EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, WORKPLACE SURVEILLANCE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AMONG SELECTED ZIMBABWE REVENUE AUTHORITY EMPLOYEES

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR DOCTOR OF COMMERCE IN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

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OCTOBER 2018

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DECLARATION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Orientation: The study is located in the micro environmental circumstances in Zimbabwe where the size of the informal sector is overtaking that of the formal sector. The country is experiencing a high labour turnover averaging at 19% per year due to an unstable economic setting. The Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) is experiencing an employee engagement score as low as 2.1 out of 5. This low employee engagement level and high labour turnover call for employers to find strategies not only to keep their employees motivated and engaged but also to monitor how they work.

Research purpose: The study sought to examine how employee motivation mediates between workplace surveillance and employee engagement among selected employees at the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA).

Motivation of the study: Public organisations often face the criticism that they do not deliver the quality of service expected and one in every five of their employees is disengaged from their work. ZIMRA's mandate has a significant impact on the country's gross domestic product (GDP) and the organisation needs to deliver against all odds. Currently no research exists which provides information on the mediating effect of employee motivation on the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement in Zimbabwe.

Research philosophy, design and method: This study adopted the positivism research philosophy and a survey research design, which is quantitative and descriptive in nature. The study utilised the principles of structural equation modelling (SEM) in formulating the research hypotheses and in data analysis.

Main findings: The findings of the study, through utilising SEM, were that a negative relationship exists between workplace surveillance and employee engagement and that

employee motivation has a positive significant relationship with employee engagement. The study also found that workplace surveillance positively relates to employee motivation. The study also found that employee motivation partially mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement.

Practical/Managerial implications: A negative relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement calls for ZIMRA management to seek employee buy-in when implementing workplace surveillance measures. A positive relationship between employee motivation and employee engagement calls for ZIMRA management to invest much in these two variables. A positive relationship between workplace surveillance and employee motivation calls for ZIMRA management to put in place policies that ensure employees do not abuse work time by doing their own business.

Contribution or value-add: The study contributes to the body of knowledge on the debate around the impact of employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. This study agree with the vast amount of literature that the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee motivation is not always negative.

Key words: Employee motivation, employee engagement, workplace surveillance, structural equation modelling.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents   Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ANNEXURES

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Cognitive engagement: This term define a situation where an employee expresses a certain attitude towards the work environment, management and the organisation itself (Kahn, 1990).

Emotional engagement: This term describe the relationship that exists between an employee's beliefs, feelings and the work, which will ultimately drive eagerness to accomplish related tasks (Kahn, 1990).

Employee engagement: The definition of this term follow by Kahn's (1990) definition which denotes the degree to which employees articulate and utilise themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically when doing their work.

Employee motivation: This term refer to factors that necessitate an employee to pursuing work goals and tasks (Ueda, 2012).

Fiscus: This term means treasury.

Physical engagement: This term refer to the energy deployed by an employee in doing their work (Kahn, 1990).

Surveillance: The definition of this term follow Foucault's (1977) taking a panoptic approach, which defines surveillance as negative.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

9/11   - 11 September

AMOS   - Analysis of Moment Structures

ASYCUDA   - Automated System for Customs Duty

CCTV   - Closed Circuit Television

Cde   - Comrade

CFA   - Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CICIM   - Chattered Institute of Customer Management

EFA   - Exploratory factor analysis

FDI   - Foreign Direct Investment

GDP   - Gross Domestic Product

GPS   - Global Positioning System

HIV   - human Immune-deficiency Virus

ICT   - Information and Communication Technology

IMF   - International Monetary Fund

IPC   - Industrial Psychology Consultancy

KMO   - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

NCSI   - National Customer Satisfaction Index

NMC   - Northwest Michigan College

ORPE   - Office of Research, Planning and Effectiveness

PCA   - Principal component analysis

SEM   - Structural Equation Modelling

SMMEs   - Small, Medium and Macro Enterprises

SPSS   - Statistical Software Package for Social Sciences

UK   - United Kingdom

UN   - United Nations

USA   - United States of America

USD   - United States Dollar

ZACC   - Zimbabwe Anti-Corruption Commission

ZIMRA   - Zimbabwe Revenue Authority

ZNCC   - Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and background

Whenever there is an employment contract, employee monitoring is done in a certain way and with the coming into being of modern technology, workplace surveillance is on the rise (Sakovska, 2012). According to Zameer, Ali, Nisar, and Amir (2014), workplace challenges and organisational problems are not always at the instigation of clients but by employees as well. When clients anticipate good treatment from employees but are given bad treatment, they can leave the organisation. ZIMRA is a parastatal formed and mandated to operate in terms of Chapter 23:11 of the Revenue Authority Act in 2001. According to Muleya (2014), the organisation is mandated by this act to: a) collect revenue for and on behalf of the state, b) enable smooth trading of goods and travelling of people, c) give advice to government on economic and fiscal issue, and finally d) protect the civil society.

Employee engagement measurements, according to Shaheen and Farooqi (2014), can be measured in three dimensions, namely cognitive, physical and emotional. A worker is highly engaged when they exhibit high levels in all three measurements (Allen, 2014). According to Ruck, Welch and Menara (2017), employee engagement is pivotal in organisational efficiency and effectiveness, thereby enhancing organisational competitiveness through innovation and adding that the concept is very old and widely researched. The authors added that its conception as defined by Kahn (1990), however, is relatively new in behavioural research and has not been widely researched.

Employee engagement is an undisputed key component to organisational success. Lemon and Palenchar (2018) claimed that employee engagement compounded with two-way communication is ideal for an organisation destined for success. The authors

went on to conduct research to show the impact of organisational communication on employee engagement. The study targeted 32 respondents and found that experiences shared by employees in this study resembled Kahn's (1990) model reiterating employee safety and psychological conditions as critical in understanding and defining employee engagement.

Suttikun, Chang and Bicksler (2018) concluded that motivation can be understood as the predisposition and desire to attain the inside driving force to accomplish individual and organisational goals. Selvarajan, Singh and Solansky (2018) conducted a study to examine how fairness in performance evaluation, manager-employee exchange and employee motivation enhance organisational performance among employees in Mexico and the United States of America (USA). The study found that workplace fairness in all employee relations variables has a positive relationship to manager-employee relationship. The study further added that manager-employee relationship positively informs employee motivation and ultimately the organisational performance in all the concerned countries.

If an employee is highly motivated, chances are high that they are engaged in their jobs and will strive to make a success of these jobs. In addition, Sarwar, and Abugre (2013) opined that employee motivation is an important concept, which managers must properly manage for organisational success. Rosenblat, Kneese and Boyd (2014) are of the view that if employee motivation is not properly managed, employees may end up sabotaging the organisation for personal satisfaction. It is with this thinking in mind that employers must always keep their employees motivated and satisfied for the success of the organisation (Mafini, Surujlal, & Dhurup, 2013). Muslima, Dean and Cohen (2016) noted that working in an environment that makes one feel unpleasant is a recipe for demotivation and a drive to look for another job. The scholars concluded that

demotivation which contributes to employees moving from one job to another has become a norm among employees in Asian nations.

Sarwar and Abugre (2013) also advanced the idea that employers should employ workplace surveillance in order to increase production, reduce the potential for viruses affecting their computers and the leaking of confidential information. Tomczak, Lanzo and Aguinis (2018) reckoned that around 80% of organisations in the USA use various forms of workplace surveillance with much usage being that of electronic monitoring. They noted that workplace surveillance could negatively affect employee engagement if not implemented properly in an organisation. The scholars also noted that due to the rise in workplace surveillance concerns worldwide, studies by Fall (2014), Ball, Domenico and Nunan (2016), Lopez-Valeiras, Gomez-Conde and Lunkes (2017) and Pavone, Ball, Esposti, Dibb and Santiago-Gómez (2017) were conducted to assess and monitor the impact of such surveillance on employee physical health, mental health and behaviour. These studies concur that too much workplace surveillance negatively affects employee wellness.

Pavone et al. (2017) referred to research done in 2016 by the American Management Association survey of 526 organisations. The research study reported that 66% of these organisations were monitoring employee internet connectivity and visited websites while 45% of them were monitoring the time employees spent at the keyboard and their key strokes. Only 43% of these organisations reviewed all files saved on the computers by the targeted employees. Another 43% were monitoring emails sent and received by the employees. These high percentages call for an investigation of such a practice on employee rights, health and wellness at the workplace. Workers in public service organisations tend to be lowly engaged and this is detrimental to service delivery which is of critical importance to the public (Yamoah, 2014).

The effectiveness and efficiency of the revenue authority hinges on their employees. ZIMRA has received negative publicity due to slow turnaround time especially at the border posts. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) conducted a study on poor service delivery by government departments in South Africa. The study concluded that the challenge, which derails quick service delivery in public organisations, is lack of engagement by the public service employees. In the same vein, Mafini (2015) bemoaned the continued poor performance by public organisations in Southern Africa as an area worth researching.

According to Muleya (2014), ZIMRA's moto denotes that the organisation is there to serve the public but it is regrettable that such a moto is far from being realised due to continued congestion and poor service delivery at ZIMRA border posts. Yamoah (2014) is of the view that there are many reasons causing poor service delivery by most public organisations. The various studies that were conducted by Moussa (2015), Yerby (2013), Zachary (2013), Townsm and Cobb (2012) and Samaranayake and Gamage (2012) show that workplace surveillance has a negative effect on organisational behaviour opined that workplace surveillance negatively affects employee engagement and most employees do not like such surveillance. Bakar (2013) also carried out a study on workplace surveillance, which showed that employees are disengaged when they are continuously under monitoring at work. The same study further found that employees dislike workplace surveillance, claiming that it violates their right to privacy and that it negatively affects their engagement levels and ultimately their work performance.

Motivation of this study emanates from the view that ZIMRA is the face of Zimbabwe and contributes to the fiscus. The bad publicity that the organisation is facing tarnishes its image and integrity. Slow turnaround times at border posts are causes for concern since ZIMRA's moto is that it is there to serve. One of ZIMRA's mandate is to enable smooth movement of goods and people into and out of Zimbabwe. This mandate seems

to be elusive considering slow turnaround times at the ZIMRA border posts across the country. Such slow turnaround time breeds corruption and smuggling against the organisation's other mandate to protect the civil society against smuggled goods.

This research examine employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst employees at the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA). Workplace surveillance served as an independent variable while employee engagement served as the dependent variable. Employee motivation served as a mediating variable.

1.2 Problem statement

Employee motivation and employee engagement have a positive impact on organisational performance (Maduka & Okafor, 2014). Disengaged employees usually cost the organisation since they do not put maximum effort into production and can leave the organisation at any time. Research by Rosenblat et al. (2014) on the level of employee engagement among public service organisations revealed that one in every five employees is disengaged from their work with part of the disengagement attributed to various forms of workplace surveillance. Public organisations consequently often face the criticism that they do not deliver the quality of service expected (Allen, 2014). In order to avert such allegations and increase production and profits and/or service delivery, many public organisations are employing various methods of workplace surveillance on their workers (Rosenblat et al., 2014).

The negative perception that the public service employees are disengaged and not motivated to work is an area appropriate to research. It is important to invest much in employee motivation and employee engagement for maximum organisational performance (Maduka & Okafor, 2014). Sibanda, Muchena and Ncube (2014) noted that

in Zimbabwe people view a workplace as the "family set-up" because that is where employees spend the greater part of their day. This calls for management to put in measures in place that ensure employees are engaged and motivated to do their work since the workplace needs to resemble a family set-up.

Workplace surveillance also needs to echo the sentiments that the workplace is home to most employees and employees must "feel at home" when they are at work. With the country experiencing recession, employee mobility in the labour market is high as employees feel that the next organisation will treat them better than their current employer does (Mawodzwa, 2014; Sithole, Zhou, Chipambwa & Sithole, 2015).

Mundia (2014) concluded that ZIMRA's skewed and poor remuneration is contributing critically to high labour turnover experienced by the organisation. The low remuneration is also tainting employee's levels of engagement which is compounded by the heavy presence of workplace surveillance at all the border posts. According to Mapolisa (2015), the low remuneration in the Zimbabwe's public sector is a cause for concern when it comes to employee engagement and motivation in this country. Sibanda et al. (2014) added that it is difficult for employees to engage in their work and feel motivated when working under such bad conditions. Mundia (2014) conclude that this is compounded by the fact that such lowly remunerated employees are approached on daily basis by travellers who want to have short cuts at the border posts through bribing them. It is difficult for a lowly remunerated employee to turn down such bribes and employees end up circumventing the surveillance systems like the Automated System for Customs Data (ASYCUDA) put in place by ZIMRA at border posts to combat corruption (Mundia, 2014).

Sibanda et al. (2014) added that since Zimbabwe is going through serious economic challenges, ZIMRA customs have become the pipeline of hope in generating revenue considering the large number of Zimbabweans outside the country and severe

commodity shortage in the country. Mundia (2014) added that customs duty contributes 13% of Zimbabwe's revenue since the collapse of the country's economy in the past decade.

Sibanda et al. (2014) had previously concluded that having engaged employees is very critical for organisational performance. Murongazvombo (2015) added that in a stressed economy like Zimbabwe, costs involved in replacing an employee who leaves an organisation range from 30% (non-managerial) to 60% (managerial) of that employee's annual salary. On top of such costs, there are sunk costs that include, but are not limited to training and orientation, interviews, onboarding and replacement of the employee who left. Murongazvombo (2015) found that the labour turnover is at 19% per year in Zimbabwe and organisations in the country cannot ignore it when their critical skills leave them for whatever reason. A study to unearth various strategies to ensure that employees engage in and are devoted to their work is worthwhile.

This study is necessary in Zimbabwe in that it ushers in possible solutions to manage the subdued economy of the country through human resources. On the state of the economy, Nyoni (2017) noted that in the first and second quarter of 2017, Zimbabwe's economic situation remained subdued with companies recording trading volumes as low as 5%. This degree of economic depression can be a result of corruption, infrastructure deficits and high labour turnover in the country. Due to this subdued economy, many companies are failing to be profitable and this is compounded by the liquidity crunch and foreign currency shortages. Skills flight has been on the rise as employees seek greener pastures in neighbouring countries. The author concluded that this situation looks bad for the companies that operate in Zimbabwe. It is under such an economic situation that a study is essential on how to keep employees engaged in their work and to remain motivated for maximum production, despite a heavy presence of workplace surveillance.

The International Monetary Fund (2017) stated that the Zimbabwean economy is critically subdued with local production going down to 20% and employees complaining about inhabitable working environments resulting in them leaving the organisations. The report added that despite the subdued revenues, the slow momentum of economic reforms has led to high government expenditure from 2015 to 2016. Nyoni (2017) concluded that such high government expenditure is detrimental to organisation survival in such an economy, calling for various means of keeping the employees engaged and motivated for organisational survival.

The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2017) referred to a report by the Industrial Psychology Consultancy (IPC) which noted that employee engagement among Zimbabwean parastatals in 2016 was at 40%, showing that 60% of employees in the parastatals are not engaged in their work. The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2017) bemoaned such low index of employee engagement since it is an indicator of many human resources-related problems (International Monetary Fund, 2017) like demotivation, low workplace trust, high labour turnover, and high rates of misconduct, remuneration grievances, and missed targets, among others. It is important under such circumstances to investigate the influence that employee motivation can have on employee engagement in the presence of workplace surveillance in a Zimbabwean set-up.

The World Bank (2017) noted that Zimbabwe borders on very powerful neighbours, namely Mozambique, Zambia, Botswana and South Africa. The report further added that in the first quarter of 2017, Zimbabwe's economic growth slowed down to 0.7% and it is anticipated to recover to 2.8% in the first quarter of 2018 due to heavy rains received that boosted the agriculture sector. The report reiterated that in the past decade, Zimbabwe's economy contracted which was compounded by external economic shocks and domestic policies that are not favourable to investment. Nyoni (2017) noted that in stressed economies like Zimbabwe, most employees are most

vulnerable since employers insist on meeting targets against all odds. Most employers usually undermine employee engagement and motivation when the business-operating environment becomes tough. Such employers usually focus more on profit maximisation at the expense of employees. Unfriendly workplace surveillance is put in place to ensure that every organisation minute is productively used. A study to ascertain the impact of workplaces surveillance on employee engagement mediated by employee motivation is critical in paving the best way forward in a stressed Zimbabwean economy.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The following was the primary objective of this study:

To examine how employee motivation mediates between workplace surveillance and employee engagement.

This study also sought to achieve the following secondary objectives:

- To examine how workplace surveillance relates to employee engagement.

- To determine how employee motivation relates to employee engagement

- To determine how employee motivation relates to workplace surveillance.

- To offer solutions on how to improve service delivery while using workplace surveillance, without affecting employee engagement and motivation.

1.4 Justification of the study

The justification for this study is that due to the micro environmental circumstances in Zimbabwe, the size of the informal sector is overtaking that of the formal sector. First, the country is experiencing a high labour turnover averaging at 19% per year due to an

unstable economic setting (Murongazvombo, 2015). Second, within this high labour turnover, there is need for employers to find strategies not only to keep their employees motivated and engaged but also to monitor how they work. Mafini et al. (2013) opined that for organisations to survive in the unstable global village there is need for employers to invest in employee satisfaction and loyalty. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) added that there is lack of empirical evidence in developing countries on how employee motivation and job satisfaction (engagement) affect employees in the workplace. This research has sought to close this gap in knowledge while exploring strategies that ZIMRA can adopt in monitoring employees at the workplace without affecting their engagement and motivation.

The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2017) noted that 60% of employees at Zimbabwean parastatals are disengaged from their work, based on a survey conducted by the IPC in 2016 which showed only 40% of employees as being engaged in their work. This low level of engagement amongst parastatal employees is a cause for concern since the parastatals contribute to the fiscus. The International Monetary Fund (2017) also concluded that such a low index of employee engagement is a cause for concern since it is an indicator of many human resources-related problems that cannot be ignored if organisational success is at stake. It is important under such circumstances to investigate the influence that employee motivation can have on employee engagement in the presence of workplace surveillance in these parastatals. Such low levels of engagement and workplace satisfaction are reasons for research among the parastatals in Zimbabwe and in this case, among ZIMRA employees, justifying this study.

The International Monetary Fund (2017) concluded that in 2016, Zimbabwe's fiscal had an 8.8% deficit rise on the gross domestic product (GDP) while banks faced a critical shortage of cash despite the high unemployment rate in the country, which had fallen to 85% in 2014 and increased to 94% in the first quarter of 2017. The rise of the

unemployment rate in Zimbabwe increased poverty levels to 72%, putting most citizens into abject poverty. The World Bank (2017) then concluded that this is why United Nations (UN) Human Development Index placed Zimbabwe at number 173 out of a total of 187 countries because the economy had literally collapsed.

Under such economic hardships, strategies for organisations to survive are critical. Strategies on how to keep employees motivated and engaged while their work is under surveillance is thus an area worth investigating.

Marufu and Uzhenyu (2017) conducted a study among 200 Zimbabwe Open University employees and discovered that many management surveillance practices were the major source of demotivation of the employees. Employees felt that they could work better and be more engaged in their work with minimal workplace surveillance. The authors concluded that employee engagement among public service employees in Zimbabwe is a cause for concern considering the economic crunch faced by the country.

Zvinoira (2018) noted that the Chartered Institute of Customer Management (CICM) put in place a roadmap and a strategic plan in conjunction with an organisation known as Select Research to launch a campaign for the 2018 Zimbabwe National Customer Satisfaction Index (NCSI). Zvinoira (2018) added that the NCSI was at 70.2% in 2017 based on the survey that was done across all 11 Zimbabwean economic sectors. Among the 11 sectors were the parastatals, which had a 66.4% score. The author added that there is need to increase this index among the parastatals so that there is effective service delivery and customer satisfaction. Marufu and Uzhenyu (2017) concluded that a motivated and engaged employee positively affects customer satisfaction. Considering the slow turnaround times at the border posts, it is justified to invest in this research to ensure that the NCSI index rises so that ZIMRA can have satisfied customers as opposed to the disgruntled customers they have currently.

Nyoni (2018) noted that there is an urgent need for ZIMRA transformation if it is to cope with large volumes of traffic and their transactions at the border posts. The author added that the Association for Business in Zimbabwe reiterated upon this call for transformation after the association had noted that ZIMRA was facing challenges in handling transactions for most organisations that are operating at 50% and below. ZIMRA (2017) noted that the transformation of the authority would enable the taxman to cope with such big volumes if business increases its capacity from 50% to say 70%. Nyoni (2018) challenged the government of Zimbabwe to see to it that ZIMRA is given such capacity if the mantra, "Zimbabwe is open for business" by the President of Zimbabwe, Comrade Emmerson Dambudzo Mnangagwa, is to be realised and help turn around the struggling economy. A study on how the authority, through its human resources, can transform and ensure customer satisfaction is very critical – and hence this research.

ZIMRA (2017) noted that a 4.5% GDP growth rate is projected in the 2018 National Budget Statement from the 3.7% recorded in 2017. The projected 4.5% growth rate translates to US$4.3 billion in revenue for 2018 which is an increase compared to 2017 where the revenue was at US3.4 billion. The authority is ready to go all out to meet the 2018 target and Marufu and Uzhenyu (2017) concluded that there is need for the organisation to invest much in its human resources if set targets are to be realised. Thus, this research provides fresh ideas on how such a target can be attained with the aid of engaged and motivated employees, in the presence of heavy workplace surveillance at all the ZIMRA border posts.

Few studies within the Zimbabwean context by Ray, Latif, Machekano and Katzenstein (1998) and Mutenherwa (2012) have either focused on the revenue authority organisation as the context of the study or focused on how employee motivation can mediate between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The few available

studies focused on how teachers and public health care providers can be motivated to do their work without focusing on employee engagement and workplace surveillance in view of the country's economic meltdown (Mutenherwa, 2012).

This study is unique in that it is the first of its kind in Zimbabwe and among the ZIMRA employees. The study provides Zimbabwean solutions to a Zimbabwean problem as opposed to generalised recommendations. In as much as there is a lot of literature and research on what motivates employees and engages them in their work, a big gap exists on the impact that employee motivation has on employee engagement in the presence of workplace surveillance. This research offers reference points for parastatals and organisations in general with much emphasis on ZIMRA on how best to invest in employee motivation as a mediator between employee engagement and workplace surveillance in a stressed economy like Zimbabwe. This research offers vast knowledge on employee engagement, employee motivation and workplace surveillance current trends and the best practices for adoption by the parastatal to ensure that the variables to not affect the organisational mandate.

In addition, this study is unique in that it is the first to look at workplace surveillance in Zimbabwe in relation to employee motivation and engagement. Ray et al. (1998) provided the most recent publication on surveillance in Zimbabwe. The study was on employee health at work focusing on surveillance of human immune-deficiency virus (HIV) prevalence at the workplace. Its emphasis centred on sexual behaviour of selected urban factory workers in Zimbabwe. Another study done in Zimbabwe on surveillance focused on the surveillance of household survival strategies in Gweru in the face of recession in Zimbabwe (Rokadi, 1995). This lack of focus on workplace surveillance in relation to employee engagement and employee motivation is a cause for concern considering that the most recent researches done on surveillance in Zimbabwe focused on health and poverty.

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided an introduction to and background of the study, referring to the circumstances that led to this research. It was noted that the research sought to examine employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst employees at the ZIMRA. Workplace surveillance served as an independent variable while employee engagement served as the dependent variable. Employee motivation served as a mediating variable. ZIMRA is a parastatal that was formed and mandated to operate in terms of Chapter 23:11 of the Revenue Authority Act in 2001. According to Muleya (2014), the organisation is mandated by this act to: a) collect revenue for and on behalf of the state, b) enable smooth trading of goods and travelling of people, c) give advice to government on economic and fiscal issue, and finally d)protect the civil society. Employee engagement measurements, according to Shaheen and Farooqi (2014), can be in three dimensions namely, cognitive, physical and emotional.

Motivation can be understood as the predisposition and desire to attain the inside driving force to accomplish individual and organisational goals (Burton, 2012). Sarwar and Abugre (2013) also advanced the idea that employers should employ workplace surveillance in order to increase production, reduce the potential for viruses affecting their computers and the leaking of confidential information. Yamoah (2014) note that the effectiveness and efficiency of the revenue authority hinges on their employees. ZIMRA has received negative publicity due to slow turnaround time especially at the

border posts. The chapter also focused on the problem statement for the research highlighting that

Employee motivation and employee engagement have a positive impact on organisational performance (Maduka & Okafor, 2014). Disengaged employees usually cost the organisation since they do not put maximum effort into production and can leave the organisation at any time. The negative perception that the public service employees are disengaged and not motivated to work is an area appropriate to research. The chapter also provided the problem statement and the objectives of the study. Further it presented a fairly detailed justification of the study as well as the research questions and definition of terms.

The following chapter focuses on the contextual justification of the study. The main theme of the following chapter is an outline of the reasons why the study used ZIMRA as a case for this research. The chapter focuses on the justification of the research constructs chosen for the study with reference to the organisation in question. The chapter also deals with specific problems relating to each research construct in relation to the organisation under study.

CHAPTER TWO

CONTEXTUAL JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

As already highlighted, the study focused on ZIMRA and the focus of this chapter is on setting the research scene. The central theme of this chapter is to outline the reasons why the study used ZIMRA as a case for this research. The chapter also focuses on the justification of the research constructs chosen for the study with reference to the organisation in question. Further, the chapter discusses specific problems relating to each research construct in relation to the organisation under study.

2.2 ZIMRA mandate

ZIMRA (2017) concluded that the authority always seeks to ''tow the line' in pursuit of the organisation's mission that seeks promotion of economic development through efficient revenue generation, collection and trade facilitation. In attaining this mission, the authority will be able to feed into the state fiscus. Based on the need to chase the organisation's mission, the authority always tries to keep in touch with the clients and share with them the presence of any operational challenges (ZIMRA, 2018). The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2016) emphasised that ZIMRA is mandated by the Revenue Authority Act (Chapter 23:11) to firstly, collect revenue for and on behalf of the state. This includes the collection of excise duty, income tax, pay as you earn, mining royalties, presumptive taxes, capital gains tax, surtax, value added tax and customs duty. The second mandate is the facilitation of trading and travelling where ZIMRA is supposed to make sure that movement of people and goods through the country border

posts and inland is smooth. Muleya (2014) added that the third mandate is for ZIMRA to advise the government of Zimbabwe on economic and fiscal matters. This includes revenue forecasting, participation in the national budget process and revision of Acts. The fourth and last mandate is for ZIMRA to protect the civil society by focusing on the need for the organisation to curb smuggling and all illegal forms of international trade.

The civil protection also extends to enforcement of exchange, import and export controls done to protect the public from harmful and dangerous substances like drugs, pornographic material, and undesirable and objectionable material.

2.3 ZIMRA: The face of Zimbabwe

The selection of ZIMRA for this study was because it manages the country's entry and exit points. These are the same entry and exit points that are receiving many complains in print media on their slow turnaround time at the border posts. ZIMRA's mandate has a great impact on country's GDP and the organisation needs to deliver against all odds. According to Muleya (2014), when people visiting Zimbabwe arrive at any of the border towns, a ZIMRA motto which states, "We are here to serve" at the organisation's offices and on staff corporate uniforms welcomes them. This motto psychologically prepares our visitors for an effective and efficient service delivery at our entry posts but unfortunately, such service remains a dream since the inception of the organisation in 2001 (Muleya, 2014). ZIMRA has proved to be a nightmare for importers and exporters due to poor service delivery especially at the border posts. Such poor service delivery is a cause for concern since it is working against the organisation's mandate of making sure that travel and movements of people and goods are smooth and easy. Congestion has become the norm at the organisation's border posts with all blame directed to many factors. Yamoah (2014) added that insufficient staff, poor staff engagement and low staff

motivation are some of the reasons for poor service delivery in most public organisations. ZIMRA has installed surveillance cameras in trying to manage the situation and identify any slow workers, but this does not seem to be yielding results.

Muleya (2014) went on to generalise that this type of poor service delivery is a common feature of all border posts in Zimbabwe. The former Vice President of Zimbabwe, Comrade (Cde) Phelekezela Mphoko, also castigated ZIMRA officers at Beitbridge border post for giving poor service to the public. The former Vice President added that such poor service delivery is fuelling smuggling between Zimbabwe and South Africa (Muleya, 2015) against the organisation's mandate.

This situation also necessitated this study at ZIMRA because the organisation has a mandate to protect the civil society through curbing of criminal acts like smuggling and illegal international trade yet the organisation's operations are showing otherwise. The former Vice President further added that there is need for close supervision measures to ensure that workers are serving the people well. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) claimed that poor levels of commitment to serve the clients contribute more to ineffective and inefficient service delivery in public organisations.

The present study focused on ZIMRA because it sought to obtain information pertaining to the slow turnaround time at the border posts, which is a sign of poor service delivery inviting public backlash. As noted by Muleya (2015), ZIMRA workers seem to be disengaged to perform their duties expeditiously, hence the need to explore and understand the factors that affect their engagement. This research aimed to investigate how employee motivation can mediate the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement for an improved service delivery at ZIMRA border posts.

As highlighted above, Nyoni (2018) noted that the association for business in Zimbabwe is greatly concerned with the authority's challenges in handling transactions of organisations that are operating at 50% and below. The author added that there is urgent need for the state to intervene and ensure that the authority has the capacity to handle large business volumes if the state wants to ensure that the economy turns around. ZIMRA, being the face of the nation, cannot have such limitations considering the calls by the President for the international community to invest in Zimbabwe. The author noted that ZIMRA system struggles to cope with organisations that are seeking the renewal of their 2018 annual tax clearances, among other requests. ZIMRA (2018) added that as the face of Zimbabwe, the authority always seeks to portray a good image of the organisation for public support. In this regard, the executive management and the ministry at large are handling such capacity challenges so that there is no congestion at the border posts across the country.

To ensure that ZIMRA remains the face of the nation and has skilled employees, Chakanyuka (2018) noted that all officers staffing the border posts frequently undertake short training courses. The training deals with accounts monitoring and financial statement analysis for multinational companies operating in the country to curb foreign currency externalisation. On the same note, ZIMRA (2018) added that as the face Zimbabwe, the authority always wants to ensure that the loopholes that are being utilised by the conglomerates and other companies to externalise the cash are closed. This will go a long way in arresting corruption and restoring ZIMRA's image and that of the nation.

In order to be an accountable entity and being the face of Zimbabwe, the authority ordered its employees to declare their assets. Nkala (2017) reiterated that the authority was taking a lead in ensuring that corrupt wealth accumulation is not acceptable in Zimbabwe. This call for employees to declare their assets was a step in the right

direction although the union is against this idea, citing victimisation and selective implementation of such an exercise. The then acting ZIMRA Commissioner-General, Happias Kuzvinzwa, added that the public must desist from bribing their employees as this tarnishes the image of the organisation. The acting commissioner noted that they want to assess the relationship between an employee's salary against the car they drive and the house they own, among other assets. He added that there would be a disciplinary process for any employee who fails to provide this information of their salary and identified assets. To arrest such habits, the authority has since availed to the public, hot lines that can be utilised in this regard. On the same note, Tinaye (2018) added that the new ZIMRA Commissioner General, Faith Mazani, has cemented this cause by unveiling strategies to streamline the authority's operations in an attempt to prevent future revenue loss at all the border posts. The new suggested strategies include sealing and inspecting the commercial goods intended for domestic use while providing seals that monitor haulage trucks as they move around with their goods. Tinaye (2018) added that another strategy which must be implemented is a systems upgrade to suit other neighbouring countries. Lastly, the incoming commissioner general noted that a single window must to be utilised to clear all the goods for patronage minimisation at all the border posts

Kachembere (2018) added that in order to keep a positive image of the country, ZIMRA engaged the services of the Zimbabwe military army to prevent congestion and maintain order at all border posts during the 2017 festive season. This did not go down well with the economic experts who felt that the President Cde Emmerson Dambudzo Mnagagwa was supposed to notify the public about this decision in terms of section 116 of the Zimbabwean constitution read in conjunction with section 213 of the same. ZIMRA management defended such deployment of the military as a noble cause intended to manage congestion and reduce turnaround times while stamping out

corruption. Tinaye (2018) noted that all these efforts by ZIMRA to manage congestion aim to build a good image for their brand since they are the face of the nation.

This calls for a research that offers permanent solutions to operational challenges faced by the authority as opposed to these temporary measures that are not sustainable. However, no research of this nature has been done on this organisation before. This research sought to close this gap in knowledge by exploring strategies that ZIMRA can adopt in monitoring employees at the workplace without affecting their engagement and motivation while improving on the turnaround times.

2.4 ZIMRA: Zimbabwe's cash cow

The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2016) reported that ZIMRA is a source of income for the government of Zimbabwe. The report also stated that in 2015, the government projected a 3.2% growth rate but a 1.5% reduction was then effected after the mid-term fiscal policy review. ZIMRA (2016) added that since ZIMRA is the government's source of income and the reduction in the growth rate did not see the government directing ZIMRA to review the revenue target downwards; instead the target was maintained at US$3.76 billion. ZIMRA needs to ensure that it continues to fulfil its government mandate through efficient service delivery.

