waghid and David’s (2019) view that failing to pay enough attention to each of these levels of reflection on motivation models can lead to poor performance. Such can negatively affect organisational performance (Waghid & Davids, 2019). Employees should use the system to establish how to perform their duties based on knowledge acquisition. Employees should also be driven by the process and personal needs, finding support from training using their own identities (love, passion, creativity) to enhance their performance.

Pinar's Currere model thus addresses the moment of regression (returning to the past to inform the present), the progressive moment (where one identifies what is not yet present, imagining the future), the analytical moment (where one distances self from the past and sees how the future is present in the past and vice versa), and finally, the synthetical moment (where one brings all together as one and re-enters the lived present, interrogating its meaning). The Currere model, as a theoretical framework for this study, is relevant to employee perceptions and reflection on their motivation apropos of organisational and individual performance. Administrators thus have a role to play as leaders within the organisation, understanding and helping employees to acknowledge the system, process, and personal vision of motivation in the workplace. Employees, however, need complete motivation. They may need to be motivated without necessarily bringing in the external forces. This requires a look at the limitations of sole use of the system model, and sole use of the process model. The findings presented above thus suggest financial-knowledge incentives.

7.2.1.4 Financial-knowledge incentives

There is still no conclusive evidence that bringing together the system and process models in providing the personal needs model would offer complete employee motivation. A balance is required among different levels of motivation such that employees interrogate their practices and take action via the system, the process, and personal vision (Mpungose, 2019). The discussion from participants' perceptions and reflections supported by literature above reveals that there are limitations to using solely the system model (knowledge incentives) or solely the process model (financial incentives). The two models must be combined to complement each other in addressing the personal needs. There is a need, however, to motivate employees permanently. If one uses knowledge incentives, one is likely to be motivated permanently. Participants in this study further revealed that they needed financial incentives to cushion them so that they could live a comfortable life. Knowledge alone may fail to sustain employees completely, as would financial incentives alone.

Employees need both knowledge and financial incentives; hence the need for financial-knowledge incentives.

In financial knowledge incentives one uses own finances to generate knowledge. Such knowledge helps one to be more creative and innovative, thus generating more finances. In this way employees may be motivated permanently. When one has own finances one becomes empowered to make decisions on how to spend the finances, thereafter being able to generate more finances. This suggests that such an individual has reached a stage beyond merely addressing personal needs, but is self-actualised. Self-actualisation is achieved when one moves from the personal needs, which are the foundation of who they are, to achieving their full potential, with people working to meet more pressing needs (Cherry, 2019).

Financial-knowledge incentives would thus be satisfying the employee both at work and at home. When an individual who is self-actualised leaves the workplace upon retirement they may open their own company that would permanently sustain them and their family. Such an individual would continue to generate own finances and be able to excel in the job or line of industry created. Those individuals who would take advantage of the finances they have to generate knowledge are likely to be motivated permanently by financial-knowledge incentives.

Those individuals who reflect on-their-job and reflect in-their-job are considered by various authors as self-actualised. Such people have unique characteristics of problem-solving, objectivity, creativity, reflective thinking, among others (Khoza, 2019; 2018; Maslow, 1970; McLeod, 2014). Such employees would continue to work intelligently from the knowledge acquired. They would continue to work hard to generate even more financial resources. In this way more opportunities are likely to arise. Generate more finances would generate even more knowledge; the individual would be permanently motivated. This suggests that employees would require the type of leadership that would support them in various facets in the workplace so that they are self-actualised and therefore are motivated permanently.

7.2.2 Theme Two - Types of leadership

This broad theme discusses types of leadership and how leaders motivate participants on organisational performance. Oweyele (2017) defines leadership as the ability to influence the way of thinking of other people without forcing them. Hersey and

Blanchard (1974), and Hsu (2001) further posit that leadership is an important construct that helps one influence an individual or group of people to achieve organisational goals and job performance. Types of leadership in this study are divided into four sub-themes, namely, instructional leadership (system), transformational leadership (process), philosophical leadership (personal), and transformational-instructional leadership (self-actualised). Let the reader understand how these types of leadership impacted on participants' perceptions of employee motivation on organisational performance.

7.2.2.1 Instructional leadership

The instructional type of leadership (system) refers to leaders who maintain control, emphasising compliance with rules and procedures (Khoza, 2013a; 2013b; 2015a; 2015b; 2016; 2017; Khoza & Mpungose 2017). Khoza (2015c); Berkvens et al. (2014) and other scholars opine that the system model of motivation is driven by a prescribed vision as a leading principle. Administrators who employ the system model thus strictly adhere to the prescribed principles. They expect employees to follow the prescribed plan as a way of accounting for organisational performance (Khoza, 2016a).

Adam confirmed the above statement:

> *"... I enjoy a leadership style where ... I am guided in my day-to-day activities and rebuked if I make mistakes* ***(RJA3d)***.

Adam:

> *"Clearly spelt out rules motivate me because I work within the parameters of what is expected"* ***(RJA3d)***.

Benjamin:

> *"Rules and regulations help to maintain my motivational levels high. I would know the code of conduct which is expected in the organisation. Rules and regulations in an organisation would help guide the employees in what they are expected to do or not to do...if I understand and adhere to the set rules and regulations of the organisation, I become a disciplined person"* ***(RJB3b)***.

Ruth in support of Benjamin:

> *"Rules and regulations help in the regulation of behaviour"*

Ruth:

> *"rules and regulations help to ensure that deadlines are met as one might be afraid of what would happen if they do not meet the deadline, however, if the rules are too strict they can hinder progress"* (***RJR3b)***.

The sentiments shared by Adam, Benjamin, and Ruth above reveal that employees by and large appreciate the system model whereby their behaviour is guided. Their operations are also guided so that they do not deviate from what is expected by the system. Khoza (2016a) points out that the system model has prescribed plans that have to be followed as they are. This suggests that administrators who employ the system model strictly adhere to the prescribed principles and expect employees to follow the prescribed plan as a way of accounting for organisational performance. Such administrators, however, may experience challenges in assisting employees who may not understand the overall vision of the organisation, together with the prescribed plans. Adam expressed that *"clearly spelt out rules motivate me".*

Dowling and Wilson (2017); and Zaitun (2010) insist that success and quality of the mastery of employees' jobs through prescribed instructions, and structures to be followed without any deviation, are employed in order to ensure timely completion of tasks and success. This suggests that while rules are followed, the work only advances the system model (Khoza, 2018; Fomunyam, 2017). The system model guides the implementation process; however, if these principles are communicated in a hierarchical manner (top-down) there could be resistance to or misunderstanding of the direction to be followed. Manzoor (2012) posits that where there are top-down decision-making tasks, employee innovativeness may be suppressed, resulting in negative organisational performance, growth, and effectiveness.

Benjamin:

"My motivational levels would be high if I am made to understand the reasons behind the rules and regulations. I would cooperate and obey them accordingly" ***(RJB3b)***.

Adam:

"The vision, mission and core values motivate me if they are well articulated for easy understanding" ***(RG1)***.

While Ruth agrees that rules and regulations are necessary in the workplace she further stated that:

> *"if the regulations are too strict they hinder the progress"* ***(RJR3b)***.

Adam:

> *"rules and regulations should protect the interest of workers rather than to be like witch hunting"* ***(RJA3b)***.

Adam:

> "*the vision, mission and core values motivate me if I am involved in coming up or creating them"* ***(RJA2)*** *'and reference is made to them from time to time in college activities"* ***(RQ1)***.

DeHart-Davis (2009) and Gosier (2018) state that it is important for rules to be understood by employees (green tape as opposed to red tape). A green-tape model suggests that rules in organisations are both supportive as well as having a restrictive aspect, by reducing too much freedom of action in terms of accountability. An enabling bureaucratic system should have room to change the rules, have the rules made internally as well as globally (Weichbrod & Grote, 2010).

Adam:

> *"Transparency motivates me as a worker in an organisation"* ***RJA3d)***.

Administrators, where mission is systems driven, would not deviate from the demands of the mission; and employees who comply would receive praise if their performance is aligned with the mission. Hickman (2017) thus posits that instructional leaders ought to provide their employees with the necessary resources and facilities to be able to perform their tasks.

Benjamin:

> *"The most productive efforts by the employees could be spurred by availing the necessary resources".*

Benjamin:

> *"Procurement and equitable distribution of college resources increases motivation of the employees"* ***(RJB3a)***.

Ruth:

> *"When the college has resources, it makes one want to work because they have what they need. However, some tasks are not done when there are no resources"* ***(RJR3a)***.

On the same note Adam:

> *"Availability of resources motivates me to work hard. I am assured that all my plans and expectations will be met. I am encouraged or inspired to go an extra mile to fulfil the college vision"* ***(RJA3a)***.

When employees perform their organisational tasks they expect to be evaluated and given feedback on their performance levels, whether meeting the expectations of the organisation.

Ruth:

> *"Performance management helps to keep checking progress on achievement of goals. If an employee is lagging behind they can be encouraged to work harder so they do not negatively affect the organisation by delaying progress"* ***(RJR3c)***.

Adam:

> *"*The *performance management system should be meaningful and effective."*

Adam:

> *"The performance management system is like routine that will never be understood by many as there are no incentives attached to it, so why bother me completing these forms every term, there is no motivation after all." "As a worker I feel workers should be rewarded in one way or another, motivating those who work hard"* ***(RJA3c)***.

Benjamin:

> *"I understand the performance management system as a process with the aim to improve efficiency and effectiveness of government officers." The individual is helped to set detailed work plans on precisely what is expected. My performance will, therefore be evaluated as not reliable and valid against these*

> *work plans." However, in our case sometimes the motivational levels are lowered because the performance management system does not reward the employees' efforts. As a result the system is not taken with the seriousness it deserves. I feel that our performance management system should improve in terms of its operations against employee compensation management"* ***(RJB3c)***.

Sentiments shared by Benjamin, Adam, and Ruth above show that employees are forced by summative assessment (performance appraisal) to achieve the prescribed objectives, without any deviation (Dlamini, 2018; du Preez, 2017; Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010: Mpungose, 2020d). Prescribed plans have to be followed as they are in evaluation of performance (Khoza, 2016a). One of the challenges of the system model is that employees become dependent on prescribed rules when performing a task (Kamahina, Yakovenko, & Daibova, 2019; Khoza & Manik, 2025; Kisaka, 2018). Consequently, employees limit themselves to the prescribed policy directions, rules and regulations, and they fail to go beyond the structures in order to be more innovative and creative.

Kimberlee (2018) expresses that the rules and regulations protect both employees and the organisation: employees understand what they are expected to do and what would happen if they violate the rules. Khoza (2016a) states that prescribed directives have to be followed as they allow for the evaluation of performance. Administrators who adhere to the system model usually align themselves with knowledge of hierarchy and are driven by written rules and regulations to be followed (Penden, 2015; Hoadly & Jansen, 2012). Such administrators and employees set explicit standards to be met (Hyndman & Pill, 2015; Rotidi et al., 2017).

Administrators thus play a pivotal role in implementing rules and regulations in an organisation (de Vaujay et al., 2018). Excessive bureaucratic requirements, however, may hinder creative innovation and change if they are not addressed for individuals to cope with them (Khoza, 2015a; 2015b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Mpungose, 2019). This suggests that rules ought to allow a negotiation process within the organisation (Weichbrodt & Grote, 2010). Prescribed plans would need other contributing factors that should be allowed to influence employee performance for organisational performance (Mat, 2016; Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). This suggests a transformational leadership style, as discussed in the next section.

7.2.2.2 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is about the way in which individuals influence others and persuade them to apply their utmost efforts to tasks that promote the achievement of their goals. This type of leadership, according to Khoza (2013a; 2013b; 2015; 2015b; 2016; 2017) and others, depicts the process model of motivation. The process model shares the principles of the collegiate model that stipulates that organisations should avoid bureaucracy, but encourage all members of the academic community to be involved in administrative processes (Vasyakin, Ivleva, Porzharskaya & Sncherbokova, 2016). Eyal and Ruth (2010) aver that transformational leaders have articulated a clear vision, serving as a role model and paying attention to the needs of their followers.

Ruth:

> *"If I am involved in crafting the vision, mission, core values and objectives of the college, then I feel I am part and parcel of the institution and will be motivated in accomplishing the mandate of the college"* ***(RJR5)***.

Benjamin:

> *"My motivation levels will be high if the college leadership follows a democratic or participatory approach. In this style members are made to feel important in an organisation. Members are allowed to participate in the decision making process. Participants' decision making allows inputs by other people. Broad participation creates a sense of commitment. As a result I will be more committed and dedicated to work. This will assist in the achievement of the goals of the organisation (college)"* ***(RJB3d)***.

Adam:

> "*People would want to be involved in decision making"* ***(IA1a)***. *"I see Academic Board members making decisions here and there, the Finance Committee makes decisions here and there. Yes, people are involved, but at the end of the day it is actually administration that seems to make the final decision,..."* ***(IA2b)***.

Based on Ruth, Benjamin, and Adam's sentiments in the reflective journal and interviews, it is evident that by facilitating the involvement of staff in administrative processes employees may be inspired to work toward a common goal of an organisation. This in turn would increase the strength, durability, and quality of the organisation's structure, and ultimately improve its performance. Dobre (2013) avers that employee participation is important in an organisation as it is likely to involve employees in administration and decision-making processes regarding the policies, objectives, and strategies of the organisation. For this reason institutions involve employees and other stakeholders in the strategic-plan processes as revealed in the document analysis of the study. When employees are involved in setting of goals, they develop a sense of ownership of organisational processes. They feel motivated and are likely to work towards the success and growth of the organisation. Administrators ought to involve employees in decision-making so that they (employees) have the ownership of the organisational goals, working towards the achievement of these goals.

Esther:

> *"Motivation is very important ...in a lot if things, because if you don't ... we work with people and automatically to achieve, we do not achieve alone. And for the name of the institution to grow ... it is because of the efforts of the people whom you are working with"* ***(IE3a)***.

Adam:

> *"I personally love the spirit of teamwork among staff, as working together makes the task easy and achieve more"* ***(RJA4b)***.

Hannah:

> *"Our Principal is always encouraging us to work as a team and because of that, most of the people want to be part of the team, and they want to work towards the goal of the college, and they want to achieve what we should achieve as a teacher education college"* ***(IH2b)***.

Esther made a further observation about how different employees respond to the issue of team work in an organisation.

Esther:

> *"... There are people who, even though they may not want to work with others, given a chance to work as a team they will realise that they are benefiting when they share ideas. They sooner or later realise that they are part and parcel of the institution and feel they have ownership of the programme"* ***(IE3b)***.

The process model is fulfilled by the opinions of people or group members. While employees enjoy working as a team, they also share ideas with their colleagues as a way of promoting collaboration (Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2013). This suggests that the leader should allow and encourage employees to work as a team to achieve organisational goals.

Adam:

> *"The type of leadership can motivate or demotivate staff. I enjoy a leadership style where I am recognised, given the opportunity to explore in my area of specialisation, supported in different activities in the organisation, appreciated for excelling ..."* ***(RJA3d)***.

Gabriel:

> *"Where there are opportunities, our boss allows us to make use of such opportunities. He gives support in order to do one or two things, which is a rare occasion in other institutions"* ***(IG2a)***.

Benjamin:

> *"The college Principal in a democratic leadership style listens to staff requests and seeks to support such requests whenever reasonable. The administration is seen by both lecturers an student as supportive, caring and trustworthy, all of which helps create conditions of excellence. In a democratic system there is effective communication where members are kept informed of the progress made and future plans"* ***(RJB3d)***.

Esther shared her view on how a leader can extend support to staff.

Esther:

> *"A leader can even support colleagues by supporting their family programmes attending funerals or weddings ... just being there for them"* ***(IE2c)***.

Benjamin:

> *". . . at our college we are more of a family where there is a lot of support especially from Administration . . ."* ***(FB2a)***.

Esther:

> *"As a leader, the way you speak to your colleagues, the way you greet them, the way you support them in times of need means a lot. If someone gets sick, as a leader, you need to make a follow up to find out how they are feeling. . . . By so doing one automatically feels motivated to come back to work were the leader shows care"* ***(IE2c)***.

Kark et al. (2003) opine that transformational leadership allows for the transformation of an employee into a leader by providing opportunities for career development, empowerment, and independence, among others.

Jacob:

> *"Motivation is used for many reasons, not necessarily for organisational needs and aspirations, but also career development carrier guidance will in the long run help one to achieve organisational goals"* ***(FJ3.2)***.

Oweyele (2017) asserts that the main driving force of empowerment is to accord an employee control over how jobs are done for more growth and productivity. Empowerment may be achieved in many ways, namely, on-the-job training, workshops for employees, sending employees for continuous professional development courses and seminars, among other ways. Employees thus grow and may then support the organisation to perform better. This suggests that administrators ought to engage staff in empowerment programmes which would benefit both the employee and the organisation.

Jacob:

> *". if you do something good and you are given a pat on the back that is a way of motivating ..... A leader can also throw a party: for example, after good work*

has been achieved (good results at the end of an academic year). A leader can take staff out for a break as a way of motivating staff" ***(FJI2a)***.

Manzoor (2012) asserts that recognition of employees correlates significantly with employee motivation. Therefore if employees are appropriately recognised and rewarded, they may be sufficiently motivated to achieve organisational goals.

Ruth, in her concluding remarks in the reflective journal:

"From my experience, where the leadership is friendly ad accommodative to all its employees, subordinates tend to work harder in order to achieve goals. Usually employees want to please a leader who identifies the self with employees. Individuals want to be heard and when their views are considered, they feel that they are part of the organisation hence work even harder" ***RJR5)***.

Deborah:

"Leadership which is focussed and listens to subordinates' concerns highly motivates me. The dictatorship type demotivates me" ***(RJD5)***.

Leah:

"I personally feel that leaders should not stick to one type of motivation" ***(FL3.3)***.

Leah's sentiment suggests that no one motivational model (system model nor process) can work on its own.

There is no evidence that either institutional leadership or transformational leadership style can work independently to motivate an individual on organisational performance. This suggests that a pragmatic philosophical view of leadership is worth considering as a way of addressing the personal motivational needs of an employee.

7.2.2.3 The philosophical view of leadership

The philosophical view of leadership implies that the discussion of system and process models reveals a need for a neutral model that would combine the strengths of both system and process models (Khoza, 2020). A new, emerging motivation model is personal needs, and a pragmatic model that may address the needs of individual employees on the strengths of both the system and process models (Czerniwiecz, 2018; Illonga, Ashiphala and Thomas, 2020; Khoza, 2013). Studies (Khoza, 2013; Khoza & Manik, 2015; Mpungose, 2018) suggest that employees should understand their identities through relevant models before they address the system and process models in order to have control over their jobs.

Adams (2017) believes that people are motivated by different factors and, thus, administrators should avoid setting stipulations and guidelines that aim at motivating everyone in the same manner. Some employees are motivated by following prescribed instructions, rules, and regulations (system) in performing well. Others are motivated when they work as a team (process), sharing tasks and information. Yet others are those who are motivated by working on their own and solving problems (personal), working towards organisational success (Khoza, 2015a; 2015b; 2016b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Mpungose, 2020). Administrators ought to understand how to motivate individual employees in the workplace (system, process or personal), using the most appropriate reinforcement tool(s) to promote organisational performance.

The system model, when combined with the process model, addresses the personal or individual needs which literature has not fully dealt with (Khoza, 2016a; 2016b; 2017; 2018; 2019). On the one hand, there are employees who are motivated by knowledge they bring to the workplace. They are motivated when able to follow the rules of the system to the letter (Govender & Khoza, 2017; Khoza, 2017; Mpungose, 2016). On the other hand, there are those employees who would look forward to going to work where they would find joy in interacting with colleagues and working as a team (process), learning from other people's opinions (Khoza, 2017; Christensen et al., 2001; Hoadley & Jansen, 2014). These employees are motivated by the collaborative approach. They reflect-in-action as they strive to answer the 'how' question of their system in achieving their outcomes (Budden, 2017; Khoza, 2017; Van Manen, 1977). A common factor motivation model would allow employees to negotiate their way of combining strengths through the system and process models. Such would help employees' identification and understanding of their own strengths. Alder (1991) and le Grange (2016) in support, declare that, when employees understand their strengths and identities, this assists in controlling their performance (system) and competencies (process) that would support the growth of the organisation and the staff (Budden, 2017; Formunyan, 2016).

When employees develop a tension between the system and process models, they have the potential to address the personal or individual needs (Khoza, 2018; 2019; le

Grange, 2016; Amory, 2012; Badal, 2010; Schon, 1983). The individual needs model is a reflection between the system and process models that helps the employee to understand their identity. Those individuals who reflect on-their-job or reflect in-their-job are considered by various authors self-actualised. They have unique characteristics of objectivity, problem-solving, creativity, reflective thinking, among others (Khoza, 2019; 2018; Maslow, 1970; McLeod, 2014). This suggests that administrators need to understand how employees are motivated in the workplace. Personal needs can help individuals to transform the organisation and thus, self-actualised individual's effort should be enhanced rather than hindered in the workplace.

Some individuals are not motivated by the system or the process model. According to Khoza (2019) they are self-actualised, in other words, they know what motivates them. Instead of doing what is expected of one, one questions the motive, who benefits from it, and how can it connect with the person's original thought (Said, 1996). Pinar's 'Currere' model posits that self-actualised individuals reflecting on the past and present to understand the future (a unique way of understanding the real-life situation) (Pinar, 1995) is relevant to this study. Some employees in the workplace are motivated by self-identity: they interrogate what they do in the workplace; administrators may not be aware of those individuals, or indeed, they may merely ignore them or foil their efforts, and yet these individuals may transform the institution.

There is no evidence, however, that by combining the system and process models, employees would be fully motivated. Some employees are motivated by instructional leadership (system), while others are motivated by the transformational leadership (process). There should be a natural model of leadership that can result in an employee becoming self-actualised. A transformational-instructional leadership style would best describe a self-actualised employee.

7.2.2.4 Transformational-instructional leadership

Both the instructional and transformational leadership seem to fail fully to address their impact on the individual (personal vision). Employees are motivated through leadership that involves them for as long as leadership is all about accomplishing tasks the right way. The type of leadership employed by the leader must take from both the system and the process model of leadership. The practice would help individuals fulfil their self-actualisation needs (Maslow, 1954), understanding their personal identities (Khoza, 2017), in order to possess natural actions (Lefebure, 1991). According to Tay and Diener (2011), together with Khoza and Biyela (2020), these individuals are problem-centred. They objectively accept reality, and are highly creative, based on high moral standards, because they have come to understand their strengths and weaknesses.

Khoza (2018) and Mpungose (2020c) revealed that there is limited literature on what prepares employees adhering to employee motivation models relevant to the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR). For this reason I was encouraged to conduct this study. Biesta (2015) stresses that it is still not known what promotes intrinsic values of employee motivation. Biesta (2015), therefore, recommends that motivation be a dual responsibility of employees and their administrators. Such dual responsibility would ensure that the three motivation models (system, process and personal) are equally applied to employees.

Khoza (2019) and Maxwell (2013) strongly believe that reflection as a process of interrogating one's past, present and future experiences, can be a better resource for supporting both employees and administrators in understanding their identities, based on the system, process and personal needs. It was clear from this study that employees knew what drove their personal needs, as they responded to the questions in the open-ended questionnaire, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and focus-group discussions. This suggests that self-reflection promotes employees' understanding of what constitutes the personal needs of employee motivation. One needs to transform oneself first, and then follow instructions, hence transformational-instructional leadership.

7.2.3 Theme Three: Work environment

Work environment is created under conditions in which an employee can comfortably perform work duties (Gitonga, 2015). Bushin (2014) defines working environment as comprising the totality of actions and other influential factors that are currently and/or potentially contending with employees' activities and performance. The working environment thus is the interrelationship of employees with the environment in which employees work. This broad theme of work environment, therefore, includes the following sub-themes: institutional environment (system), people environment (process), philosophical view of environment (personal), and finally, the people-institutional environment that addresses the self-actualised individual and motivates an employee permanently in the workplace.

7.2.3.1 Institutional environment

The institutional environment in this section addresses the system model. Issues pertaining to how policy, rules and regulations, and organisational resources impact motivation of employees on organisational performance are discussed in relation to participants' views in this study.

Benjamin:

> *"If the college environment is always favourable, I would work towards the vision of the organisation" (**RJB2a)***.

Adam:

> *"Policy guidelines are made reference to from time to time in performing college activities. **(RJA2a)***.

Ruth:

> *"Clear goals and objectives are easy to follow. I have a target to meet, so I put a lot of effort to achieve the organisational goals and objectives" **RJR2d)***.

Ruth:

> *"If I am involved in crafting the vision mission, core values, goals and objectives of the college, then I feel I am part and parcel of the institution and will be motivated in accomplishing the mandate of the college" **(RJR5)***.