ZIMRA (2017) stated that the US$1.59 billion collected in the fourth quarter of 2017, against a set target of US$880.43 billion, exceeded the set target by 22.78%. In order to ensure that there is continued performance by the authority, there is need for research to ascertain the impact of employee motivation on employee engagement in the presence of heavy presence of workplace surveillance in the authority. For the authority to collect as much as possible to feed into the fiscus, it has to ensure that manning levels are in order.

Moyo (2017) noted that in the 2017 festive season, the authority deployed extra resources over and above the military deployments in order to ease the congestion. However, this was merely a temporary measure, which cannot sustain the operations of such a big institution. If employees are engaged in their work, they can exceed targets levels as seen in the collections done by the end of 2017 as increasing the headcount can be a costly exercise considering all the investments done on surveillance.

In addition, Langa (2017) supported the call by the Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC) for the government to come up with sustainable measures to curb corruption and smuggling at all state parastatals. Langa (2017) went on to analyse how investing in employees can yield positive results on these raised concerns noting that an engaged employee is all that organisations need for the work to be done effectively. The Parliament of Zimbabwe (2016) noted that in 2012, 14% of Zimbabwe's revenue came from customs duty collected by ZIMRA. The last decade saw the Zimbabwean economy collapsing, marred by the shortage of basic commodities which forced retailers to import goods for reselling. The levies that ZIMRA collect from such imports have become the country's pertinent source of revenue. Moyo (2012) reckoned that due to the economic hardships in Zimbabwe, many people are seen crossing into and out of Zimbabwe using one of the ten border posts which are the focus of this study. It is important for ZIMRA employees and management to note that effective movement of goods and people and civil protection issues are critical if the organisation is to realise its mandate.

It is Mundia's (2014) contention that the movement of these large numbers of people in and out of Zimbabwe breeds corruption at border posts. The slow turnaround times at the border posts deserve a closer look if the organisation is to meet its mandate of smooth movement of people and goods and to prevent further potential corruption of those trying to get a faster hustle-free pass. Mundia (2014) noted that most people who

face hustles at the border posts collude with poorly remunerated and ultimately lowly engaged ZIMRA customs officials for easy passage. Muleya (2015) added that in most cases, the goods that are impounded by ZIMRA at respective border posts are usually released after the owners corruptly deal with the ZIMRA officials, leaving a lot to be desired regarding employee motivation and engagement.

Maalouf (2013) reiterated that it is surprising to note that during the day, most Zimbabwean border posts have slow turnaround times while at night it is opposite. The author added that one could conclude that the ZIMRA officials might be having underhand dealings at night. Mundia (2014) concluded that the differences in the work rate during the day and night indicate the employees' levels of motivation and engagement, which ultimately calls for a closer surveillance mechanism.

Moyo (2012) stated that there are many cross border traders, large volumes of goods moving into Zimbabwe, long winding queues at all border posts. This will assist ZIMRA in coming up with strategies for effective work execution. Employee engagement and employee motivation as performance indicators under poor service delivery need to be reviewed for effective service delivery in line with the ZIMRA motto (ZIMRA, 2013).

Mundia (2014) bemoaned large volumes of goods that are smuggled into the country as a major blow to revenue collection and the civil protection mandate. The author further stated that ZIMRA introduced software called the ASYCUDA at all the border posts to avert any corruption tendencies. However, the author concluded that ZIMRA officials collude with travellers to dodge this system. This negatively impacts the poor government's potential revenue and affects the organisation's mandate on civil protection. Such levels of collusion raise questions about employee engagement and motivation because a motivated and engaged employee observes the organisation rules and regulations. The collusion between ZIMRA officials and travellers is one of the

reasons why ZIMRA put in place various forms of workplace surveillance in order to manage the problem (ZIMRA, 2014). This in turn calls for the need to know whether employee motivation factors can enhance employee engagement in the face of workplace surveillance to stop poor service delivery at the border posts.

ZIMRA (2014) noted that the slow turnaround times and corruption reports from ZIMRA border posts is a weakness in the organisation, which needs urgent attention.

They added that part of the weakness, which causes such problems at border posts, is the failure by ZIMRA officials to comply with legislation due to disengagement and demotivation. Mundia (2014) concluded that ZIMRA employees at the border posts do not comply with corruption-free practices and this needs to be addressed.

Employee satisfaction and engagement are also causes for concern in the organisation since an engaged and satisfied employee observes the legislation unlike what is happening at ZIMRA border posts. ZIMRA (2016) noted that the customs officials ineffectively use the scanning equipment supplied by the employer resulting in dangerous substances and goods coming into the country.

Matamande, Nyikahadzoi, Taderera and Mandimika (2012) and Mundia (2014) concluded that there is an urgent need for ZIMRA to invest in the development and nurturing of a service excellence culture amongst its border post employees to restore public confidence. This recommendation came after the researchers observed that the authority's border post employees tend to be lowly engaged in their work, are demotivated to do their work, and are not fazed by workplace surveillance put in place by the employer.

The background information provide above justified the use of ZIMRA for this research. This research sought to examine employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst

employees at ZIMRA. Justification for the use of these three research constructs is presented in the following sections.

2.5 Employee motivation

Research by Vinga (2017) noted that ZIMRA conducted a staff lifestyle audit in 2017 to ascertain any employees who might have unscrupulously acquired their assets. The ZIMRA employees felt that this exercise had a negative impact on their motivation levels as they felt that management wanted to use this exercise to harass, bully and unfairly dismiss them. Vinga (2017) added that contrary to employee assumptions, ZIMRA management noted that these lifestyle audit aimed at improving tax compliance and providing information on tax matters to the taxpayers. ZIMRA (2014) had previously indicated that such audits sought to check if taxpayers are complying with the statutory instruments under ZIMRA administration, among them being the Customs and Excise Act, Value Added Tax Act, Capital Gains Act and Income Tax Act. Ncube (2016) added that the employee lifestyle audits also sought to compare an employee's expenditure and their taxable declared income. This exercise is a revenue collection strategy while educating the clients on the importance of correctly declaring their income. Supporting the lifestyle audits is Mrs Willia Bonyongwe, the ZIMRA chairperson, who stated that corruption by ZIMRA employees is seriously costing the government the much-wanted revenue. ZIMRA trade union secretary general, Mr.L.Ngwarati, sought audience with management to express how such lifestyle audits are demotivating the employees (Ncube, 2016). Saltson and Nsiah (2015) had previously reiterated on the need to synchronise the relationship between business decisions and employees lest employees sabotage the organisation due to low levels of motivation.

Mundia (2014) found that employee motivation among ZIMRA employees at border posts is low due to low remuneration, resulting in them being prone to corruption. Also bemoaning the low levels of motivation among ZIMRA employees at border posts was Muleya (2014) who added that in order to curb corruption in the organisation, ZIMRA put in place ASYCUDA software for easy clearance of goods and stamping out

corruption. Muleya (2014) noted that this software could be effective when used by highly motivated employees and added that such highly motivated employees could easily shrug off any corrupt tendencies from travellers, which currently is not the case with the lowly motivated employees at ZIMRA border posts. Muleya (2014) also highlighted the need for tightening surveillance systems and engaging the police in patrolling the border areas to ensure that ZIMRA employees do not take advantage of desperate travellers. Huni (2016) added that tightening workplace surveillance and engaging police in patrols might fail if the current poor employee motivation is unattended. Muleya (2017) concluded that if ZIMRA employees are to be motivated, their salaries and conditions of service need an upwards review.

Nkosi (2018) argued that employees are not motivated when they feel that there is selective justice at the workplace. Nkosi (2018) noted that the current ZIMRA board chairperson, Mrs Willia Bonyongwe is getting favours instead of having investigations done like any other employee. Nkosi (2018) added that the way she had managed the system forced employees to sign a petition against the Zimbabwe Anti-Corruption Commission (ZACC) in seeking justice on the matter. In an attempt to address low employee motivation in the authority, ZIMRA (2018) reports that the new Commissioner General, Ms Faith Mazani, has revealed her strategy which is based on the "four Ps", namely partnerships, projects, processes and people. On the people aspect, Ms Mazani promised to look into all the issues that are affecting the employees with the aim of boosting their motivation and moral levels for organisational effectiveness. She noted that she was not happy with the levels of grievances raised, which were still pending and thus leading to such a low motivation score in the organisation. She added that employee motivation is one of her key strategies to goal attainment and that there is need to upskill the employees in the effort to raise their motivation levels.

Makumbe (2016) conducted research to ascertain the impact of works councils on promoting workplace democracy among ZIMRA employees. The study found that instead of promoting workplace democracy, the works councils are demotivating employees. This is mainly because management does not implement all issues agreed in these meetings. The other main demotivating issue about these works councils is that there is no binding law, which forces parties to agree on an issue, and there is no law, which forces the party to implement agreed issues in such council meetings. The author recommended that management needs to honour any agreements made in such council meetings for employee motivation and buy-in to continue lest employees sabotage the organisation which would be to the detriment of productivity. In addition, Mundia (2014) highlighted that ZIMRA introduced vehicle incentive schemes to employees to manage the deteriorating motivation levels. However, the union secretary general castigated this initiative saying that it favoured top management. The union stance brought about a deadlock on management initiatives in this regard, leaving employee motivation not addressed by this initiative.

Due to such deadlocks, Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) said that if a workplace environment is marred with distrust, such as at ZIMRA, there is need for an organisation to explore other ways of ensuring that the employees regain their trust lest motivation strategies and production suffer. Muleya (2017) noted that ZIMRA set targets aimed at surpassing the 2017 annual target since many measures were availed to collect more revenue by the organisation. The collections recorded in August 2017 were 15% above the set target.

The author further stated that for the month of August 2017, refunds were at US$30.35 million while gross collections were at US$338.29 million, leading to a net collection of US$307.95 million surpassing a set target of US$267.66 million – showing an increase of 20.59% when compared to the collections of the same period in 2016. With such sterling

performance in August 2017, there is need for ZIMRA to revisit employee motivation issues so that good results continue while it is pursuit of its first mandate.

According to Langa (2017), it is not in dispute that ZIMRA is one of the key parastatals expected to secure the resources for financing the fiscus. Langa (2017) also bemoaned the rampant poor customer care, corruption, and slow turnaround times at border posts as recorded by media on a daily basis. The author questioned the levels of motivation among ZIMRA employees at Zimbabwe's border posts, leading to serious revenue leakages while tarnishing the image of the organisation. ZIMRA (2014) had previously reported that levels of employee motivation leave a lot to be desired considering the rampant poor customer care recorded by media at border posts. Zhangazha (2016) added that when no organisational initiatives to boost employee motivation are bearing fruit, management has to work closely with worker representatives to address employee needs to boost their motivation. Huni (2016) reckoned that under such situations, management needs to be very innovative in coming up with strategies that are targeted at raising employee motivation. The author recommended that the organisation needs to embrace a bottom-up approach where employees suggest the solutions.

ZIMRA (2014) reported that cases of smuggling of prohibited substances including but not limited to cannabis and skin-lightening creams are continually reported at all border posts with Nyamapanda border post topping the list. On the same note, Langa (2017) noted that a Bulawayo South Member of Parliament, Eddie Cross, reiterated the staffing of border posts by highly motivated employees at all times since many billions are lost at these entry points. Huni (2016) stated that a highly motivated employee strives to meet the organisational objectives as opposed to having underhand dealings which is characteristic of demotivated employees.

The situation discussed in the previous sections justified the selection of employee motivation as a research construct for this study. The study sought to determine how employee motivation can mediate the relationship that exists between employee engagement and workplace surveillance. The researcher of this study regarded the low levels of employee motivation amongst ZIMRA employees at border posts as an area worth looking into. Recommendations for solutions to strategies to boost the levels of motivation are critical to avoid further loss of revenue. With the current financial challenges faced in Zimbabwe, ZIMRA needs to devise motivation initiatives if they are entertaining hopes of fulfilling their mandate.

2.6 Workplace surveillance

Workplace surveillance implies the process of continuous monitoring and observation of employees as they work. This can be done using the attendance registers, computer login in time, surveillance cameras, office phone usage, and company car tracking devises among others. ZIMRA (2016) noted that the authority had installed surveillance cameras worth US$600 000 at Beitbridge border post in 2016 and the investment seems to be yielding the intended results as ZIMRA officials and fraudsters are being caught in illegal acts. Curbing of illegal acts is in line with the organisation's mandate on protecting the civil society and there is need for the organisation to invest more in workplace surveillance for this reason. Illegal acts like smuggling and corruption have an effect on the civil society and negatively affect the organisation's contribution towards the fiscus; hence the need to curb these acts through workplace surveillance. Ncube (2016) added that it is necessary to assess how such workplace surveillance affects employees so that the rewards of workplace surveillance are not at the cost of employee morale.

According to ZIMRA (2018), the new Commissioner General, Ms Faith Mazani, has employed her strategy which is based on the "four Ps", namely partnerships, projects, processes and people. Regarding the processes, the commissioner noted that she seeks to enhance and intensify the current and new systems so that they become foolproof and unsusceptible to fraud and correction. She added that the existing electronic cargo tracking system, surveillance cameras, ASYCUDA World platform and e-services, among others, are her priorities. Kazunga (2018) stated that the authority praised the use of hotlines as a workplace surveillance tool that is effective in curbing corruption. This enables the whistle blowing with maximum anonymity. Munyuki (2017) stressed that the authority needs to tighten the workplace surveillance system. This author indicated that this is because of the findings by the Minister of Finance and Economic development, Cde Patrick Chinamasa, after a lifestyle audit, that ZIMRA executive management was tampering with the database to distort their fraudulent activities. The author added that this calls for tighter workplace surveillance and a more advanced and effective information and communication technology (ICT) system. The minister further reiterated the need to invest much in workplace surveillance as a deterrent to potential offenders

Transparency Zimbabwe International (2017) reported that a lot of stress prevails in the Zimbabwean economy amid severe liquidity challenges because of poor Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) policies which is a cause for concern. Further, that high levels of corruption in the country and porous border posts allow smuggling into the country which stifles local manufacturers' efforts which negatively affects the economy. Cheap imports are smuggled into the country and the authors called for tighter surveillance cameras at the border posts. The unit is convinced that such smuggling is facilitated by ZIMRA employees and therefore they recommend installation of many more surveillance cameras in the offices of the employees at all border posts across the

country. In an attempt to manage the severity of smuggling and other forms of illegal acts at all entry points, ZIMRA introduced lie detectors (ZIMRA, 2016). This is a workplace management device, which enables the employer to ascertain the levels of honesty, trustworthiness and credibility amongst its employees. Ncube (2016) opined that in order to monitor the movement of goods and people at the border posts, ZIMRA introduced an electric cargo system that can monitor such movements. In addition, the author stated that what is really surprising is that despite the presence of this electric cargo system, ZIMRA officials have already devised ways of circumventing it.

As a sign that ZIMRA employees are fond of workplace surveillance, Muleya (2017) referred to the surveillance cameras that went missing at the entry border posts with a high rate of missing cameras recorded at Beitbridge posts. The missing cameras were those assigned to cater for areas most used by illegal immigrants, touts, conmen and smugglers. Reports pointed a finger at ZIMRA employees regarding the disappearance of cameras that were installed at unsuspected areas. Only the ZIMRA employees knew about these unsuspected areas and suspicion is that the employees could be responsible these missing cameras (Mhlanga, 2017).

According to Huni (2016), the government of Zimbabwe appointed a team headed by the Minister of Home Affairs aimed at improving surveillance and curbing smuggling at all the border posts. Mhlanga (2017) reiterated that the team were seconded because 50% in revenue was being lost through underhand activities. ZIMRA (2016) revealed that the data gathered by the Ministry of Home Affairs reveals that the involvement of ZIMRA's border posts employees in these underhand activities is massive and hence the need to install surveillance cameras at the border posts.

Huni (2016) said that many questions are asked about why the revenue collections keep going down when activities at the border posts increase on daily basis. These activities

are the imports and exports expected to bring in the needed revenue. However, it is surprising that revenue is dwindling, putting pressure on government who then fail to pay the civil servants. Mhlanga (2017) reiterated that the Minister of Home Affairs is on record for stating that the Government of Zimbabwe is investing US$4 million in surveillance measures at all border posts aimed at curbing all underhand activities that are depriving the state of revenue.

Mundia (2014) contended that of interest is that ZIMRA put in place mechanisms to curb smuggling at all the border posts compounded by heavy police presence but smuggling is continuing unabated at all the border posts as if no single mechanism is in place. Huni (2016) further said that the Ministry of Home Affairs established that there are weak security standards at the all the border posts and that the way some ZIMRA officials do business is questionable; thus requiring tight workplace surveillance systems at the border posts.

A study by Mundia (2014) found that the facilities and clearance system used at the customs border posts are weak. The author mentioned poor utilisation of technology systems that can effectively combat smuggling and underhand dealings. Muleya (2017) opined that since the introduction of ASYCUDA, there is a lot of collusion between travellers, ZIMRA officials and customs officials aimed at manipulating the system to the detriment of the civil protection mandate. ZIMRA (2014) admitted that the collusion between the ZIMRA officials and travellers has led to banned and illegal substances finding their way into the country, and this surely is a cause for concern and research. It is essential for ZIMRA officials to ensure that the corruption and goods clearing busting software tool, ASYCUDA, is put to effective use to curb all false declarations.

According to Zhangazha (2016), the findings of the audit report commissioned by the ZIMRA board in May 2016 were that there are dealers who are prejudicing the

organisation of the deserved revenue through processing of undervalued counterfeit import documentation for smuggling purposes. This was with reference to the suspended Commissioner General Gershom Pasi and his five executive directors alleged to have been smuggling their personal goods and thus depriving the government of the much-needed revenue. Langa (2015) noted that ZIMRA is under immense pressure to contribute to the fiscus. In relation to the noted corruption tendencies and procedural irregularities at border posts, the organisation's contribution to the fiscus may remain elusive and hence the dire need to have workplace surveillance at the border posts.

In a nutshell, the literature referred to in the above sections emphasises the urgent need for ZIMRA to identify various workplace surveillance initiatives aimed at curbing corruption, smuggling and all other underhand activities. In this regard, it is necessary to conduct research on how implementation of workplace surveillance could curb these unwanted acts without hindering employee motivation and engagement.

2.7 Employee engagement

ZIMRA (2016) reported that by end of 2016, the employee engagement score in the organisation was at 2.1 out of 5 as depicted by research done by PricewaterhouseCoopers in 2016. Accordingly, Maalouf (2013) had previously noted that a score of 2.1 out of 5 is a very low which need proper management for organisational effectiveness. Vinga (2016) noted that ZIMRA management came up with a resolution to rotate all border post employees for skills development and indirectly manage corruption and smuggling. The author reported that the employees did not take this move lightly and went on to file an appeal against such transfers. ZIMRA (2018) added that in order to maintain and improve on employee engagement,

the authority should conduct annual sporting activities under the banner, "Health and Safety Sports Gala". The sporting activities should also enhance team building, thereby reducing disengagement among employees and boosting employee engagement levels.

Sibanda (2016) gave a trend analysis of employee engagement in ZIMRA noting that employee engagement levels in 2015 rose by 0,1 percent relative to 2014. In 2016, there was a relative improvement in the employee engagement scale to 2.1. The engagement levels rose to a scale of 2.1 out of 5 as highlighted by ZIMRA (2016) who added that housing and vehicle loans that the organisation gave to its employees contribute to such a rise. Sibanda et al. (2014), in their study on the impact of employee engagement on organisational performance, reiterated the need for organisations to strive to have their employees engaged against all odds. The authors added that low score levels for employee engagement in any organisation is a cause for concern and requires more research to unlock the answers.

Research conducted by Vinga (2017) found that employees were very disgruntled when ZIMRA introduced a lifestyle audit for all the employees. Employees felt that such an exercise can be abused by management to harass innocent employees. The author noted that employees regard this exercise as an invasion to their privacy and the action is against the employment conditions. Vinga (2017) further found that most employees raised concerns that this action is negatively affecting their engagement and performance. Backdating to 2016, the authority has been tightly monitoring its employees on corruption suspicion after it suspended and dismissed 15 senior executive directors, including the Commissioner General-Gershom Pasi, for tax evasion, poor corporate governance, fraud and allegations of corruption. On the same note, Muleya (2017) concluded that ZIMRA staff feel that they can fall victim to unfounded allegations and end up dismissed.

Muleya (2017) noted that the ZIMRA trade union secretary general, Mr.L.Ngwarati, castigated such audits saying that they negatively affect employee engagement and calling for management to be cautious lest the organisation fails to achieve its annual fiscal contribution. The union secretary general reiterated that they would not tolerate management invading their privacy. The secretary went on to say one key factor that is seriously causing staff disengagement is that the ZIMRA board was given a forensic audit report which implicated many senior managers and that report was never actioned. The secretary general added that the pain point is that the implicated senior managers are now driving lifestyle audits on junior employees while they are also due for investigation. The secretary concluded that such audits have seriously demoralised and caused a lot of staff disengagement. Vinga (2017) recommended that such fights between employees and management on suspicion of preferential treatment need to be resolved as quickly as possible before employees become disengaged with the possibility of the authority failing to meet its set revenue targets.

Research by Mhlanga (2017) on ZIMRA staff engagement found that the employee engagement levels were very low in the revenue authority. The author noted that a group of tax consultants who took part at the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) expressed dissatisfaction with the rate of staff turnover at ZIMRA, which they regarded as too high. Sibanda (2016) had previously noted that such high labour turnover led to staff disengagement with a possibility of an organisation failing to meet its target. The author also noted that the ZIMRA board chairperson, Willia Bonyongwe, bemoaned such high labour turnover and admitted that revenue targets can be a challenge to meet under such circumstances. The board chair then noted that economic challenges in the country negatively affect their staff engagement levels where some employees leave the organisation for greener pastures. Employees who had

left ZIMRA for other companies locally and internationally were being encouraged to come back in order to address the noted high labour turnover.

Findings of research by Mundia (2014) were that employee engagement levels were low at ZIMRA border posts. The scholar attributed such low levels to skewed and poor remuneration that the organisation is implementing, resulting in employees succumbing to corrupt advances from traders and travellers. Sibanda et al (2014) found that the salary induced employee disengagements levels are not only low for ZIMRA customs officials but are a general trend in the public service. Mundia (2014) reiterated that the skewed and poor remuneration led ZIMRA officers to seek underhand cash from travellers who want to avoid paying duty and do away with long winding queues at the country's border posts. Sibanda (2016) went on to recommend that in order to avert low employee engagement levels, there is need for management to improve the working conditions and remuneration for the customs officials. Another recommendation by Mundia (2014) is for management to boost employee engagement by quickly resolving the long outstanding controversy around the motor vehicle scheme, which junior employees criticise as a tool targeted to benefit top management only.

It is thus clear that ZIMRA is under a lot of pressure to contribute to the fiscus and with employees lowly engaged, as reported by literature above, substantial investment in employee engagement is required if ZIMRA is to meet its mandate. There is need for more research to offer solutions to the low employee engagement in critical parastatals as currently the revenue remittances to the government result in the public service employees not being paid in time.

2.8 Conclusion

As highlighted above, the study focused on ZIMRA and this chapter focused on presenting the research scene. The aim of the chapter was to justify the selection of ZIMRA as the study scene. The chapter also focused on the justification of the research constructs chosen for the study with reference to the organisation in question. Further, the chapter identified and discussed specific problems relating to each research construct in relation to the organisation under study. The next chapter focus on employee motivation as a construct by emphasising what is dealt with in the theoretical and empirical literature. The various theories used to define and understand this construct and the justification for using such theories are also presented in the chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with employee motivation as a construct, with much emphasis on theoretical and empirical literature. The various theories used to define and understand this construct are discussed. Reasons are provided for choosing the theory. The focus is on how this construct mediates between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) opined that employee motivation is fundamental to employee engagement and organisational performance. The aim of employee motivation in an organisation is to equip employees with the ability to go the extra mile in their work and such great levels of employee motivation can only be realised when employers determine initiatives that motivate the employees (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). Motivated employees make work innovation their own in order to see their objectives and organisational goals to fruition.

Mohamed and Nor (2013) noted that employee motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic. And every manager in an organisation must find ways to motivate their employees for productivity purposes. Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) concluded that no manager could forcefully make an employee succeed at their work but that a manager just needs to motivate the employees to see such tasks done. This then calls for managers to know which management style or management approach to employ in motivating the employees. In ensuring that employees are motivated, a manager may adopt any motivation theory of their choice. According to Roos and Van Eeden (2013), Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Adam's equity

theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, the reinforcement theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, McClelland's achievement motivation theory, can guide a manager.

3.2 Theoretical literature review

This section presents the theoretical framework that guided the study on employee motivation. The focus was on McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y. This theory assisted the research in the application and understanding of employee motivation in organisations**.** The section also outlines how this theory assisted in this research and ultimately, the organisation under study.

3.3 McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y

According to Roos and Van Eeden (2013), a social psychologist, Douglas McGregor in 1960 developed two opposing theories in explaining a manager's perception of what creates or enhances employee motivation at the workplace. The two opposing theories are named Theory X and Theory Y and they are of paramount importance in the analysis of modern organisation management. McGregor (1960) explained Theory X and Theory Y as referring to the management styles a manager might adopt, with Theory X denoting an authoritarian approach to management while Theory Y denotes a participatory approach to management. The management style of a manager has an impact on employee motivation (Asiedu-Appiah, 2013). Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) noted that based on McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, employee motivation is the employee's willingness to perform a duty as influenced by the management approach in the organisation.

3.4 McGregor (1960) Theory X

When a manager believes that their subordinates do not like their work and are not motivated to do it, such a manager will employ an authoritarian approach in managing them (McGregor, 1960). Mohamed and Nor (2013) said that this management style emphasises tight monitoring of the subordinates in ensuring that the work is done – McGregor (1960) named this approach Theory X. The managers who employ this theory have a negative view about their subordinates and they label them as demotivated (Mutenherwa, 2012). In this management approach, the managers assume that they need to give the employees more rewards to boost their motivation levels. Under this theory, managers assume that regularly threatening and punishing the subordinates will make them like their work.

Mohamed and Nor (2013) are of the view that the Theory X approach to management is usually employed in managing routine and repetitive work activities where employee motivation can be derived from the use of the rewards. McGregor (1960) noted that most organisations that employ Theory X in managing employees tend to have many levels of managers and supervisors responsible for seeing that the work is accomplished. In such a scenario, control is centralised where managers intervene and interfere for target realisation. Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) opined that in as much as the Theory X approach to management seems to be side-lined by modern organisations, big companies may face challenges in falling out with it because of the large number of employees and tight targets they have.

However, Sarwar and Abugre (2013) argues that the Theory X management style can breed a hostile work environment for employees. The theory falls short in circumstances where an organisation is growing and this calls for more managers on the ground to supervise and manage employees, leading to diseconomies of scale.

Asiedu-Appiah (2013) is of the view that Maslow's hierarchy of needs satisfies employees' basic needs while Theory X focuses on employee higher needs. Due to this, Theory X falls short in that it enables employees to meet their lower needs like having money. Once the employees have money, they tend to engage in leisure to attain higher unmet needs outside the working environment due to this restraining management style.

3.5 McGregor (1960) Theory Y

On the other hand, when a manager believes that their subordinates like their work and are motivated to do it, such a manager would employ a participatory approach in managing them (McGregor, 1960). This management style places more emphasises on putting much trust and ownership of the work on the employees – McGregor (1960) named this approach Theory Y. Mohamed and Nor (2013) suggested that the managers who employ Theory Y have a participatory management approach, they are optimistic and trust their subordinates.

Under this management approach, employees have more responsibility and they always need to encourage the subordinates to improve their skills (Asiedu-Appiah, 2013). The performance appraisal under this approach is used for communication purposes as opposed to controlling as in Theory X. The approach rallies on the thinking that employees are very innovative, they are hard workers, they are self-starters and they take responsibility for their work outcome (Sarwar & Abugre, 2013). Theory Y management approach is gaining ground in modern organisations since it emphasises decentralisation and encourages career growth in employees. McGregor (1960) concluded that Theory Y is superior to Theory X mainly because Theory Y gives

employees the platform to exhibit their skills and find solutions to their work challenges without constant and close surveillance by management.

Asiedu-Appiah (2013) concluded that theory Y rallies on the assumption that if management creates a conducive working environment, employees will definitely perform. However, the author argued that each employee is different from the next and as such, it is difficult to come up with an environment that can satisfy every employee. Sarwar and Abugre (2013) reiterated that because of the observation by Asiedu-Appiah (2013), the "right fit" concept was coined encouraging organisations to ensure that there is tight fit between the organisation, employee and the job as opposed to employing a 'one-size-fits-all' approach.

3.6 Theory X and Theory Y at work

In most cases, managers have the tendency of mixing these two theories in managing their employees. Sarwar and Abugre (2013) noted that in most instances, a manager who uses both approaches tends to like one approach over another. The successful implementation of each approach depends on what the team really needs to accomplish in relation to organisational goals. It is possible for a manager to apply Theory X in managing new recruits, giving them guidance and in crisis management. Mohamed and Nor (2013) added that it may be a challenge if a manager wants to employ Theory X in managing experts who have a track record of performing.

Manzoor (2012) is of the view that each of these two theories has its own challenges.. The inhibitive nature engraved in Theory X may demotivate employees and they may withdraw their effort if the surveillance is too strict and this can result in high labour turnover. On the same note, if a manager employs Theory Y giving employees much space to work on their own, they might end up going astray to the detriment of

organisational objectives. It is possible for those employees who are less motivated to abuse this approach and end up not producing as expected (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). In addition, the success of any one of these theories may depend on the size of the organisation. Theory X is prevalent in big organisations where the tasks can be monotonous and employees suffer boredom. In such a monotonous environment, Theory X tends to thrive more than Theory Y. On the other hand, Arun (2013) reckoned that organisations with flat structures with more employee participation have a tendency of employing Theory Y. McGregor (1960) coined the view that Theory X guides most organisations that centralise decision making and have a pyramid organogram in their operations. Such organisations hinge on the thinking that employees want to be strictly led, coupled with financial incentives and threats, for organisational success. Arun (2013) concluded that such a mind-set in managers leads to them tightly monitoring and supervising their subordinates by assuming that they are not responsible.

Mohamed and Nor (2013) noted that McGregor's Theory X is found lacking when applied to a democratic and contemporary society. If Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is considered, McGregor's Theory X is not universally applicable because its assumptions on the nature of human beings tends be inaccurate. Jugmohan (2013) is of the opinion that many employee management policies and practices that are developed as guided by Theory X assumptions have all yielded negative results. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) said that the Theory X method of management falls short when it comes to managing employees who have their physiological and safety needs satisfied such that their next important needs are social esteem and self-actualisation.

Jugmohan (2013), however, noted that the Theory Y approach to management centres on cultivating a conducive working environment through linking employee goals and organisational goals. Organisations implementing such a management approach are

mostly associated with high productivity and a highly motivated workforce since the approach leads to employees being self-motivated, innovative, and goal oriented. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) opined that it is therefore not simple to conclude that Theory Y is the best way to manage employees and Theory X is not the best way since these two theories just portray attitudes that can be adopted in managing employees. This is because there are instances that a manager can employ both Theory X and Theory Y management practices depending on circumstances. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) opined that Theory X and Theory Y set the basis for future management skills and theories on how to manage dynamic and ever changing human behaviour. Research by Jugmohan (2013) found that this model is key in people management and a mixture of the two extreme theories in managing employees has proved to provide positive results.

3.7 Why McGregor's Theory X and Y?

According to Mohamed & Nor (2013) there are mainly two classes under which motivation theories fall under. These are the content t theories and process theories. The content theories seeks to find out what is mainly the force behind employee motivation and mainly focus on people's needs and wants. These theories include Alderfer's ERG Theory, McClelland's need Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, Herzberg's motivation-Hygine Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of needs Theory. On the other hand, Sarwar and Abugre (2013) note that the process theories are Vroom's expectancy Theory, Reinforcement Theory, Adam's Equity Theory, Reinforcement Theory and Carrot and Stick Approach to motivation. Another key theory to organisational management is complexity theory. However, this study did not adopt it because Levy (2000) notes that complexity theory is difficult and challenging to use in practice. Levy (2000) add that the theory must authentically be used and not to be used as a loose metaphor and due to this theory Cunha and Cunha (2006) added that complexity

theory is difficult to apply in behavioural sciences. The study stood guided by McGregor's Theory X and Y for the following reasons.

McGregor's Theory X and Y is critical for this research because it helped in explaining the mediating role of employee motivation in the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Arun (2013) argued that in as much as a number of recent researches had raised the inflexibility of these two theories, they are still critical in coming up with positive techniques and management styles in an organisation. Theory X and Y continue to be at the centre of organisational management and employee motivation. In addition, Mohamed and Nor (2013) added that McGregor's theory plays a critical role in mediating between employee surveillance and engagement at work through provisions of two management options that a manager can chose from in mediating and or neutralising the workplace relations.

Theory X and Y assist in understanding how the relationship between employee engagement and workplace surveillance points to the impact of leadership approach in an organisation (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). Sarwar and Abugre (2013) opined that Theory X assists management in managing any staff attempts to dodge work by employing a strict surveillance system in place. In this regard, Theory X helps management to determine measures that ensure no time is wasted by workers during working hours (Arun (2013). In this regard, this theory assisted this study in identifying and recommending work schedules to be subject to surveillance without affecting employee engagement. On the same note, Theory Y helps in understanding how employee motivation mediates between workplace surveillance and approach that motivates and keeps employees engaged in their work.

According to Mohamed and Nor (2013), it is important for every manager to have a management style and it is up to that manager to select the style based on their traits, persons to be led and the work environment. Ueda (2012) opined that a manager can

choose a management style from laissez-faire, participative, democratic and autocratic styles. The McGregor Theory X and Theory Y clearly explain all these basic management styles when compared with other theories, thereby positioning it as a reliable, mediating variable for this study (Ueda, 2012).

Theory X and Theory Y can be regarded as the best in explaining how the four basic management styles can be adopted by any manager in any organisation (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). In line with autocratic leadership, the McGregor theory denotes that managers dictate what has to be done with little or no innovation and input from the employees. Such managers employ Theory X and they think that any input from employees is aimed at having less work. Secondly, McGregor's theory makes it easy to understand a democratic leadership approach. Third, McGregor's theory may be used to define a leader who embraces participation and includes subordinates in decision making. Just like democratic leadership, participative leadership trusts and embraces employees. Fourth is a laissez-faire approach, which McGregor describes as falling under Theory Y, by allowing employees to have autonomy in their duties (Shaheen & Farooqi, 2014).

3.8 Critique of Theory X and Theory Y

According to Ueda (2012) McGregory's Theory X when applied to contemporary management nurture a workplace environment to be distrustful and hostile. This emanates from the fact that organisations that are authoritarian employs many managers and supervisors so that they keep a close supervision and attention on employees. Such supervisor usually is accompanied by cohesion and threats from the managers resulting in a demoralised workforce with high chances of affecting the overall organisational productivity. Mohamed and Nor (2013) conclude that employees

may end up sabotaging the organisation since they may feel unwanted due to the strict style of management which manifest in threats and force from managers.

Mohamed and Nor (2013) reiterate that MacGregor's theory Y as a style of management is difficult to apply in reality. This is mainly because the style approach assume that all employees have the same characteristics, challenges, needs and aspiration hence the need for a universal management style, which is not always the case. Shaheen andFarooqi (2014) opine that employees need a flexible approach that depends on their demographic variables like education, work experience, gender and age.

According to Shaheen andFarooqi (2014), in this modern day, McGregor's Theory X and Y is regarded as outdated. Shaheen andFarooqi (2014) added that Theory X can be lightly noted among manual workers who are lowly remunerated. Modern human resources management initiatives like employee on boarding, high performance work systems, management training development and employee value propositions are not effectively implemented under Theory X management making it outdated. It is not in doubt that MaCgregor's theory was effective in people management in 1960s when he propounded it before the advent of technology and modernity (Mohamed and Nor, 2013).

3.9 Empirical literature review

This section analyses literature on research previously done on employee motivation. Evaluation of the various definitions given to the constructs takes place in this section as well. The research findings and gap identification in those studies are also emphasised in this section.

3.10   Employee motivation

Moussa (2015) conducted a study in the USA on the effects of workplace surveillance on employee morale. He indicated that if employers fail to balance business interests and employee rights, the result could be employee despondency at the workplace with possibilities of organisational sabotage. This is a key note that the study followed and recommends, if need be, in line with the research objectives of the study. Manzoor (2012) also carried out a study to check the relationship between employee motivation, workplace surveillance and organisational performance. The study findings revealed that there is a negative relationship between employee motivation and workplace surveillance. The findings further highlighted that employees do not like working under surveillance because it makes them feel untrusted. A study was conducted by Mafini, Surujlal and Dhurup (2013) on the relationship that exists between job satisfaction and job loyalty among municipal sports officers in South Africa. Their study concluded that there is need for organisations to invest more in the identification and improvement of variables that lead to high job loyalty, employee motivation and job satisfaction. However, the scholars noted that their research is only limited to South Africa and such results need to be generalised with caution. This then poses the need to conduct research on similar constructs in a Zimbabwean public organisation, and hence this study.

Akafo and Boateng (2015) conducted a study in Ghana to ascertain the effect of recognition and reward on employee motivation and satisfaction at seven non-government tertiary institutions using stratified sampling. Their study found that a motivated employee is a satisfied employee and recommended that such levels of motivation are feasible when there is trust between employees and management. The study further found that employee motivation was the hub in mediating the relationships that existed between employers and employees despite stiff competition and the organisation's weak financial position. They recommended that organisations need to invest much in aspects that motivate employees since employee motivation is the mediator of organisational success. Yamoah (2014) also carried out a study on employee surveillance at the workplace, using exploratory research at the Ghanaian Unibank Limited. The study's goal was to ascertain different types of tools employed for workplace surveillance purposes and their impact on employee motivation. The study found that the main tools used by the employer as surveillance tools are suggestion boxes, telephones, cameras and computers. The study also found that many respondents were very uncomfortable with video and camera surveillance, and they labelled that as privacy invasion. Further, the study discovered that such surveillance negatively affected employee motivation and work commitment.

Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) recommended that there is need for management to put in place a management system that makes employees feel wanted, trusted and cared for without jeopardising organisational objectives. The study made a recommendation that it is important to engage employees when putting in place workplace surveillance and to teach the employee how such surveillance works. Moussa (2015) conducted research in the USA on how organisations can monitor employee actions and behaviour with the aid of technology by looking at the impact of such on employee privacy, work commitment and motivation. The study found that the mere presence of workplace surveillance has a direct impact on employee trust towards their management and this

greatly affects their motivation levels, work commitment and work output. The study also found that the greater the workplace surveillance, the more employees feel that they are under monitoring and the more they concentrate on good behaviour, which ultimately affects their motivation negatively. This is so because employees in the study felt that the organisation was more concerned with them coming to work early and always being at their desks, not extending break times and not dismissing them early. Due to this, employees felt that time keeping was the organisation's main objective and therefore the employees were less productive as they felt alienated from their work.

Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) also recommended that there should be more literature on how management in public organisations can apply surveillance strategies on employees without affecting their work motivation and their rights. Rietzschel, Slijkhuis and Van Yperen (2014) conducted a study on the impact of close workplace surveillance on employee motivation and performance in the organisation. The study found that close workplace surveillance has a negative impact on employee motivation and job satisfaction. They recommended that employers need to engage employees when implementing such surveillance so that employees understand that they are valued and to avoid them being demotivated. A further study recommended that a study focusing on workplace surveillance management approaches that motivate employees for maximum productivity is necessary.

Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) researched the impact of promotion at work on employees' job satisfaction, employee engagement and motivation amongst Malaysia's academics in the higher learning public institutions. The study concluded that the relationship that exists between employee engagement, job satisfaction and employee motivation is that if the organisation improves one of these constructs, the others automatically improve. This implies that an employee who is satisfied with their job is highly likely to engage in work and be motivated to do the assigned tasks without

feeling disgruntled. The research also concluded that what is critical in understanding the positive impact of employee engagement is to first understand what really motivates employees and why employees behave the way they do. Deshpande (2012) is of the view that true motivation is exhibited when an employee puts their life at risk for the sake of work.

Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) reiterated that a motivated workforce is an investment for the organisation while a demotivated workforce makes organisational objectives difficult to realise. Such investment reflects in low labour turnover, improved work performance and high levels of employee motivation. Deshpande (2012) added that the most critical task of every manager in an organisation is to make sure that the workers are motivated, satisfied and engaged in their work. A highly motivated workforce is a highly engaged and satisfied workforce with a high possibility of positive production levels. Al-Zoubi (2012) reiterated that the leadership considered to have a high impact is one that is concerned about the impact of its actions on other employees. Such knowledge is critical in building a strong relationship that inspires employees to commit to and be engaged in their work. Saltson and Nsiah (2015) conducted a study on the mediating and mediating impact of motivation between work performance and organisational support. Their study recommends that when an organisation seriously considers growing and flourishing, a lot of investment in employee motivation and engagement is the way to go. In situations where the organisation is having poor results, it is essential to invest in in employee motivation so that the employees can do more work.

Esty and Gewirt (2012) also conducted research with the Office of Research, Planning and Effectiveness (ORPE) at Northwest Michigan College (NMC). The study focused on the levels of employee motivation, employee engagement and employee trust. The study revealed that highly motivated and engaged employees had more trust in

management compared to those that were demotivated and disengaged. The authors recommended that future research should focus on how employee motivation may affect work commitment and organisational performance in relation to the management approach in an organisation. Khan and Iqbal (2013) carried out case study research at the Allied Bank of Pakistan to investigate the relationship between employee absenteeism, employee motivation and employee engagement. The findings showed that there is a positive relationship between employee engagement and employee motivation. Thus, organisations need to understand that employee motivation has a direct impact on employee engagement and ultimately on their work performance.

There are few available studies that focused on employee motivation in a parastatal in Zimbabwe. The available ones focused on academic and health institutions to determine on how teachers and public health care providers can be motivated to do their work.

One of the studies done by Mutenherwa (2012) on employee motivation only focused on employee motivation without looking at other variables like employee engagement and workplace surveillance in Zimbabwe. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) noted that when employees are demotivated and dissatisfied, they tend to have low levels of job satisfaction, motivation and engagement in their work and this can negatively affect the overall organisational performance. According to Khan and Iqbal (2013), if employees are given all the resources and support they need by their organisation, chances are high that they will positively respond (be engaged) and work hard to achieve more rewards (motivation). Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) added that there is lack of empirical evidence in developing countries on how employee motivation and job satisfaction (engagement) affect employees at the workplace. This research sought to close this gap in knowledge.

Research by DeVaroa, Nan Maxwell and Morita (2017) revealed that employee motivation is critical in defining the success of the organisation. The amount of motivation an employee has positively impacts on service delivery in both private and public organisations. The need to have a highly motivated workforce is important in gaining sustainable competitive advantage in the market (Ryan, 2017). The study sought to examine the relationship between training, intrinsic motivation and organisational performance. The research was conducted in the hospitality industry and the study found that the more employees are trained in their work, the more they are intrinsically motivated and subsequently, organisational performance is attained. Saltson and Nsiah (2015) concluded that workplace cleanliness and a friendly environment compounded by training instils intrinsic motivation and ultimate organisation performance.

Research found that employee punishment, rewards and praise are critical in managing employee motivation at work (Bear, Slaughter, Mantz & Farley-Ripple, 2017). The more the punitive rewards, the more undesired behaviour is eliminated. The study also found that when employees are extrinsically motivated, their tolerance of social behaviour hinges on group acceptance while doing everything possible to avoid punishment. On the other hand, Chang and Teng (2017) noted that when employees are intrinsically motivated, their prosocial attitude is empathy driven and not guided by any material gain. Research by Cordella and Cordella (2017), Vilnai-Yavetz and Levina (2018) and Chang and Teng (2017) concluded that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between employee performance and workplace incentives. Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik and Nerstad (2017) conducted research in three different countries (Italy, Netherlands and Hungary) to ascertain how extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is affected by conflict in the family, employee burnout, labour turnover, work commitment and work performance. Their study concluded that positive performance associates with intrinsic motivation while positive performance is not

associated with extrinsic motivation. The study also found that a negative correlation exists between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

An organisation benefits from allowing its employees to use various forms of social media in client engagements (Chang & Teng (2017). The study by Hansen and Levin (2016) found that employees who have high intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have apathetic motivation. The study also found that most managers assume that employees will always engage in organisational discussions on the social media but the authors recommended that if managers want their employees to use social media they must have measures in place to counter apathetic behaviour. However, Cordella and Cordella (2017) are of the view that such apathetic behaviour can still manifest even if the employee is motivated. Managers need to reiterate that social media be used for organisational good. The study by Hansen and Levin (2016) concluded that social media enables an organisation to gain sustainable competitive advantage over its competitors when rightly put to use. It assists employees to communicate easily with clients and customers.

Lee and Raschke (2016) advocated for the adopting of a set-theoretical approach in order for employee motivation to be easily understood. They add that this theoretical approach enables configurational complex thinking and causality, which is important in complementing quantitative research. Ryan (2017) added that such theories show the various conditions that combine to form similar and consistent results in relation to employee motivation conceptualisation in organisations.

Selvarajan et al. (2018) conducted a study to examine how fairness in performance evaluation, manager-employee exchange and employee motivation enhance organisational performance among Mexico and USA employees. The study discovered that workplace fairness in all employee relations variables has a positive relationship to manager-employee relationship. The study further added that manager-employee

relationship positively informs employee motivation and ultimately the organisational performance in all the concerned countries. A total of 219 respondents from the USA and 203 from Mexico participated in this study. The study concluded that managers must be cautious when evaluating employee performance since employees are more concerned with fairness and consistency in the procedure. The study also concluded that there is need for support leadership as opposed to bureaucratic and dictatorial leadership if employee motivation has to influence organisational performance. Ryan (2017) contended that democracy at the workplace as opposed to bureaucracy dictates a high level of employee motivation in organisations.

Muslima et al. (2016) noted that working in an environment that is unpleasant and makes one feel uncomfortable is a recipe for demotivation and a drive to look for another job. The study sought to ascertain those variables that drive employees to look for alternative employment. Respondents were from an electricity power organisation in Malaysia. The study concluded that the working environment is one key variable that makes employee look for another job. The study assisted employers in understanding what really motivates and demotivates employees. Strauss, Parker, and O'Shea (2017) conducted a similar study and found that available literature hinges more on the positive performance results for employee proactivity while no results for such proactivity are recorded on the wellbeing of employees. The study found that employees' proactive behaviour depletes when work motivation is marred with coercion and pressure with no autonomy. In a study with 127 respondents across many sectors of employment, supervisors responded that job-stress is positively associated with employee proactiveness when there is no autonomy. This study concluded that employee proactive behaviour negatively affects employee job strain due to lack of autonomy and lots of pressure from managers.

Research on two global organisations was conducted by Zimmermann and Ravishankar (2016) in order to demonstrate the degree to which employee offshoring strategies hinge on the strategy and employee motivation. The study concluded that employers need to consider those micro-level factors that motivate employees. In addition, managers need to be aware of the offshore member views since their analysis of the job-skill relationship affects job uptake and ultimately employee motivation and organisation performance. In a related research, Liu, Jiang, Shalley, Keem and Zhou (2016) focused on prosocial behaviour, self-efficacy and employee motivation as the drivers to workplace creativity. Research conducted on a sample of 191 samples constituting 51 659 respondents concluded that prosocial behaviour, self-efficacy and employee motivation had unique ways of driving workplace creativity. The study also found that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are key variables that drive workplace creativity and employee behaviour.

Hua, Jiang, Mo, Chen and Shi (2016) opined that there is little theory and empirical literature on the contingencies, results and antecedents of participation by employees in organisational sponsored volunteer activities. The study sought to come up with a theory of employee motivation based on volunteerism in order to find out when and why employees get involved in volunteer programmes by the organisation and the impact thereof on employee performance. A study was done at the real estate organisation and found that volunteered participation and prosocial motivation is made stronger by cooperation amongst workmates, friends and family. Wong, Wan and Gao (2017) later concluded that such stronger cooperation amongst workmates, friends and family positively impacts employee motivation and productivity.

A study was conducted by Hamdi, Ben-Nasra and Ghoum (2018) to determine the relationship that exists between employee welfare, employee motivation and the probability of stock price crashing in the future. The study sought to test two

contrasting hypotheses, namely the agency theory and the stakeholder theory. The stakeholder hypothesis denotes that stock price crashing mitigation occurs when management commits to invest in employee motivation and welfare issues. However, agency theory denotes that a stock price crash can be worsened when management invests in employee welfare and motivation to avoid negative comments from employees. The study found that there is much evidence which support the tenants of the agency theory that when management invests in employee welfare and motivation for their own good, the stock price will surely decline. Wong et al. (2017) concluded that channels like an anonymous tip-off or whistleblowing are some of the channels that are used by frustrated employees to vent their frustration, which negatively affects the risk of a stock price crash.

Ong, Mayer, Tost, and Wellman (2018) reiterated that there is a positive relationship between employee motivation and corporate social responsibility initiatives. The study also found that the more employees view their tasks and activities to be significant to the overall organisational performance, the more motivation and organisational citizenship behaviour they have. According to Lee and Raschke (2016), the significance of task and motivation level as evaluated by an employee mediates between organisational citizenship behaviour and corporate social responsibility. The study by Ong et al. (2018) encourages management to recognise the impact of employee motivation on their work behaviour and ultimately on organisational output. The study concluded that corporate social responsibility does not simply affect organisational performance but it can affect employee motivation and behaviour when tasks are highly significant. Managers should be more concerned with employee behaviour and motivation if productivity is the target.

Since 1990, the growth of the spa industry has been on a rise in Thailand and under such rapid growth in the industry, it is important to understand how the industry has

kept its busy employees engaged and motivated (Suttikun, Chang, & Bicksler, 2018). The study by Suttikin et al. (2018) sought to understand employee job satisfaction and attitudes. A total of 15 respondents were interviewed and the results showed that communication and a prosocial connection among spa employees is key to their motivation and job satisfaction. The study also found that the relationships that develop between clients and spa therapists are critical in having the therapists engaged in their work. In addition, the study found that the therapists experience much motivation and satisfaction from the tips they receive from clients and that the therapists find joy in knowing that they help clients relax from their problems. Another factor critical in motivating the therapists is the autonomy to make decisions accorded by their employer. The scholars conclude that employee motivation develops in cases where employees expect their positive results to be rewarded. Spa therapists share information with their colleagues on how best to do the work when aiming to satisfy their clients and receive tips as rewards. Chang and Teng (2017) stated that the key factors in motivating employees in the hospitality industry include factors like workplace openness, more tips from clients, tangible rewards, involvement in decision making and workplace trust.

Research by Vetrokova and Mazuchova (2016) in the hospitality and tourism industry in Slovania concluded that the most successful hotels are those that have a motivated and engaged workforce. It is the duty of management to ensure that the workers are motivated to do the work because without such motivation, poor service delivery may negatively affect organisational goals. It is essential for managers to identify and implement various programmes that ensure employee motivation is maintained at required levels all the time. The most applied tools are motivation programmes. The importance of implementing such programmes is so that the components act positively on employees and motivate them to achieve maximum performance. (DeVaroa et al., 2017).

Research by Chang and Teng (2017) in the hospitality industry predicted that intrinsic and extrinsic motivators positively affect employee job performance and creativity. The research was conducted in 2014 amongst 62 international hotels in Taiwan with a total population of 411 respondents. The study found that there is a need for management to enhance employee creativity for maximum organisational performance. Research confirmed that factors at individual levels have a great impact on the person's intrinsic motivation and that organisational factors impact the employee's extrinsic motivation factors. Bear et al. (2017) concluded that findings by Chang and Teng (2017) call for managers to take note of both individual and organisational factors in managing workplace motivation if productivity is to be met.

A research to find why employees post organisational information on social media was conducted by Vilnai-Yavetz and Levina (2018) in Asia. The researchers first had to interview internet users to map sharing tendencies and behaviour among respondents. Self-reports were then solicited for and a mixed methodology was adopted in data analysis. The study found that employees had tendencies of sharing information, which benefits them to boost their intrinsic motivation as opposed to sharing organisation information to boost productivity. Cordella and Cordella (2017) conducted a similar study on workplace surveillance using various technologies to monitor workplace performance. The scholars claimed that such workplace surveillance has taken the centre stage in the past decade in order to improve service delivery in the public service sector in most countries. This research sought to examine the impact of such monitoring technology on employee motivation. The study found that it is important to have workplace surveillance in place when there are poor results which need to be managed. The study also concluded that workplace monitoring installation require inputs from employees being considered for buy-in purposes.

3.11   Employee motivation drivers

Employee motivation is not something that can develop and sustain itself from nowhere; there are certain areas on employees that need investment by management and employees (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). There are many factors that management can put in place to drive effective employee motivation at the workplace. The employee motivation drivers include but not limited to staff recognition, rewards, workplace task competition, positive reinforcement, exemplary management, open communication and praise for good work done (Khan and Iqbal, 2013).

3.11.1 Recognition and rewards

Research that was done by Mafini et al. (2013) on the relationship that exists between work satisfaction and loyalty amongst municipal workers in South Africa found that many organisations have award in place like employee of the month where outstanding employees are awarded for performance. However, Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) noted that such individual awards tend to motivate winners and demotivate other group members who would have worked with the winner but are not receiving the award. It is also important for organisations to put in place recognition and rewards that do not necessarily discriminate between employees. Khan and Iqbal (2013) added that once a reward and recognition system is put in place that seeks to recognise and reward many employees as opposed to individual recognition, employee motivation can be recognised.

3.11.2 Workplace competition

Khan and Iqbal (2013) did a study on the link that exists between employee engagement and job motivation. They concluded that another driver for employee motivation is for an organisation to encourage friendly and productive workplace competition amongst the employees. This tends to enhance competition amongst the employees. Their study

found that there is need for managers to devise a friendly performance competition among employees to motivate them. In coming up with the competition strategy, the aspects that intrigue, motivate and excite employees, need consideration. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) concluded that in such competition, the system to be adopted needs to be objective in the allocation of points lest the whole initiative works against the intended results with losers ending up being demotivated.

3.11.3 Positive reinforcement

Ueda (2012) conducted a study on how income and gender mediate the relationship that exists between employee satisfaction and work-life balance. This study noted that in most organisations, when an employee does something good and is rewarded, that employee is encouraged to continue the same behaviour. This is important in encouraging continued repetition of productive behaviour. Mafini et al. (2013) added that positive reinforcement goes hand in hand with negative reinforcement where a bad action is punished so that it is not repeated. The negative reinforcement can act as an intrinsic motivator because it compels an employee from repeating unwanted behaviour and action.

3.11.4 Exemplary leadership

Khan and Iqbal (2013) in their research also found that one of the key drivers to employee motivation is leadership that walks the talk. Leadership in any organisation needs to be productive if the employees are to be productive as well. In most cases, employees become motivated to work when they see their leaders involved in the work. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) noted that if employees perceive that the supervisor or leaders are not putting in maximum effort, they tend to copy that way of working.

3.11.5 Two-way communication

According to Akafo and Boateng (2015), in most cases where the employees air their views to management and they are considered, those employees are motivated. There is need for the organisation management to implement an open door policy so that employees can freely approach management when there is need. Ueda (2012) noted that such an open door policy avoids a "them vs us" workplace relationship, thereby improving the motivation among the employees.

3.11.6 Feedback and work praise

According to Mafini and Dlodlo (2014), in most cases, all human beings tend to be happy when they get feedback on how they have fared in their tasks. Positive feedback through praise for good work done is one of the strong motivators amongst employees. Employees have a tendency of being happy when they appreciated for a job well done. Akafo and Boateng (2015) noted that if feedback given is honest and constructive, this could go a long way in exciting employees and ultimately motivating them.

3.12 Employee motivation as a mediator

Guided by the above literature, it is feasible to conclude that employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Maduka and Okafor (2014) conducted research on the impact of motivation as a mediator of workplace productivity amongst Nnewi manufacturing companies. They found that the relationship that exists between employee motivation and employee workplace autonomy is positive and is highly determined by the management approach in place. Mohamed and Maimunah (2015) did a study to ascertain the impact of management praise and motivation strategies on an employee who is experiencing low job satisfaction and low job autonomy. The findings were that when management trusts employees, praises them and invests in motivating them (Theory Y), employees

become more engaged and determined to their work. Their research also sought to determine whether employee motivation would increase in a situation where an employee was doing highly autonomous work while feeling highly motivated and receiving much praise by management for doing the job. The study then found that employee motivation rises when employees are motivated in doing autonomous jobs even under tight supervision. This study concluded that employee motivation mediates the relationship that exists between work autonomy and management approach.

Zameer et al. (2014) conducted a study at the University of Central Florida to ascertain the impact of job satisfaction and employee motivation in mediating between the work environment and organisational leadership. The study concluded that job satisfaction and employee motivation positively mediate between the work environment and organisational leadership. The study added that there is a need for management to ensure that an open door policy and two-way communication exist if employee motivation is to drive business success. Saltson and Nsiah (2015) later on conducted a study with the aim of ascertaining the relationship between work performance, employee motivation and perceived organisational support. In their study, employee motivation was both a mediating and mediating variable on the relationship that exists between work performance and perceived organisational support. There was no positive effect of employee motivation on perceived organisational support and work performance. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) warned that some research findings fail to ascertain the mediating and mediating effect of employee motivation on work performance and perceived organisational support. The authors added that this does not mean that employee motivation does not have a mediating effect on workplace variables because it varies among organisations and business environments. Roos and Van Eeden (2013) reckoned that due to such rare conclusions, management must not downplay the key mediating and mediating role that employee motivation plays for organisations to succeed.

In conclusion, this chapter dealt with the theoretical and empirical literature dealing with employee motivation. The chapter discussed the various theories used to define and understand this construct and justification for the use of the theory. Focus was on how this construct works as a mediating variable in this study while outlining the drivers for effective employee motivation. The next chapter focuses on workplace surveillance discussing various theories used to define and understand this construct. Reasons why the researcher of this study preferred the chosen theory are also be deliberated on. Further, the focus in on how this construct is implemented in the workplace without negatively affecting employee engagement in organisations.

CHAPTER FOUR

WORKPLACE SURVEILLANCE

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents various theories used to define and understand workplace surveillance. The reasons why the researcher preferred the chosen theory are also deliberated on. Further, the focus is on how this construct is implemented in the workplace without negatively affecting employee engagement in organisations.

4.2 Theoretical literature review

The theoretical framework which guided the study on workplace surveillance played a vital role during the study. The focus was on Foucault's (1977) Panoptic Theory of Surveillance because it guided the researcher of this study. This theory assisted the research in understanding how workplace surveillance generally affects employee engagement in organisations**.**

4.3 Foucault's (1977) panoptic theory of surveillance

Fuchs (2013) noted that workplace surveillance has been on the rise for the past ten years in our modern society due to globalisation and improved technology. Hu, Liao and Peng (2017) opined that the origin of the surveillance concept can be traced back to Michael Foucault who produced his publication on this concept in his book called Surveiller et punir in French in 1975 and in English in 1977 in a book called Discipline and Punish.

Foucault (1977) saw societies evolving from feudalism that was characterised by torture to a reformed society that is characterised by punishment. Foucault further noted that for the past ten decades (at the time of his work), a modern society had evolved that was characterised by the replacement of violence with other lenient versions of power meant to discipline people and make them puppets (Arun, 2013). After Foucault had promulgated the concept, many scholars adopted the panoptic thinking in their studies. Hu et al. (2017), in their study, adopted panoptic thinking promulgated by Foucault which analyses surveillance as a key component of a disciplinary society, which modern society is experiencing in the form of various workplace surveillance means. With reference to Foucault's ideas, Allmer (2012) further explained the evolution from Foucault's disciplinary society to the controlled society based on institutional changes in aspects like culture, production and techniques that require a new dimension of controlling social systems and subsystems for organisational success. Social control is now a key instrument that regulates the way markets operate (Allmer, 2012).

Fuchs (2013) noted that since the promulgation of this concept, much literature was generated and the concept became widely referred to in many occasions. A survey that was done in United States of America among 300 companies by the American Management Association and the ePolicy Institute in 2008 shows that more than one quarter of organisations dismissed their employees from work for internet and email misuse (Arun, 2013). The survey also shows that at least 40% of the organisations keep a close surveillance on their employees' email record while other organisations have decided to block access to sensitive websites like pornographic and social sites during working hours.

Hu et al. (2017) noted that Foucault's (1995) analysis of surveillance is in the medical, military and industrial organisations and educational institutions. When focusing on

industrial organisations or institutions, Foucault mainly looked at workplace surveillance where employees are either working manually or electronically. The monitoring focused on checking aspects like employee presence at work, the standard and quality of work done, comparing workers to each other, skill classification and speed of execution and adherence to work processes and procedures. Fuchs (2013) added that such surveillance as portrayed by Foucault (1977) is vital for companies in handling their employees, profits and money.

Research by Allmer (2012) in two USA organisations called Metro Tel and Ceder Bluff on panoptic power concluded that workplace surveillance becomes essential when the organisation faces many production and efficiency challenges. Hu et al. (2017) opined that most organisations employ workplace surveillance as a means of guarding against employee sabotage, and other types of crimes. The scholars added that workplace surveillance guards against lazy, incompetent and disruptive employees. They added that workplace surveillance also assists in the rationalisation of the workload, managing employee performance. Varian (2014) opined that Foucault regarded workplace surveillance as a tool for dominating the employees and controlling them. Foucault added that for the study of surveillance to be clear, surveillance needs to be negatively defined since this definition has a link to domination, power, discipline, repression and coercion.

4.4 Critique of Foucault's (1977) panoptic theory of surveillance

Fuchs (2013) noted that the works of Foucault on panoptic surveillance received strong criticism from the theorists who thought that Foucault was too negative in his discussion on surveillance. These theorists thought that surveillance needs a positive side in discussion and definition. These critics posed the theories identified as non-panoptic theories to surveillance. Unlike Foucault, Giddens (1995) defined surveillance

as a symbol put in place by the employer with or without consultation with employees for a good cause. Giddens (1985) mainly viewed surveillance as a concept of nation-state phenomenon where surveillance mobilises administration power in the form of storing and controlling the information. Unlike Foucault who negatively defined surveillance, Giddens (1985) viewed surveillance as means used by the authorities to gather, code, record, report and process information for effective organisational administration.

Giddens (1985) viewed surveillance as way of gathering information for organisational administrative functions and did not regard surveillance in the negative and spying way. On another note, Varian (2014) reckoned that the personal information gathered through surveillance is subject to abuse. Giddens' (1985) understanding of surveillance, as a data collection process, is that there is nothing negative and problematic in collecting such data since the data is vital for organisational administration.

Marwick (2012) opined that theorists who advocate for a non-panoptic view to surveillance broadly define surveillance. The author added that these theorists tend to mix this phenomenon on different levels of analysis. An example given is on the one hand, a simple experience like watching over a baby and on the other hand, powerful political and economic surveillance, with the same word being used, it will be difficult to question and criticise modern surveillance forms like surveillance through internet, closed circuit television (CCTV) and face recognition (Fuchs, 2013). In addition, non-panoptical notions view surveillance in a decentralised and non-hierarchical way where anybody has the chance to surveil. This notion undermines the fact that companies can engage into massive surveillance, unlike private actors, just because these organisations are powerful when it comes to the daily running of societies in their area of operations. Thus, this neutral analysis of surveillance undermines the asymmetric power of the

contemporary societies implying that private actors are as powerful as the companies are.

4.5 Empirical literature review

Under this section, the focus is on previous research done on workplace surveillance, which the current study also investigated. The empirical literature also referred to studies done in Zimbabwe, if any, for the research construct under this study. The review of previous research findings led to constructing the hypotheses of this study.

4.6 Workplace surveillance

According to Zuboff (2015), Foucault founded the concept of surveillance his French book on *Surveiller et punir* and his English book called Discipline and Punish, published in 1977. Varian (2014) added that in his work, Foucault (1977) defined surveillance as a negative and punitive tool since people are under observation all the time and need to discipline themselves due to this surveillance.

Research by Allmer (2012) on the impact of surveillance tools in an information capitalism society found that workplace surveillance is common in western countries and the phenomenon is on the rise in developing countries due to globalisation. In the past century, the scope of workplace surveillance and the type of employees subjected to it have greatly increased (Fuchs, 2013). Due to this increase in workplace surveillance, studies on workplace surveillance as a discipline emerged and focused on the theoretical, current, empirical and future surveillance society. Research by Zuboff (2015) found that the word surveillance could be broken into two parts "sur" meaning from above and "veillance" meaning to watch. The author also discovered that the well-known associations with surveillance are the CCTV cameras at public places like

workplaces, highways, and airports. Due to radical changes and development in technology, information and communication systems since around 1960, the word surveillance has been on the rise both in substance and in meaning.

In a research by Zuboff (2015) it was noted that there are certain jobs that are subjected to surveillance more than others and these include but are not limited to telephone operators, customer services officers, data processing officers, logistics clerks and officers. These jobs are easy to subject to surveillance because their execution involves computer usage and has quantifiable output. Fuchs (2013) concluded that more women than men are subjected to workplace surveillance since most jobs that require surveillance fall under clerical field and junior positions and most of these jobs are occupied by women.

Tomczak et al. (2018) reckoned that around 80% of organisations in the USA use various forms of workplace surveillance with much usage being that of electronic monitoring. Some organisations use global positioning system (GPS) surveillance tracking devices, while some use security cameras. These electronic surveillance devices enable the collection of data, its storage, its analysis and reporting on employee work behaviour, production and wastage of organisation time, among others. The data that is collected may be useful in employee performance appraisals, tracking of work progress, assessment of workplace safety and many more. Steinfeld (2017) concluded that in as much as such surveillance is of positive use to the organisation, it comes with some notable negative effects on production, employee commitment, organisational behaviour, privacy, and employee satisfaction. The study by Tomczak et al. (2018) recommends that in order to mitigate such negative aspects of workplace surveillance, the implementation of the systems needs to consider employee perceptions on privacy and attitudes. The study further recommended how best to maximise the benefits of workplace surveillance while minimising its negative effects. First, transparency with

employees on the use of such surveillance is critical. Second, the employer needs to know how employees will react to such monitoring. Third, use of workplace surveillance needs to be useful in identifying learning and training gaps as opposed to the firing tool. Fourth, workplace surveillance is useful for monitoring behaviours that are work related.