Benjamin, Adam and Ruth expressed how policy guidelines motivate them, especially if they create a favourable environment, are made reference to and are easy to follow. However, employees ought to be involved in crafting these policies − they would thus be motivated to achieve them. Gosier (2018) adds that employees must be made to understand why policies and procedures are critical. Gosier (2018) believes that when employees follow the dictates of stipulated policies and procedures, the organisation will run smoothly. Also, administrative structures and teams will operate as they are meant to; anything not clear in the process can quickly be identified and addressed. Gosier (2018), however, is silent on the need for policies that motivate employees towards organisational performance, which is the main thrust of this study. The author further expresses that time and resources are likely to be used more efficiently, allowing the organisation to grow and achieve goals. Rasmussen and Zou (2014) address the concept of accountability − most administrators merely employ rules, regulations and policies. Gosier (2018) further opines that, since most of the policies are top down (system), on issues of accountability, employees are more likely to abide by policy if they see their administrators consistently following the same policies and procedures. Employees must also know the consequences of violating the policies and procedures.

Zhou (2010), in his study examining rule founding and the rate of rule change in a university organisation, suggests that rule founding and rule change may affect organisational response to external crises. Such may be regulated by an internal process. Zhou (2010) further found that, once rules are established, they are path-dependent, sensitive to agenda-setting and adaptive to governmental constraints; rules are institutionalised over time. This suggests that rules are not mere factual descriptions of expected behaviours; rather, they state what ought or ought not to happen, given a set of conditions (Science & Business Media LLC, 2015). Moreover, rules ought to be written, providing more exact reference points for defining desirable and acceptable behaviours, making rule-following easier (de Vaujany et al., 2018). In this way employees would be motivated towards rule adherence and organisational performance. Weichbrodt and Gote (2010) aver that excessive bureaucratic (system model) requirements may hinder creativity, innovation, and change. Individuals cope with regulation of rules, formalisation, and shaping of organisational rules as a system model (Khoza, 2015a; 2015b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Mpungose, 2018).

While rules serve the purpose of defining responsibilities and allocation of resources, there has to be adequate communication on why a particular decision has been made (Okhuysen & Bechky, 2009). Rules ought to allow a negotiation process between various interest groups within an organisation (Weichbroadt & Gote, 2010). Administrators therefore ought to be trained on how to employ the policies, rules, and procedures within an organisation since these may be implemented in various ways (do Prado Leite & Leonardi, 2014). Extensive information should be availed to all employees. The rule systems should be flexible, so that users may decide on when the rules apply and when deviations are necessary, thus easing the evaluation system within the organisation. A good institutional environment is thus created and employees may be motivated for organisational performance.

Besides policies, rules, and regulations that should be well communicated, employees also find joy in working within an organisation in which there are adequate resources. Resources are important in the development of a conducive working environment.

Ruth:

> *"When the college has resources, it makes one want to work because they have what they need to perform tasks. I get highly motivated if resources are available"* ***(RJR3)***.

Benjamin:

> *"Procurement and equitable distribution of college resources increase motivation of the employees"* ***(RJB3)***.

Deborah:

> *"The fact that the institution supplies resources that we need to carry out our duties is motivation on its own"* ***(FD1, 2)***.

Leah:

> *"... we are enjoying the resources to carry out duties, we are given gadgets such as laptops, desktops, just to mention a few, and this is a way of motivating us"* ***(FL1.2)***.

The human resources component interacts with organisational facilities and equipment at certain times to bring about production, hence the ideological-ware that controls the hardware and software, as described by Khoza (2013a). Dangara (2016) posits that the quality and quantity of this output are to a great extent dependent on the quality and quantity of the resource input. Administrators are out to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in the acquisition of resources, coordination, control, and maintenance, in order to motivate employees on organisational performance. This is so because organisations have other resources that are controlled, utilised, and maintained by human resources within an organisation. These resources include material or physical resources (structures, equipment, raw materials, vehicles, and other tools), financial resources (funds required for the smooth operations of the organisation), time (the most expensive of all resources due to its non-recoverable nature), information and communication technology (ICT) (a diverse set of technological tools, for instance, computers, the internet, and many others) (Dangara, 2016; Khoza, 2015a, 2015b; Khoza & Mpungose, 2017; Ugwulashi, 2012: Kalu, 2012).

Benjamin:

> *"Lecturers perform better if there are adequate resources such as well-furnished lecture rooms, well-stocked libraries, laboratories, textbooks, finances and the relevant curriculum".* He went further to reiterate that: *"lecturers at our college were highly motivated when they're allocated teaching resources like laptops and fixing of clever boards in the lecture rooms. Morale was high among staff"* ***(RJB3)***.

The use of these resources can give direction to the employees more than any powerful efforts without the materials. It is, however, not the availability of these resources alone that is important, but also their adequacy and effective utilisation. Therefore, the proper administration and use of these resources would not only boost the morale of employees, but would also ensure the attainment of goals. In this way employees would be motivated on organisational performance.

Policy direction, rules and regulations and organisational resources, when properly applied, communicated, evaluated, and utilised should lead to effective interaction with the human resources of an organisation. This would bring about effective performance management which is a necessity in any organisation. The work environment thus should have a performance-management system which is appreciated by the employer and adds value to the performance and organisational growth.

Noah:

> *"... if the college appreciates that you are putting an effort towards the goals of the institution it drives you to want to work and put an effort towards whatever you are doing"* ***(FN 2.1)***.

Ruth:

> *"There is joy that comes into me when I am appreciated because I feel I am doing the right thing"* ***(FR 2.3)***.

Noah and Ruth expressed that they want to be appreciated in the workplace. This appreciation can come in several forms, including the use of the appraisal or performance-management system. Unfortunately, the performance management in organisations still has a long way to go in fulfilling its objectives and implementation (Tanveer & Karim, 2018). Research on the perspectives, attitudes, and positions of academics toward quality assurance showed that academics may either resist or comply with quality assurance procedures (Cardoso, Rosa & Santos, 2013). Zhang (2008) alludes to academics finding performance appraisals acceptable only if they lead to satisfaction, suggestions for improvement, or rewards (motivation). Zhang (2008) further notes that when assessment is perceived as controlling, this induces pressure and tension and may create an unpleasant work environment that can undermine employee motivation.

Aslam (2018) identifies ambiguity in the appraisal process as one of the factors that leads to poor employee motivation. Siddique et al. (2011) aver that employees need autonomy and participation in decision-making in the workplace. Monitoring and evaluation practices on organisational motivation should be mediated by quality feedback provided to the employees (Niyivuga et al., 2019). Accuracy in performance appraisal is therefore a pre-condition for accurate and meaningful feedback (Govaerts, Vanderwiel & Van Der Vleuten, 2012). Govaerts et al. (2012) further remark that feedback of performance reviews should be confidential to the individual. Such are likely to create a good work environment and likely to motivate employees on organisational performance. This suggests a need for an improved performance-management system in institutions of higher education so that employees believe themselves to be in a conducive work/institutional environment. Bushiri (2014) suggests that organisations have to create an institutional environment in which people enjoy what they do, feel that they have a purpose, take pride in what they do so that they can reach their full potential. Let the reader understand more on how the people environment can motivate employees on organisational performance.

7.2.3.2 People environment

According to Vasyakin, Vela, Porzhaerskaya and Shcherbokova (2016), the process model shares the principles of the collegiate model that stipulates that organisations should not be bureaucratic. They should encourage all members of the academic community to be involved in administrative processes. By facilitating the involvement of staff in administrative processes employees may feel inspired to work toward a common goal. This in turn would improve organisational performance and growth, employees being motivated.

Benjamin:

> "*The climate of the organisation determines the motivation and behaviour of members of the organisation. People tend to perform better if the work environment is good. In a good working environment there is teamwork, cooperation, commitment, communication and creativity. Performance levels of the members are high and they will have high concern for organisation success"* ***(RJB4b)***.

Hannah:

> *"The organisation encourages good and collegial working relationship. There is good working culture"* ***(QH12)***.

This showed that she appreciated the work environment that is collegial (people centred).

Hannah:

> *"Our Principal is always encouraging us to work as a team and became of that, most of the people want to be part of the team, and they want to work towards the goal of the college, and they want to achieve what we should achieve as a teacher education college"* ***(IH2b)***.

Adam:

> *"I personally love the spirit of teamwork among staff as working together makes the task easy and achieve more"* ***(RJA4b)***.

Benjamin, Hannah and Adam reveal that employees ought to work together, developing relationships with core-workers in a friendly environment (Sani, 2013). Khoza 2013a; 2013b; 2015a; 2015b; 2016; 2017; Khoza and Mpungose, 2017 attest to the process model emphasising the need for employees to work together to share ideas, be it core-workers or employees and supervisors, including employees and administrators. This suggests that administrators ought to interact with colleagues, department members, and other support staff to assist organisations in attaining the goals of the organisation (Selrali, Goussia-Rizou, Giannouli & Markins, 2016). Glazier and Liu (2017) posit that a good relationship between administrators and employees is likely to create a healthy work environment and assist in reducing intention to leave the organisation.

Deborah:

> *"A work environment which is conducive helps one to stay focussed"* ***(RJD4b)***.

> Ruth:

> *"A conducive environment will motivate employees. An environment where individuals are allowed to express their feelings and also offer suggestion on how they can improve their performance will motivate employees* ***(RJR4b)***.

Deborah and Ruth's views are supported by Msengeti and Obwagi (2015) who believe that a positive work environment is likely to make employees feel good about coming to work, and feel motivated throughout the day.

Esther:

> *"The work environment is healthy and conducive. It is more like family"* ***(QL12)***.

> Esther:

> *". . . for the name of the institution to grow . . . it is because of the efforts of the people whom you are working with"* ***(IE3a)***.

Administration ought to keep the motivation of employees high so that they remain focussed on what they do. This would improve performance of individuals and make the organisation grow by leaps and bounds.

Benjamin:

> *". . . my motivation levels will be high if the college leadership follows a democratic or participatory approach. In this style, members are made to feel important in an organisation. Members are allowed to participate in decision making processes. Participants' decision making allows inputs by other people. Broad participation creates a sense of commitment. As a result, I will be committed and dedicated to work. This will assist in the achievement of the goals of the organisation (college)"* ***(RJB3d)***.

Benjamin reveals how the democratic or participatory leadership style motivates employees. When members are allowed to participate and have a ‘voice’ in decision-making, they feel important and committed to the achievement of the goals of the institution.

Adam:

> *“People would want to be involved in decision making”* ****IA1a)***.

Benjamin:

> *“The college Principal in a democratic leadership style listens to staff requests and seeks to support such requests whenever reasonable. The administration is seen by both lecturers and students as supportive, caring and trustworthy, all of which help create conditions of excellence”* ***(RJB3d)***.

Esther:

> *“A leader can even support colleagues by supporting their family programmes, attending funerals or weddings. . .”* ***(IE2c)***.

Benjamin and Esther clearly present how a conducive people environment can be created by the democratic leader. Such a leader is appreciated by both the employees and the student body. Leaders can create a good environment both at work and also outside work; support can be extended to family needs.

Gabriel:

> *“I have a positive boss who takes care of my needs. A boss who understands how things should be done and who also understands the gaps that are there and comes in to fill in and provide the comfort. In that way I get motivated”* ***(IG2a)***.

Motolo and Mukulu (2016) believe that poor performance of an employee may be a result of stress and demoralisation. Such employees may be characterised by low productivity in the workplace. Challenges emanating from meeting family obligations may be stressful and this may be compounded by a stressful workplace environment. Administrators should therefore adopt employee counselling. Such may help relieve employees from tension, helping them to focus on achieving organisational goals and objectives. Ochola (2018) and other authors thus advocate for a conducive and stress-free work environment, encouraging employees to remain motivated in their job and augmenting organisational performance,

The process model suggests that there is need for continuous engagement and understanding of all employees with the support of administration. This would mean that employees may be influenced to improve on their performance. Made, Assal, Shrafat and Zoglat (2017), in their study on the impact of employee motivation on organisational commitment, articulate that employees are the real assets of the organisation and thus are considered the engine of any organisation. Employees (people) ought therefore to be supported by administration so that they understand that they are part of the organisation. This would have a positive impact on employee motivation for organisational performance.

Ryan (2015), however, stresses that no single model of human motivation offers an all-encompassing and comprehensive view of the complexity of human behaviour. Administrators need to maintain a healthy relationship (process) between employee motivation and fairness. Fairness and the allocation of rewards are strongly associated with a successful and motivated employee (Neuman, Ritz & Vandenabeele, 2016). Administrators ought thus to be able to sustain positive performance for organisational growth (Mat, 2016). There is no evidence, however, that the people environment (process) on its own or the institutional environment (system) on its own may result in addressing the personal needs fully. A balance must be struck between the process and system models to create a neutral platform on motivational needs of an individual on organisational performance. The philosophical or pragmatic view of the work environment thus must be discussed to see how it would impact on employee motivation.