According to Lopez-Valeiras et al. (2017), issues like balanced scorecards and budgets are some of the systems used by management in moulding acceptable behaviour in an organisation. Employees may perceive such systems as a motivation system for them to perform better or they may see them as a threat to their privacy and freedom. The scholars conducted a study to ascertain the degree to which public or private hospitals, employee professional groupings, the nature of employee contracts and employee gender affect how hospital employees react to the control systems implemented by management at the hospital. The research study was conducted in Brazil's Santa Catarina state between 2013 and 2014 among the three biggest hospitals, one private and two public hospitals. A total of 100 responses to the questionnaire were received. The study found that the impact of the control system put in place by management varies with ownership of the hospital (private or public), type of employee contract and the different professions occupied by the staff. The study could not find any significance regarding length of service and gender. Shamim, Cang and Yu (2017) concluded that when adopting a control system to determine the cost and benefits to the organisation and the employee, the information gathered is critical to management in their decision making.

According to Qureshi and Syed (2014), in this 21st century, the concept of robots is playing a major role in the running of the economy and production in organisations. It is necessary for research to ascertain the positives and negatives of having such electronic gadgets in the workplace in relation to their effects on employee motivation and engagement. The study found that robotics has both negative and positive effects

on employee motivation and engagement. The study concluded that it is unavoidable that robots in the workplace are slowly replacing employees and this is a major area causing demotivation and employee disengagement. Shamim et al. (2017) reckoned that employees feel disengaged and demotivated by knowing that technology will soon take their jobs and replace them.

It is Tsakanikas and Dagiuklas's (2017) contention that the evolution of surveillance technology dates back to the 1960s when CCTV was introduced for monitoring indoor activities. Despite recording challenges, the systems gained a lot of confidence from the market and uptake was more in banks, supermarkets, filling stations and football stadiums, among others. Around 1980, the system upgraded to a 2nd generation, popularly known as G2, offering advanced compression and real-time distribution and the system introduced a computer vision algorithm able to video track objects. Around the 2000s, the system upgraded to a 3rd generation whereby the system can effectively offer behaviour analysis and reasoning. In all the systems, Mayer, Viviers and Tonelli (2017) contended that cases of employee dissatisfaction regarding privacy were being raised and it is necessary for management to take note of these concerns when installing such systems.

Many organisations are installing surveillance cameras in their workplaces for security reasons (Kardas & Cicekli, 2017). This system received positive and negative employee views – positive in production increase and negative as a disengaging and demotivating system due to privacy invasion. Research concluded that for the employer to gain employee trust there must be transparency in how such systems operate (Kardas & Cicekli, 2017). The study concluded that in making a decision to have such a surveillance system at the workplace, employers need to take note of the following ten points:

- First, is the aspect of accountability, where the employer needs to ensure that all collected personal data is handled with confidence and any communication on unwanted behaviour must be done privately with the concerned employee.

- Second, is to identify the purposes for collecting all the data on the surveillance system and in advance informing employees of any changes that may affect their interests.

- Third, is the consent aspect where the employer needs to inform the employees of the surveillance system and get their informed consent. In this regard, Tsakanikas and Dagiuklas (2017) noted that the employer needs to positively notify the employees how the data is safeguarded from the third party so that privacy does not become an issue.

- Fourth, is the need to limit data collected to avoid collecting unnecessary data outside the workplace and environment.

- Fifth, is the need to limit the usage, retention and disclosure where the employer has to retain only the data collected in a specified period.

- Sixth, is the accuracy issue where the employer is supposed to put in place devices that collect up to date, complete and accurate data.

- Seventh, is the aspect of safeguarding where an organisation has to do employee impact assessment before putting in place such surveillance.

- Eighth, is the need for openness with the employees on the storage, management and accessibility of all the collected information.

- Ninth, is the aspect of accessibility of the collected employee data so that employers can view and challenge collected data for performance evaluation.

- Tenth, is the employer's ability to enable employees to challenge the compliance of such devices whereby employees make a complaint through the informed consent aspect. The complaint platforms and protocols need to be simple and easy so that employees feel welcome to use such protocols.

According to Mayer et al. (2017), the aspect of employee shame is of critical importance in relation to workplace management, which reflects differently in individual versus organisational goals. Mayer et al. (2017) conducted a study in South African entrepreneurial workplaces to find out how workplace surveillance compounds employee shame. The motivation for the study was the negative impact that such shame has on employees and overall organisational performance. The study found that many aspects of shame evolve around poor standard of work, exclusion, loss of face, self-denial and isolation. Shame negatively destructs an employee's emotional intelligence and affects employee engagement and motivation. Qureshi and Syed (2014) recommended that management needs to be aware of the effects of workplace surveillance on employee shame, engagement and motivation albeit organisational performance.

The research by Esmark, Noble, and Breazeale (2017) in the retail industry in India found that when shoppers are under monitoring, they can either temporarily and or permanently leave the shop due to reduction in purchasing interest. Research also found that the reactance theory explains how employees and or customers generally react negatively to surveillance systems while at work or while purchasing goods due to loss of privacy. Shamim et al. (2017) recommended that management needs to avoid showing that they are worried about their goods being stolen because of the effects of such surveillance on the employees and clients at large.

Pavone et al. (2017) reckoned that after the 9/11 attack, many organisations in the USA turned to surveillance cameras for security solutions. Much controversy emanates when employers are taking these surveillance cameras into the workplaces albeit employee privacy rights. The security solutions by means of technological surveillance received many negative comments from employees and the public at large. Firstly, the fact that the system stores data and enables pattern tracking and analysis causes pre-emptive

decision making, which may not necessarily be correct. In addition, employees in the nine European countries studied by this research challenge the credibility and impact of such workplace surveillance on crime reduction. In addition, the study concluded that when employees are working under workplace surveillance, they tend to feel powerless and caged. Tomczak et al. (2018) concluded that workplace surveillance thrives where there is lots of transparency and accountability.

Ball, Domenico and Nunan (2016) conducted a research focusing on the impact of what they called, "big data" practices on the subjects under surveillance who might not be aware that they are under surveillance at the workplace by various surveillance systems ushered in by the ever-changing technology. The scholars defined "big data" as high variety, high velocity and high volume technology assets that are cost effective in processing information for decision makers in organisations. The term "big data" is another word for surveillance, the word "big" in big data simply implies the data ubiquity, and total coverage on the subject such the gathered data is complete and precise. The term "big data" emerged to describe the types of massive data collection on the subjects using various applications with or without the subjects' knowledge. Under a big data system of data collection, the subject does not necessarily have to use the device or be very close to it for data to be collected but it can be collected passively and automatically on gadgets like cellphones, cars and laptops to mention but a few. Lopez-Valeiras et al. (2017) concluded that since data is passively gathered, ethical issues and implications on subjects' social life are contentious issues.

De Vries and Gelder (2015) carried out research focusing on employee workplace delinquency mediated by organisational characteristics and employee personality. A study was done using 455 respondents from many organisations in the USA retail industry with the focus on two characteristics of organisations, namely employee surveillance and organisational culture and three employee traits, namely

consciousness, honesty and humility. The study found that workplace delinquency is a cost to the organisation and that thefts by employees in the USA retail industry cost around USD$90 billion in 2014. The authors added that such a figure might be an understatement because it excludes some aspects of employee delinquency like theft on time, abuse of organisational phones, vandalism, and poor performance among others. Due to this, an organisation has every reason to put in place employee surveillance systems to avoid seen and unforeseen losses to the organisation. Qureshi and Syed (2014) found that employee surveillance and organisational culture and three employee traits, namely consciousness, honesty and humility, predict workplace delinquency in most organisations that rely much on robots and technology opposed to human labour.

Steinfeld (2017) conducted research to ascertain the levels of consent that employees may provide regarding workplace surveillance in organisations. The study noted the need to distinguish between private and public organisations' surveillance reiterating that public and state organisations have little or no room to give consent for workplace surveillance while private organisations do. They added that surveillance in private organisations comes with compensation to the subjects. The study opined that modern organisations, both private and public, make use of workplace surveillance in order to collect, store and analyse personal information about their subjects. The research noted that in private organisations, workplace surveillance is to improve service delivery while public and or state organisations use workplace surveillance to ensure that citizens are secure and their security is not threatened. Although workplace surveillance differs between public and private organisations, Steinfeld (2017) addressed surveillance issues as common and similar regardless of organisational ownership status. Tsakanikas and Dagiuklas (2017) added that the overall intention of such surveillance in both private and public organisations is to seek behaviour modification for employees and clients. Steinfeld (2017), using 512 respondents, conducted a survey in 2015 and noted that public workplace surveillance is a security

measure against issues like terrorism while private organisation workplace surveillance is against pilferage and bad employee behaviour.

Patsakis, Charemis, Papageorgiou, Mermigas, and Pirounias (2018) reiterated that in 2013 there was discovery of many mass surveillance footage and documents, causing many industrial and political debates over privacy, security and surveillance by Snowden in the USA. This research sought quantification of the noted privacy, security and surveillance issues on the value of the stock market for the involved organisations. The study found that there were no effects on the concerned organisation's stock share values due to surveillance issues raised. Schustera, Berg, Larrucea, Sleweb and Ide-Kostic (2017) found that the Snowden discovery of mass surveillance footages and documents caused many debates on privacy in connection with telecommunications and internet monitoring operations worldwide. The scholars added that due to globalisation and continuous improvement in technology, exposure of employees to surveillance in its various forms is on the rise. Due to massive internet surveillance, this study sought to find solutions to such surveillance with introduction of issues like anonymity and end-to-end encryption alongside policies that support such initiatives.

Kardas and Cicekli (2017) reckoned that 27 million Americans are subjects to electronic surveillance while at the workplace. It is the management's contention that they have the right to monitor the employees during the time they are at the premises doing the work. Employee representatives, workers' rights lawyers and workers' union leadership are against the workplace surveillance noting that it violates employee privacy. A study was conducted with a total of 823 respondents many of whom noted that workplace monitoring in any form is unacceptable and breeds tension between managers and employees. Mayer et al. (2017) found that in general, the general employees and those in managerial posts differed in their response to whether or not

workplace surveillance is ideal because general employees are against it while those in managerial posts support it.

In an attempt to attract more tourists, security is the key aspect in the tourism industry. In the wake of many terrorist attacks, the UK intensified its border security controls by putting in the program they call e-border (Dibb, Ball, Canhoto, Daniel, Meadows & Spiller, 2014). The main requirement for this initiative is for tourist carriers to gather and electronically send all particulars of people leaving and or entering the United Kingdom (UK). The research found that passenger and tourist carrier organisations try to contain the negative results of compliance and recover their interests at commercial rates through processes described as refashioning, rationalisation and recognising. Shamim et al. (2017) noted that in the hotel industry, tourist security is a priority if business is to boom.

Wright, Rodrigues, Raab, Jones, Szekely, Ball, Bellanova and Bergersen (2015) carried out research to proffer socio-political groups with the room and power to enquire about the surveillance issues at their various stations and workplaces. The research concluded that it is necessary to question surveillance in order to determine user-friendly policies, usage of data collected and training programmes for productivity. Briefly, the employees or general populace must question the logic behind any surveillance put in place on how it works, its repercussions and after effects. Esmark et al. (2017) reckoned that issues to do with privacy invasion and human rights need attention.

4.7 Importance of workplace surveillance

Research by Allmer (2012) discovered that the explanations for the widespread workplace surveillance in organisations vary. The most predominant reason is that due to globalisation, new technology is now easily available to the employers at affordable

prices. There are many more reasons why workplace surveillance is on the rise. Research by Marwick (2012) on daily surveillance concluded that there are about three main reasons why companies employ workplace surveillance on their employees. These reasons are, first, to obtain information necessary for performance appraisals. Second, to check if the organisation is still complying with legal requirements in their operation. Third, to control costs and manage legal liability. Varian (2014) also noted that the main reason for such surveillance is to protect the information that sustains the organisation, and ensures organisational safety and security.

Allmer (2012) is of the view that the rate at which technology is bringing in various modes of surveillance is posing higher chances of negative impacts of such surveillance on employees. With the emergency of such negative impacts of surveillance on employees, it is important for the decision makers to take note of this and employ measure to minimise such negative effects lest employees become demotivated and disengaged (Fuchs 2013).

4.8 Effects of workplace surveillance on employees

A research study done by Zuboff (2015) found that workplace surveillance has negative effects on employee motivation and engagement and affects the overall organisational performance. The scholar added that the surveillance employed takes away employees' rights to privacy, thereby affecting employee work-life-balance. Workplace surveillance makes employees feel caged, spied on and as objects of work. Fuchs (2013) also found that a number of companies have been sued by employees for invading their privacy with certain surveillance equipment. The legal actions sought by employees against their employers have raised notable awareness among employers of workplace surveillance risks. Marwick (2012) added that workplace surveillance negatively affects employee morale and employee relations at the workplace. As a result, Fuchs (2013)

later added that low employee morale and poor employee relations have a strong negative impact on the organisation's objectives.

Zuboff (2015) discovered that in instances where installation of workplace surveillance is without employee consent, it resulted in low morale and affected employee engagement with the most impact being a failure by organisations to meet their envisaged targets. Varian (2014) added that the negative impacts of workplace surveillance are more noticeable in the variables that have a close relationship with production, like employee turnover, job satisfaction, employee motivation, and employee engagement – all resulting in employee absenteeism. The author added that the proponents of workplace surveillance urge management, when employing such surveillance on employees, to be aware of the negative effects of the surveillance, which ranges from stress to other health-related matters.

Zuboff (2015) conducted research that focused on the effect that workplace computer surveillance has on employee satisfaction and labour turnover. The research comprised 91 respondents for the interviews and these included managers, supervisors and employees at the Internal Revenue Service department in the USA. First, the research study found that workplace computer surveillance was key in these studied offices with all respondents reiterating that such surveillance is critical for their jobs. Second, the research found that the attitudes that employees have towards workplace surveillance is determined by the amount of feedback they receive from the surveillance process. Third, the research found that workplace surveillance is important for controlling work processes and giving feedback to employees. Fuchs (2013) said that the major factor in workplace surveillance research is that employee attitudes, turnover and perceptions are determined by how such surveillance installation is being utilised and managed.

Brands and Schwanen (2014) are of the view that the perception of fairness in the surveillance procedure is a strong mediating variable to how employees react to

workplace surveillance. They noted that when employees feel that the surveillance procedure is fair on all employees, they tend to accept the use of the selected workplace surveillance method. The scholars further added that fairness perceptions about the workplace surveillance procedure by the employees are strongly influenced by how the system is consistently applied across all employees, employee input on the installation and development of the system and how the system is accurate in data collection. Fuchs (2013) added that all the negative impacts of workplace surveillance revealed by literature are critical in assisting management to determine the right decision when applying workplace surveillance on employees.

4.9 Why the panoptic theory of surveillance?

Despite the criticism levelled against the panoptic theory of surveillance, this study adopted the panoptic theory of surveillance because it advocates productivity and efficiency, which are essential for an organisation in dire need of meeting its mandate. Varian (2014) is of the view that Foucault's analysis of panoptic surveillance can be effectively applied in modern organisation management and processes since it emphasises the need for discipline in workforce. The author added that without discipline, management loses control of the workforce and this can affect planning, organising, managing and ultimately control, which have a direct impact on the organisational target. Research by Marwick (2012) concluded that the term panoptic translates to mean the ability to see everything, see anything at all times. This interpretation assisted this study in deriving the issues on how the organisation can meet its mandate of facilitating smooth movement and travel of goods and people.

Brands and Schwanen (2014) noted that there is need for modern organisations to employ the panoptic thinking when managing their organisations. They went on to say that the power dynamics posed by the shareholders must be carefully considered by

any modern employer since that can impede employee motivation and engagement. Marwick (2012) was more concerned with the shift that Foucault has on surveillance, shifting from the goal of organisational government to the mode of organisational government. Marwick (2012) added that for Foucault the most important goal is organisational prosperity but the governance mode must shift from a sovereign society to a disciplined society. This implies a shift from general societal surveillance to specific individual surveillance (Brands & Schwanen, 2014). By adopting this thinking for this study would help ZIMRA management to have more time to assess individual activities and help them find solutions to slow turnaround times at the border posts.

Brands and Schwanen (2014) concluded that, according to Foucault, the results of a disciplinary or panoptic approach to surveillance is called *normation*. This implies that the process that leads to creation of rituals, habits and the way of doing things at work creates norms of work behaviour. This assisted this research in that it helped to identify the norms that are needed by ZIMRA in managing all the unwanted underhand activities that have a negative impact on its mandate. Zuboff (2015) added that during the normation process, the central concept is norm and for an employee to be regarded normal, they have to conform to the requirements of the organisation. This argument assisted this study in ushering positive work behaviour norms, which the organisation requires for meeting its mandate without affecting employee motivation and engagement, through the use of various forms of surveillance.

In conclusion, the concept of surveillance was propounded by Foucault in 1977 taking a panoptic approach of defining surveillance as negative cohesive, repressive and disciplinary. However, criticism of Foucault (1977) emanated from the non-panoptic theories that defined surveillance from a neutral and general notion stating that everyone has an equal chance to employ surveillance on the other for organisational success. This chapter clarified different definitions for the theory of surveillance as

provided by the literature in the theoretical foundation. The non-panoptic surveillance theories adopted a general and neutral view of surveillance.

CHAPTER FIVE

EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with employee engagement as a research construct with much emphasis on theoretical and empirical literature. Reasons for choosing the theory are provided. Further, the focus is on how this construct fares in the presence of workplace surveillance mediated by employee motivation in organisations.

5.2 Theoretical literature review

This section presents the theoretical framework that guided the study on employee engagement. The focus was on Kahn's (1990) theory of employee engagement. This theory assisted the research in understanding how employee engagement fares in organisations that use a lot of workplace surveillance mediated by employee motivation.

5.3 Kahn's (1990) theory of employee engagement

Kahn (1990) reckoned that employee engagement denotes the degree to which employees articulate themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically when doing their work. The employees' beliefs about the working environment, management and the organisation itself will denote their cognitive engagement (Roberts & David, 2017). When referring to how the employee treats and feels towards the working environment, management and the organisation, Kahn (1990) identified that as emotional engagement. Kahn (1990) also stated that the degree to which an employee puts effort, energy and passion into their job is the physical engagement. These three dimensions to

employee engagement are critical since they enable management to understand why some employees who are working under the same environment as others can perform differently (Roberts & David, 2017).

5.3.1 Cognitive engagement

Sibanda et al. (2014) are of the view that cognitive engagement denotes a situation where an employee expresses a certain attitude towards the work environment, management and the organisation itself. Sibanda et al. (2014) added that an employee is cognitively engaged in their work when all the aspects of the work fascinate that employee. According to Roberts and David (2017), employees who are cognitively engaged in their work can effectively reach their targets despite the presence of detractors. This assertion assisted the researcher of this study in understanding why certain employees at ZIMRA continue to be motivated about and engaged in their work despite a detractor called workplace surveillance while other do not continue to do so. Shin and Biocca (2017) are of the view that employees have a tendency of showing high levels of cognitive engagement in their work when management show that they trust them and subject them to less or no workplace surveillance.

Nakamura (2015) added that cognitive engagement is also known as rational engagement or intellectual commitment. This is the type of engagement exhibited by the employees towards their work and the organisation as a whole. The aspect of role and goal clarity is also critical in understanding cognitive engagement at the workplace. Shellenbarger (2013) noted that cognitive engagement has more to do with how an employee understands their impact and contribution to the organisational goals and objectives. This implies that when employees regard themselves as key in the realisation of organisation goals and objectives, they tend to engage themselves in doing their work.

5.3.2 Emotional engagement

Kahn (1990) described employee emotional engagement as the relationship that exists between an employee's beliefs, feelings and the work, which will ultimately drive eagerness to accomplish related tasks. Sibanda et al. (2014) concluded that when more cases of emotional burnout arise at a workplace, this shows that employees are not emotionally engaged in their work. Nakamura (2015) conducted research on the aspect of using the mobile phone while engaging in a discussion with one's manager in relation to non-verbal communication and behaviour. The research adopted Kahn's (1990) definition of emotional engagement and the findings were that when an employee is under workplace surveillance during working hours, this can greatly compromise the employee's emotional engagement in their work. This theory drove the success of this research when analysing the degree to which ZIMRA employees are engaged in their work emotionally in the presence of workplace surveillance.

Shellenbarger (2013) is of the view that an employee's emotional engagement declines when the employee is under frequent monitoring. Nakamura (2015) noted that emotional engagement at times is called affective engagement. The author went on to note that affective engagement simply implies the instincts that lead an employee to react to any work-related stimuli. Sibanda et al. (2014) added that affective engagement can be taken as a post cognitive effect where reactions that can be considered affective like commitment, trust, disliking and liking are a result of prior emotional relationships in the workplace.

5.3.3 Physical engagement

The energy employed by an employee towards work is what Kahn (1990) called physical engagement. Shoko and Zinyemba (2014) noted that an employee's physical engagement ranges from lack of energy and enthusiasm to energetic and spirited involvement in work. In a study that was done by Kahn (1990), one of the participants allocated her work to a workmate while another was seen lying down when he was

actually supposed to be doing his work. This theory greatly assisted this study in identifying those factors that make employees at ZIMRA feel physically disengaged in their work. Research by Przybylski and Weinstein (2012) seems to agree that the distraction that employees experience under workplace surveillance has a strong negative bearing on their physical engagement. Przybylski and Weinstein (2012) went on to note that physical engagement can also be referred to as behavioural engagement which shows the degree to which an employee adapts to their work for organisational effectiveness. Shoko and Zinyemba (2014) later added that this behavioural or physical engagement can easily be observed through physical actions that an employee engages in like innovation, participation and performance that is over and above set targets.

As a concluding remark, the employee engagement theory by Kahn (1990) was used by many previous researches as discussed above. The theory helped this study to unlock employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement at ZIMRA.

5.3.4   Critique to Kahn's (1990) theory of employee engagement?

According to Wefald (2012) the main limitation with Kahn (1990) theory of engagement is that it does not sufficiently address employee burnout issues that are critical in defining an engaged employee. It is also criticised for failing to allude to employee engagement outside the workplace and Remo (2012) reiterate that employee engagement cannot be divorced from the happenings of social life and any conceptualisation of the construct which ignores this is limited in its scope. Remo, N. (2012) added that Kahn (1990) is limited in that he defines and perceive engagement as a specific state and momentary which is constant yet individuals react differently on different days. The theory is also limited in that it focus on the impact of the workplace environment and the person as determinants of engagement yet there are micro factors

like political and economic variables that impact and assists in defining employee engagement (Parker, Jimmieson, & Amiot, 2010).

5.3.5 Why Kahn's (1990) theory of employee engagement?

This theory assisted this research in meeting its objectives since other researchers who have used it before successfully obtained their results. Li and Tan (2013) conducted research on the effect of management approach on employee trust guided by Kahn's (1990) sentiments that employee engagement can be defined cognitively, emotionally and physically. They found that the more management trusts their employees, the more the employees freely take decisions and own up without any fear of victimisation. Shin and Biocca (2017) also applied Kahn's (1990) work in their study on how employee engagement is affected by management's usage of smartphone technology in monitoring them at the workplace. Their study found that the management approach negatively affects employee engagement, which is in line with Kahn's (1990) definition. The study also found that emotionally, employees felt the effects of the smartphone technology they were subjected to for surveillance by their supervisors.

Roberts and David (2017) noted that this theory can effectively be used in analysing electronic surveillance at the workplace. In their research on the impact of supervisor phubbing on employee trust and engagement, the scholars found that the theory was of great importance in analysing the relationship between employee trust and such surveillance at work. Since the current research focused on how employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement, this theory was of great value in this regard. Li and Tan (2013) added that employee engagement is a continual and positive state of the mind towards one's work and is not a once off occurrence. When an employee is engaged to work, they find all the reasons and personal meaning in attaining good work output, which then results in

organisational success (Shin & Biocca, 2017). Employees tend to employ their cognitive, physical and emotional capabilities when they feel their work is secure, meaningful and challenging (Roberts & David, 2017).

5.4 Empirical literature review

Under this section, the focus is on previous research conducted on employee engagement as research construct, which this study also investigated. The empirical literature referred to studies done in Zimbabwe, if any, for the research construct under this study. The discussion on findings of previous studies forms a central part of this section and leads to the construction of the hypotheses of the study.

5.5 Employee engagement

Management assumptions on how employees feel about their work is of paramount importance in employee management (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). Research done by Nakamura (2015) found that the main challenge in defining this concept is that there is no common agreed definition. Przybylski and Weinstein (2012) noted that in most cases, the definition of this concept encompasses physical, emotional and cognitive components. The cognitive facet of employee engagement encompasses the belief that the employee has about the organisation, the working conditions and its management. The emotional aspect of employee engagement encompasses an employee's feelings about the organisation, its values, its leadership, the working conditions and a work attitude that is positive. The energy employed by an employee towards work is what Kahn (1990) called physical engagement. Roberts and David (2017) noted that an employee's physical engagement ranges from lack of energy and enthusiasm to energetic and spirited involvement in work.

Przybylski and Weinstein (2012) opined that the literature poses various definitions for employee engagement. Kahn (1990) coined the most popular definition, which also guided this study. Khan (1990) noted that employee engagement denotes the degree to which an employee expresses and employs themselves to work emotionally, cognitively and physically. Roberts and David (2017) went on to say that when an employee is disengaged from work, that employee withdraws from doing work and will defend themselves emotionally, cognitively and physically. According to this definition by Kahn (1990), employee engagement implies that the employee is psychologically present at work. Shin and Biocca (2017), however, noted that there are researchers on burnout who suggested that the term engagement is the opposite of burnout. Their definition of employee engagement notes that it is work related, fulfilling and a positive mind-set characterised by absorption, dedication and vigour.

According to Przybylski and Weinstein (2012), there are three popular organisations in human resources management that also contributed to defining employee engagement. These scholars noted that the first popular organisation is Perrin's Global Workforce Study, which is of the view that employee engagement denotes the employee's ability and keenness in contributing to the success of the organisation through applying voluntary labour. They further stated that the second popular organisation is the Gallup Organisations group which defined employee engagement as the degree to which an employee is enthusiastic about and involved in work. The third popular organisation is the Institute of Employment Studies, which defines this concept as that positive attitude in employees for the organisation, and the values associated with that organisation. Shellenbarger (2013) concluded that an employee who is engaged in their work strives to see the organisation succeeding in its context and environment. Li and Tan (2013) also echoed this view.

Ruck et al. (2017) contended that in an effort to attain effectiveness, competitiveness and innovation, it is important for an organisation to recognise and invest in employee engagement. These scholars conducted research to ascertain the link that exists between employee engagement and internal communication in an organisation amongst 2066 respondents from five organisations based in the UK. They made use of a structured questionnaire for their study. Similar research was done by Shin and Biocca (2017), adopting an employee centred approach so as to ascertain the degree of satisfaction employees have in airing their views to management and how employers react to such views. The study found that there is a positive relationship between employee engagement and employee voice.

Employee engagement is an undisputed key component to organisational success, with Lemon and Palenchar (2018) claiming that employee engagement compounded with two-way communication is ideal for an organisation destined for success. Ruck et al. (2017) investigated how two-way communication enhances and affects how employees experience engagement at their work. A total of 32 respondents were selected for this study which adopted a conceptual framework known as zones of meaning in examining the zones of engagement meanings that are continuously shifting, shared and complex in nature. The study also sought to determine how zones of meaning drive employee engagement. The study found that employee engagement experiences were in line with Kahn's (1990) view that engagement can be at physical, emotional and cognitive levels. The scholars further found that work meaning and safety conditions in employees are psychological conditions that show how employees engage in their work and the meaning they attach to that work.

Aldatmaz, Ouimet, and Van Wesep (2018) conducted a research in the USA's financial services sector organisations on how an employee broad-based stock approach affects employee engagement. The study found that the organisations who adopt a broad-based employee stock option (BBESO) do so on the premise that such a plan enhances

employee engagement and ultimately their productivity. Lemon and Palenchar (2018) added that if this plan is to lead to employee engagement, its design must be mutually accepted and clearly defined and adopted. The study by Aldatmaz et al. (2018) spelt out that there is need for considerations since such plans do not allow employees to sell their shares while they are in employment and this may act as a source of negative engagement. Research recommended that negative engagement is an issue that requires closer management attention if it is to be noticed due to its nature and negative impact on productivity. The findings also revealed that where implementation of such is necessary, employees become very much engaged leading to high productivity. However, the scholars noted that this scheme is more effective in small organisations than big organisations. Aldatmaz et al. (2018) went on to add that in most cases, organisations offer their employees broad-based employee stock options. These stock options intend to ensure that employees do not leave the organisation unless and until the stock options vest. If an employee decides to leave the organisation before vesting of the options, that employee automatically loses the options to the organisation.

It therefore follows that a reduction in labour turnover is highly expected in all granting organisations (Aldatmaz et al. 2018). The study sought to show that granting organisations usually experience a fall in employee turnover after a broad-based employee stock option is in place. Temporary stable labour turnover appears in the second year but after three years of granting the stock, labour turnover increases because such options expire after three years. The study concluded that broad-based employment stock is a plan that does not prevent labour turnover but delays it. The study also found that when competitors identify an employee they want who is under stock option, they poach such an employee and offer signing for a bonus. Lemon and Palenchar (2018) conclude that such poaching makes the stock option plan unsuitable for ensuring a cure for labour turnover, calling for continued strategy review on employee engagement.

A study by Backmann, Cornelissen and Krakel (2017) focused on the impact of an employee self-managed working approach on employee engagement and motivation. The study was done in Germany and their study hypothesised that self-management enhances employee engagement and intrinsic motivation manifests in the form of a positive work attitude. However, the study found that in the selected respondents, lack of supervision affected work output. The study also found that intrinsic motivation drives employee engagement under an employee self-management approach. Aldatmaz et al. (2018) concluded that when managers delegate and give autonomy to the workers, it is a significant engagement booster

Potoski and Calley (2018) reiterated that an increase in the employee morale, employee socialisation and environmental working conditions can be facilitated by the environmental employee engagement programmes in most organisations. Backmann ET AL. (2017) stressed that it is of great concern to note that such programmes may not always yield the anticipated results because in some cases employees doubt the authenticity of a programme, making the programme irrelevant in attaining employees' engagement in their work. On the contrary, the research by Potoski and Calley (2018) found peer communication programmes to be an effective tool in enhancing employee engagement in most organisations

Jena, Pradhan, and Panigrahy (2017) carried out a study to investigate the impact of transformational leadership and psychological well-being on the link that exists between workplace trust and employee engagement. The analysis of results followed the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) approach and it concluded that trust levels for the executive management increase when employees perceive that there is meaningful transformational leadership, psychological well-being and employee engagement from the organisation. Lemon and Palenchar (2018) noted that when employees are engaged in their work, that is a sign of their commitment and trust to the cause of the

organisation. The research by Jena et al. (2017) reiterated that engaged employees drive organisational success through a positive, proactive work attitude despite inhibiting working conditions.

A study by Buchko, Buschar, and Buchko (2017) to ascertain why employees do not leave bad employers contended that the best way to manage employees in an organisation is for management to be approachable and friendly to the subordinates. Management is to nurture a conducive working environment characterised by loyalty and trust if employee engagement is the goal. Their research went on to conclude that organisations like Google and South West Airlines are typical examples of organisations that thrive on employee engagement. Mackay, Allen and Landis (2017) noted that an abusive organisation is one that callously disrespects its employees. In such organisations, management through fear, harassment and threats characterises the management approach in the organisation. The study found that the reasons why employees stay in a bad organisation are similar to reasons why people stay in abusive relationships. In such scenarios, employees would have developed a tolerance syndrome while they are negatively engaged pursuing their interests during organisation time. This is the highest level of physical, cognitive and emotional disengagement, which can make an organisation lose its market share when not timeously managed.

Kwon, Farndale and Park (2016) denoted that various forms of employee voice are critical elements to employee engagement. The perceptions that employees have on their voice practices at work positively affect the levels to which they are engaged in their work. When employees feel that their voice is heard at the workplace in most issues and concerns that affect their work, they will be more engaged in their work. Aldatmaz et al. (2018) concluded that historically, employee voice practices bordered around indirect employee voice platforms through trade unions in sessions like

collective bargaining but recently, many organisations are opting for more direct means like manager-employee meetings, sporting teams, work-attitude surveys and open door schemes, among others. The direct employee voice platforms do not necessarily eliminate the indirect ways. Both direct and indirect employee voice platforms positively affect employee engagement.

Mackay et al. (2017) conducted a study to account for any likely overlaps in work attitudes mediated by the incremental validity of employee engagement. The study found that employee engagement has a mediating effect on incremental validity. This relationship was glaring when predicting employee commitment, work involvement, job attitude and satisfaction and how effective an employee is in doing the work. The study also found that employee engagement correlates with high work attitude and that employee engagement is important in analysing employee attitudes at work, which are critical in the overall performance. On the same note, Soderlund (2017) conducted a research study to examine the impact of employee burnout and engagement on client satisfaction. The study adopted an experimental approach where employee engagement and burnout were associated with client satisfaction through an analysis of quality of service. The study found that disengaged employees had more cases of burnout and that had a negative effect on client satisfaction. This was because disengaged employees were more susceptible to burnout due to a high negative emotional state leading to ultimate poor organisational performance.

Bailey (2016) concluded that having an engaged workforce is the most discussed topic in human resources management at a global level and so is the survey and research interest in that area. For the past decade, employee engagement has become dominant in employee relations practitioners. Bailey (2016) alleged that a simple Google search yields more than 30 million hits with service providers costing US$1billion estimated market value for employee engagement surveys. Mackay et al. (2017) reiterated that

among the reasons for this high interest in employee engagement subject is that employee engagement brings with it many benefits to the organisations. Such benefits include but are not limited to increased production, improved profitability, reduction in labour turnover and absenteeism and enhanced overall organisational performance.

Perryer, Celestine, Scott-Ladd and Leighton (2016) are of the view that the term gamification has a great impact on employee motivation and engagement. The term explains how to apply features of digital games in contexts that are non-gaming. The term gained popularity due to its influence on employee engagement in and motivation to work. This concept has a positive impact on intrinsic motivation and hence the need for organisations to employ it on their employees. The research study focused on the impact of game application on employee engagement and motivation enhancement with the emphasis being on the organisational performance. Bailey (2016) added that the term was first coined in 2002 by Nick Pelling who is a game designer based in UK and who noted that the term refers to the use of game-like user interface accelerated to ensure that all transactions that are electronic in nature are faster and exciting to the employees. The concept and its techniques are useful in motivating and engaging the team members in behaving in a particular way that is of interest to the organisation.

A research study by Gawke, Marjan, Gorgievski and Bakker (2017) concluded that organisations have noted that for effective adaptation to environmental opportunities, there is a need to harness employee entrepreneurial activities. The studies conducted by theses authors amongst 351 public service employees found a positive relationship between employee intrapreneurship and organisational performance mediated by employee engagement. The studies further found that there is a positive relationship between employee engagement, human resources and entrepreneurial behaviour in an organisation. The two findings of the study made Soderlund (2017) conclude that any

efforts to improve one of these variables directly leads to improvements in other two variables and overall organisational performance.

Sievert and Scholz (2017) conducted a survey amongst 500 organisations in Germany to ascertain the effect in organisational social media of trust in employee engagement. The rate at which employees are becoming disengaged at work is a cause for concern for employers who need to ensure that the employees are engaged in their work for productivity. Potoski and Calley (2018) added that modern technology and social media is another platform that employers need to manage in establishing employee engagement. This study found that employee engagement promotion is by social media usage while such a tool is effective in an environment where there is little trust in employee engagement. Sievert and Scholz, (2017) further stated that in the ever changing and disengaged world of work where public relations and communication professionals aim at securing strong connections between individuals, employee engagement investments are key when employee performance is to be realised. It is important to note that inside and outside organisational set-ups, employees connect via multiple social media platforms like chatrooms, online posts and blogs. These platforms assist employees in being engaged in many discussions and topics. It is in line with such engagements attained that organisations adopted the social media for the same purpose.

Research by Whiteoak and Mohamed (2016) adopted a survey approach and focus group discussions in ascertaining how workplace safety informs employee engagement at work among 227 employees in the Australian Asphalt and Pavement Industry. The research findings show that more shifts work and changes in job sites enhance tacit safety at the workplace which ultimately enhances employee engagement levels at work. The study by Saks (2017) also concluded that employee foresight predicts positive engagement and slight improvement in workplace safety positively affects and

improves employee engagement, with organisational productivity then also being improved.

Saks (2017) noted that in as much as more emerging literature on employee engagement has been generated in the past decade, more surveys done on employee engagement report a notable decline in employee engagement levels at global level. This trend reveals that many organisations are not putting in practice the research recommendations on employee engagement. The research notes the following five challenges that impede most organisations from implementing employee engagement practices:

- First, organisations fail to define employee engagement.
- Second, organisations fail to decide on the most appropriate employee engagement referent.
- Third, organisations do not know how to measure employee engagement.
- Fourth, organisations do not know what drives employee engagement.
- Fifth, organisations do not know how to develop an employee engagement strategy.

Soderlund (2017) went on to argue that any organisation that surpasses these challenges noted by Saks (2017) will most likely have engaged employees and realise organisational goals. Huang, Lee, McFadden, Murphy, Robertson, Cheung and Zohar (2016) are of the view that the degree to which employees feel safe in the workplace can be referred to as the workplace safety climate and it is a very important variable in promoting an accident-free workplace.

The study adopted a social exchange theory and a hypothesis formulated to the effect that a safety climate positively relates to labour turnover, employee engagement and job satisfaction. A survey amongst 6207 truck drivers from two USA organisations in the trucking business found that the safety climate positively relates to labour turnover,

employee engagement and job satisfaction and this is in conjunction with the social exchange theory. The study also found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the safety climate and two HR outcomes, namely labour turnover and employee engagement. Sharma, Goel and Sengupta (2017) added that workplace safety is key to employee engagement in any organisation and management needs to invest much in engagement programmes.

Sharma et al. (2017), in their study, sought to find how the elements of demography like education, tenure, experience, income, age, marital status and gender affect employee engagement elements, namely absorption, dedication and vigour. A total of 303 respondents who work in an Indian IT industry participated in the research and the data revealed that education, experience and age affect work engagement. The study further revealed that income, tenure, marital status and gender do not affect employee engagement. The Pearson correlation showed that employee engagement relates to experience, education and age. In addition, regression analysis revealed that education and gender predict employee engagement. Saks (2017) also noted that such findings by Sharma et al. (2017) are useful in the IT industry since they show that men are more engaged in their work compared to women and that level of education predicts employee engagement.

Jung and Yoon (2016) opined that a question can be asked on what constitutes work, what it really is and what it is not. Many people opine that they take up job or work offers so that they get remuneration for a living. What is really surprising is that even those who have enough money to make a living still want to work. Work gives a sense of fulfilment and is significant to human life (Ruck et al., 2017). The motivation for the study by Jung and Yoon (2016) derives from the question that sought to find the dimensions and meaning that work has among those in the hospitality industry and to identify those key variables that make the employees engaged in their work. Data was

collected from 352 respondents from the hospitality industry in South Korea. The study found that the meaning employees attach to their jobs positively informs their engagement in and commitment to their work and the organisation at large. The study further unveiled that expressive orientation and entitlement norms do not affect employee engagement while job security, obligation norms, economic orientation and workplace relationships positively influence employee engagement in their work.

Lowry (2016) noted that most employers contend that their employees do not like listening to given instructions. Some employers claim that employees only adhere to new regulations for a few days and then they revert back to their old ways of doing business, while other employers note that employees deliberately ignore clearly laid down organisational policies and procedures. The research among employees in the Indian banking sector by Lowry (2016) found that the main causes of such contentions by employers are threefold. First, is the fact that employers have challenges in clearly setting out their expectations from the employees. Second, in cases where employers fail to communicate their anticipations from employees, they still want them to account for that. Finally, employers rarely hold employees accountable for failure to observe laid down rules and procedures. Byrne and Canato (2017) are of the view that, overall, there is a need to ascertain that clear communication is conveyed right the first time.

Byrne and Canato (2017) concluded that for the past decades, it has become commonplace that organisations try to invest in employees' work-life balance in order to manage employee engagement. Globalisation has also forced many organisations to come up with initiatives to manage employee engagement with few available resources. Doing business successfully in this global village calls for an organisation to make sure that the employees are highly involved, engaged and committed to their work. Lowry (2016) posited that to attain such a relationship between work life balance and employee engagement, calls for employees whose mind-set is positive, flexible to change and

adaptive to an ever changing business environment. This is most feasible when employers take care of the well-being of their employees and manage their work-life balance. Emphasis on the interface between work-life balance and employee engagement is essential.. Research by Byrne and Canato (2017) found that there is a positive relationship between employee engagement and work-life balance friendly policies. The study concluded that family centred and flexible workplaces positively inform employee engagement and these engaged employees take this positive enthusiasm and energetic mood home from work. When an employee is engaged in their work, they are active, perform better and are a satisfied employee. An organisation with an engaged workforce is highly resilient and agile and is a healthy workplace.

The study by Muceldili and Erdil (2016) sought to champion the need for fun at the workplace. The study appreciated that fun is a critical component in cementing friendship, physical, cognitive and emotional engagement. The research was conducted among 195 respondents who do white collar jobs to assess the relationship that exists between taking charge and having fun at the workplace. The study also set to assess the effect of fun at the workplace on employee engagement mediated by taking charge at the workplace. The study found taking charge and employee engagement to be positively related to workplace fun among white-collar job employees. The scholars encouraged employers to build an engaged workforce through workplace fun. Lemon and Palenchar (2018) found that employee engagement improves when employees give input on work processes and solutions

Research was done by Van der Walt (2018) to ascertain the level at which spiritual workplaces can improve thriving and employee engagement at work among small, medium and macro enterprises (SMMEs) in South Africa. A sample of 259 respondents was used for the cross-sectional survey. The study found that a positive relationship exist between workplace thriving, employee engagement and workplace spirituality.

The study recommended that if SMMEs and other organisations in general are to ensure employee engagement and workplace thriving, there is need to create spiritual workplaces to foster positive work relationships and maximize productivity. Aldatmaz et al. (2018) supported this finding by reiterating the need for organisations to embrace diversity and religion at the workplace.

Urban (2017) conducted research on the importance of employee engagement, noting that it is paramount for any employer to have employees who are responsible towards their work. The study focused on a system developed from an employee engagement point of view at Kyocera. The study concluded that at least four measures need to be place if such measures are to be implemented in the parastatals. First, employers need to give employees the autonomy in executing their tasks. Second, a proper accounting system needs to be in place. Third, an inner prices system needs to be introduced and lastly, organisational principles must be clearly set. Aldatmaz et al. (2018) added that employee engagement and reduction in labour turnover can be achieved by giving unvested rewards such that leaving the organisation becomes a big loss. The unvested stock is critical in enhancing employee engagement since they are worth much more in situations where an employee is considering taking offers from outside the organisation.

5.6 Importance of employee engagement

A study by Shin and Biocca (2017) on a personal informatics health model found that the importance of employee engagement could not be underestimated since it has an impact on the overall organisational performance. It is a positive on its own for an organisation to have engaged employees since such engagement positively affects client satisfaction, employee turnover, work performance, work attitude, productivity and profit. Research has shown that organisational outcomes hinge on employee

engagement and management approach is important in making sure it succeeds. When employees are not trusted at work and are under surveillance, they tend to be less motivated and more disengaged which is to the detriment of organisational performance. Research by Nakamura (2015) has shown that autocratic management and the use of various forms of workplace surveillance work against the employee engagement intentions.

Kahn (1990) stated that employees who are engaged in their work are innovative and pursue organisational goals. To this idea, Shellenbarger (2013) added that engaged employees generate new knowledge that is vital for organisational success and they have the zeal to perform. Employees who are engaged in their work are very energetic, attentive to detail and are very enthusiastic. Khan and Iqbal (2013) noted that when employees are not engaged in their work they do not see meaning in their work.

Research by Esty and Gewirt (2012) found that employees who are engaged in their work are very stable and comfortable in their duties. The findings of the research noted that at least 66% of the employees who were highly engaged had no intention to quit their jobs against 36% of employees who were fairly engaged in their work, with only 12% disengaged respondents. Przybylski and Weinstein (2012) said that employees who are engaged in their work are the real advocates of their organisations and such employees can encourage their colleagues to purchase products and services from this organisation. However, Shellenbarger (2013) noted that when an organisation has disengaged employees, such employees are not different from "organisational terrorists". Such organisational terrorists will be at the forefront of discouraging their relatives and friends from joining their organisation or from buying anything from their organisation.

Literature has further shown that workplace surveillance increases stress levels amongst employees, leading to employee demotivation and disengagement. According

to Nakamura (2015), Montreal Management Science Consulting conducted research on stress monitoring among telephone and machine operators in a Canadian Telecommunications organisation. All the respondents in this study had their phone calls put under surveillance. Of these respondents, 50% said that such surveillance stressed them and they almost quit their jobs. Shellenbarger (2013) stated that high stress levels do not only affect organisational productivity but has also have a negative bearing on employee motivation and engagement levels. Such levels of stress will manifest through health complaints, absenteeism, labour turnover and disengagement from work.

Yerby (2013) noted that if employers are to have an efficient and safe working environment, they must keep an eye on the activities of their employees lest the organisation is exposed to harmful acts. Rosenblat et al. (2014) added that such surveillance can negatively affect employee engagement levels since in most cases such surveillance tools are put in place with little or no consultations done with the employees. Samaranayake and Gamage (2012) carried out a survey amongst organisations in Sri Lanka that develop software. The general conclusion of their study was that many software organisations use electronic surveillance to monitor their employees at work and that employees do not like such surveillance. A study recently conducted in Zimbabwe only focused on the effect of organisational commitment and employee engagement amongst the National Institutions of Higher learning (Shoko & Zinyemba, 2014). No empirical research has been conducted to date on the relationship between employee motivations, workplace surveillance and employee engagement in Zimbabwe.

Bakar (2013) also carried out a study using the triangulation approach. The study focused on the need to unearth the factors that influence employee engagement levels in the Malaysian financial sector. The study revealed that employees are not engaged in

their work when continuously being monitored. The researcher recommended that future studies be carried out in developing countries with much emphasis on variables that affect employee engagement. The recommendation came after the findings showed that levels of employee engagement can be affected by the environment in which an organisation operates and the management styles in place. This study sought to close this gap in literature.

Ariani (2013) conducted research to ascertain the relationship that exists between organisational behaviour, employee engagement and counterproductive work behaviour. The study was conducted in Yogyakarta in Indonesia with 507 respondents receiving a questionnaire to complete for the study. The study concluded that counterproductive work behaviour thrives when employees are not engaged in their work. In order to close the gap in literature, the scholar recommended that further research be done making use of other variables that can affect employee engagement in public organisations since they deal with different types of clients requiring employees who are highly engaged in their work.

Sherri and Fountain (2012) carried out an exploratory study using structured questionnaires and convenience sampling at Arts University in North Carolina in the United States. The study sought to explore employee feelings about employed workplace surveillance. It revealed that employees dislike workplace surveillance, claiming that it violates their right to privacy and that it negatively affects their engagement levels and ultimate work performance. Moussa (2015) further noted that the presence of workplace surveillance has a direct negative impact on the trust the employees have in their employer. When such trust is negatively affected, disengagement will be the result which is to the detriment of the organisation's success. Currently, no study has been conducted in Zimbabwe to explain how employee motivation mediates between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. To

close this gap in literature, Moussa (2015) recommended a study that focuses on how much surveillance management can employ on their employees without affecting their engagement levels while improving on workplace trust.

5.7 Employee engagement drivers

Research by Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) alluded that employee engagement drivers are of critical importance to both practitioners and theorists. Sarwar and Abugre (2013) reiterated that employee engagement drivers are more critical to management in dire need to identify the critical elements that can ensure their employees are engaged in their work for sustainable competitive advantage.

Sarwar and Abugre (2013) noted that some theoretical research exists on the drivers needed for effective employee engagement but that there is limited empirical academic research on such drivers. In as much as there is lack of applied and empirical academic literature on the drivers to effective employee engagement, at least two general areas are realisable and these are cognitive and affective factors. The affective factors encompass the emotional and social factors while cognitive factors encompass rational evaluations or appraisals. Roos and Van Eeden (2013) opined that it is important to note that the most critical driver of effective employee engagement is transformational leadership. The key aspect with transformational leadership is that it is critical in all three dimensions of engagement discussed above. Mutenherwa (2012) stressed that transformation leadership is important in driving employee engagement. The author added that this is because it has a direct impact on how employees feel at the workplace. Mutemererwa (2012) further argued that effective management of employee emotions is critical in managing employee engagement because when employees feel that they are considered, they can work extra hours. However, it is interesting to note

that much commentary on this aspect agrees that both emotional and cognitive needs are the foundation to employee engagement.

Kahn (1990) had to conclude that in most cases employees tend to be cognitively and emotionally engaged if they get to know their employer's expectations, have all resources for them to do their work, are involved in the starting and finishing of their work and feel that they are a part to the big organisational goals. What is central to Kahn's (1990) employee engagement theory is the aspect of psychological safety which results from the degree of support and care employees perceive to be given to them by the organisation through their supervisors. Employees tend to feel more comfortable and safe in a work environment where they get support and openness. A study done by Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) found that in such environments employees can experiment, innovate and take risks in doing their work without any fear.

Mustapha and Zacahria (2013) went on to note that a challenging work environment can be fruitful to employee engagement since it exposes employees to a variety of work challenges, enables employees to make use of their skills variety, allows employees to exercise their discretion and positively contribute to the business success. An empirical study done by Murongazvombo (2015) came out with same findings as Kahn (1990) that workplace safety, employee discretion and meaning an employee attaches to the work, greatly contribute to employee engagement. Murongazvombo (2015) concluded that supportive supervisors and equal rewards amongst workmates predict psychological safety and ultimately employee engagement. This study also concluded that role fit and job enrichment positively predict meaningfulness while work resource availability positively predicts employee psychological availability.

Employee engagement is usually discussed in relation to employee burnout. Shoko and Zinyemba (2014) reiterated that the drivers of employee engagement stem from

emotional and social support by the employer. These scholars went on to note that burnout thrives under situations where there is no emotional and social support from the employer. The study concluded that rewards and recognition are key to employee engagement while absence of these led to staff burnout. In addition, Mohamed and Maimunah (2015) noted that justice and fairness at the workplace were found to be a good ground under which employee engagement thrives and lack of such led to much employee burnout.

On the same note, Manzoor (2012) employed a social exchange theory in assessing the drivers of employee engagement. The scholar found that the employees who felt supported by the organisation for their innovative ideas had high chances of being engaged in their work. Those employees who are highly engaged had a positive relationship with their supervisors, resulting in them having a positive outlook at work in general, positive behaviours and positive intentions. According to Mafini and Dlodlo (2014), a supervisor is key in building sustainable employee engagement by the way they manage their subordinates. They added that if a supervisor mistreats a subordinate this can lead to disengagement.

As a conclusive remark, based on the empirical literature provided above, the drivers for employee engagement encompass rational factors like fairness in rewards and recognition. On another note, of great importance are the affective factors, which encompass the emotional and social support. This involves the support and safety that the employees feel as provided by the organisation (Kahn, 1990). Research that was done by Li and Tan (2013) concluded that emotional factors like the feeling of being supported and cared for make employees engaged in their work. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) concluded that leadership quality, work resources, workplace culture, reward management, fairness and justice are pillars to employee engagement and if ZIMRA is to succeed in having engaged employees such drivers need to be taken note of.

5.8 Hypotheses

Guided by the above literature, the following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

H_1: A negative relationship exists between workplace surveillance and employee engagement.

H_2: A negative relationship exists between employee motivation and workplace surveillance

H_3: A positive relationship exists between employee motivation and employee engagement.

H_4 Employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement.

The following figure shows the model of the relationship among workplace surveillance, employee motivation and employee engagement – and how these are impacted by the above-mentioned hypotheses.
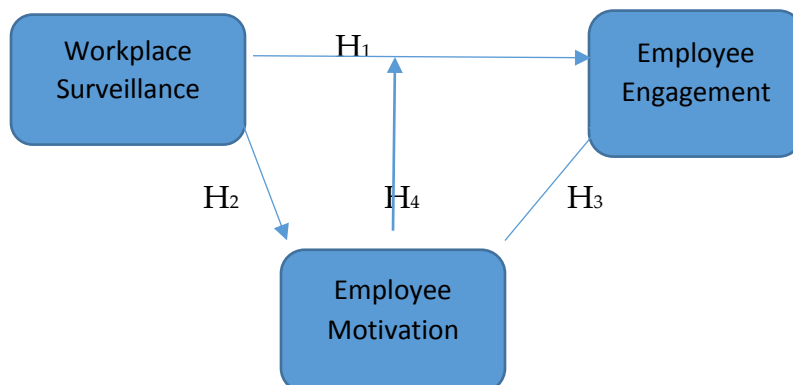
Figure 5.1: Model of the relationship among employee motivation, workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Major contributors to this model are Bakar (2013) and Knight (2011).

As shown in the Figure 5.1 and the literature presented, a positive relationship exists between employee motivation and employee engagement. Thus, it can be noted that highly motivated employees are likely to be highly engaged in their work. Furthermore, literature has shown that a negative relationship exists between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. This emanates from the view that the more employees are closely monitored at work, the more they lose trust in their management and can become disengaged in their work. In addition, the model above depicts that a negative relationship exists between employee motivation and workplace surveillance. Literature has shown that the more the surveillance is employed at work, the more employees feel that their privacy is taken away and ultimately become demotivated. It can be inferred from the stated hypotheses that employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. This implies that employee motivation can affect the level of employee engagement despite the presence of workplace surveillance.

In conclusion, this chapter dealt with employee engagement as a research construct with much emphasis on the theoretical and empirical literature. Reasons why the chosen theory was preferred were deliberated on. Focus was also on how this construct fares in the presence of workplace surveillance mediated by employee motivation in organisations. The following chapter presents the research design and methodology, by discussing the research design for the study and the study method for the selected research design.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) concluded that a research methodology signifies a system of problem solving in doing research by outlining the best way of doing the research. Some scholars refer to the research methodology as the method of study. This chapter describes the research philosophy for the study and Bradburn (2016) noted that it is imperative to ensure that the research design and study methods match for the achievement of much needed quality and significance in the procedure employed in the problem investigation.

6.2 Research philosophy

The study adopted the positivism research paradigm, which implies that the researcher does not interfere with the respondents or with their observations (Morgan, 2014). Bradburn (2016) added that if the researcher does not interfere with the subjects or observations then the research study can be regarded as being objective. However, Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) noted that positivism and interpretivism are the two key epistemological and ontological philosophies. This section discusses these two philosophies and offers justification as to why a positivism philosophy was used for the study.

6.2.1 Interpretivism philosophy

Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) concluded that interpretivists believe that there is no single reality but reality is relative and multiple and its interpretation can be in many

ways. Neuman (2000) added that interpretivists believe that reality is socially constructed and is subjective. Bradburn (2016) added that interpretivists avoid rigidity that is characterised in positivism, thus they rely more on open and flexible questions and not closed or structured questions like positivism. Interpretivists thrive in harnessing human behaviour as they interact to come up with reality of life. Neuman (2000) added that when conducting research, interpretivists do so with a predetermined position seeking to understand why things are the way they are. This implies that the research gets into the field ready to accept new ideas from the respondents and remains open and thus intending to understand and interpret human behaviour as opposed to generalising it (Neuman, 2000).

6.2.2 Positivism philosophy

The existence of a single objective reality that is external to the researcher is the main belief of positivism research philosophy. Positivists adopt a structured and controlled approach when conducting research (Neuman, 2000). A positivist research does not interfere and is detached from the respondents and remains neutral (Chilisa, 2011). Positivists put much emphasis on distinguishing personal experiences in human life and science while seeking objectivity to social phenomena. Mathematics and statistics are key in data analysis and presentation as opposed to multiple interpretations by interpretivists.

The study followed a positivist philosophy because it relied solely on quantitative data which most positivists believe is more accurate and reliable when compared to qualitative data (Neuman, 2000). The study also adopted positivism because it is uses scientific methods, which provide objectivity. In addition, this study adopted positivism because this philosophy is premised on the belief that there are set laws in the society which offer very minimal chances of errors and thus making the research more accurate on data collection and analysis. This philosophy is important in that it distances the

researcher from the respondents, thereby doing away with emotions and attachment (Beullens & Loosveldt, 2014).

6.3 Research approach

A research approach can be understood as the plans and procedures set by the research consisting of step-by-step processes that details how data is going to be collected, analysed and interpreted. The research approach follows the research problem that the researcher seeks to address. A researcher can adopt either a qualitative or quantitative research approach. This section discusses these two approaches and offers justification as to why a quantitative approach was used for this study.

6.3.1 Qualitative research approach

According to Kawulich (2011), qualitative research approach is an approach where the information to be collected by the researcher is in theoretical form and not in numbers. Bradburn (2016) noted that the reliability and validity of data collected using a qualitative approach is the key challenge that this approach faces. This is mainly because the data is subjective and open to many interpretations. However, this study was inspired by a positivist research philosophy relying on a quantitative research design as explained below.

6.3.2 Quantitative research approach

Kawulich (2011) concluded that the quantitative research approach enables the researcher to gather information in numerical form. The author added that numerical data can then be grouped into units of measure, ranks or categories. Chilisa (2011) added that such quantitative data is easy to use in drawing tables and graphs and a researcher that adopts this approach seeks to find out the general rules of phenomena

and human behaviour. Bradburn (2016) reiterated that the quantitative researcher also seeks to test theories and evaluate them, leading to their acceptancy or rejection.

This study used a quantitative research approach because it generates data that can easily be analysed statistically. The quantitative research approach is regarded as objective in that it make use of statistical packages to analyse data with no human interference (Patton, 2002). The approach is also useful in analysis and validating the constructed theories, which would be challenging with qualitative approach. This approach was used for this study because it produces data that can be replicated over a long time (Chilisa, 2011).

Bradburn (2016) a quantitative research methodology deals with systematically measurable items and numbers in investigating relationships that exist between and among phenomenon. Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) note that a quantitative research design is adopted when answering the question of relationships among variables is key. Kawulich (2011) added that a quantitative methodology concludes the discussion by confirming or disconfirming study hypotheses that the study was testing. Chilisa (2011) contends that any study that seeks to ascertain relationship between and among variables adopts a quantitative research method, hence its adoption on this study.

Bradburn (2016) added that a quantitative research methods seek the development and employment of mathematically grounded approaches to phenomenon, hypotheses and theory analysis and interpretation. This method enables evaluation of evidence, theories and hypotheses leveraging on an approach that is statistical (Kawulich, 2011). Chilisa (2011) concluded that a quantitative research approach starts collecting data guided by a theory or a hypotheses followed by the use of inferential or descriptive statistics. Observations and surveys are some of the method typically used in statistical associations.

6.4 Research design

The research design is a detailed plan of gathering data in a research project seeking to answer set research questions or to test hypotheses (Bhattacherjee, 2012). According to Bradburn (2016), each research problem is different from another and there is need for much attention to be paid in coming up with a research design that suits the problem to be investigated and objectives to be met. According to Bhattacherjee (2012), there are three categories of social science research design, namely causal, descriptive and exploratory. The usage of a wrong or improper research design can lead to a wrong result which will be to the detriment of the research objectives and problem.

This study used the survey design, which is quantitative and descriptive in nature. Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) concluded that the use of survey research design is important in finding solutions to identified problems, in assessing the achievement of set objectives and in forming a basis for future comparisons. The scholars further added that a survey design helps in providing a trend analysis about a phenomenon and its existence, its context and its volume at the workplace. The survey research design has three characteristics. First, the research design describes the target population in a quantitative study as including the scrutinising of the relationship and links that exists between and among variables. Second, the survey research data is gathered from the people and is regarded to be subjective. Third and last, survey research only engages a small portion of the total population from which generalisations of research findings and conclusions are drawn (Bradburn, 2016).

Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) noted that a survey research makes use of dependent and independent variables in defining the scope of the study with little or no interference from the researcher. If a researcher is to employ survey research, it is important that the researcher predicts a model of constructs, which shows how the variables are expected to be related before the research starts. The survey was done in order to test the

predicted model in relation to research findings on the concerned constructs. Yeasmin and Rahman (2012) are of the view that human behaviour and cognition can be predicted and explained easily when an objective research design is employed.

6.5 Population and sample

The population is the entire set of people who are of interest to the researcher (Bhattacherjee, 2012). This section articulates the description of the population for this study, description of the study sample and the type of sampling approach that was used for the study. Kardejejezska, Tadros and Baxter (2012) contended that a sample consists of people or respondents of specific interest to the researcher. Determining the population of a research is very much common practice in research. Determination of the population and sample assists the researcher in deciding whether to have the whole population as part of the study or taking only a specific sample from the total population (Bradburn, 2016).

Bradburn (2016) argued that getting research information from a specific sample in a research is easier than getting it from the total population. The use of samples is paramount in saving time and saving costs while it provides valuable and quality information. Bhattacherjee (2012) reiterated that coming up with a sample needs to be done using scientific and sound guidelines so that the research findings can be easily generalised. Bradburn (2016) asserted that a research sample must not just be chosen to represent the total population only but that it has to be large enough so that if another researcher chooses a sample different from this one but the use of the same procedure, the same results and conclusion can be arrived at.

Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) opined that sampling done in research studies that do not focus on organisations often has a challenge in specifying the target population and the targeted sample. The scholars further asserted that research studies that involve and

or include organisations do not face challenges in specifying the sampling framework and the target population since organisations have known members from which the research sample can be drawn. In such organisations, the data that is collected from the sample can be taken to be a representation of all employees in the organisation (Bradburn, 2016). With these views, ZIMRA management was approached to provide a list of all employees in the provinces that house the targeted ten border posts, namely Chirundu, Kariba, Victoria Falls, Kazungula, Pandamatenga, Ramokgwebane, Beit Bridge, Espungabera, Forbes and Nyamapanda.

6.6 Description of population

The study was conducted using ZIMRA employees as the target population. This population comprises managers and staff based at border posts only. The targeted population is spread across the country's provinces at the border posts stated in the previous section (Section 6.5) The total population size for all the ten border posts is approximately 4 000 as depicted on Table 6.1.

6.7 Pilot study

The questionnaire was subjected to a pilot study in order to check whether respondents would be able to answer the questions without any difficulties. This is essential to attain a high response rate and ensure that there are no problems in the questions constructed. The sampling technique for the pilot study was also stratified random sampling. The size of the pilot study sample was guided by the recommendations of the research done by Hertzog (2008), Lackey and Wingate (1998), and Nieswiadomy (2002) that a pilot study sample size can be 10% of the total research sample size, which was 364 in this case. Therefore, the sample size for the pilot study was 36 distributed across all border

posts. Table 6.1 shows the distribution of the population as well as sample sizes for the main study and the pilot study. This sample size and distribution was intended to ensure representativeness and avoidance of bias.

Table 6.1

Distribution of the sample sizes

Border name	Number of employees per border post	Main study sample size per border post	Pilot study sample size per border post
Chirundu	330	30	3
Kariba	520	47	5
Victoria Falls	207	19	2
Kazungula	315	29	3
Pandamatenga	298	27	3
Beit Bridge	633	57	5
Ramakgwebane	418	38	4
Espungabera	572	52	5
Forbes	315	29	3
Nyamapanda	392	36	3
Total	**4 000**	**364**	**36**

Source: ZIMRA (2018)

6.8 Description of sample

According to Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) a sample size refers to the number of respondents to be measured in a research survey or observation. As shown in figure 6.1, the study used a sample size with a total of 364 respondents' calculated using Yamani (1964) formula below and a total of 36 respondents for the pilot study. According to Bradburn (2016), if the sample is bigger, there will be a reduction in chances of making errors. Bradburn (2016), further recommended that the following points must be seriously considered in coming up with a sample size. First, the results must be accurate: in order to attain accuracy of the results, there might be a need for the researcher to increase the sample size. The accurate sample size can be calculated using some statistical procedures, like the Yamani (1964) formula provided below, in order to attain a higher level of accuracy.

The second consideration is the total subdivision of numbers likely to be made out of the data collected: the researcher needs to be conscious of the complexity and or difficulty of the information that is most likely to be gathered. Third, the researcher must envisage the response rate that is likely to occur: in coming up with the size of the sample, the researcher needs to be aware that the number of respondents in the initial sample size may not all respond to the questionnaire. Due to this, the researcher needs to put an allowance into the sample size.

Fourth, availability of resources: social science research is not done with infinite resources and time. Practically, such research is done in such a way that it overcomes resources and time challenges. In most cases survey research costs indicate the size of the sample chosen for the research, that is, the higher the cost the bigger the sample and vice versa. Fifth, the total population from which a sample is drawn: it is a good idea to have a larger sample to ensure that generalisation is simple and accurate. Bradburn (2016) is of the view that a sample size must not be below 30 respondents to enable

significant statistical analyses of the collected data and ensure statistical accuracy and reliability since the findings will be generalised to the larger population.

Guided by the discussion above, the sample that the study focused on cut across all border posts of the targeted population as described above. The sample size is 364 based on the following Yamani (1964) formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Np^2}$$

In the formula, n represents the size of the sample, N represents the population with p being the level of significance, in this case 0.05. The above formula yields the following result:

$$n = \frac{4000}{1 + 4000(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = 364$$

According to Yamani (1964) there are general formulas that are used to calculate the size of a sample to be used in a specific study. This study used 364 respondents as guided by Yamani (1964) formula above and this sample is justified in that it ensure representativeness and eliminate bias. Bradburn (2016), add that sample size justification is important in ensuring that the sample is consummate to total population and enable generalisability.

6.9 Sampling approach

The development of sampling theory in research was done to offer means of providing scientific samples that represent the total population with the research findings being able to generally inform the researcher more about the total population. According to Bradburn (2016), a sample is a group of selected respondents to participate in a research

with the intention of making general inferences about the total population. Similarly, Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) further argued that the sampling approach to be used in any research is directed by the objectives and the nature of the study.