7.2.3.3 Philosophical view of work environment

The philosophical view of the work environment suggests that the discussion of the institutional environment (system model) and people environment (process model) leaves a void for a neutral platform that combines the strengths of both models (system and process) (Khoza, 2020). A personal or pragmatic model may address the needs of individual employees by combining the strengths of both the system and process models, as suggested by Khoza & Manik (2015), Mpungose (2018), and others. This would help employees to understand who they are (identities) before they dwell on the institutional environment or people environment, so that they can control their situation in the workplace.

Employees are different and hence may be motivated differently, Adams (2017). Some employees may be motivated more by how the institution provides for them in terms of policies, rules and regulations, resources, the evaluation of their needs as a people (participatory approach, team work, social needs) and many others, on their contribution to organisational success. Administrators ought thus to understand how individual employees may be motivated in the workplace to address the personal needs. This would impact positively on employee motivation on organisational performance.

Literature has not fully addressed how the individual or personal needs may be fulfilled by the work environment. In his study Bushiri (2014) aims to assess the impact of the working environment on employees' performance at the Institute of Finance Management in Dar es Salaam region. The study findings indicate that the organisation's work environment has an impact on employees. The study also reveals that employees would improve their performance were the challenges identified. The challenges were identified as flexibility of working environment, supervisors, use of feedback, and improvement of incentives within the organisation, amongst other factors, so that employees are motivated to perform their job. Administrators ought therefore to create a working environment that is safe and conducive to employees performing their tasks in the workplace. Literature suggests that workplace design can affect organisational and employee outcomes, affording better communication, collaboration, creativity, and higher employee engagement, motivation, well-being, and employee retention (Kegel, 2017). Therefore, work environments today need to be agile, in order to support people (process model), the nature of the work (system model), and subsequently, organisational performance.

A case in point of how individual employees react to a work environment was given by Adam, Hannah and Esther:

> *"There are those members who are not willing to work as a team. Such individuals are always on the opposing side, as they see nothing good in whatever people do unless it is coming from them"* ***(RJA4b)***. *"Some people are just not team players. Where they are called to play team, they want to play*

> *individual . . ." **(IH3b)**. "Yes, there are people who even though they may not want to work with others, given a chance to work as a team, they will realise that they are benefitting when they share ideas. They sooner or later, realise that they are part and parcel of the institution and feel they have ownership of the programme"* ***(IE3b)***.

Adam's view suggests that those individuals not willing to be part of the team in the workplace are only concerned with getting their job done and nothing more. They are likely to be driven only by that which makes them achieve organisational objectives and the college mandate. Hannah confirms that such employees want to play as individuals. However, Esther explains that those who do not wish to play in a team, if persuaded, would want to share ideas with others and later feel they belong to the organisation. Administrators therefore need to know their individual employees and how they would be motivated in the workplace. Today the employee requires proper direction to perform organisational tasks; at the same time employees must be involved in administrative processes. Wang and Shiquan (2018) are of the view that employees believe themselves to be part of the organisation if they are trusted, given clearly defined tasks to perform, with minimal interference from the administrator. This suggests that top-down decision-making in which employees are simply given orders to accomplish tasks is detrimental to organisational growth. The work environment may result in employees suppressing innovativeness, losing motivation, this having a directly negative effect on organisational performance, growth, and effectiveness.

Leah:

> *"I personally feel that leaders should not stick to one type of motivation. We need to have varied motivation models . . . because ideally we are different"* ***(FL3.3)***.

Administrators therefore need to be trained on how they can address the personal needs of an employer. They must combine the institutional environment (system) and the people environment for maximum benefit of the organisation. Employees may not be permanently motivated by the institutional environment only; neither can they be motivated by the people environment only. This suggests a need to go beyond combining the two, hence the need to declare another model which is the people-institutional environment.

7.2.3.4 People-institutional environment

Employees may not be permanently motivated by what the institution provides to accomplish tasks nor by recognising them as people. This requires a people-institutional environment in which, if employees are recognised, supported, and appreciated, they can be motivated permanently to accomplish organisational tasks by creating an institutional environment that may make the organisation grow.

Adam:

> *". . . I enjoy a leadership style where I am recognised, given the opportunity to explore in my area of specialisation, supported in different activities in the organisation, appreciated for excelling"* ***(RJA3d)***.

Adam reveals that he needs the necessary support and opportunity to create an environment conducive to achieving organisational goals. This implies that without that support he may fail to reach his full potential. Given support, the employees would be motivated personally. They would be able to create a self-fulfilling environment in which they would not wait for the administrator to create a desirable environment. They would use their self-motivation to create an institutional environment conducive to the growth of the organisation as well as the self.

Employees would create an environment where they would collaborate with colleagues, work as a team, and be able to create a conducive institutional environment in an attempt to achieve organisational goals and objectives. In this way they would be permanently motivated. Such individuals are self-actualised and would be able to think critically, solve their own problems in the workplace, and be reflective in their thinking. When one is self-actualised one has the capacity for introspection. Employees are then able to empower themselves to find lasting solutions to whatever challenges they may come across in the workplace.

Khoza (2019 argues that, through introspection, which helps people to find their identities (love, passion, courage, creativity), employees can come to know their strengths and limitations. Such will assist them in improving their practices and engaging effectively in their workplace. The conscious mind drives the system model which employees adopt and accept as their belief. When the use of prescribed rules, regulations and policies is mandatory, such have to be followed. Employees, however, ought to be given room to socialise with colleagues and administrators in the workplace. The administrator, thus, ought to identify and combine the strengths of both the system and process models to make up a unique person whose individual needs are catered for. Employees ought to be empowered to create an environment that best suits them to be motivated both for organisational and personal growth. Both the individual and the administrator are responsible to create a people-institutional environment.

7.3 Conclusion

This chapter formed the second part of data analysis by presenting the operational and philosophical views of the participants in this study.The chapter presented and discussed three broad themes based on participants' views on ***use of incentives, types of leadership, and the work environment*** as the operational and philosophical influences on employee motivation on organisational performance. Each broad theme consisted of four sub-themes that provided further detail on the system, the process, the personal, and finally the self-actualisation aspect of helping an employee to be permanently motivated. Literature was used to provide further insights from data findings used in this chapter. The findings from the broad theme (use of incentives) indicated that administrators in the workplace have great influence in providing knowledge incentives (system) and financial incentives (process) that, when combined, may help an employee understand his or her identity (personal). Those who understand their identity would be self-actualised. They would use their finances to gain more knowledge, **financial-knowledge incentives** resulting in them being permanently motivated on both organisational and personal goal achievements.

The findings from the second broad theme (types of leadership) revealed that some administrators would reward those employees who complied with prescribed principles (policies, rules and regulations) system. Others motivated employees through involving them in decision-making and giving them space to work in teams (participatory/democratic approach/process). Further investigation, however, indicated that, while some employees preferred the instructional leadership style, others preferred the transformational leadership style. The philosophical view of leadership, however, suggests that employees would be motivated by combining the strengths of both instructional and transformational leadership styles so that they would understand their identities and have control over their jobs. This practice would help employees to permanently fulfil their self-actualisation needs, hence the **transformational-instructional leadership style.**

Findings from the third and final broad theme of this chapter (work environment) indicated that an institutional work environment (system), with policies, rules and regulations, and organisational resources, motivated some employees. Other employees preferred a people environment (process) in which recognition, appreciation, support, and participation in decision-making would motivate them on organisational performance. The philosophical view of the work environment, however, suggests a combination of both institutional and people environment (personal). Such provides a neutral platform for employees to understand their identities regarding employee motivation on organisational performance. However, to be able to motivate employees permanently, I have suggested a **people-institutional environment.** For such an environment, employees create a self-fulfilling environment that self-motivates them and is able to empower them to be able to create an enabling environment in the workplace for both organisational and personal growth. The next chapter presents the study findings in relation to the Currere model, a theoretical framework presented in Chapter Four of this study. This model will further provide principles that can help employees motivate themselves permanently on organisational and personal performance and growth.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SELF-IDENTITY IS A FUNCTION OF A GOOD MOTIVATIONAL MODEL

8.1 Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. Mixed methods, case study, and pragmatic paradigm were employed. An open-ended questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions were used to generate data that were thematically analysed in the last two chapters (six and seven). The previous chapter (seven), thus, provided detailed discussions on three broad themes: use of incentives, types of leadership, and work environment, which contributed towards employee motivation models on organisational performance. Each of the broad themes discussed the system and process models that, when combined, would help to address the personal needs of an individual. It emerged in the findings that to be able to motivate an employee permanently, one ought to combine the strengths of the system model and the process model in order to understand the self. Moreover, Chapters Two and Three of this study presented detailed literature findings on use of motivation models in the workplace (system, process, and personal). It was noted through literature, however, that there is a major focus on the use of the system and process models of motivation, with not much said about the personal model. As a result of this gap, this study argued for the further understanding of the personal needs model, drawn from the strengths of the system and process models, to address the self. The present chapter, based on the findings of data analysed, therefore, strongly suggests that self-identity is key in motivating employees. I therefore propose a **self-identity motivation model** that draws up propositions that solve the combining of the system and process models in order to realise personal identity. In that way an individual can be permanently able to motivate others. These propositions are generated from the study as contributions that address the tensions between the system and process models. As such, discussing the proposed self-identity motivation model through its propositions may help readers to understand more about this proposed model and its propositions in order to apply it in their practices.

8.2 Self-identity Motivation Model

This study proposes the self-identity motivation model as a theoretical model. By means of this model employees can draw together the strengths of the system and process models of motivation on organisational performance, in order to develop a personal identity. Through personal identity based on one's needs, one may be self-motivated. Employees can then realise their identities, self-actualising so that they can be permanently motivated. Thus, based on the study findings, I argue that, in order for employees to be permanently motivated, they need to identify the self. Self-identity has its own principles proposed in this study, namely, self-reflection (in-on-of-for), independent thinking, accepting self and others, creativity according to needs, integrity, and being well principled, need for private space, and critical thinking. Figure 8.1 below summarises the self-identity motivation model proposed as a theoretical framework. This model is generated by combining the system and process models of motivation in this study

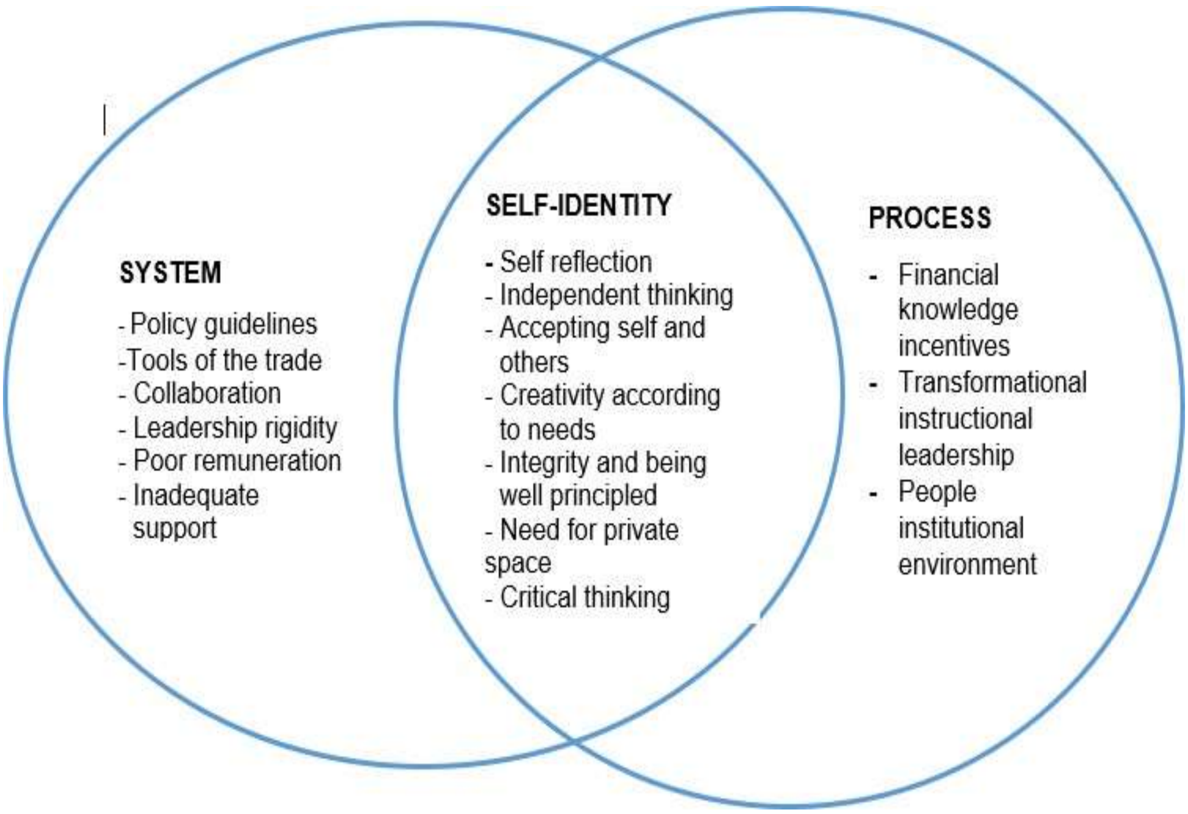


Figure 8.1 Self-identity model of motivation.