A research can adopt a number of sampling methods depending on its nature and objectives. Bhattacherjee (2012) asserted that the most effective and ideal method of getting sample representativeness is with the random sampling method. Harvey (2013) also agreed that survey research that uses the research questionnaires, employs some form of sampling and the highly recommended method that ensure representativeness of the total population is random sampling hence its adoption in this study.

6.9.1 Stratified random sampling

ZIMRA was selected for this study because it is the country's entry and exit points and there are many complaints in print media on their slow turnaround time at the border posts. There are ten border posts countrywide and the study employed a census approach by including all the provinces that house all the border posts in the research to avoid bias and ensure representativeness.

In selecting respondents per border post, the study employed stratified random sampling since the research had access to staff database. The approach was selected because it ensures that the sample size is proportionate to the overall population size as well as to the population size of each border post. The stratified random sampling method ensures that the target population is subdivided into strata from which selection of a sample is done (Harvey, 2013). In other words, it calls for segmentation of target population into homogenous and smaller sets. When conducting research amongst a heterogeneous population. This method is critical in ensuring representativeness of the respondents in the research (Beullens & Loosveldt, 2014).

According to Harvey (2013), the main advantage of this sampling approach is that it ensures that specific groups of respondents are represented through selection of respondents from a given strata. However, its main disadvantage is that is complex to use and need a careful definition of strata (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In overcoming this weakness, the study grouped respondents according to the border posts from which they work and send the online questionnaire to members in that strata. Implementation of stratified random sampling to gather data using SurveyMonkey was made easy because the researcher had an approval to access database of the different employees at various levels and then generated random numbers from excel to pick up the participants to the study.

6.10   Validity and reliability of study instrument and the pilot study

Harvey (2013) is of the view that a research instrument can be a threat to respondents' identity in research if not properly managed. Due to this, when a survey is being done, it is imperative for the researcher to give a report on the accuracy and precision of the research instrument used to collect data. Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) seconded this idea by noting that in most cases researchers come up with sound research questionnaires but having questionable validity or reliability. If the researcher fails to manage accuracy and precision issues of the research instrument, inaccurate results and wrong conclusions may result.

6.10.1 Validity

Bradburn (2016) noted that validity borders around research congruency, a tight fit among research details, research evidence and research conclusion. Bhattacherjee (2012) also said that validity is the degree to which an instrument accurately measures what it is expected to measure. This emanates from the fact that validity implies how an

instrument measures what it is intended to measure and the same instrument can have many purposes that may vary in scope, kind and number. Bhattacherjee (2012) is of the view that if a research is to be accurate, it needs to consider the following forms of validity:

Content validity: This refers to how adequate the sample items of a research instrument are. It is centred on measuring if the instrument encompasses the wide range of forms and meanings included in research variables that are being measured. This type of validity is determined by the researcher's judgement whether the instrument encompasses all the facets of the research construct (Beullens & Loosveldt, 2014).

Criterion validity: This type of validity scrutinises the link that exists between at least two or more similar scores. It is regarded to be effective when the instrument or the measure distinguishes individuals based on the criteria the instrument is expected to predict. When all this is done, predictive or concurrent validity is established.

Construct validity: When the research instrument is able to measure the abstract variable or theoretical construct it was supposed to measure, that is construct validity. It points to how good the research outcomes are after the use of the research instrument in relation to the theories that were used in designing the instrument. In order to explain construct validity, nomological, discriminant and convergent validity can also be used.

Internal validity: This is the degree to which the independent variable affects and causes changes to the dependent variable. It is the degree at which other factors affect research conclusions like researcher bias.

External validity is the degree to which the research findings and conclusions can be generalised to the research population at different times and settings.

With reference to the above discussion on the various forms of validity, attention was given in this study to complying with construct, face and content validity. This was done by comparing the main tenet of the theories used in the study and the findings of the study which concurs.

6.11   Measuring instrument

This study used a structured questionnaire as the research instrument in collecting data. The instrument was designed guided by previous research and the literature and was comprised of closed questions. According to Punch (2014), a structured questionnaire is a quantitative research method tool that was promulgated by Emile Durkheim. The method is also called the closed questionnaire method and this instrument ensures that the researcher has minimal interference with respondents. The instrument can amass a lot of important information through unearthing the mind-sets of many respondents (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The results of this instrument can be used for critical organisational decisions.

The first part of the structured questionnaire consisted of a section A which sought to gather demographic information like respondents' measuring age, gender, education, work experience, work station and position.

Section B of the research questionnaire dealt with workplace surveillance questions workplace surveillance questions which were developed by Aiello and Svec (1993) and Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991. There were 17 questions on this construct as guided by the literature. On reliability of the scale of this variable and instrument, Samaranayake and Gamage (2012) carried out a survey in Sri Lanka amongst organisations that develop software. A test for reliability was done on the target population of 380 respondents and the questionnaire passed with 0.70 Cronbach alpha coefficient values. Rietzschel et al. (2014) conducted a study on the impact of close

workplace surveillance on employee motivation and performance of the organisation. The reliability of the questionnaire was put to the test using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the questionnaire passed this test with 0.72 Cronbach alpha coefficient value.

Section C of the research instrument dealt with employee engagement questions workplace surveillance questions which were developed by Arnold et al. (2000); Dalal et al. (2009) and Organ and Kanovsky (1989). There were 43 questions on this research construct as guided by the literature. On reliability of the scale, Bakar (2013) also carried out a study that focused on the need to unearth the factors that influence employee engagement levels in the Malaysian financial sector. The reliability of the questionnaire was put to the test using the Cronbach alpha coefficient and the questionnaire passed with 0.89. Ariani (2013) also conducted research to ascertain the relationship that exists between organisational behaviour, employee engagement and counterproductive work behaviour. In ascertaining the reliability of the questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was used and the questionnaire had a scale of 0.73. Khan and Iqbal (2013) carried out case study research at the Allied Bank of Pakistan to investigate the relationship between employee absenteeism, employee motivation and employee engagement. In ascertaining the reliability of the questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was used and the questionnaire passed with a scale of 0.78.

Section D of the research instrument dealt with employee motivation questions workplace surveillance questions which were developed by Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991) and Gruneberg (1979).There were 22 questions on this research construct as guided by the literature. On reliability of the scale, Akafo and Boateng (2015) conducted a study to ascertain the effect of recognition and reward on employee motivation and satisfaction at seven non-government tertiary institutions in Ghana using stratified sampling.

In ascertaining the reliability of the questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was used, the questionnaire had 0.79. Rietzschel et al. (2014) also conducted a study on the impact of close workplace surveillance on employee motivation and performance of the organisation. The reliability of the questionnaire was put to test using a Cronbach alpha coefficient and it passed with 0.91. Khan and Iqbal (2013) carried out case study research at the Allied Bank of Pakistan to investigate the relationship between employee absenteeism, employee motivation and employee engagement. In ascertaining the reliability of the questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha coefficient was used and the questionnaire had a scale of 0.70.

Table 6.2 presents the reliability statistics of the subsections of the questionnaire guided by the above literature. The structured questionnaire was comprised of a total number of 82 questions for the three research constructs on a 7-point Likert scale.

Table 6.2

Reliability statistics of the research instrument

Component	Author	Cronbach's alpha	Items per Scale	Who developed the questionnaire	Name of questionnaire
Workplace surveillance	Rietzschel et al. (2014)	0.72	17	Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991)	Close monitoring and employee motivation
	Samaranayake and Gamage (2012)	0.70		Aiello and Svec (1993)	Workplace monitoring and employee motivation
Employee engagement	Bakar (2013)	0.89	43	Arnold et al. (2000)	Empowerment leadership
	Ariani (2013)	0.73		Dalal et al. (2009), Organ and Kanovsky (1989)	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)
	Khan and Iqbal	0.78		Google Survey Tool	The connection between work motivation and

	(2013)				employee engagement
Employee motivation	Akafo and Boateng (2015)	0.79	21	Gruneberg (1979)	Reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation
	Rietzschel et al. (2014)	0.91		Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991)	Close monitoring and employee motivation
	Khan and Iqbal (2013)	0.70		Google Survey Tool	The connection between work motivation and employee engagement

Table 6.2 shows the measuring instruments that were adopted for this study.

Emile Durkheim first propounded a structured or closed questionnaire between 1858 and 1917 and such a questionnaire is usually used in a quantitative research approach (Bhattacherjee, 2012). A structured questionnaire is mainly used with positivism as the research paradigm. This questionnaire entails that there is very low researcher involvement and interference giving more room for objectivity to prevail. Harvey (2013) added that a structured questionnaire covers a big number of respondents and its research findings can be used in making decisions. The research questions can also be easily measured since responses can be quantified.

6.12 Data collection procedure

Data for this research was collected through SurveyMonkey where respondents were sent a link that when opened would direct them to the research instrument. This enabled them to respond online without necessarily printing the instrument.

6.13 Data analysis and data procedure

This section discusses how data gathered was analysed and the analysis procedure that was used. SEM was used to analyse the conceptual framework and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software was used for data analysis. The reliability of the measuring scale was checked using Cronbach's alpha. Three forms of validity were explored, namely face validity, content validity and construct validity as discussed in a previous section above.

6.14 Tools for data analysis

The study made used of the following tools in data presentation: exploratory factor analysis, reliability, and confirmatory factor analysis and frequency tables.

6.14.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Data was analysed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which is often carried out in the early stages of research to consolidate variables and to produce hypotheses about underlying processes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The main purpose is to identify the smallest number of meaningful latent variables or factors that closely reproduce the original correlations and covariance amongst a larger set of measured variables (Gorsuch, 1997; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2006). In order to ascertain the constructs or factors and latent variables and explore the correlation of each factor in the

proposed conceptual model, a series of EFAs were performed on the data of the pilot study.

6.14.2 Reliability

Briefly, reliability sought to measure if the research instrument is to be subjected repeatedly on the same respondents will give the same conclusions all the time. Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) noted that there are many ways in which the researcher devise reliable measures and these are split half reliability and test-retest reliability. Test-retest reliability is a situation whereby the reliability of an instrument is determined by administering that instrument two or more times on the same respondents while comparing the findings. On the other hand, split half reliability implies a situation where the researcher divides the research items in the research instrument in two halves and compares the results of the scores for the two halves with the correlation coefficient. Finally yet importantly is the internal reliability, which is sometimes known as internal consistency. This is a measure used to ascertain the similarities of items in the research instrument that are supposed to measure a specific research construct. Mahembe (2014) reiterated that the Cronbach alpha coefficient is the measure that determines internal reliability of a research instrument. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is a statistical process that is used in the determination of correlations and relationships among items in the instrument. Beullens and Loosveldt (2014) concluded that if the items have a strong relationship with each another, the internal consistency for such items is regarded to be high such that the Cronbach alpha coefficient will be close to one and vice versa. This research used the Cronbach alpha coefficient to measure the reliability of the research instrument. According to Gaur and Gaur (2009), a value of Cronbach alpha above 0.70 can be used as a reasonable test of scale reliability. The following rule of thumb is widely used and was also adopted by Mazviona (2014), in a study similar to this; "a Cronbach's alpha of >.9 is Excellent, > .8 is Good, > .7 is Acceptable, > .6 is Questionable, > .5 is Poor, and < .5 is Unacceptable"

6.14.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

To validate the results of the data analysis, a series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted on the data. According to Pallant (2007) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), CFA is used in the advanced stages of the research process to test the theory about latent processes or to test specific hypotheses usually performed through SEM.

6.14.4 Frequency tables

According to Mazviona (2014), a frequency table measures occurrences of a specific score in given data. The frequency table is critical in the organisation of raw data in a compact form showing the series in either descending or ascending order alongside their frequencies. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) note that another version of a detailed frequency table usually has percentages and relative frequencies

6.15   Structural equation modelling

SEM was used to perform confirmatory factor analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that SEM is a statistical technique that helps determine the nature of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. It assists in explaining the covariance patterns amongst variables in line with the relationship depicted by the structural models and measurements. Mahembe (2014) argued that SEM can be divided into two parts – first, is the confirmatory factor analysis model which mainly deals with the validity of the manifest or observed variables in relation to the latent variables that they are supposed to represent . The structural model is the second and it gives a specific relationship that exists between latent variables. According to Kelloway (1998), SEM is critical and useful in testing and examining complex models.

6.16   Analysis of moment structures

Kelloway (1998) is of the notion that AMOS can effectively be used for path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and SEM. Causal modelling software and analysis of covariance are other names that are used when referring to AMOS. AMOS can present SEM in a visual mode and it allows the drawing of models in graph form (Kelloway, 1998).

6.17   Ethical considerations

Before carrying out this study, the researcher applied for ethical clearance through the University of Fort Hare Research Ethics Committee. The researcher sought permission from ZIMRA management to carry out the study. In enforcing anonymity, the respondents were directed not to write their personal details on the questionnaire. In ensuring participant's informed consent, the researcher called for voluntary participation while respondents were notified of their right not to participate. To maintain confidentiality, data resulting from the study was used for academic purposes only and in aggregate form. In terms of ethical issues related to online research, the respondents' confidentiality was ensured because SurveyMonkey is confidential and data is secure with clients' data not being exposed. In addition, the informed consent form was attached to the online SurveyMonkey administered questionnaire.

The study also abide with the principles of non-maleficence and beneficence. According to Mahembe (2014), this principle dictates that a study must make sure that no respondent who is going to face harm due to participating in the study. In this study, there is no harm that is foreseen or expected. According to Fall (2014) the aspect of beneficence refers to sympathy, engaging in actions that are positive so as to do well to others. The respondents will likely derive some benefits by gaining some insights in

how employee motivation mediate the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement.

In conclusion, this chapter described the research design for the study and the study method for the selected research design. This study was guided by the positivism research paradigm and the study used the survey design which is quantitative and descriptive in nature. The chapter noted that ZIMRA was selected for this study because it is the country's entry and exit points and there are many complaints in print media on their slow turnaround time at the border posts. There are ten border posts countrywide and the study employed a census approach by including all the border posts in the research to avoid bias and ensure representativeness. The chapter discussed the reliability and validity of the study instrument. Bradburn (2016) noted that when a researcher is concerned about research congruency, a tight fit among research details, research evidence and research conclusion, that is a concern for validity. Reliability seeks to measure that if the research instrument is to be subjected over and over on the same respondents whether it will give the same conclusions all the time. Data for this research was collected through SurveyMonkey where respondents were sent a link that when opened would direct them to the research instrument. SEM was used to analyse the conceptual framework and AMOS software was used for data analysis. Ethical considerations were also taken into account before collecting data and the delimitations of the study were also highlighted. The following chapter presents the study findings. This was done using descriptive analysis and the reliability analysis Statistical Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 was employed to compute and analyse the data.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

7.1 Introduction

This part of the research focus on data analysis and presentation of findings for the pilot and main study. This was done using descriptive analysis and the confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis technique to generate relevant factors and associated latent variables in each of the constructs of the proposed conceptual model. SPSS version 25 and AMOS software were employed to compute and analyse the data.

The literature world suggests that it is always appropriate to conduct a pilot study before administering a self-completion questionnaire to the sample (Bryman & Bell, 2007). A pilot study is like a 'dress rehearsal' of the main study where you replicate the conditions as closely as possible to the main study (McMurray et al., 2004). Furthermore, Cavana et al. (2001) alluded that the survey should be piloted with a reasonable sample size of respondents. The sample of the pilot study was drawn from the employees at the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority.

The following were the objectives of the pilot study:
- To conduct an exploratory factor analysis for identifying factors and associated latent variables for the constructs of the proposed conceptual model. In the course of this process, variables, which did not load on the factors were eliminated.
- To develop initial scales which subsequently would be translated into measurement models by confirmatory factor analysis.
- To examine the validity and reliability of the data collected among ZIMRA employees

7.2 Profile of respondents (demographics)

Data was collected using the survey questionnaire. A total of 36 respondents took part in the pilot study survey. Due to the different levels of variables, the study could not use cross tabulation in presenting data under this section.

Table 7.1

Respondent's age range

	Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	218-25	1	2.8	2.8	2.8
	26-30	5	13.9	13.9	16.7
	31-40	19	52.8	52.8	69.4
	41-50	6	16.7	16.7	86.1
	50+	5	13.9	13.9	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.1 presents the age ranges of the respondents. The study indicates that the majority of participants were in the age bracket between 31-40 years, which constituted 52.8%, followed by 16.7% from those between 41-50 years. These findings are associated with high quality of information obtained from people with significant working experience. Table 7.2 continues the demographic analysis by taking into consideration gender balances.

Table 7.2

Respondent's gender

	Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	25	69.4	69.4	69.4
	Female	11	30.6	30.6	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

The Table 7.2 indicates a higher number of males at 69.4% compared to females at 30.6%. However, for ethical consideration, data was analysed on a compulsive method without indicating gender types. Table 7.3 presents the distribution of respondents using educational qualifications.

Table 7.3

Respondent's education level

	Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	National Diploma or Certificate	6	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Bachelor's degree	12	33.3	33.0	50.0
	Honours degree	8	22.2	22.2	72.2
	Master's degree	10	27.8	27.8	100.0

			Total	36	100.0	100.0	

As shown in the Table 7.3, a total of 33.3% had a qualification in a Bachelor's degree, 27.8% with a Master's degree followed by 22.2% with an Honours degree. This is indicative of the age range as illustrated in Table 7.1. The distribution of educational level provided varied insights on motivation and engagement at workplace. Further analysis of the demographics features was conducted to determine the working experience of the relevant respondents.

Table 7.4

Working experience with ZIMRA

	Work Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	2	5.6	5.6	5.6
	1 year to less than 3 years	4	11.1	11.1	16.7
	3 years to less than 5 years	12	33.3	33.3	50.0
	5 years to less than 7 years	9	25.0	25.0	75.0
	7 years plus	9	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.4 indicates a high percentage for those who have 3 years to less than 5 years' experience, at 33.3%, followed by 5 years to less than 7 and 7+ years on a levelling

percentage of 25%. These results present a true reflection of results presented in Table 7.1 of age brackets and Table 7.3 of educational qualifications. Table 7.5 analysed the roles at ZIMRA of the different respondents.

Table 7.5

Role at ZIMRA

	Role	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
	Manager	7	19.4	19.4	19.4
	Supervisor	15	41.7	41.7	61.1
	Officer	6	16.7	16.7	77.8
Valid	Workers Union Representative	7	19.4	19.4	97.2
	Other	1	2.8	2.8	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.5 indicated that the majority of the participants were supervisors, at 41.7%, followed by managers at 19.4%, and officers 16.7%. This therefore allows for a smooth study since the supervisors and management are the ones who are responsible for motivating and ensuring that employees are working in a conducive working environment.

Table 7.6

Respondent's work station location.

	Province	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Mashonaland Central	1	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Mashonaland East	3	8.3	8.3	11.1
	Mashonaland West	8	22.2	22.2	33.3
	Masvingo	1	2.8	2.8	36.1
	Matabeleland North	12	33.3	33.3	69.4
	Matabeleland South	3	8.3	8.3	77.8
	Manicaland	8	22.2	22.2	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.6 reflects another dimension of the demographic features by illustrating the distribution by the workplace station of the respondents. Matabeleland North province had the highest number of respondents at 33.3% followed by Manicaland and Mashonaland West with both having 22.2%. Matabeleland South and Mashonaland East had a lower number of participants, at 8.3% each. Mashonaland Central province was at the bottom with 2.8%.

Table 7.7

Employee computer use experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	1	2	5.6	5.6	5.6
	2	2	5.6	5.6	11.1
	3	2	5.6	5.6	16.7
	5	9	25.8	25.8	41.7
	7	3	8.3	8.3	50.0
	8	1	2.8	2.8	52.8
	9	2	5.6	5.6	58.3
	10	4	11.1	11.1	69.4
	11	1	2.8	2.8	72.2
	12	1	2.8	2.8	75.0
	15	5	13.9	13.9	88.9
	20	1	2.8	2.8	91.7
	21	1	2.8	2.8	94.4
	30	2	5.6	5.6	100.0
	Total	36	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.7 summarises the respondents' levels of computer experience. The majority of the workers (25.0%) had about five years of experience in computer use followed by 13.9% who had 15 years of experience using computers. Those with at least ten years of computer use experience were 41.8% of all respondents whilst those with five years or less comprised 41.7%, leaving 16.5% with experience between five to 15 years.

Table 7.8

Percentage of time per week spent on a computer for work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	20.00	1	2.8	2.9	2.9
	30.00	3	8.3	8.8	11.8
	40.00	3	8.3	8.8	20.6
	50.00	5	13.9	14.7	35.3
	60.00	5	13.9	14.7	50.0
	65.00	1	2.8	2.9	52.9
	70.00	5	13.9	14.7	67.6
	80.00	3	8.3	8.8	76.5
	87.00	1	2.8	2.9	79.4
	90.00	3	8.3	8.8	88.2
	95.00	4	11.1	11.8	100.0
	Total	34	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	2	5.6		
Total		36	100.0		

Table 7.8 provides a summary of how often respondents use computers during a working week. Respondents who use computers 80% of their time or more in week comprised 32.3%, whilst those who only use computers 50% of their time or less were 35.3%. This leaves 32.4% of respondents as those who use computers for between 50 – 80% of their time in a given week.

7.3 Exploratory factor analysis

Data was analysed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which is often carried out in the early stages of research to consolidate variables and to produce hypotheses about underlying processes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The main purpose is to identify the smallest number of meaningful latent variables or factors that closely reproduce the original correlations and covariance amongst a larger set of measured variables (Gorsuch, 1997; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2006). In order to ascertain the constructs or factors and latent variables and explore the correlation of each factor in the proposed conceptual model, a series of EFAs were performed on the data of the pilot study.

7.4 Rotation

There are two general categories of rotation in factor analysis, *orthogonal* and *oblique*. Factors are always rotated at right angle to each other in *orthogonal* rotation, which means they are uncorrelated to each other. *Oblique* rotation assumes that the factors are correlated, which allows more freedom in selecting the position of factors in factor space than does orthogonal rotation (Gorsuch 1983; Kline, 1994). In practice, orthogonal and oblique often result in very similar solutions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Many researchers conduct both approaches and then report that the result is clearer and easier to interpret (Pallant, 2007).

Hence, in this study, principal components factor extraction with direct oblimin (*oblique*) rotation was selected to derive the factor loadings. Factor loadings are 'the correlations of a variable with a factor' (Kline 1994, p. 5), which explain the weighted combination of the variables' loadings on each factor, within the range of 0 to 1 (Pallant, 2007). They score the weight of impact of each variable on the endogenous variables. There is no

consensus about what constitutes a 'high' or 'low' factor loading; however, in the social sciences the threshold is 0.30, the higher the factor loadings, the better the results (Hair et al., 2006; Peterson 2000).

7.5 Identifying factors and latent variables

The analyses of the pilot study comprised a series of EFAs that were conducted to eliminate variables with factor loading < 0.30 (Hair et al., 2006; Peterson 2000). In order to be considered suitable for factor analysis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value should be statistically significant at p <0.05 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value should be 0.60 or above (Pallant, 2007). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates that the data is suitable for factor analysis. A non-significant (p>0.05) Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates that the data is not suitable for factor analysis. KMO reports the amount of variance in the data that can be explained by the factors and is a measure of sampling adequacy (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

Both eigenvalues and scree plot estimate the number of factors that should be selected. 'Eigenvalues represent variance. Because the variance that each standardised variable contributes to a principal components extraction is 1, a component with an eigenvalue less than 1 is not as important, from a variance perspective, as an observed variable' (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is important to study the scree plot provided by SPSS. Catell (in Pallant, 2007) recommended retaining all factors above the elbow or break in the plot as these contribute the most to the explanation of the variance in the data set.

The internal consistency of the survey questionnaire was examined by estimating the Cronbach's alpha coefficients in this study. 'Internal consistency reliability is concerned with the homogeneity of the statements within a scale. Scales based on classical measurement models are intended to measure a single phenomenon that is typically equated with Cronbach's coefficient alpha, (DeVellis, 2003). Cronbach's alpha values

above 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951) are considered acceptable, and values above 0.8 are preferable. This is a measurement of internal consistency (Pallant, 2007).

Table 7.9

Reliability statistics

Items	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Workplace Surveillance	.765	17
Employee engagement	.768	43
Employee motivation	.913	21

The overall coefficient obtained for both measured items range from 0.765 to .913. According to Gaur and Gaur (2009), a value of Cronbach alpha above 0.70 can be used as a reasonable test of scale reliability. The following rule of thumb is widely used and was also adopted by Mazviona (2014), in a study similar to this; "a Cronbach's alpha of >.90 is Excellent, > .80 is Good, > .7 is Acceptable, > .60 is Questionable, > .50 is Poor, and < .50 is Unacceptable."

7.6 EFA results for workplace surveillance

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were carried out to check the appropriateness of the principal component analysis (PCA) and results for the three sections of workplace surveillance, employee engagement and employee motivation in their chronological order are shown in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10

KMO Test and Bartlett's Test[a]

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.	.588	.642	.612
Approx. Chi-square	298.756	663.353	656.889
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df Sig.	136	210	190
	.000	.000	0.00

a. *Based on correlations*

The analysis involved the null hypothesis test value P-test which was used to reject or accept the null hypothesis.

H₀: The null hypothesis is that a PCA is appropriate

H₁: The PCA is not appropriate.

Set conditions: do not reject H₀ if the p-value is greater than 0.05 that is at the 5% level of significance.

KMO measures sampling adequacy to provide evidence that the data is appropriate for PCA. It ranges from 0 to 1 and the minimum acceptable must be greater than .50 (Beavers & Iwata, 2013). Interpretation of KMO as recommended by Kaiser (1974), is as follows – a measure 0.90 to 1.00 is marvellous, .80 to .89 is meritorious, .70 to .79 is middling, .60 to .69 is mediocre, .50 to .59 is miserable and .00 to .49 is not a factor. Results show a value of .78 that implies that a degree of common variance among the 17 variables is "middling" bordering on "meritorious", satisfying the model. The Bartlett Test is significant (p < .001), which means that the population was not from an identity

matrix, confirming that data is adequacy and the matrix used was not from an identity matrix (Beavers & Iwata, 2013).

Table 7.11

Workplace surveillance communalities

	Raw	
	Initial	Extraction
I am aware my organisation has workplace surveillance.	1.606	1.016
I believe my personal privacy should be maintained while at work.	1.314	.739
I believe the advantages of having workplace surveillance at my organisation significantly outweigh the possible disadvantages.	1.054	.723
I believe my organisation has a right to keep track of what its employees are doing while at work.	1.235	.879
I understand there are potential consequences for employees (getting reprimanded, demoted, or fired) for using organisation property inappropriately.	1.143	.905
I prefer to work in an autonomous environment.	.790	.468
I believe any type of monitoring work is an invasion of my privacy.	.971	.647
I support the use of workplace surveillance at my organisation.	1.164	.815
I am aware of how my organisation is monitoring its employees through workplace surveillance.	1.323	.880
I disapprove of my organisation's use of workplace surveillance to monitor how I work.	2.343	2.005
I do not understand why my organisation monitors employees.	2.821	2.537
I have a clear understanding of what my organisation is.	2.257	1.917

I think it is alright to use organisation property as long as it does not affect my productivity.	2.229	1.862
Knowing that I am monitored at work has made me aware of how I should work.	1.621	1.316
Being monitored has made me feel not part of the family at my organisation.	1.571	1.240
I have received information on how my work has been affected ever since implementation of the workplace surveillance.	1.666	1.142
As a whole I like the idea of having workplace surveillance.	1.083	.538

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.12

Total variance of workplace surveillance explained

Component		Initial eigenvalues[a]			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Raw	1	7.320	27.950	27.950	7.320	27.950	27.950	5.261	20.086	20.086
	2	4.799	18.322	46.272	4.799	18.322	46.272	3.250	12.410	32.497
	3	3.804	14.524	60.796	3.804	14.524	60.796	6.036	23.047	55.543
	4	1.959	7.480	68.276	1.959	7.480	68.276	2.431	9.283	64.826
	5	1.748	6.674	74.950	1.748	6.674	74.950	2.652	10.124	74.950

Table 7.12 presents the explanation to total variance. The extraction results show that nearly 75% of variability in the 17 variables was explained by the extracted components. Thus, the complexity of the dataset could be reduced by these extracted components with only a 25% loss of information.

Table 7.13

Rotated component matrix for workplace surveillance

	Raw				
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
I am aware my organisation has a workplace surveillance.					.886
I believe my personal privacy should be maintained while at work.					.824
I believe the advantages of having workplace surveillance at my organisation significantly outweigh the possible disadvantages.		.658		.488	
I believe my organisation has a right to keep track of what its employees are doing while at work.		.798			
I understand there are potential consequences for employees (getting reprimanded, demoted, or fired) for using organisation property inappropriately.		.856			
I prefer to work in an autonomous environment.		.653			

I believe any type of monitoring work is an invasion of my privacy.		.705		-.306	
I support the use of workplace surveillance at my organisation.				.807	
I am aware of how my organisation is monitoring its employees through workplace surveillance.				.884	
I disapprove of my organisation's use of workplace surveillance to monitor how I work.			1.384		
I do not understand why my organisation monitors employees.			1.328		-.738
I have a clear understanding of what my organisation is.			1.345		
I think it is alright to use organisation property as long as it does not affect my productivity.	1.306				
Knowing that I am monitored at work has made me aware of how I should work.	1.063				
Being monitored has made me feel not part of the family at my organisation.	1.019				
I have received information on how my work has been affected ever since implementation of the workplace surveillance.	.939		.483		
As a whole I like the idea of having workplace surveillance.	.536	-.342			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 7.14

CFA for Workplace Surveillance

Model Fit Indices	Before deletion	After deletion
Chi-square	p = 0.000	p = 0.131
Normlised Chi-Square	5.448	2.685
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.932	0.973
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.054	0.047
Tuck Lewis Index (TLI)	0.913	0.968

As shown in Table 7.14, the data poorly conformed to the model using all the 17 items of the workplace surveillance construct. Therefore, five items were rejected namely I believe the advantages of having workplace surveillance at my organisation significantly outweigh the possible disadvantages. I believe any type of monitoring at work is an invasion of my privacy. I do not understand why my organisation monitors employees. I have received information on how my work has been affected ever since implementation of the workplace surveillance. Lastly, as a whole, I like the idea of having a workplace surveillance. The rejection was done in an effort to improve model fit. The CFA was then run again excluding the deleted items and it showed a model improvement as highlighted in the table 7.14. The chi-squire is insignificantly showing that there is no difference between sample variance and model. There was an improvement in the normalised chi-squire value, which reduced from 5.448 to 2.685. There was also an improvement in the RMSEA reduced from 0.054 to 0.047 showing that there was model fitness improvement. CFI improved from 0.932 to 0.973 while TLI improved from 0.193 to 0.968 and these shows a model improvement.

7.7 EFA results for employee engagement

Table 7.16

Employee engagement communalities

	Raw	
	Initial	Extraction
I have the tools and resource to do my job well.	.968	.216
I have received the training I need to do my job well.	1.002	.397
The amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable.	1.767	.707
My job provides me with a sense of meaning and purpose.	1.297	.673
Most days, I feel I am making progress on important work projects or initiatives.	.966	.511
My job offers enough variety to keep me engaged.	2.002	1.040
I find enjoyment in the job that I perform.	1.455	.283
My talents and abilities are used well in my current position.	1.820	.787
The level of stress in my job is manageable.	1.564	.767
I have the authority I need to do my best work.	1.939	1.040
I feel that we can speak up without fear of retribution or negative consequences.	2.068	1.423
My work is valued by this organisation.	2.059	.611
It is easy to become absorbed in my job.	1.189	.416
Most days, I look forward to coming to work.	1.377	.676
Overall, I am satisfied with my job.	153.778	153.766
I clearly understand what my superior expects of me.	1.246	.755

My superior establishes effective working relationships with all team members.	1.030	.617
My superior treats people with fairness and respect.	1.360	1.075
My superior is accessible and responsive to people's needs.	1.377	.868
My superior gives me feedback on how I am doing.	1.934	1.031
My superior provides clear expectations for my work.	1.593	.848
My superior has high expectations for our team's performance.	1.468	.797
My superior regularly recognises or acknowledge me for doing a good job.	1.153	.634
My superior helps our team to develop and grow.	1.655	.954
I trust my superior.	1.508	.732
The people I work with are dedicated to our clients.	1.360	.966
The people I work with show a sense of urgency.	1.843	1.090
The people I work with help each other when needed.	2.017	1.323
There are people at work who care about me as a person.	1.523	1.010
The people I work with are ethical in conducting business.	2.246	1.470
The people I work with deliver quality services on a consistent basis.	1.426	.789
My team openly talks about what needs to be done to be more effective.	1.960	1.395
My team works effectively across departments and functions to get the job done.	2.485	1.606
The people I work with do what they say they will do.	1.672	.905
I am confident in the organisation's future.	1.905	1.020
I have clear understanding of the vision and mission of my organisation.	1.496	.704

I believe that my performance directly impacts my compensation.	1.508	.438
I clearly understand the components of my total compensation package.	2.110	1.090
This organisation cares about its people.	2.172	1.399
This organisation provides attractive opportunities for growth and development.	1.814	.808
I would recommend this organisation as a great place to work.	1.547	1.132
My opinions are sought on issues that affect me and my job.	1.610	1.033
I expect to be working here at this time next year.	2.528	1.700

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.16 shows that there are some factors loading on more than one factor. The rules applies in addressing such complex factors is that the factors less than 0.4 were deleted together with those with abnormal factors and a negative residual.

Table 7.17

Total variance explained for employee engagement

		Initial eigenvalues[a]			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
Component		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Raw	1	155.651	69.861	69.861	155.651	69.861	69.861	12.157	5.457	5.457

	2	17.263	7.748	77.610	17.263	7.748	77.610	13.701	6.149	11.606
	3	10.762	4.830	82.440	10.762	4.830	82.440	12.495	5.608	17.214
	4	7.829	3.514	85.954	7.829	3.514	85.954	153.152	68.74	85.954
	5	4.956	2.224	88.178						

Table 7.18

Rotated component matrix for employee engagement

	Raw			
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
I have the tools and resources to do my job well.	.425			
I have received the training I need to do my job well.	.617			
The amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable.	.670		.489	
My job provides me with a sense of meaning and purpose.	.796			
Most days, I feel I am making progress in important work projects or initiatives.	.701			
My job offers enough variety to keep me engaged.	.749		.649	
I find enjoyment in the job that I perform.				
My talents and abilities are used well in my current position.	.714		.440	
The level of stress in my job is manageable.	.846			
I have the authority I need to do my best work.	.929			
I feel that we can speak up without fear of retribution or negative consequences.	1.146			
My work is valued by this organisation.	.543			.441
It is easy to become absorbed in my job.	.531			.359
Most days, I look forward to coming to work.	.734			.367
Overall, I am satisfied with my job.				12.305
I clearly understand what my superior expects of me.	.806			

My superior establishes effective working relationships with all team members.	.721			
My superior treats people with fairness and respect.	.778	.517	-.437	
My superior is accessible and responsive to people's needs.	.884			
My superior gives me feedback on how I am doing.	.761	.665		
My superior provides clear expectations for my work.	.579	.702		
My superior has high expectations for our team's performance.	.546	.678		
My superior regularly recognises or acknowledge me for doing a good job.	.370	.704		
My superior helps our team to develop and grow.	.572	.760		
I trust my superior.		.838		
The people I work with are dedicated to our clients.		.978		
The people I work with show a sense of urgency.		.963		
The people I work with help each other when needed.		1.125		
There are people at work who care about me as a person.		.932		
The people I work with are ethical in conducting business.		1.029	.534	
The people I work with deliver quality, services on a consistent basis.		.734	.407	
My team openly talks about what needs to be done to be more effective.		.878		-.766
My team works effectively across departments and functions to get the job done.		.873	.772	
The people I work with do what they say they will do.		.782	.435	
I am confident in the organisation's future.		.966		

		.672	.458	
I have clear understanding of the vision and mission of my organisation.		.672	.458	
I believe that my performance directly impacts my compensation.			.505	
I clearly understand the components of my total compensation package.			1.021	
This organisation cares about its people.			1.143	
This organisation provides attractive opportunities in growth and development.			.815	
I would recommend this organisation as a great place to work.			1.036	
My opinions are sought on issues that affect me and my job.			.994	
I expect to be working here at this time next year.			1.277	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Table 7.19

CFA for Employee engagement

Model Fit Indices	Before deletion	After deletion
Chi-square	p= 0.000	0.156
Normalised Chi-Square	6.877	4.381
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.912	0.977
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.091	0.042

| Tuck Lewis Index (TLI) | 0.873 | 0.958 |

The employee engagement constituted 43 items before deletion and the initial Chi-square from CFA indicated that the data did not fit well. The EFA was conducted and a total of 20 items were removed. One item with the statement, *I find enjoyment in the job that I perform,* was removed because it was below the threshold of 0.4 for factor loading. Another item namely, overall, I am satisfied with my job was also removed because it had a factor loading above 12 and a negative residual which is inadmissible. Eighteen items were also removed because they were also cross loading. These items are the amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable. My job offers enough variety to keep me engaged. My talents and abilities are used well in my current position. My work is valued by this organisation. It is easy to become absorbed in my job. Most days, I look forward to coming to work. My superior treats people with fairness and respect. My superior gives me feedback on how I am doing. My superior provides clear expectations for my work. My superior has high expectations for our team's performance. My superior regularly recognise or acknowledges me for doing a good job. My superior helps our team to develop and grow. The people I work with are ethical in conducting business. The people I work with deliver quality services on a consistent basis. My team openly talks about what needs to be done to be more effective. My team works effectively across departments and functions to get the job done. The people I work with do what they say they will do. I have clear understanding of the vision and mission of my organisation. The CFA was conducted for employee engagement after deletion of the items and the results in Table 7.19 show improvement in model fit as indicated by a reduction in the normalised chi-square (from 6.877 to 4.381) and also a reduction in root-mean-square error of approximation (from 0.091 to 0.042) .There is an increase in TLI (from 0.73 to 0.958), CFI also increased (from 0.912 to 0.977). As shown in table 7.19, the data poorly conformed to the model using all the 43 items of the employee engagement construct.

Table 7.20

Pattern and structure matrix for employee engagement

Item	Pattern matrix	Structure matrix
I have the tools and resources I need to do my job well.	.216	.425
I have received the training I need to do my job well.	.397	.617
My job provides me with a sense of meaning and purpose.	.673	.796
Most days, I feel I am making progress on important work projects or initiatives.	.511	.701
I find enjoyment in the job that I perform.	.283	.846
The level of stress in my job is manageable.	.767	.929
I have the authority I need to do my best work.	1.040	1.146
I feel that we can speak up without fear of retribution or negative consequences.	1.423	.806
I clearly understand what my superior expects of me.	.755	.721
17 My superior establishes effective working relationships with all team members.	.617	.884
My superior is accessible and responsive to people's needs.	.868	.838
I trust my superior.	.732	.978
The people I work with are dedicated to our clients.	.966	.963

The people I work with show a sense of urgency.	1.090	1.125
The people I work with help each other when needed.	1.323	.932
There are people at work who care about me as a person.	1.010	.505
I am confident in the organisation's future.	1.020	1.021
I believe that my performance directly impacts my compensation.	1.090	.505
I clearly understand the components of my total compensation package.	1.399	1.021
This organisation cares about its people.	.808	1.143
C.40 This organisation provides attractive opportunities growth and development.	1.132	.815
C.41 I would recommend this organisation as a great place to work.	1.033	1.036
C.42 My opinions are sought on issues that affect me and my job.	1.700	.994
I expect to be working here at this time next year.	1.090	1.277

The table 7.20 shows pattern and structure factor loadings for employee engagement. The factor loading for pattern matrix range from 0.216 to 1.7. However, the structure matrix factor loadings have a better factor loading ranging from 0.425 to 1.277.

7.7 EFA results for employee motivation

Table 7.21

KMO Test and Bartlett's Test[a]

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		.642
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	663.353
	Df	210
	Sig.	.000

a. Based on correlations

Table 7.22

Employee motivation Communalities

	Raw	
	Initial	Extraction
My boss asks me politely to do things, gives me reasons why, and invites my suggestions.	3.469	3.092
I am encouraged to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.	2.817	2.634
I am left to work without interference from my boss, but help is available if I want it.	2.999	2.833
I am given credit and praise when I do good work or put in extra effort.	2.386	2.051
People leaving the organisation are given a 'exit interview' to hear their views on the organisation.	3.016	2.728
I am incentivised to work hard and well.	1.469	.967
If I want extra responsibility, my boss will find a way to give it to me.	1.648	1.240
If I want extra training, my boss will help me find how to get it or will arrange it.	1.629	1.471
I call my boss and my boss's friend by their first names.	1.395	1.200
My boss is available for me to discuss my concerns or worries and my suggestions.	1.569	1.372
I am given an opportunity to solve problems connected with my work.	1.155	.988

I like to be involved and consulted by my boss about how l can best do my job.	1.502	1.059
I want to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.	1.281	.982
I like to work without interference from my boss, but be able to ask for help if I need it.	1.198	.743
I work best and most productively without pressure from my boss or the threat of losing my job.	1.077	.795
When I leave the organisation, I would like an exit interview to give my view on the organisation.	1.160	.414
I like to be incentivised and praised for working hard and well.	1.416	1.058
I want to be trained to do new things.	1.380	1.205
I want to be able to discuss my concerns or worries and my suggestions with my boss or another manager.	1.537	.760
I like to be given opportunities to solve problems connected with my work.	1.119	.930
I like to have regular meetings with my boss to discuss how l can improve and develop.	1.390	.982

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.23

Total variance explained for employee motivation

	Component	Initial eigenvalues[a]			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Raw	1	14.972	40.894	40.894	14.972	40.894	40.894	11.024	30.110	30.110
	2	5.720	15.623	56.517	5.720	15.623	56.517	5.322	14.537	44.647
	3	3.527	9.635	66.151	3.527	9.635	66.151	4.639	12.672	57.319
	4	2.778	7.587	73.738	2.778	7.587	73.738	5.320	14.530	71.849
	5	2.510	6.856	80.594	2.510	6.856	80.594	3.202	8.745	80.594

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When analysing a covariance matrix, the initial eigenvalues are the same across the raw and rescaled solution.

Table 7.24

Rotated component matrix[a] for employee motivation

	Raw					
	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	1
My boss asks me politely to do things, gives me reasons why, and invites my suggestions.	1.722					.925
I am encouraged to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.	1.480	.582				.881
I am left to work without interference from my boss, but help is available if I want it.	1.526			.654		.881
I am given credit and praise when I do good work or put in extra effort.	1.312					.850
People leaving the organisation are given a 'exit interview' to hear their views on the organisation.	.903				-1.248	.520
I am incentivised to work hard and well.		.449			.840	
If I want extra responsibility my boss will find a way to give it to me.	.444	.906			.414	.346
If I want extra training my boss will help me find how to get it or will arrange it.				1.032	.454	
I call my boss and my boss's friend by their first names.		1.002				
My boss is available for me to discuss my concerns or worries and my suggestions.		.749		.859		

I am given an opportunity to solve problems connected with my work.		.786		.477		
I like to be involved and consulted by my boss about how l can best do my job.			.620	.749		
I want to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.		.711	.682			
I like to work without interference from my boss, but be able to ask for help if I need it.		.410	.622			
I work best and most productively without pressure from my boss or the threat of losing my job.		.498	.723			
When I leave the organisation, I would like an exit interview to give my view on the organisation.	.447	.377				.415
I like to be incentivised and praised for working hard and well.				.998		
I want to be trained to do new things.			1.08			
I want to be able to discuss my concerns or worries and my suggestions with my boss or another manager.	.487	.386		.514		.393
I like to be given opportunities to solve problems connected with my work.			.593	.698		
I like to have regular meetings with my boss to discuss how l can improve and develop.			.902			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Table 7.25

CFA for Employee Motivation

Model Fit Indices	Before deletion	After Deletion
Chi-square	p= 000	0.103
Normalised Chi-Squire	7.885	3.169
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.715	0.976
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.119	0.048
Tuck Lewis Index (TLI)	0.618	0.963

The chi-square *p* value of the 21 items shows a significant difference between data and the model which is an indication of poor fit. However, after carrying out an EFA, 17 items were deleted because they cross loaded and these are: my boss asks me politely to do things, gives me reasons why, and invites my suggestions. I am encouraged to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility. I am left to work without interference from my boss, but help is available if I want it. I am given credit and praise when I do good work or put in extra effort. People leaving the organisation are given an 'exit interview' to hear their views on the organisation. I am incentivised to work hard and well. If I want extra responsibility my boss will find a way to give it to me. If I want extra training my boss will help me find how to get it or will arrange it. My boss is available for me to discuss my concerns or worries or suggestions. I am given an opportunity to solve problems connected with my work. I like to be involved and consulted by my boss about how I can best do my job. I want to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility. I like to work without interference from my boss, but be able to ask for help if I need it. I work best and most productively without pressure from my boss or the threat of losing my job. When I leave the organisation, I would like an 'exit interview' to give my views on the organisation. I want to be able to discuss my concerns, worries or suggestions with my boss or another manager. I like to be given opportunities to solve problems connected with my work. Only 4 items were retained for the employee motivation construct and these are I call my boss and my boss's boss by their first names. I like to be incentivised and praised for working hard and well. I want to be trained to do new things. I like to have regular meetings with my boss to discuss how I can improve and develop.The CFA conducted using the retained items shows a better and acceptable model fit. As depicted in Table 7.25, the Chi-square *p* value is non-significant after delegation of items. The RMSEA reduced (from 0.119 to 0.048) and normalised Chi-square also reduced (from 7.885 to 3.169) whereas fit indices increased as measured by CFI (from 0.715 to 0.976) and TLI (from 0.168 to 0.963).

Table 7.26

Pattern and structure matrix for employee motivation

7.8 Main research results

Section 7.3 presented pilot study results and this section presents results for the main research. The samples and the results for these two sections are different. This section presents the findings of the study objective by objective so as to ensure that all objectives are covered. However, the last objective or objective number four intends to speak to the contribution and recommendations of the study guided by the study finding and is discussed as such in section 8.3.4 and 8.4.

7.8.1 Demographic profile of respondents

This section presents the descriptive statistics of the respondents.

Table 7.27

Distribution by gender

	Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	188	57.5	57.5	57.5
	Female	139	42.5	42.5	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.27 presents the demographic distribution of the respondents according to gender, age, education, experience, province and role of the surveyed employees at ZIMRA. The data was collected from a sample of 327 respondents out of a targeted 328 respondents. Of the 327 respondents, males constituted the majority of the respondents,

dominating by 57.50%. This implies that the results were more skewed to the opinions of male participants.

Table 7.28

Respondents' age

	Age in years	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-25	-	-	-	-
	26-30	26	8.0	8.0	8.0
	31-40	113	34.5	34.5	42.5
	41-50	121	37.0	37.0	79.5
	50+	67	20.5	20.5	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 7.28, no respondents were in the age group 18-25 years. Only 8.00% of the respondents were 26-30 years old, 34.50% were between 31-40 years old, 37.00% between 41-50 years old and 20.50% above 50 years of age. More than three quarters (79.6%) of the respondents were age 50 years or less.

Table 7.29

Distribution according to education

	Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	O-level	-	-	-	-
	A-level	2	0.60	0.60	0.60
	Diploma/Certificate	44	-	13.50	14.10
	Bachelor's Degree	136	41.60	41.60	55.70
	Honours Degree	135	41.30	41.30	97.00
	Master's Degree	10	3.10	3.10	100.0
	Doctorate/ Higher	-	-	-	100.0
	Other	-	-	-	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

It is evident from Table 7.29 that only 0.6% of the respondents had an Advanced Level certificate as their highest qualification. A total of 13.5% had a Diploma/ Certificate as their highest qualification. The majority (41.6%) of the respondents had a Bachelor's degree followed by another 41.3% who had an Honours degree as highest qualification. Only 3.10% of the respondents had a Masters as their highest qualification. Thus nearly all respondents had at least a Diploma or Certificate implying that the respondents were educated enough to be able provide reliable responses to the questionnaire instrument.

Table 7.30

Years of work experience

	Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	< 1year	-	-	-	-
	1 < x < 3 years	6	1.80	1.80	1.80
	3 < x < 5 years	51	15.60	15.60	17.40
	5 < x < 7 years	126	38.70	38.70	56.10
	7+ years	143	43.90	43.90	100.00
	< 1year	-	-	-	100.00
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.30 depicts that more than three quarters (82.6%) of the respondents had at least five years of experience working for ZIMRA. Only 1.8% had between 1-3 years of experience whilst 15.6% had 3-5 years of experience. No respondents had less than one year of experience at ZIMRA. This implies that the respondents had more knowledge about the organisation and can effectively provide valid information critical for this study.

Table 7.31

Respondents' province of work

	Province	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Mash East	79	24.20	24.20	24.20
	Mash West	68	20.80	20.80	45.00
	Masvingo	-	-	-	45.00
	Mat North	66	20.20	20.20	65.20
	Mat South	89	27.20	27.20	92.40
	Midlands	-	-	-	92.40
	Manicaland	25	7.60	7.60	100.00
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

As discussed earlier on, only provinces that house any of the ten border posts were targeted for this survey and all those provinces participated. As shown in Table 7.31, there were no respondents from Masvingo and Midlands provinces. Matabeleland South had the highest percentage of responses (27.2%) followed by Mashonaland East (24.2%). Mashonaland West had 20.8% whilst Matabeleland North had 20.2%. Manicaland had the lowest response rate at 7.6%.

Table 7.32

Respondents' position

	Position	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Manager	14	4.30	4.30	4.30
	Supervisor	35	10.70	10.70	15.00
	Officer	189	57.80	57.80	72.80
	Workers Union Rep	85	26.00	26.00	98.80
	Other	4	1.20	1.20	100.00
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

The statistics in Table 7.32 also show the distribution of the respondents according their roles at ZIMRA. Of these respondents, 4.3% were in managerial positions, 10.7% in supervisory roles, the majority (57.8%) were officers, 26% were workers' union representatives and 1.2% from the 'other' category.
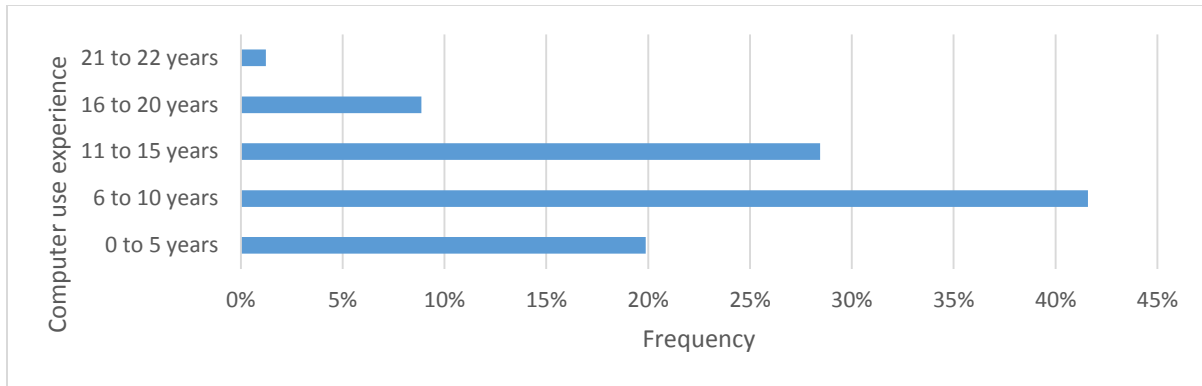
Figure 7.1. Years of experience in computer use.

 Source: Own

Figure 7.1 illustrates the respondents' years of experience in computer use. The majority of the respondents (41.5%) had between six to ten years of computer use experience. This was followed by 28.4% who had between 11 to 15 years of experience, 19.9% who had 0 to five years of experience and 8.9% who had 16 to 20 years of experience. Only 1.2% had the most experience at ZIMRA with 21 to 25 years of experience. Thus, at least 75% of the respondents had experience in using computers for a minimum of six years.

Figure 7.2 shows the percentage of time that respondents spent using the computer during the week according to their computer use ability or computer literacy. No respondents were in the beginner or no knowledge category for computer use. Of those in the apprentice category, 1% used computers 41 to 60% of their time and another 1% used computers 61 to 80% of their time.
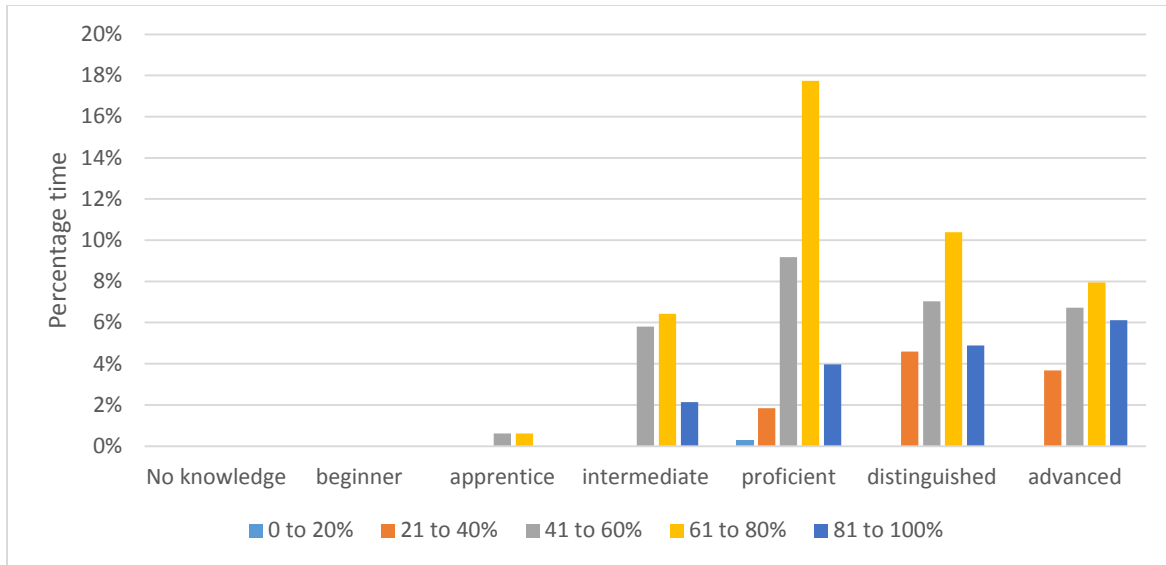
Figure 7.2. Ability to use a computer versus time spent using computer

Source: Own

Those who considered themselves intermediate computer users comprised 5.8% of the respondents who used computers 41 to 60 % of their time and 6.4% of the respondents who used computers 61 to 80% of their time. Only 2.1% of this group used computers 81 to 100% of their time. The majority of the proficient computer users (17.7%) indicated they use computers 61 to 80% of their time followed by 9.2% who said they used computers 41 to 60% of their time. The remaining 1.8% and 4.0% of this category only used computers 21 to 40% and 81 to 10% of their time respectively. Regarding the distinguished and advanced computer users, the majority of them, 10.4% and 8.0%, used computers 61 to 80% of their time respectively. This was followed by 7.0% (distinguished) and 6.7% (advanced) who used 41 to 60% of their time per week on computers.

7.9 Chi-square ($\chi 2$) test for model fit

This is the primary fit index test mostly used in measurement models. If the associated p value is not significant (p > 0.05), this means there is no significant difference between the sample variance/covariance matrix and the model-implied variance/covariance matrix.

Table 7.33

Goodness of fit

Chi-square	Df	Sig. (p-value)
12875.372	694	.000

The results of the Chi-square test presented in Table 7.33 show a significant statistic, (p < 0.05), implying the data does not fit the model well. This could be due to the sample size, an idea supported by Kline (2005). However to cater for this, the study used standardised regression Coefficient to interpret the results.

7.10 KMO Test and Bartlett's Test

In order to be considered suitable for factor analysis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value should be statistically significant at p <0.05 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value should be 0.6 or above (Pallant, 2007). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates that the data is suitable for factor analysis. A non-significant (p>0.05) Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates that the data is not suitable for factor analysis. KMO reports the amount of variance in the data that can be explained by the factors and is a measure of sampling adequacy (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

Table 7.34

KMO Test and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		**.765**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	43470
	Df	1081
	Sig.	**.000**

Table 7.34 shows the results of the EFA. The KMO value was 0.765, which exceeded the recommended value of 0.6. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value was significant (p<0.05), therefore factor analysis was appropriate to analyse the data. Only the first two components recorded eigenvalues above.

7.11   Reliability tests

Cronbach's alpha was used to measure internal consistencies of reliability for all constructs (surveillance, motivation and engagement) in this study. Cronbach's alpha values above 0.7 (Cronbach, 1951) are considered acceptable but values above 0.8 are preferable.

Table 7.35

Cronbach's alpha

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha based on standardised items	Number of items
.778	.811	80

The Cronbach's alpha value for the three constructs was 0.778, which suggests good internal consistency of the questionnaire items for the three constructs. Thus, out of the 80 statements for the three constructs, it was not necessary to delete any of them.

7.12 Objective 1: To examine how workplace surveillance relates to employee engagement.

The initial SEM model sought to investigate the direct relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The figure in 7.3 depicts the findings.

Model Output
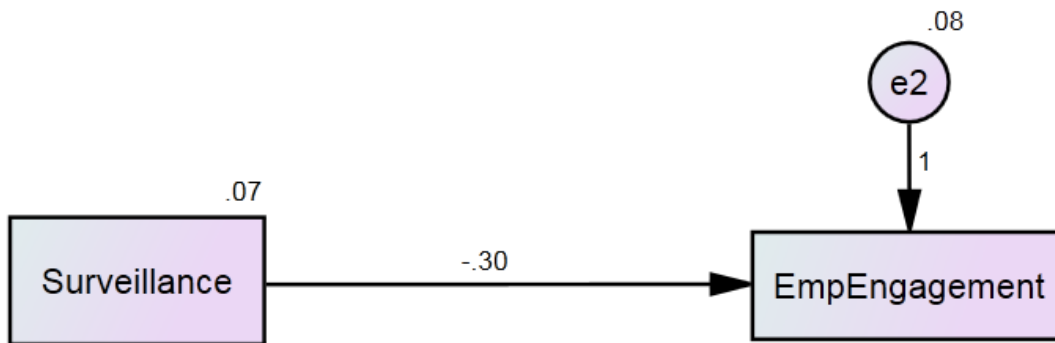
Figure 7.3. Direct relationship

Table 7.36

Regression weights – Employee engagement and surveillance

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Employee Engagement	<---	Surveillance	-.300	.058	-5.168	***	

The initial SEM model sought to investigate the direct relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The results as shown in Figure 7.3 and Table

7.36 show a significant negative relationship between the two. Tomczak et al. (2018) who found that employees are not engaged when continuously being monitored support the finding. Also, Bakar (2013) conducted a study and found that employees tend to be disengaged when they are continuously being monitored and this finding supports this study findings as well. Another study by Esmark et al. (2017) sought to explore employee feelings about workplace surveillance in the retail Industry in India. The study revealed that employees dislike workplace surveillance as it violates their right to privacy and negatively affects their engagement levels and ultimately their work performance.

7.13   Objective 2: To determine how employee motivation relates to employee engagement.

The full model involved employee motivation as a mediating variable between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The results as shown in Figure 7.4 and Table 7.37 indicate that by introducing employee motivation to the model, results in a partially mediated relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The model shows that employee motivation has a positive significant relationship with employee engagement. This implies that the more motivated employees are, the more engaged they are likely to be. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) noted that when employees are demotivated and dissatisfied, they tend to have low engagement levels in their work, which supports the finding that this can negatively affect the overall organisational performance. According to Lemon and Palenchar (2018), engagement is a two-way relationship between employee and employer. If employees are regularly getting benefits from the organisation, they will be motivated and will put all their efforts into engaging in the work for better outcomes.
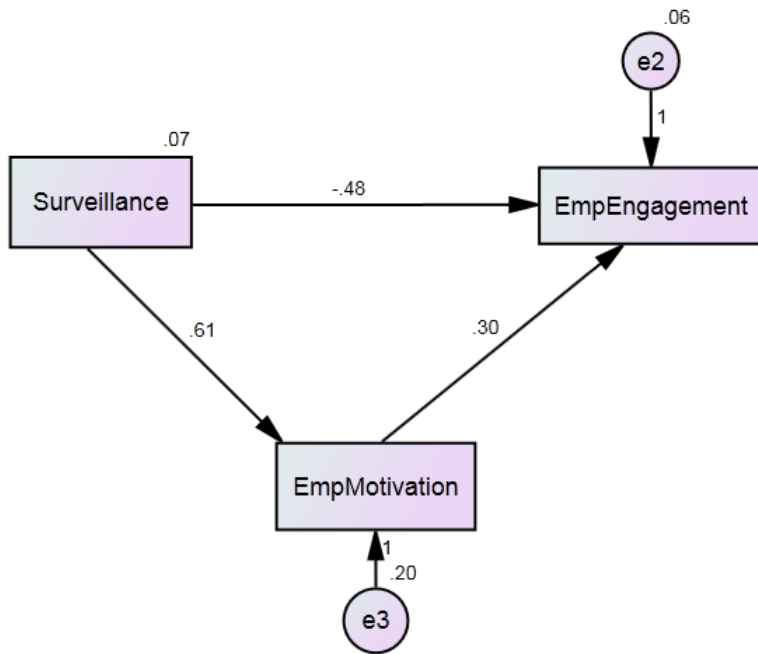
Figure 7.4. Mediator effects

Table 7.37

Regression weights – Employee motivation, surveillance and engagement

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Employee Motivation	<---	Surveillance	.609	.092	6.598	***	
Employee Engagement	<---	Employee Motivation	.299	.031	9.732	***	
Employee Engagement	<---	Surveillance	-.483	.054	-8.85	***	

The Table 7.37 depicts the impact of surveillance on employee motivation, the impact of employee motivation on employee engagement, and the impact of surveillance on employee engagement. The *p* values are all significant at 5% level of significance since p is less than 0.05. Surveillance has a positive significant effect on employee motivation and in addition, employee motivation also has a positive effect on employee engagement. However, surveillance negatively affect employee engagement. The standard errors are less than one implying that the regression coefficients or weights measuring the impact are stable.

7.14   Objective 3: To determine how employee motivation relates to workplace surveillance.

The results on table 7.37 and figure 7.4 also show workplace surveillance to have a positive effect on employee motivation. The finding of this study is supported by Desprochers and Roussos (2001) who emphasise that employee knowledge of workplace surveillance increase motivation in the workplace. This relationship is also

supported by Lopez-Valeiras et al. (2017) who concluded that employees tend to perceive such workplace surveillance as a motivating system. They argued that this is because it aids in performance evaluation and rewarding criteria compared to a subjective system where supervisors use their own subjective judgements. Research by Lopez-Valeiras et al (2017) add that in this relationship, employees receive workplace surveillance system both positively and negatively. On a positive note, their research found that surveillance motivates employees to increase production through concentrating more on their work as opposed to soldering around when they know that there is no surveillance.

However, critics have argued that motivation through fear is not the best approach to inspire employees to perform at their best. The general argument is that people tend to change their behaviour when they know they are being watched. A study by Tomczak et al. (2018) on a call centre found that the surveillance system that was introduced by management did not improve employee motivation, but actually led to the opposite. The majority of studies on the subject found a negative relationship between surveillance and employee motivation. For example, Manzoor (2012) carried out a study to check the relationship between employee motivation, workplace surveillance and organisational performance and found a negative relationship between employee motivation and workplace surveillance. Manzoor's findings were also supported by findings from a similar study by Moussa (2015). Another study by Potoski and Calley (2018) found that workers whose communication was monitored were at greater risk for mental health problems. The employees involved suffered from higher rates of depression, anxiety, and fatigue than those who were not monitored.

In conclusion, this chapter presented the research results, discussion and interpretation of findings for the pilot study and the main study. The chapter presented results collected using SurveyMonkey from 36 pilot study respondents and 327 main study

respondents out of a total target population of 364. This was done using descriptive analysis and the confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis technique to generate relevant factors and associated latent variables in each of the constructs of the proposed conceptual model. Statistical Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 and AMOS software were employed to compute and analyse the data. The chapter presented that workplace surveillance has a positive effect on employee motivation while employee motivation was found to be a mediating variable between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. A SEM model found a direct relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The following chapter presents the outcome in connection with the hypotheses and the literature discussed. This chapter provides conclusions and recommendations for future research and professional and managerial practice. The contribution of the study, limitations of the research and areas for future research are also provided in the following chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to examine employee motivation as a mediator of the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst employees at the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority. Being a parastatal that was formed and mandated to operate in terms of Chapter 23:11 of the Revenue Authority Act in 2001, there was need to understand the impact of workplace surveillance on employees albeit revenue expectations from the state. This chapter focuses on the main research findings while linking such findings to ZIMRA's mandate as opposed to repeating what has been noted in the previous chapters. The findings of the study are also discussed in relation to the research objectives and hypotheses. Further, implications of the research findings and recommendations are provided in this chapter.

8.2 Theoretical implications of the study

The research findings that employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement resembles McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. This is mainly because the theory is premised on the view that employee motivation thrives depending on the management approach employed in an organisation. When employees are given workplace democracy guided by Theory Y, they tend to feel trusted and work harder towards their goals. In cases of Theory X where tight supervision is put in place, employees tend to meet their targets due to continued supervision. Thus, the McGregor Theory X and Y can be used to interpret effectively this result finding. These are also the same sentiments coined by Khan (1990)

who concluded that an employee who is engaged physically, emotionally and cognitively is the most desired and productive employee. The research findings echo Foucault (1977) that surveillance is punitive and oppressive, hence the need to manage it for productivity purposes. These three theories were useful as their principles and reviewed literature guided this study to find that employee motivation positively mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement at ZIMRA. The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on the mediating role that employee motivation has on workplace surveillance and employee engagement. If management invest more in surveillance solution at the expense of employee needs, negative results can manifest (Lopez-Valeiras et al., 2017; Kardas & Cicekli 2017; Tomczak et al., 2018; Manzoor 2012; Moussa 2015; Potoski & Calley 2018).