8.2.1 Self-reflection (in-on-of-for)

As part of the first proposition for the self-identity motivation model, this study found it necessary for employees to reflect on their experiences of motivation in the workplace. For participants to be permanently motivated, they needed to reflect on their past system, process, and personal-needs motivation experiences. This reflection meant that they had to subject themselves to introspection on how they had been successfully motivated in the past, in order to understand their prior experiences, thus improving on their motivational needs. Reflections would help employees become aware of their individual needs and identities on motivation. Van Manen (1995) asserts that reflection has to do with looking into past and present experiences in order to shape future experiences. Similarly, Mabuza (2018) discusses that reflection involves critically inspecting one's practices in order to learn from past experiences and thus to perform better in the present and the future. Reflection therefore provides one with the opportunity to analyse experiences, tackle challenges, and find solutions for more challenging situations (Van Manene, 1995).

Schon (1983) conceptualises reflection as "reflection-on-action" and "reflection-in-action" which refers to motivation as a continuous reflective practice. Employees reflect and act simultaneously (in action) when they reflect after gaining the experience (on-action). Mpungose (2018) and Khoza (2016) extended Schon's (1983) ideas of reflection to include that people also reflect-on-action when they reflect from the system practices. Reflection-in-action negotiates reflection derived from process practices in order to improve experience. On the other hand, reflection-on-action in this study means that participants had to interrogate their actions according to the system experiences. This kind of reflection was driven by what employees experienced in the system about motivation that could possibly improve their current experiences (at the time of their participation in the study). For instance, participants expressed their positive and negative perceptions of motivation in the workplace.

Employees in this study revealed their reflection-on-action when they expressed their perceptions on how the system directed them in the workplace, through prescribed work plans, and how they were motivated. For instance, among other participants, Adam and Deborah attested to being driven by the vision, mission, core values, goals, and objectives of the organisation to perform their duties. These pre-planned work-plans generated in them the desire to work hard to achieve the mandate of the institution. Reflection-on-action helped them realise their obligations to the institution. However, Deborah further emphasised that each time she wanted to exceed the set targets, and she thought of the paltry remuneration for her efforts, she would simply not exert herself. Additionally, Ruth revealed that she would feel that she belonged to the organisation were she involved in the crafting of the work plans. Thus Adam, Deborah and Ruth's experiences suggest that they were able to reflect-on-action; they were influenced by the system to address their personal needs thus meeting the organisational mandate.

On the other hand, "reflection-in-action" suggests that for employees to have attained motivation through the system model, they needed to interrogate their experiences according to the process model of motivation. In this way, they would have gained through the process the benefit of their motivation models. Participants would have reflected on their skills and knowledge developed from their process model to enhance their personal-needs experiences with motivation models. This kind of reflection was driven when employees were rewarded for their work and the effort they put into achieving the set goals of the institution. Employees then found joy that led them to putting even more effort in their work. Noah and Ruth revealed that the appreciation they received from the college motivated them to redouble their efforts in that they believed they were doing the right thing. Employees reflected-in their ability to perform; developed from the appreciation they received to enhance their personal experiences. Employees ought to combine the strengths of the system model with those of the process model so that they address the personal needs, and develop self-identities.

Furthermore, participants developed reflection-of-action when they considered their work environment as always favourable in helping them to achieve their organisational goals. The findings in this study indicated that, when participants considered their work environment as always favourable they would be motivated to work towards the accomplishment of the vision of the institution. Benjamin affirmed that were the college environment always favourable, he would be motivated to work hard towards the vision of the organisation. This demonstrates reflection-of-action, in which employees considered both institutional environment (facilities available) and a people environment (ability work with others) as necessary for developing their own identities.

Those who combined both institutional and people environment would be empowered to make their own decisions (personal) without having to wait for someone to push them to create a work environment conducive to achieving their goals.

In addition to the different types of reflection, Khoza (2016) further developed a concept of “reflection-for-action”. This concept is of people enhancing their experiences with motivation models from either the system (on-action) or process (in-action) reflections. In this study, “reflection-for-action” is indicated in participants’ personal-needs experiences. Participants could use either system or process reflections to address their individual motivation needs. In this study, among other participants, Jacob revealed that motivation is used for many reasons, such as organisational needs and aspirations, and also career development and guidance. This would, in the long run, help one to achieve organisational goals. Furthermore, Benjamin indicated that an effective organisation has a highly committed, dedicated, and motivated workforce. Benjamin’s reflection-for-action further revealed that employees would render their services in full within an organisation when they believed that their efforts were recognised and rewarded. In such a case employees would be committed even to work overtime in order to achieve organisational goals. On the other hand, Deborah and Adam reflected-for-action in this study. These participants revealed that they would appreciate a system that provided regular training and development. Such a system would refresh and renew knowledge and skills that would motivate employees to maximise their potential in the organisation. In addition, Hannah revealed that employees needed adequate materials and equipment so that they could be motivated to perform their tasks. Regular training and provision of tools of the trade would result in an objective performance-management system that would aim to improve efficiency and effectiveness of employees. Therefore I argue that reflections are among the essential practices that shape personal experiences in motivation models on organisational performance. When employees address their self-identities they would be self-actualised and be able to motivate themselves permanently for both organisational and personal growth.

The scrutiny of participants’ experiences in this study indicates that reflections enable employees to use their prior experiences (system or process) to improve their motivation models on organisational performance. When employees reflect ‘on-in-of-for’ action, they develop self-identities that help them become permanently motivated in the workplace. Schon (1987) describes reflection-in-action as the capacity of employees to consciously think about what they are doing while they are doing what they are doing (thinking on their feet). Donaghy (2000) states that reflection-on-action involves stepping back from the situation sometime after it has occurred. Reflection-of-action reveals the environment under which one is operating and how it impacts on one’s performance. Reflection-for-action involves thinking about future actions with the intention of improving or changing a practice (Otleanu, 2017; Khoza, 2016). Employees used their self-reflections in this study as well as their independent thinking. This is addressed in the next section.

8.2.2 Independent thinking

The second proposition for a self-identity motivation model is for employees to have independent thinking. Independent thinking suggests that one is influenced by external factors and their impact on motivation. However, independent thinking indicates individual beliefs on the right thing to do. Spacey (2020) describes independent thinking as the ability of one to offer original ideas and interpretations of situations independently, with or without the influence of external factors. External factors may emanate from the system or the process model in the workplace. When an individual combines the strengths of the system and the process model personal needs may be addressed. Similarly, Spacey (2020) suggests that independent thinking requires that the employee look for weaknesses or strengths in situations, believing they have the power to interpret things for themselves. Self-reflection helps people to develop self-identity, address personal needs, and to think independently both in the workplace and in life in general. In this study, Deborah claimed in her reflective journal that, upon reflecting on the system, she realised that organisational goals and objectives generated in her the desire to achieve them. This became the impetus for her to work hard. Furthermore, Benjamin displayed independent thinking when he indicated that if the organisation failed to fulfil his needs, he would ‘vamoose’ (leave the job), seeking greener pastures. Benjamin also indicated that he could not perform as well as he did were his needs not met. This was the reason for some lecturers leaving for the diaspora. This is evidence that employees reflect-in-action, find a need to addresses their personal needs and make their own decisions on what action to take, as an independent thinker. In this way, one is likely to be permanently motivated. One would have developed personal identity to be able to think independently about what would or would not work for them.

Moreover, this study has revealed that an independent thinker would not wait for administration to motivate them at the workplace. An independent thinker would have the ability to combine the strengths of the instructional leadership style with those of the transformational leadership style. In this way, the employee would become motivated through the transformational-instructional leadership style. An employee would thus be permanently motivated, knowing what is best for the self in terms of the leadership style. Deborah used the prescribed plans combined with the participatory approach motivates employees to meet organisational goals. An employee who is influenced by the transformational-instructional leadership style would be permanently motivated in the workplace. They would identify self with working with other people. At the same time, they would willingly follow whatever would help best to accomplish the work in terms of policies, rules, and regulations. Such individuals would engage in self-evaluation of their work, and continuously apply introspection for the benefit of meeting their mandate at the workplace. Employees would thus find joy in performing their work − they would be influenced by their self-identity as independent thinkers.

Furthermore, employees who are independent thinkers would be in a position to create a work environment that would help them enjoy their work. Employees would create an institutional environment that would benefit them. They would not have to wait for an external factor to create an environment for them. Such employees are likely to enjoy working with colleagues, creating teams and working in a collaborative manner to make their work environment enjoyable. A people-institutional environment thus would permanently motivate such employees. They would have self-identity − they would know what exactly they want and wish for to be able to perform their duties in the workplace. Spacey (2020) avers that an independent thinker is one who thrives on divergent thinking (process of solving a problem with no single solution) as opposed to convergent thinking (where there is a well-accepted correct solution to a challenge). As such, administrators should encourage divergent thinking in the workplace lest they destroy creativity and innovation in solving challenges. An independent thinker would thus be an employee who accepts self and also accepts others as they are. They would understand that employees are all different, having different needs.

8.2.3 Accepting self and others

The third proposition to self-identity motivation model is an employee who accepts self as a unique individual and at the same time accepts other people (colleagues) as they are (unique individuals). Each person has unique characteristics and no two people are identical. While they may be working toward the same goal, each one has their own characteristics, uniqueness, and thus would behave differently. It is therefore important that employees first learn to accept themselves as different people who may be motivated in their own unique way. When they understand themselves (self-identity), they would be in a position to understand and respect other people. Ruth revealed that employees would be motivated to work with a leader who identified personally with them, because individuals want to be heard. When their views are considered they believe that they belong to the organisation. In the interviews and focus-group discussions Esther and Benjamin expressed that they preferred administrators who supported employees' family programmes such as funerals and weddings: this would motivate them. This would be supported by the biblical saying; 'Do unto others as you would have them do unto you'. Furthermore, Gabriel revealed that he was motivated by an understanding head of institution who tried to find ways of motivating his employees. This kind of a leader was considered a positive 'boss' who took care of employees' needs, filling in the gaps and providing comfort to the employees as a motivating factor. Such a leader accepted self as a leader, considering others in the workplace. Employees are motivated by colleagues who accept self and then accept other people as having individual needs.

Moreover, love for teamwork by the leader and employees was revealed by Adam and Hannah, indicating that employees appreciated one another's efforts, hence accepted working together to achieve organisational goals. Accepting oneself as a person who needs other people to work with as a team is evidence that together employees can achieve more. Even those who had difficulty working with others would eventually realise that they needed to work with others to be able to meet organisational goals. Self-identity in the workplace thus is critical in helping to accept self and others. Accepting self is described by Joubert (2017) as the ability to recognise own strengths and limitations, and the capacity to express our needs. Self-identity thus helps individuals have an understanding that people are motivated differently. Such understanding may create harmony, peace and honesty among colleagues in the workplace. Lack of understanding of oneself would result in lack of understanding and appreciation of other people. Such could lead to conflict, disharmony, and lack of honesty among employees.

This study has revealed that there are employees in the workplace who are motivated by the adherence to prescribed plans of action (system). Others are motivated by working with colleagues in a participatory manner (process model). There are also employees who prefer knowledge incentives (system model) as opposed to financial incentives (process model). Those who combine the system and process models would be trying to address their personal needs by identifying exactly who they are. This kind of scenario shows that people make their own choices and, therefore, should be accepted and respected as they are. However, I argue that using the strengths of both the system and process model in the workplace would develop an individual who is self-actualised and accepts self and others as they are found. Such an individual would build confidence in themselves and be able to motivate themselves permanently to achieve both organisational and personal goals. By understanding that people are unique, one would realise that even the way they perform their duties and their expectations will be different. Therefore each one will develop own creativity according to their personal needs in the workplace.

8.2.4 Creativity according to needs

People being different, their motivational needs are also different. Self-identity helps one know and understand individual needs. This would therefore call for creativity, according to one's needs. If an individual fails to be creative in addressing their own needs, their motivation levels in the workplace would be jeopardised. Such employees would be waiting for other people to address their needs, failing to be permanently motivated. Those who understand what motivates them in the workplace are creative thinkers who can address their various needs. Creativity in the workplace is necessary. One learns to do things differently every time, avoiding the boredom of repetition that could result in demotivation. Creativity thus is a way of generating ideas that may be useful in solving challenges and turning new ideas into reality. Van Gundy and Naiman (2019) posit that creativity is characterised by the ability to perceive the world in new ways, to find hidden patterns, to make connections between seemingly unrelated phenomena, and to generate solutions.

An employee needs to identify own needs and create own environment to be able to be permanently motivated. In this study, Benjamin, among other participants, revealed that people perform better if the work environment is good. In an environment that creates teamwork, employees are likely to be creative. Teamwork improves work performance; and members are likely to have great concern for organisational success. Each member of the team would want to contribute towards work performance, sharing their commitment and communication, thriving in such an environment. The environment may be in various forms: creating new knowledge, making use of what is locally available, and making the best of such, engaging colleagues to work in a collaborative manner, and satisfying own needs and the needs of others in the workplace. When members combine their thoughts, they are likely to be motivated to become creative for the betterment of the organisation.

Moreover, Benjamin revealed that a democratic or participatory leadership approach would make employees feel important within an organisation. The broad participation would create a sense of commitment and dedication. This is likely to make employees explore greater avenues of creativity so that they achieve organisational goals. Adam, when recognised by administration and given an opportunity to explore in his area of specialisation, excelled, to the betterment of the organisation. Creative thinkers should excel in their work. Ferreira and Filho (2011) view creativity as a way of thinking that leads to new knowledge, approaches, and problem solving. Creativity can lead one to perform even beyond expectation because one would be engaging in what motivates one best. For one to be creative, among other things, one ought to have integrity and be well principled.

8.2.5 Integrity and being well principled

Integrity is the ability to know what is good and what is bad in life or in the workplace, regardless of the circumstances. Moreover, integrity is the characteristic of being honest and trustworthy oneself and towards others, as well as displaying a principled dedication to what is valued and believed in. Duggar (2009) posits that individuals with integrity build trusting relationships with others. Once one is able to differentiate between good and bad practices, one is bound to be well principled. Being well principled guides one to do that which is fair, just, and acceptable in the eyes of self and all humanity. An individual of integrity is one with a character that people can trust and believe in − one who is consistently transparent, honest, reliable, and ethical.

Failure to be well principled would lead one to lose direction in life or in the workplace. One would live a life of regret, possibly even blaming other people for own mistakes. Integrity, therefore, is integral in developing a self-identity that would help one address permanent motivation models. Integrity is a characteristic that stems from an individual's way of thinking and doing things. Such can only happen if one understands self and if this is a prerequisite for personal success. Such requires self-control, in which one would independently decide on doing things right in the workplace, even when nobody is checking.

The ability for an employee to understand and abide by the policies, rules, and regulations at the workplace requires one to have integrity and be well principled. Every system has its own policy framework that requires employees to understand and follow. Adam revealed integrity when he indicated that clearly set out rules motivated him. He would work within the parameters of what was expected. This is an indication that he identified self with what was expected in the workplace and even expected to be rebuked if he deviated from what was right. Such behaviour can only be found in people with integrity and who are well principled. They would want to associate self with what is right, and would appreciate being told where they were going wrong. If one fails to identify self with work policies, such a one is likely to be hostile and to commit acts of misconduct. When reprimanded, such people fail to find joy in the workplace, possibly even losing their jobs. However, there are employees who may resist working in collaboration with their colleagues. Such employees may fail to believe that other people can contribute meaningfully in the workplace. They believe that only they have the correct answers. If one fails to accommodate other people's ideas others will be demotivated in the workplace, and will always be less than satisfied. However, those who are willing to listen to other people's views and can tap into their ideas can benefit from them, and find joy in sharing knowledge. In this way such people become permanently motivated in the workplace.

Benjamin revealed his integrity in appreciating that the rules and regulations in the workplace guided his conduct. The rules and regulations of the organisation helped make him become disciplined. Someone disciplined is well principled and displays integrity. Participants like Adam and Benjamin are well-behaved, adhering to the demands of work and meeting deadlines. However, Ruth reiterated that if the rules are too strict they hinder progress. In other words, rules ought to be flexible so that employees work with ease but at the same time achieve organisational goals. Employees should be made to understand reasons behind rules and regulations of the workplace. Involving employees in crafting some rules and making sure they are understood helps employees to work towards organisational goals. Broad participation would help make employees committed and dedicated to their work. Gaining of integrity and good principles requires one to apply introspection. Thus one must create private space.

8.2.6 Need for private space

For one to understand self, developing self-identity, one needs private space. Private space is that immediate surrounding that a person considers rightfully theirs. Private space would assist one in introspection without disruption or being disrupted in one's thinking. Most people value their personal private space and are likely to feel discomfort, anger, or anxiety when their personal space is invaded. Adam revealed in this study the importance of employees' need for private space when he reiterated that employees should be given an opportunity to work without interference, for example, when working on projects. Those who have self-identity are likely to know what works for them and will work hard to accomplish their goals. Adam further revealed that he enjoyed being given an opportunity to excel in his area of specialisation for as long as there was the necessary support. One can only excel in work if there is private space to think and do what they can without interference. It was interesting to note that Gabriel revealed that their boss allowed them to make use of opportunities in the organisation and he gave them the necessary support. Some heads of institutions, however, failed to do the same. In other words, a leader who gives employees the chance to explore whatever they can is considered a good leader − they give employees private space in a public sphere.

An employee ought to be alone at times, seriously getting to grips with who exactly they are. In this realm of private space one would, in this case, interrogate the system and the process model. One could then combine their strengths and position oneself in the best way possible to identify self in the workplace. When one has self-identity, one would thus make the right choices to be able to motivate self permanently. If one fails to create private space, one would fail to reflect 'on-in-of-for' the job. This would result in a failure to pay enough attention to what would motivate one best to perform even beyond the call of duty.

Private space would help one to think carefully about how financial-knowledge incentives can impact positively on the organisation as well as the self. Space is necessary for thinking carefully how to combine the strengths of instructional and transformational leadership thus causing permanent motivation of transformational-instructional leadership. One could reflect on how to create an enabling people-institutional environment thus becoming permanently motivated in the workplace. A private space is a platform to reflect ‘on-in-of-for’, to allow one to identify self, to apply introspection, to self-actualise, building self-control and developing self-identity. Private spaces are those owned by individuals and not open to other people unless approved by the owner. An employee should create an environment conducive to fulfilling organisational and personal needs. Self-identity thus becomes a vehicle for permanently motivating employees and creating space for critical thinking in an attempt to address personal needs.

8.2.7 Critical thinking

As part of the proposals on self-identity in motivation models on organisational performance, this study found it necessary for employees to be critical thinkers. Critical thinking is an intellectually disciplined process of actively and skilfully conceptualising, applying, analysing, synthesising and evaluating information gathered from or generated by observation, experience, reflections, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action (Scriven & Paul, 2007). Furthermore, Flavel (1979) refers to critical thinking as metacognition or the process of thinking about thinking. Critical thinking skills are, therefore, important because they enable employees to deal effectively with the system, process, and personal problems in the workplace. Simply put, employees who are able to think critically are likely to be able to solve challenges in an effective manner. This means that critical thinking and problem solving go hand in hand. Critical thinking and problem solving reflects one’s ability to analyse and evaluate the root cause of a problem to form the most viable solution.

In the focus-group discussions in this study, Leah revealed critical thinking skills. Leah indicated that leaders should not adhere to only one type of motivation in the workplace. Leah thought deeply and critically about the motivation models used in the workplace that were either from the system or from the process model with some possibly from the personal needs. These motivation models also apply to employees. Some employees are motivated by following pre-planned policies, rules, and regulations; while others are motivated by working with others and sharing ideas in a collaborative manner. Leah acknowledged that no one form of motivation could work in isolation. The strengths of the system and process models combined would help address the personal needs and develop self-identity. A critical thinker should be able to weigh up situations, choosing that which works best for them. Those employees who blindly adhere to one motivation model would run up against challenges. They would deprive themselves of the flexibility for permanent motivation by combining the motivation models.

Moreover, an employee who employs critical thinking would be in a position to solve problems independently when faced with a challenge, knowing what would work for them. Such employees would find the best solution to the challenge, thus addressing their personal needs. Leah proposed to combine different models in the workplace. If one model fails to solve a problem one can rely on the other. Failing that one can combine strengths of both models, the system and process models. Individuals who employ critical thinking automatically apply problem-solving skills that would motivate them to address their personal needs and the needs of others. Ruth stressed the importance of employees in the workplace employing critical thinking as a way of solving the challenge of staff turnover. This study further revealed that some employees solved their problems of poor remuneration by leaving for the diaspora. What Ruth is suggesting, however, is that a critical thinker should be able to solve challenges within or without the organisation as long as their needs are fulfilled.

The above propositions are all intertwined: Without different types of reflection (in-on-of-for), independent-thinking, accepting self and others, creativity according to needs, integrity and being well-principled, need for private space and critical thinking, an employee may fail to claim permanent motivation on organisational performance in the workplace.

8.3 Addressing the title: Employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe.

This study was conducted to investigate employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. In order to address the title, I formulated three key research questions which were: 1) What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Descriptive); 2) How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Operational); and 3) Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Philosophical/ theoretical). To explore the phenomenon and answer the critical research questions, I engaged with various literature to discern other researchers' findings on employee motivation models (Chapters Two and Three). The major gap identified in literature search was that too often administrators used mainly the system and process models to motivate employees on organisational performance, neglecting the personal-needs model. The personal vision of employee motivation in Chapter Four adopted the Currere model as the theoretical framework presenting the regressive, progressive, analytical, and synthetical moments (Pinar et al., 1995). These moments help employees to understand who they are and to develop self-identity.

Furthermore, employees in this study were driven by either the system or process model, and to a limited degree the personal-needs model. For this reason, the study developed permanent motivation models such as finance-knowledge incentives, the transformational-instructional leadership style, and the people-institutional work environment. These 4IR motivation models would help employees become permanently motivated on both organisation and personal growth by combining strengths of the system model and the process model so that they could be self-actualised. When one is self-actualised, one operates above the personal needs. Such employees are likely to have such characteristics as self-reflection (in-on-of-for), independent thinking, accepting self and others, creativity according to needs, integrity and being well principled, need for private space and critical thinking, among others.

To further respond to the critical research questions, I conducted a mixed methods research approach and a case-study design. I employed five methods to generate data (discussed in detail in Chapter Five). These data-generation methods included the open-ended questionnaire, document analysis, reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and focus-group discussions to produce empirical findings from a total of eleven (11) participants drawn from three government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. The findings were presented by use of a total of five (5) broad themes and eighteen sub-themes in Chapter Six (descriptive) and Chapter Seven (operational and philosophical). Such were presented, discussed, and analysed using the thematic approach. I used my own interpretations as well as literature references in analysing data generated for this study. The first part of Chapter Eight provides a theoretical analysis of the findings using specific concepts of the self-identity motivation model. I developed this model in achieving a self-actualised individual who would be permanently motivated on both organisational and personal growth. The discussion below expands more on how each research question was addressed in this study.

8.3.1 What are the employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Descriptive)

This question was answered throughout Chapter Six of the descriptive data presentation and analysis. Employees' perceptions on motivation models were reflected in most themes and sub-themes presented in this study. However, two broad themes and six sub-themes from Chapter Six specifically addressed employees' positive and negative perceptions on employee motivation and organisational performance. According to Khoza (2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b; Mpungose (2017); Khoza and Mpungose (2017), people are motivated through the system, process, or personal-needs models. Thus employees in this study indicated various aspects driven by the system, process, or personal-needs models that either contributed positively or negatively to their personal experiences. Employees used their reflections in the workplace from which they drew their perceptions of motivation models on organisational performance.

As positive perceptions, employees attested to policy framework as a guide, availability of tools of the trade to perform tasks, and collaboration to achieve goals and tasks as motivation on organisational performance. The first two perceptions referred more to the system model of motivation in which employees were motivated when they were afforded pre-planned policies, rules, and regulations, and thus would find joy in accomplishing organisational goals as directed. For instance, Benjamin, Adam, Deborah and Hannah appreciated the use of policy guidelines: these were referred to from time to time, thus be directed towards achievement of organisational goals. While Ruth shared similar sentiments on the benefits of pre-planned policies, such as clear vision, goals, and objectives, she would be more motivated were she involved in crafting the policies (process).

Furthermore, employees were motivated when hardware resources (tools of the trade) were made available for them to be able to accomplish their tasks. Participants in this study were driven by the system model, as they indicated that availability of resources motivated them to work harder (Ruth, Deborah, and Leah). The resources that participants referred to were mainly hardware resources − computers, laptops, textbooks, SMART Boards, among others. Some participants mentioned software resources like finances, relevant curriculum, and bundles for internet use. The use of hardware resources is driven by the system model, while the use of software resources is driven by the process model (Mpungose, 2017; Govender and Khoza, 2017; Bitzer & Botha, 2011). Khoza (2013) further posits that the software resources assist hardware resources. In this study, however, participants made very little mention of ideological resources that, according to Khoza (2013), are the drivers of the work to be done, such as theories which address personal needs. Benjamin, who was driven by personal needs reiterated that lack of supporting such needs may be tantamount to lack of adequate tools for the trade.

It was interesting, however, that, along with the drive by the system model of motivation, employees perceived collaboration (process) among employees as a motivational factor for them to achieve organisational goals. What was intriguing was that the kind of collaboration considered had more to address the need to achieve organisational needs (system) rather than personal needs. For instance, Ruth and Deborah indicated the need to have a work environment where their views would be heard (process), as this motivated them to work as a team to improve their performance and stay focussed. Their view is supported by Tripathy (2018) who avers that teamwork helps employees achieve more and better results in the workplace. Moreover, information exchange is a crucial part of the organisational process and being well-informed is necessary for both individual and organisational effectiveness (El-said & Shaaban, 2014). Hannah, Esther and Adam in this study shared the same sentiments that teamwork helped them to achieve organisational goals. Happy employees are more likely to be productive (Tewari & Sharma, 2019). In other words, employees were motivated by both the process and system model, more than by the personal-needs model to meet the needs of the organisation (system).

Participants further explained negative perceptions of employee motivation in this study when they referred to leadership rigidity, poor remuneration, and an inadequate support system. Adam indicated that employees want to be involved in decision-making (process), while Benjamin further indicated that broad participation created a sense of commitment that would assist in achieving organisational goals (system). Therefore, employees would be motivated by a democratic and participative leadership style, good remuneration, and adequate support system as opposed to the prevailing negative support system in the workplace. The type of motivation acquired by participants' perceptions would be driven by the process model.

The findings suggest that both positive and negative perceptions on employee motivation models impacted on organisational performance. In addition, each perception depended on individual needs of employees and how they were motivated or demotivated in the workplace, either by the system or process model and very little by the individual needs model.

8.3.2 How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Operational)

In this study employees in teacher-education colleges revealed that they were mainly motivated by the system model and the process model more than they were influenced by the personal-needs model. Most participants indicated that the use of policies guided them in the execution of their tasks. Policy guidelines like the vision, the mission, goals, and objectives, as well as rules and regulations provided them with a clear direction of what they needed to do to meet organisational goals. Khoza (2019), Mpungose (2016), and other scholars aver that a vision focusses on the system of what can make an organisation grow. The vision is important, not only for organisational growth but also for giving employees direction on which their performance would be evaluated (Prethal, 2016).

Furthermore, participants also indicated that they would perform their tasks well were they provided with the necessary resources (tools of the trade) such as computers and regular training and development programmes (Deborah, Adam, Benjamin, and Gabriel). These training programmes were perceived as refreshing and renewing employees' knowledge (system) and skills (process). Moreover, participants mentioned that they enjoyed working in collaboration with one another (process). This helped them achieve the organisational goals (system). Participants therefore showed that they were influenced by both the system model and the process model that motivated them to achieve organisational goals in their operations. This reveals that all they really needed was to be supported in achieving organisational goals. No emphasis was laid on personal gain.

In addressing this second research question, the study also found that employees in teacher education were motivated by the process model in their operations. Participants indicated that they were motivated by a leadership style that was democratic and involved employees in decision-making. A democratic leadership style that allows participation by employees would allow employees to own the vision, mission, goals and objectives of the college; this would help in the achievement of the organisational goals. What is intriguing, though, is that participants emphasised more the leadership that would allow them to achieve organisational goals (system), considering less their personal growth.

Most participants expressed that they were poorly remunerated (system) and as a result they were demotivated in the workplace. Participants went further to indicate that because they were poorly remunerated many teachers had entered the diaspora (greener pastures). Participants also expressed that their standard of living was appalling, as was that of their families. Employees expected motivation through high salaries and financial incentives, albeit not knowing the source of such. Furthermore, participants needed motivation so that they could achieve organisational goals (system). Some participants therefore expressed that they needed to support their families (process). Therefore, participants perceived both the system and process models as key motivating factors as they operated in the workplace.

Some participants would indeed be motivated by both the system and process models. Individual needs (philosophical views), however, were given very little attention in the operations of the participants. Combining the system and process models would help to address employees' personal needs and the developing of self-identity. It is therefore in the best interests of this study to discover whether employees were motivated by the system model or the process model. A combination of the strengths of both would address the individual needs and develop self-identity, and in that way develop permanent motivation for both the organisation and the self.

8.3.3 Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe? (philosophical/theoretical)

This was a third critical and philosophical research question in this study, also answered through the study's empirical findings in Chapter Seven. The findings of the study revealed that employees were either influenced by the system model or process model, and were very little influenced by the personal needs (philosophical view) model. Khoza (2018) proposes that employees ought to learn to address the 'who' and 'why' questions that help them identify and understand their personal identities in the workplace. This was evident when participants attested to being motivated by the use of policy guidelines, rules, and regulations that guided them on what do. Employees found joy when they achieved the organisational vision, mission, core-values, goals, and objectives. They could then measure their performance achievement against the pre-planned work.

Participants were also motivated when resources (tools of the trade) were provided so that they could perform their tasks. Unavailability of the needed tools would thwart their progress and result in their demotivation. Emphasis, however, was laid more on hardware resources such as computers (system) and software tools (process); very little mention was made of ideological tools (personal needs). Lack of ideological tools could therefore hinder work performance. Hardware tools could collect dust in the workplace should employees have little knowledge and skill to effectively perform their duties. Furthermore, one of the positive perceptions of employee motivation on organisational performance was that of collaboration (process), in achieving organisational goals (system). In other words, the collaboration by employees was mainly to satisfy organisational needs and not personal needs, thus, in this instance, the system model was more influential than the process model. This resulted in an imbalance between the system and process model that failed to address the personal needs (philosophical) of the individual.

Some participants perceived leadership rigidity, poor remuneration and lack of adequate support in the workplace as evidence that employees were influenced negatively by the system model. Employees indicated the need for knowledge and financial incentives, instructional and transformational leadership styles and institutional and people work environment among others. They needed to neutralise the system and process models to address their personal need and develop self-identities so that they could be self-actualised. Self-actualisation is achieved when one moves from the personal needs, which are the foundation of who one is (self-identity), reaching their full potential, people working to meet more pressing needs (Cherry, 2019). This study therefore proposed the self-identity motivation model with the following characteristics, among others: self-reflection (in-on-of-for), independent thinking, accepting self and others, creativity according to needs, integrity, and being well principled, need for private space, and critical thinking.

Such an individual would be conversant with financial-knowledge incentives, transformational-instructional leadership styles, and a people-institutional work environment. Such motivation would make employees work naturally in satisfying their needs. Employees are motivated in particular ways, having developed the proposed self-identity motivation models. Such would have been achieved through combining the system and process models to address the personal needs. This would help employees to be permanently motivated for both organisational and personal growth. Relying only on the system or process model would lead to reduced motivation, personal needs remaining unmet. When personal needs are met an individual operates naturally, permanently remaining motivated for both the organisation and personal growth. Khoza (2021a), in his study on teachers' identities coming to the rescue in the 4IR, maintains that identities are conscious thoughts interrogating subconscious thoughts that drive teachers (employees) to understand their personal needs. It is, therefore, important that individuals first understand their identities so that they are permanently motivated in the workplace and beyond.

8.4 Implications and Contributions of the Study

8.4.1 Study recommendations matching propositions

Based on the study findings presented in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight above, four recommendations have been developed. Such recommendations will inform employee motivation models on organisational performance aligned with the propositions stipulated in Section 8.2 above. These recommendations can also inform the broader research community, including ministry officials, teacher educators and school administrators, all public and private sector administrators and supervisors, on how to apply employee motivation models on organisational and personal growth.

Firstly, the findings of this study included that employees are motivated either by the system or the process model − little emphasis is laid on the personal needs of the individual. This resulted in administrators rewarding employees for complying with policies, rules, and regulations, and teamwork, among others, only if they produced good results for the organisation. This scenario had very little to do with personal needs of employees. It may therefore be necessary for both employees and administrators to be accorded staff development programmes and training on the need to meet personal needs of individual employees. These training programmes can be conducted yearly. Stakeholders such as ministry officials, administrators, supervisors, and lecturers should be invited to reflect on their perceptions, experiences, practices, and effectiveness of employee motivation models on organisational performance. These reflections would close the existing gaps, improving future practices, experiences, and perceptions on employee motivation models as they reflect in-on-of-for both the organisation and personal growth.

Secondly, the study findings also indicated that employees were poorly remunerated and could hardly meet family needs. This led to some employees resorting to resigning in search for better salaries which would sustain themselves and their families. The study recommends that administrators ought to help give knowledge to employees on how they can generate their own finances. Employees can make use of such finances to generate more knowledge that can help sustain themselves. Employees may refrain from relying on hand outs from their employer, whose source of funds they do not know. Thus, employees can be assisted to think independently on how they can sustain themselves, for instance, through financial knowledge incentives.

Thirdly, a number of participants in this study attested to the need for a democratic leadership style that would engage them in decision-making in the workplace. The study, therefore, recommends that to build ownership of organisational activities, the leadership should accept self and others and develop an atmosphere in which employees can be creative in order to address their personal needs. Employees bring different needs into the workplace. It is the role of leadership to identify the various needs, and to accommodate every individual in the organisation. A workshop is therefore necessary to train leaders on how they can accommodate all employees in the workplace as a motivating factor. Employees would also need to be trained on how they can accept themselves as individuals while also accepting others. This workshop can assist leaders to motivate employees on organisational performance as well as personal growth. When employees are motivated they are likely to have integrity and become well principled, as their needs would be met.

Fourthly, the world has now entered the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), meaning that employees need to be treated with dignity and be respected. Aligned with this shift, employees in higher-education institutions need to be accorded private space in the public sphere. When they have their own private space they are likely better able to think critically and to solve organisational and own problems. Therefore, the work environment should be such that employees create their own spaces without interference from those they work with, including their administrators. It is recommended that employees become aware of their identities and assess what motivates them in the workplace. Thus employees will become self-actualised, motivating themselves permanently. Such is further compounded by the advent of the Covid-19 pandemic, in which employees are expected to work from their private spaces. Employees are still expected to be effective and efficient to meet organisational and personal goals from the comfort of their private spaces. Employees must learn to think critically and to solve problems as they experience them. Employees should thus be able to seek necessary assistance so as to remain competent in organisational performance while achieving personal growth.

8.4.2 Implications for future research

This study investigated employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe. As a result, data were generated using the mixed methods research approach and case-study design. Each participant shared unique perceptions and experiences on employee motivation models. Even though the findings were detailed, in future research, more studies should be conducted on each employee motivation model in this study (together with any newcomers). This sole focus would provide deeper analysis of perceptions on each employee motivation model in this study.

More research should be conducted to explore employee motivation on organisational performance. Such is necessary in remaining competent especially during and after the Covid-19 pandemic. In this light, research can further uncover the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on employee experiences of work performance. Such research can also provide in-depth perceptions and analysis on how Covid-19 affects employee motivation models in the workplace. Moreover, these studies can also outline various employee motivation models on organisational performance that can be used in the 4IR and for realising self-identity.

8.5 Conclusion

This study investigated employee motivation models on organisational performance in government teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe, producing eight chapters in total. Throughout the study it is noted that employees are aware of the system, the process, and to some extent, the personal needs of employee motivation. However, it was discovered that the system and process models and perceptions are addressed in literature, while the personal needs perceptions are under-researched. This study therefore focussed on investigating employee motivational models to address the personal needs. In doing so, the study leant on the Currere model. This use leads employees to better motivation models through the four moments of regression, progression, analytical and synthetical. This analytical framework was further used in Chapter Eight to theorise on the study findings.

Thus, the final chapter of the study critically reflected on and theorised on the study findings using the ***self-identity motivation model*** as a theoretical framework of the study. The chapter began by proposing seven values that employees can use to address their personal needs on their motivation for organisational and personal growth. These propositions included self-reflection, independent thinking, accepting self and others, creativity according to needs, integrity, and being well principled, need for private space, and critical thinking. The chapter further addressed the critical research questions by indicating to the reader how each research question was answered, using the study findings and literature. In summary, the findings suggested that employees relied more on their understanding of the system model and process model in order to understand their personal needs. The understanding of their personal needs would help them to address their self-identities by neutralising the system and process models. Their self-identities would help employees develop a self-actualised individual who would naturally become permanently motivated for both organisational performance and personal growth. The chapter concluded by providing recommendations aligned with all seven propositions of this study. In addition, four implications which informed future research were postulated.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Questionnaire

Employees' motivation models survey.

This survey is carried out with the aim to measure the level of employee motivation models on organisational performance. It should take you less than 5 minutes to complete it. Please be assured that all the answers you will provide will be kept confidentially and will only be used for the purposes of the author's thesis data collection and analysis.

1. Gender [ ] Female [ ] Male
2. Age [ ] 18 – 24 [ ] 25 – 29

[ ] 30 – 35 [ ] Over 35

3. Current Position

[ ] Administrator [ ] Head of Department
[ ] Lecturer in Charge [ ] Head of Subject
[ ] Lecturer [ ] Other specify ……………

4. How many years have you been working in your current position?

[ ] Less than 1 year [ ] 1 – 3 years
[ ] 3 – 5 years [ ] More than 5 years

5. How motivated are you at your work?

[ ] Highly motivated [ ] Motivated
[ ] Demotivated [ ] Highly Demotivated

6. Does the level of motivation affect your performance?

[ ]Yes [ ] No

Explain ____

____

____

7. Do you think a person can be motivated to reach their full potential and perform better when the organization cannot fulfill their needs?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

Explain ____

____

____

8. What are the main factors motivating you the most at work? (Select up to 3 answers).

[ ] Financial benefits.

[ ] Work-life balance.

[ ] Promotion opportunities.

[ ] Praise and recognition.

[ ] Organisations culture.

[ ] Personal growth and satisfaction

[ ] Empowerment

Other specify:____

____

____

9. What are the top reasons for you to stay in your current job? (Select 3 answers).

[ ] Job security

[ ] Healthy working environment

[ ] Good relationship with colleagues.

[ ] Flexibility of work.

[ ] Organisations culture.

[ ] Good boss.

[ ] Management Style

[ ] Benefit packages.

[ ] A challenging and interesting job.

[ ] Development opportunities

[ ] Involvement in the job.

[ ] Effective communication within the organization.

[ ] Other specify:____

____

____

How do you feel about your work?

(Please rate your level of agreement for each statement by choosing one alternative).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I am happy with my job.				
I am inspired to meet my goals				
I am determined to give my best effort at work each day.				
I have clear goals, priorities and objectives in my work.				
I am provided with adequate materials and equipment needed to do my job.				

10. Have you ever thought of quitting your job?

[ ] Always [ ] Sometimes.

[ ] Rarely. [ ] Never.

11. Would you recommend your organisation to others as a great place to work?

[ ] Yes. [ ] No.

Reason:____

____

____

Thank you for your time and interest on this survey.

Appendix B

Document Analysis

Documents to be analysed	Findings
1. Ministry Policy Documents available.	
2. College policy documents available	
3. College termly reports.	
4. College end of year reports.	
5. Strategic Plan Document.	
6. Other as availed by the College and or departments.	

The aim of analyzing the listed documents will be to identify aspects of motivation models and the level of attention accorded to them.

Appendix C

Guide for the reflective journal

Dear Sir/Madam

I am carrying out a research study on employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe. Kindly spare some of your valuable time and reflect on the questions provided below. Please note that you are expected to share your honest views and experiences (positive and/or negative) in your response. Information given will only be used for the purposes of this study and nothing else.

Thank you!!!

Q1. What is your full understanding of motivation of employees at the workplace?

Q2. Reflect on how the following constructs motivate you in the workplace

a) college vision
b) college mission
c) core values
d) goal and objectives

Q3. Comment on how the following impact on your motivation levels at the workplace

a) college resources
b) rules and regulations
c) performance management system
d) type of college leadership

Q4. How do the following enhance your performance levels at the workplace?

a) recruitment and orientation of personnel
b) work environment (teamwork, staff relations)
c) organisational facilities (workspace, office space)
d) training and development
e) employee compensation management

Q5. Give a brief summary of your experiences about individual commitment to work and employee motivation on organisational performance.

Appendix D

Semi structured Interview Schedule

I will introduce myself [Petty Silitshena]

I will thank the participant for their willingness to be part of the study; and then I will explain the purpose of the research which is ***Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe.*** I will also ask the participant to kindly sign the consent form. I will also remind the participants that their participation is voluntary and they can withdraw anytime whenever they wish to do so.

Main Research Questions.

(i) What are the employee motivation models on organizational performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe? (Descriptive – content) (*Questionnaire and document analysis).*

(ii) How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe? (Operational – process). (*Participant semi-structured Observation*).

(iii) Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe? (Philosophical – personal) (*Semi-structuredInterviews).*

<u>Warm up questions</u>

1. What are your qualifications?
2. What is your post of responsibility?
3. For how long have you worked in this institution?

<u>Questions in relation to:</u>

1. What are the employee motivation models on organizational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Descriptive + content).
    a) What motivates you at the workplace?
    b) What demotivates you at the workplace?
2. How are motivation models used in motivating employee performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Operational - process).
    a) How are you motivated in the workplace?

b) Do you appreciate the motivation levels employed at the workplace?

c) Do you think more could be done to motivate you and your colleagues at the workplace? (Elaborate).

d) In your opinion do you think everyone is motivated enough in the workplace? Explain.

3. Why do motivation models operate in particular ways on organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe? (Philosophical – personal).

   a) Why do you think motivation is important in the workplace?

   b) What is unique about motivation of employees in the workplace?

Appendix E

Focus group discussion interview schedule.

Introduction

Welcome and thank you for coming to participate in the focus group discussion. Please feel free to talk and continue to share your views with me.

In relation to the first research question:

1.1 In what ways do you find motivation models used at the college help you on your contribution towards organisational performance?

1.2 Can you comment on how you are motivated in the workplace?

1.3 Do you think your colleagues appreciate the motivation models accorded to staff?

1.4 How often are you being appreciated as an employee and do you think it is adequate?

1.5 How are staff in other colleges appreciated that you would want done to you at your institution?

1.6 Do you have any other experience on how staff were motivated in their workplace?

In relation to the second research question?

2.1 What impact does the use of motivation have on organisational performance?

2.2 Do you think anything can be done to motivate you and your colleagues at the workplace?

2.3 How do you feel when you are being appreciated at the workplace?

2.4 What do you think is the cause for this feeling?

2.5 How would you comment on the use of individual motivation at the workplace?

In relation to the third research question:

3.1 What do you think is the cause for varied motivation approaches in your workplace?

3.2 Is motivation used for any other reasons other than for organizational performance and growth?

3.3 What is your conclusion about the motivation models used in the workplace (Elaborate).

3.4 In your view do you think staff should be motivated in the same way? (Explain).

Appendix F

Informed permission for the research from authorities

20 Flamingo Drive
Greenside
Mutare
Zimbabwe

29 May 2019

Attention: The Director - Tertiary Education Programmes
The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Higher & Tertiary Education, Science & Technology Development
P. O. Box CY 7732

Causeway
Harare
Zimbabwe

Dear Sir

May name is Petty Silitshena, currently registered PhD candidate at the University of KwaZulu-Natal – Edgewood Campus (School of Education). I intend to carry out a study title: Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe. I am writing to seek permission to conduct my research at teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe with college administrators, lecturers and non-lecturing staff who will be my potential participants. The individual and focus group interviews will be face to face and will not interfere with the academic programmes as they will be conducted at a time and venue chosen by the participants.

The study will not expose any identities the participants' institutions and names will remain confidential for ethical reasons. This will be done by using pseudonyms for both institutions and participants. The location of the teacher education institution will not be revealed to maintain anonymity. I am hoping to involve three teacher education colleges each with an administrator, Vice Principal, 2 Heads of Department, 1 Lecturer In Charge, one Head of Subject and one who staff member who holds a no position of responsibility will participate in the study. The study will involve the following procedure: a questionnaires, document analysis (Ministry and College Policies, Strategic Plan, departmental minutes and college termly and end of year reports), observation, interviewing the participants and focus group discussions to attain in-depth understanding of motivation model on organizational performance in teacher education colleges.

Should there be any need for further explanations or clarifications about the study, please contact me or my supervisor, Prof Simon Khoza.

Student number	:	218086998
Researcher	:	Petty Silitshena
Email address	:	psilitshen57@gmail.com
Supervisor	:	Prof Simon Khoza
Tel	:	0312607595
Email	:	Khozas@ukzn.ac.za

Your cooperation in this regard will be greatly appreciated.

Petty Silitshena

Appendix G

Ethical Clearance

Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

29 May 2019

Dear Sir/Madam

May name is Petty Silitshena from the University of KwaZulu-Natal –(Edgewood Campus) in South Africa. I am a PhD Doctoral candidate. I am interested in investigating Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance in Government Primary Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe. My student number is 218086998 and my email address is psilitshena57@gmail.com. I reside at 20 Flamingo Drive, Greenside, Mutare, Zimbabwe. I am gathering data from government primary teachers education college Administrators, teacher educators (lecturing and non lecturing), hence my interest in involving you in my study to seek your views.

You are being invited to consider participating in this study that involves research on Employee Motivation Models on Organisational Performance. The aim and purpose of this research is to gain in-depth understanding about the phenomenon of Motivation Models in Teacher Education Colleges in Zimbabwe. The study is expected to involve the College Administrator and teacher educators in the primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe. It will involve the following procedures, questionnaire, document analysis, observations, interviewing the participants individually and focus group discussions as a way of acquiring data. The duration of your participation if you choose to be involved and remain in the study is expected to be three days. The study is funded by the University of KwaZulu Natal.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The individual interview may last for about 30- 45 minutes and focus groups 45-60 minutes which may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.

- There will be no limit or any benefit that the participants may receive as part of their participation in this research project;
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The participants are free to withdraw from the research at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences to themselves;
- Real names of the participants will not be used, but pseudonyms (false names) will be used to represent participants' names;
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee **(approval number HSS 0579/019D).**

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at +263 772251388 and email psilitshen57@gmail.com or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban
4000
KwaZulu-Natal,
South Africa 04557-
Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za
You may also feel free at any time to contact my supervisor using the following details:
Main Supervisor: Prof Simon Khoza
Tel: 031 260 7595
Email: Khozas@ukzn.ac.za

CONSENT

I ______________________________________ have been informed about the study entitled ____by ____

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at ____

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact ___ ____

_____________________ _____________________

Signature of Participant **Date**

GATE KEEPER'S LETTER

All official communications should be addressed to:
"The Secretary for Higher & Tertiary Education
Telephones: 795891-5, 796441-9, 730055-9
Fax Numbers: 792109, 728730, 703957
E-mail: thesecretary@mhet.ac.zw
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"

ZIMBABWE

Reference:

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY
EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT
P. BAG CY 7732
CAUSEWAY

Marymount Teachers' College
Ministry of Higher & Tert. Edu.
Science & Tech. Development
The Principal
04 NOV 2019
P.O. BOX 20, MUTARE
ZIMBABWE TEL: 61734

01 November 2019

Mrs P. Silitshena
Marymount Teachers College
Mutare

Mrs Silitshena,

REQUEST FOR AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH ON "EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION MODELS ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN GOVERNMENT PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE": MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT

Reference is made to your letter in which you requested for permission to carry out a research on **"EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION MODELS ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN GOVERNMENT PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION COLLEGES IN ZIMBABWE": MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT.**

Accordingly, please be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted you permission to carry out the research.

It is hoped that your research will benefit the Ministry and it would be appreciated if you could supply the office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry's strategic planning process.

[redacted]

S. Nhenjana (Mr)
Deputy Director - Human Resources
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY

DEPUTY DIRECTOR
01 NOV

Lydia Weight
NTSD English Specialist
SACE No: 11135129

E-mail: lydiaweight@gmail.com

Pinpoint Proofreading Services

40 Ridge Rd

Kloof

Durban

3610

18 November 2021

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Lydia Weight, have proofread the document titled: Employee motivation models on organisational performance in government primary teacher education colleges in Zimbabwe, by Petty Silitshena. I have made all the necessary corrections. The document is therefore ready for presentation to the destined authority.

Yours faithfully

[redacted]

L. Weight