8.3 Discussion and Conclusion

The research sought to test a hypothesis that a negative relationship exists between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. An objective to examine how workplace surveillance relates to employee engagement was also coined in the research. The research findings show a SEM model which shows the direct relationship between employee surveillance and engagement. The results as shown in Figure 7.3 and Table 7.30 depict a significant negative relationship between the two variables. Some of the reviewed literature above (e.g. Bakar, 2013; Esmark et al., 2017) which concluded that employees do not like to be monitored at the workplace support this finding. Foucault (1977)'s panoptic theory to surveillance was adopted for this study defining surveillance as negative cohesive, repressive and disciplinary. The research findings concur with this definition in that employees feel that surveillance imposes too much discipline on them, it forces employees to behave in a modelled way against their will. Guided by Kahn's (1990) theory, the findings denote that employees lowly articulate

and utilise themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically when working under workplace surveillance.

Another research hypothesis sought to explore if a negative relationship exists between employee motivation and workplace surveillance. This hypothesis had a similar objective, which was to determine how employee motivation relates to workplace surveillance. The research findings as depicted above show that a positive relationship exists between workplace surveillance and employee motivation. Scarce literature by Desprochers and Roussos (2001), Lopez-Valeiras et al., (2017) and Kardas and Cicekli (2017) supports this finding and available literature opines that employee knowledge of workplace monitoring may increase motivation in the workplace.

However, critics (Desprochers & Roussos, 2001; Mohamed & Maimunah, 2015; Maduka & Okafor, 2014) have argued that when an organisation motivates its employee through fear, that is a bad way of gaining such motivation and that can compromise the quality of production. The general argument is that people tend to change their behaviour when they know they are being watched. A study by Ball (2011) within a call centre found that the surveillance programme did not improve employee motivation, but actually led to the decline of employee motivation. The majority of studies on the subject found a negative relationship between surveillance and employee motivation. For example, Manzoor (2012) carried out a study to check the relationship between employee motivation, workplace surveillance and organisational performance and found a negative relationship between employee motivation and workplace surveillance. Manzoor's (2012) findings were also supported by Moussa (2015). Another study by Potoski and Calley (2018) in USA found that workers whose communication was under surveillance were at greater risk of mental health problems. The employees involved suffered from higher rates of depression, anxiety, and fatigue than those who were not monitored. McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y assists in

understanding how management creates a harmonious workplace under such surveillance. Since the results depict a positive relationship between workplace surveillance and employee motivation, McGregor's (1960) theory Y which denotes a participatory approach to management effectively explains such findings. On the same note, Foucault's (1977) panoptic theory depicts a scenario where the research findings show employees who are moulded to behave according to organisation expectations in the face of workplace surveillance.

The third hypothesis that the research sought to explore was the relationship between employee motivation and employee engagement. This hypothesis had a similar objective which sought to determine how employee motivation relates to employee engagement. The results show a SEM model above depicting that employee motivation has a positive significant relationship with employee engagement.

This implies that the more motivated employees are, the more engaged they are likely to be. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) noted that when employees are demotivated and dissatisfied, they tend to have low engagement levels in their work. According to Lemon and Palenchar (2018), engagement is two-way relationship between employee and employer. If employees are regularly getting benefits from the organisation, they will be motivated and will put all their efforts into engaging in the work for better outcomes. The results echo McGregor's (1960) theory which reiterates that, depending on employee experience, the Theory X or Theory Y approach results in motivated and engaged employees. Kahn's (1990) theory also supports this outcome by depicting that an engaged employee is one who articulates and utilises themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically when doing their work.

The fourth hypothesis that the research sought to explore was that employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The results as shown in Figure 7.4 and Table 7.37 indicate that introducing employee

motivation to the model results in a partially mediated the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The model shows that employee motivation has a positive significance on the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. It can be inferred from the results that employee motivation mediates the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Maduka and Okafor (2014) conducted a research on the impact of motivation as a mediator of workplace productivity amongst Nnewi manufacturing companies. They found that the relationship that exists between employee motivation and employee workplace autonomy and engagement is positive and is highly determined by the management approach in place. Mohamed and Maimunah (2015) conducted a study to ascertain the impact of management praises and motivation strategies on an employee who is having low job satisfaction and low work engagement and autonomy. The findings were that when management trusts its employees, praises them and invests in by motivating them (Theory Y), employees become more engaged and determined to their work. This study concluded that employee motivation mediates the relationship that exists between work autonomy, employee engagement and management approach.

Zameer et al., (2014) conducted a study at the University of Central Florida to ascertain the impact of job satisfaction and employee motivation in mediating between work environment and organisational leadership. The study concluded that job satisfaction and employee motivation positively mediate between work environment and organisational leadership. The study added that there is need for management to ensure that there is an open door policy and two-way communication if employee motivation is to drive business success. Saltson and Nsiah (2015) later on conducted a study with the aim of ascertaining the relationship between work performance, employee motivation and perceived organisational support. In their study, employee motivation

was used as both a mediating and mediating variable on the relationship that exists between work performance and perceived organisational support.

The study concluded that employee motivation was effective in mediating between the variables. These studies concluded that the more motivated employees are, the more engaged they are in their work despite the presence of workplace surveillance.

8.4 Recommendations

This section presents the recommendations that are made to the ZIMRA management and employees based on the findings of the research. The recommendations are made guided by the research findings and various ways in which such recommendations can be implemented are also discussed under this section.

8.4.1 Employee engagement and workplace surveillance

ZIMRA's employees are the key drivers to fulfilling of the organisation's mandate that was stipulated by the government of Zimbabwe. For the ZIMRA management to ensure that employees are engaged in their work in the presence of all types of workplace surveillance, there is need for the employer to first seek employee buy-in for most activities that affect the employees. When ZIMRA wants to employ more surveillance systems at the workplace, Hu et al. (2017) reiterated that buy-in must be sought with the employees as opposed to secretly installing such equipment without informing them. If such systems are secretly installed, issues to do with privacy are most likely to be raised by the employees and possible legal battles can ensue as found by the study conducted by Varian (2014) and Steinfeld (2017). Asking employees to contribute to the preferred workplace surveillance goal is very vital as opposed to forcing them. Such contributions will benefit ZIMRA in getting the buy-in from the employees as they will feel wanted and trusted and this builds great engagement levels at the workplace. Since the results

show a negative relationship, ZIMRA needs to take note that surveillance can negatively affect them from meeting their mandate as stated by the Government of Zimbabwe. To avoid such pitfalls, ZIMRA management is advised to seek employee buy-in order to attain their goals, avoid public backslash, and avert slow turnaround times at various border posts. With Zimbabwe's labour turnover at 19% (Murongazvombo, 2015), ZIMRA need to ensure that it does not lose its expertise due to intensive use of workplace surveillance.

Secondly, for ZIMRA to keep employees engaged under the presence of workplace surveillance, there is need to avail more awards to the employees (Sibanda et al., 2014). Since the study found a negative relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement, giving awards that are achievement related is critical in enhancing employee engagement. There is a need to invest more in employee engagement so as to counter the impacts of workplace surveillance. Selvarajan et al. (2018) added that such performance-related awards must also be followed by negative punishment for any poor performers.

Third, for ZIMRA to keep employees engaged in their work despite the presence of workplace surveillance, Sievert and Scholz (2017) concluded that there is a need to ensure that information dissemination is not blocked. The results of the study depict a negative relationship between employee engagement and workplace surveillance and this calls for open and clear information sharing so as to mitigate the relationship lest production suffers. Soderlund (2017) reiterated that there is a need to make sure that employees are well informed about what will be happening in the organisation to eliminate suspicion and rumour mongering which is detrimental to employee engagement.

Fourth, in order to manage the negative relationship postulated by the results, ZIMRA needs to assist its employees in career growth regardless of the department an

employee wishes to join. ZIMRA must ensure that management and personal grudges at work do not hamper employee career ambitions. In addition, Strauss et al. (2017) added that there is need to ensure that the workforce is satisfied if employee engagement is to be attained in the face of workplace surveillance. Suttikun et al. (2018) went on to add that employee satisfaction can be attained through investing in employee training needs. This will enhance job performance and employee skills and ultimately mitigate the relationship found by the study to be negative if slow turnaround time is to be managed at ZIMRA border posts.

In the wake of workplace surveillance's negative relationship with employee engagement, giving constant feedback to employees is critical in ensuring that disgruntled clients are well served at all border posts. Tomczak et al. (2018) reiterated that it is now outdated to solely rely on annual and quarterly reviews in giving feedback to employees. Employee feedback needs to be done regularly, allowing room for intervention in managing the negative relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement albeit organisational mandate. This will go a long way in managing the negative relationship between the two variables. It is important to note that employees appreciate receiving clear, constant and specific feedback if they are to work harder for the organisation. Effective management of this relationship will go a long way in mitigating research findings by Rosenblat et al. (2014) who found that one in every five public service employees is disengaged.

8.4.2   Employee motivation and employee engagement

The results of the study found that these two variables have a positive relationship to each other. This is important for ZIMRA management to note that they can be managed simultaneously and a change to another variable positively affects the other. There is also need for ZIMRA management to maintain a motivated and engaged workforce all the time in the workplace for productivity. Since the results show that a motivated

employee is an engaged employees, ZIMRA management can invest much in one variable and the other variable will positively respond. Tomczak et al. (2018) added that this can be attained by recognising performers through writing them some notes of appreciation. Such notes of appreciation go a long way in strengthening the relationship between employer and employees. The study findings conclude that a poor relationship between these two variables results in a disengaged and demotivated workforce. It can be argued that nobody can feel motivated about and engaged in their work when there is no mutual understanding and respect at the workplace. When this positive relationship is well managed, this will benefit both the employees and the organisation at large. Maduka and Okafor (2014) also concluded that it is important to invest much in employee motivation and employee engagement for maximum organisational performance.

Ensuring that new employees are put onto the on boarding exercise is critical in having engaged and motivated employees. Since the two have a positive relationship, they can be managed simultaneously and a change to another affect the other. Urban (2017) opined that on-boarding prepares the new employee for the organisation and assists them settle and perform their duties. So, capitalising on on-boarding has tremendous results for employee engagement and motivation. In doing the on-boarding exercise, ZIMRA management must show that employee feedback is valued and cannot be ignored because it is inherent in employees and human beings in general to want to be heard. Investing in such an exercise will assist in averting the notion raised by Allen (2014) that public organisations consequently face the criticism that they do not deliver the quality of service they are expected to deliver.

In the drive to fortress the positive relationship between employee motivation and engagement, there is need for ZIMRA management to identify mentors who assist other employees in growing and realising their career path. Vilnai-Yavetz and Levina (2018)

concluded that this mentorship assists the young and versatile talent that can be used in coming up with innovative ideas for organisational success. This is more effective if employees are then given the chance to solve their own work-related problems with little or no interference from management. Mafini, Surujlal and Dhurup (2013) opined that for organisations to survive in an unstable global village there is need for employers to invest in employee satisfaction and loyalty. In this regard, ZIMRA needs to conduct employee surveys on a regular basis to ensure that the employee satisfaction index and engagement levels are kept within expected range. This will assist in managing any surprises from employees like sabotage, labour turnover and pilferage.

8.4.3   Employee motivation and workplace surveillance

The results of this study show that workplace surveillance has a positive effect on employee motivation. Wong et al. (2017) said that it is important to note that in as much as organisations have the duty to make sure that employees are working by employing workplace surveillance mechanisms on employees, a lot needs to be considered. ZIMRA management must note that first, such surveillance must not infringe on employee rights lest employee motivation will be affected. Therefore, based on the research findings, ZIMRA management needs to invest in workplace surveillance since it motivates the employees. Whiteoak and Mohamed (2016) observed that this goes a long way in ensuring that turnaround times at the workplace are reduced and ultimately manage the public backlash for most public organisations.

Secondly, since workplace surveillance positively influences employee motivation, ZIMRA anticipates maximum performance and work attention by employees since their wages are performance based. Zuboff (2015) underlined that it is recommended that ZIMRA put in place policies that ensure employees do not abuse work time doing their own business. An employee must not use organisational time to engage in acts that do not benefit the organisation and hence the need for such workplace surveillance as

concluded by studies conducted by Zachary (2013), Yerby (2013), Tsakanikas and Dagiuklas (2017) since such surveillance benefits both the employer and employee through increased production and on performance evaluation, workplace surveillance remains critical for organisations. It is recommended that ZIMRA educate its employees on the need of such surveillance for organisational success, considering its positive relationship with employee motivation.

In addition, the literature by Tsakanikas and Dagiuklas (2017) and Tomczak et al., (2018) that was reviewed by this study and the results of this study have highlighted that when employees know about the existence of workplace surveillance, their motivation levels increase. However, it is recommended that ZIMRA management assesses the psychological effects of such surveillance on employees because some literature argues that motivation through fear is not the way to go in any organisation. When such assessments are done, both ZIMRA and employees will benefit.

It is also recommended that in investing in workplace surveillance, considering its relationship with employee motivation, ZIMRA management needs to consider the liability in such an investment. Studies by Townsm and Cobb (2012) and Steinfeld (2017) conclude that in cases that employees use company facilities like emails, internet and intranet to send sensitive company information to external people, it calls for the need of such surveillance. Such employee actions negatively affect the organisation's image, thereby inviting the employer to use surveillance in managing such liability.

Fifth, it is recommended that since workplace surveillance positively informs employee motivation, ZIMRA management needs to invest more in it. According to Strauss et al., (2017) and Schustera et al., (2017), this is mainly because workplace surveillance aids a lot in performance management through exposing all non-performing employees. Aspects to do with favouritism can also be unearthed by the use of such facilities at the workplace to police the contractual agreement made between the employer and the

employee. The use of such surveillance under such circumstances boosts employee motivation since rewards are accurately provided with results being spooled from the surveillance system as opposed to subjective supervisor comments.

8.4.4 Workplace surveillance, employee engagement and motivation strategies

Schustera et al. (2017) concluded that workplace surveillance is a contentious issue with human rights and trade union activists who insist that such action by management infringes employee privacy. However, there are certain employers like ZIMRA who cannot operate without knowing how employees are behaving especially at the border posts for protection and productivity reasons. It is interesting to also know that, as found by the study, there are employees who tolerate and understand the importance and necessity of workplace surveillance. Selvarajan et al. (2018) said that on the other hand, there are also employees who do not tolerate and understand the importance and need for workplace surveillance. This implies that ZIMRA has to come up with strategies that strike a balance between these extreme views and contentions. In view of that, ZIMRA can adopt many strategies in ensuring that there is a balance between workplace surveillance, employee morale and productivity.

The first strategy that ZIMRA management may put in place to manage those employees who tolerate workplace surveillance and those that do not tolerate workplace surveillance is to ensure that workplace surveillance is humanised. It is not in contention that many employers, including ZIMRA, need to know what is happening in the offices of their employees. Sievert and Scholz (2017) reiterated that it is the duty of the employer to ensure that employees are working and production is fine with no theft cases. Workplace surveillance seeks to ensure that all workplace regulations are in order (Sherri & Fountain, 2012). However, in doing all these duties, the ZIMRA management needs to take a human approach that does not infuriate employees. It is trite for ZIMRA to try not to tightly monitor employee personal emails or reducing tea and toilet breaks or restrict personal mobile phone usage at work. Such tight surveillance will result in some employees being disengaged while others are motivated by such surveillance thereby creating a divided workforce.

Furthermore, harmonisation of the workplace surveillance will alleviate a negative relationship that was found between employee engagement and workplace surveillance. It will also cement the positive relationship that was found between workplace surveillance and employee motivation and the positive relationship that was found between employee motivation and employee engagement (Saks, 2017). This humanised approach will benefit both ZIMRA and employees and ultimately reduce the contentious slow turnaround times at the border posts. The study found a positive relationship between employee motivation and workplace surveillance calling for ZIMRA to embrace consultative processes in surveillance management. This will ensure a friendly workplace considering that employee engagement negatively related to workplace surveillance. Also, management needs to use words that describe workplace surveillance in a way that makes employees see and trust such surveillance as part of their working environment. There is need for less or no use of words like eye track, monitoring, spying, watching and instead to use words like assessing, reviewing, analysing, crosschecking among others (Roberts & David, 2017).

Another recommendation to ZIMRA management is that before they employ workplace surveillance, management must be sure of what to monitor and the studies by Rietzschel et al., (2014) and Qureshi and Syed (2014) reiterated the need for the organisation to be sure of what it wants to monitor before introducing surveillance. ZIMRA management can decide to apply workplace surveillance on employee work performance, work output quality and quantity, work starting and finishing time, company vehicle movements and production turnaround times, among others. Yes, ZIMRA management may decide to put all the stated examples under surveillance but is it the right way of using workplace surveillance? Workplace surveillance must seek to protect both ZIMRA and its employees and the reason why such workplace

surveillance is put in place must be made clear prior to installation of such a system for avoidance of doubt and confusion.

The organisation is recommended to come up with a clear workplace surveillance policy in consultation with employees to avert the negative relationship between employee engagement and workplace surveillance. ZIMRA management should then effectively communicate this policy to all employees without intimidation or favour, allowing questions for any grey areas. Management must ensure that the policy needs to be accessible to everyone for easy implementation and understanding (Potoski & Calley, 2018; Pavone et al., 2017). There is need for management and workers to regularly review the policy so that it remains relevant.

In conclusion, focusing on the main research findings while affirming the findings to ZIMRA mandate and research hypotheses and objectives formed the main theme of this chapter. This was done instead of repeating what has been noted in the previous chapters. A discussion on the implications of the research findings was also provided. Also, recommendations were made to management on the ways in which workplace surveillance can be implemented without affecting employee engagement and motivation. The following section discusses the contribution that this study makes to ZIMRA and the body of knowledge in general, giving recommendations for practical management use.

8.5 Contribution of the study

This section outlines how the study undertaken contributes to the knowledge of the research constructs under discussion. The section focuses on how the results depict what was done before and any new ideas ushered in by this research. Theories used to underline the research constructs are also evaluated under this section. Further, the

theoretical model that this paper offers is discussed under this section alongside its strength when compared to other models.

8.5.1   Workplace surveillance and employee engagement

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on the relationship that exists between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The results show that an initial SEM model, which sought to investigate the relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement, was utilised. The results as shown in Figure 7.3 and Table 7.30 show a significant negative relationship between the two. Tomczak et al. (2018) who found that employees are not engaged when continuously being monitored support the finding. Bakar (2013) who found that employees are not engaged when continuously being monitored also supports the finding. Another research by Esmark et al. (2017) sought to explore employee feelings about workplace surveillance in the retail industry in India. The study has revealed that employees dislike workplace surveillance as it violates their right to privacy and negatively affects their engagement levels and ultimate work performance. The study was heavily informed by Foucault's (1977) Panoptic Theory of Surveillance on the discussion around workplace surveillance while Khan's (1990) theory of engagement informed all the discussion around employee engagement.

The research findings on workplace surveillance resemble the theorising by Foucault in 1977 that surveillance is punitive and oppressive and hence the negative relationship by this study. Khan (1990) theorised that an employee who is engaged physically, emotionally and cognitively is the most desired employee and the study found that no such employee could be found in an organisation that has a heavy presence of workplace surveillance.

8.5.2   Employee motivation and engagement

The study also contributes to the existing body of knowledge on the relationship that exists between employee motivation and employee engagement. The full model involved employee motivation as a mediating variable between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The results as shown in Figure 7.4 and Table 7.37 indicate that introducing employee motivation to the model, results in a partially mediated relationship between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. The model shows that employee motivation has a positive significant relationship with employee engagement. This implies that the more motivated employees are, the more engaged they are likely to be. Mafini and Dlodlo (2014) said that when employees are demotivated and dissatisfied, they tend to have low engagement levels in their work which supports the finding of this study and it can be added that this can negatively affect the overall organisational performance. According to Lemon and Palenchar (2018), engagement is two-way relationship between employee and employer. If employees are regularly receiving benefits from the organisation, they will be motivated and will put all their efforts into engaging in the work for better outcomes. The research findings on employee motivation resemble the theorising that was done on McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y where employee motivation thrives when the management approach drives employee motivation. These areas are also the same sentiments coined by Khan (1990) who concluded that an employee who is engaged physically, emotionally and cognitively is the most desired employee. These two theories were useful in this research as they enabled the study to determine that employee motivation positively relates to employee engagement at ZIMRA.

8.5.3 Workplace surveillance and employee motivation

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on the relationship that exists between workplace surveillance and employee motivation. The results of the study show workplace surveillance to have a positive effect on employee motivation. This

was a rare finding since few studies support this finding. The few studies that do support this finding include Desprochers and Roussos (2001) who highlighted the argument that employee knowledge of workplace monitoring may increase motivation in the workplace. Lopez-Valeiras et al. (2017) who concluded that employees tend to perceive such workplace surveillance as a motivating system also support this relationship. They argued that this is because it aids in performance evaluation and rewarding criteria as opposed to the subjective system where supervisors use their own judgements. Research by Kardas and Cicekli (2017) support this relationship, adding that employees regard workplace surveillance systems both positively and negatively. On a positive note, their research found that surveillance motivates employees to increase production through work concentration as opposed to loafing around when they know that there is no surveillance. However, research by Tomczak et al., (2018); Manzoor (2012) ; Moussa (2015) and Potoski and Calley (2018) on this relationship found that it was negative Foucault's (1977) Panoptic Theory of Surveillance on the discussion around workplace surveillance heavily informed the study while McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y informed the discussion around employee motivation. The research findings on workplace surveillance resemble the theorising that was done by Foucault in 1977 that surveillance is punitive and oppressive but is compounded by McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y that employee motivation varies with an applied management approach producing a positive relationship between these two variable at ZIMRA.

8.6 Research limitations

The research had notable limitations that need to be highlighted so that caution can be taken in applying these findings to the entire population in ZIMRA. The first limitation is that the study was done in the provinces that house the ten main border posts in

Zimbabwe since they are the country's entry and exist points where allegations of poor service delivery are emanating from. The units of analysis were the permanent employees for ZIMRA and comprised both managers and workers at the border posts only. This excluded all employees in various ZIMRA offices in urban areas and towns even though they work hand in hand with ZIMRA border posts. Due to this limitation, caution must be taken in applying these findings to the entire population in ZIMRA.

The second limitation is that data was collected using the SurveyMonkey method. Most organisations restrict the SurveyMonkey messages from getting through to their corporate email servers for security reasons. The researcher had to liaise with ZIMRA management to allow their email server to accept messages from SurveyMonkey since their ICT department had barred the messages for security reasons.

The third limitation relates to the use of the quantitative research design. This research design is expensive, challenging to use and need a lot of time in doing the data analysis. The design calls a researcher who has got an in-depth understanding of the statistical packages and analysis tools. The researcher engaged the services of statisticians to ensure that the data analysis and interpretation is properly done regardless of higher charges demanded.

The forth limitation is based on the use of structured questionnaires in data gathering. The questionnaire had closed questions giving no room for the responded to elaborate their views. The fifth and last limitation is that the data was collected at a single point. This entails that if the respondent is absent on the day the research was done, the response won't be covered leaving room for inadequate results. The researcher had to communicate with the organisation to allow targeted respondents to be available on the agreed data collection date and time.

8.7 Suggestions for future research

Workplace surveillance is a fairly new concept in Zimbabwe and the concept has not received more research attention. This research focused more on how workplace surveillance can influence employee engagement when mediated by employee motivation. Similar research can be done in Zimbabwe among other parastatals with a bigger sample size. This may be conducted so as to authenticate and or verify the unique results that this study found which went against a vast amount of literature. Literature by Sibanda (2016); Lemon and Palenchar (2018); Potoski and Calley (2018) noted that there are other variables that interfere with how employee motivation mediates among other variables and this study did not consider those variables. These variables include but are not limited to personality, organisational culture and remuneration. Future research may be conducted to ascertain how these variables mediate the relationship between the research constructs under study.

The relationship that was found to be negative in previous studies in the USA and Indian public organisations was not confirmed by this study. This can be attributed to differences in the sample size and business environment among the three countries. Another research in Zimbabwe on the same constructs can be replicated since previous studies and this one are not in agreement.

8.8 Delimitations of the study

Geographically, the study was done in the provinces that house the ten border posts in Zimbabwe since they are the country's entry and exist points where allegations of poor service delivery are emanating from. The units of analysis were permanent employees for ZIMRA comprising both managers and workers at the border posts. This excluded all employees in various ZIMRA offices in urban areas and towns. No contractors or

part-time employees or agents were included in the study even though they work hand in hand with ZIMRA. In terms of concept demarcation, in dealing with employee engagement, the three key employee engagement components as defined by Kahn (1990) were studied. These are cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. In dealing with employee motivation, the two major workplace management styles that are portrayed by McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y were studied. These are authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y).

Regarding workplace surveillance, Foucault's (1977)'s view that workplace surveillance is negative and punitive guided this study. The study narrowed itself to employee motivation as a mediator between workplace surveillance and employee engagement but there are other factors that can affect this relationship which the study did not look into, such as personality, organisational culture and remuneration. Personality is one key factor that this research ignored but can affect the research outcome. An employee's temperament and or character can determine the way they respond to the questions and this could have affected this research. Organisational culture is another key factor that can affect this research outcome but was measured. The way things are done in an organisation can be interpreted in many ways and one person can be fine with the existing culture while another may not be fine and this can affect their responses. Remuneration is another factor that this research did not measure but which could have had an effect on this research. When employees are well remunerated they can choose to give positive responses to all questions that have anything to do with their management.

In conclusion, this chapter described the research design for the study and the study method for the selected research design. This study was guided by the positivism research paradigm and the study used the survey design which is quantitative and descriptive in nature. The chapter noted that ZIMRA was purposely selected for this

study because it is the country's entry and exit points and there are many complaints in print media on their slow turnaround time at the border posts. There are ten border posts countrywide and the study employed a census approach by including all the border posts in the research to avoid bias and ensure representativeness. The chapter discussed the reliability and validity of the study instrument. Bradburn (2016) noted that when a researcher is concerned about research congruency, a tight fit among research details, research evidence and research conclusion, that is a concern for validity. Reliability seeks to measure that if the research instrument is to be subjected over and over on the same respondents whether it will give the same conclusions all the time. Data for this research was collected through SurveyMonkey where respondents were sent a link that when opened would direct them to the research instrument. SEM was used to analyse the conceptual framework and AMOS software was used for data analysis. Ethical considerations were also taken into account before collecting data and the delimitations of the study were also highlighted.

8.8 Research conclusion

The research found that workplace surveillance negatively relates to employee engagement while employee motivation was found to positively relate to workplace surveillance. This was a unique finding compared to studies that were previously done and that found a negative relationship. Employee motivation was found to positively relate to employee engagement. Strategies that ZIMRA can adopt in monitoring employees without affecting their engagement and motivation while boosting the turnaround times were also discussed.

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ANNEXURE A: Research Instrument

Dear Respondent

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, WORKPPLACE SURVEILLANCE AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AMONG ZIMBABWE REVENUE AUTHORITY EMPLOYEES

I am a Doctor of Commerce in Industrial Psychology candidate in the Faculty of Commerce at University of Fort Hare. I am carrying out a study entitled 'Employee motivation, workplace surveillance and employee engagement among Zimbabwe Revenue Authority employees'

The objective of the study is to investigate how employee motivation moderate between workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst Zimbabwe Revenue Authority workers. Completion of this questionnaire is taken as your 'Informed Consent' to participate in this research.

'Informed Consent' means that:

1. All questions about the research have been answered to your satisfaction,

2. Your participation in the research is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without any negative or undesirable consequences,

3. Anonymity of respondents will be ensured,

4. Your responses will be treated and kept in a confidential manner and only aggregated results (not individual responses) will be mentioned in the research output.

This study is a purely academic, and it is completely independent of any commercial interests. Please feel free to contact me or my supervisor, Prof Willie Tafadzwa Chinyamurindi, should you have any questions.

Yours faithfully

Fidelis Pedzisai Tsvangirai

Contact details Fidelis Pedzisai Tsvangirai: fptsvangirai@yahoo.com or +263 712 598 342

Co-Supervisor: Contact details Prof Willie Tafadzwa Chinyamurindi: wchinyamurindi@ufh.ac.za or +2781 858 1494   Main Supervisor: Contact details Prof Themba Mjoli : tmjoli@ufh.ac.za

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please indicate by ticking the appropriate box

A1. What is your age range?

18-25	
26-30	
31-40	
41-50	
50+	

A2. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

A3. What is your education level?

O level	
A level	
National Diploma or Certificate	
Bachelor's degree	
Honours degree	
Master's degree	

Doctorate or higher	
Other: Please specify	

A4. How many years of experience do you have at ZIMRA?

Less than 1 year	
1 year to less than 3 years	
3 years to less than 5 years	
5 years to less than 7 years	
7+ years	

A.5 which province is your ZIMRA workstation located?

Mashonaland East	
Mashonaland West	
Matabeleland North	
Matabeleland South	
Manicaland	

A.6 which one of the following best describes your role at ZIMRA?

Director	
Manager	
Supervisor	
Officer	
Workers union representative	
Other (please specify):	

A.7 How many years of experience do you have in using a computer?

Please specify your answer as a whole number (e.g. if its 2 years, write 2 or if its 0.5 years write 1).

A.8 Please rate your level of ability in using a computer by indicating with an "X".

1=No knowledge; 2=Beginner; 3= Apprentice; 4=Intermediate; 5=Proficient; 6=Distinguished; 7= Advanced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A.9 what percentage of time do you spent per week using a computer for work-related activities?

Please specify your answer as a whole number (e.g. if its 0%, write 0 or if its 25% write 25).

SECTION B: WORKPLACE SURVEILLANCE

Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement listed below by indicating with an "X".

1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= Somewhat Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Somewhat Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B.1 I am aware my organisation has workplace surveillance.							
B.2 I believe my personal privacy should be maintained while							

at work.						
B.3 I believe the advantages of having workplace surveillance at my organisation significantly outweigh the possible disadvantages.						
B.4 I believe my organisation has a right to keep track of what its employees' are doing while at work.						
B.5 I understand there are potential consequences for employees (getting reprimanded, demoted, or fired) for using organisation property inappropriately.						
B.6 I prefer to work in an autonomous work environment.						
B.7 I believe any type of monitoring at work is an invasion of my privacy.						
B.8 I support the use of workplace surveillance at my organisation.						
B.9 I am aware of how my organisation is monitoring its employees through workplace surveillance.						
B.10 I disapprove of my organisation's use of workplace surveillance to monitor how I work.						
B.11 I do not understand why my organisation monitors employees.						
B.12 I have a clear understanding of what my organisation is monitoring.						
B.13 I think it is all right to use organisation property for personal use as long as it does not affect my productivity.						
B.14 Knowing that I am monitored at work has made me aware of how I should work.						

B.15 Being monitored has made me feel not part of the family at my organisation.							
B.16 I have received information on how my work has been affected ever since implementation of the workplace surveillance.							
B.17 As a whole, I like the idea of having a workplace surveillance.							

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement listed below by indicating with an "X".

1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= Some-what Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Some-what Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My Job							
C.1 I have the tools and resources I need to do my job well.							
C.2 I have received the training I need to do my job well.							
C.3 The amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable.							
C.4 My job provides me with a sense of meaning and purpose.							
C.5 Most days, I feel I am making progress on important work projects or initiatives.							
C.6 My job offers enough variety to keep me engaged.							
C.7 I find enjoyment in the job that I perform.							
C.8 My talents and abilities are used well in my current position.							

C.9 The level of stress in my job is manageable.							
C.10 I have the authority I need to do my best work.							
C.11 I feel that we can speak up without fear of retribution or negative consequences.							
C.12 My work is valued by this organisation.							
C.13 It is easy to become absorbed in my job.							
C.14 Most days, I look forward to coming to work.							
C.15 Overall, I am satisfied with my job.							
My Superior							
C.16 I clearly understand what my superior expects of me.							
C.17 My superior establishes effective working relationships with all team members.							
C.18 My superior treats people with fairness and respect.							
C.19 My superior is accessible and responsive to people's needs.							
C.20 My superior gives me feedback on how I am doing.							
C.21 My superior provides clear expectations for my work.							
C.22 My superior has high expectations for our team's performance.							
C.23 My superior regularly recognises or acknowledges me for doing a good job.							
C.24 My superior helps our team to develop and grow.							
C.25 I trust my superior.							
My team							
C.26 The people I work with are dedicated to our clients.							
C.27 The people I work with show a sense of urgency.							

C.28 The people I work with help each other when needed.							
C.29 There are people at work who care about me as a person.							
C.30 The people I work with are ethical in conducting business.							
C.31 The people I work with deliver quality services on a consistent basis.							
C.32 My team openly talks about what needs to be done to be more effective							
C.33 My team works effectively across departments and functions to get the job done.							
C.34 The people I work with do what they say they will do.							
My organisation							
C.35 I am confident in the organisation's future.							
C.36 I have clear understanding of the vision and mission of my organisation.							
C.37 I believe that my performance directly impacts my compensation.							
C.38 I clearly understand the components of my total compensation package.							
C.39 This organisation cares about its people.							
C.40 This organisation provides attractive opportunities growth and development.							
C.41 I would recommend this organisation as a great place to work.							
C.42 My opinions are sought on issues that affect me and my job.							
C.43 I expect to be working here at this time next year.							

SECTION D: EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement listed below by indicating with an "X".

1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= Some-what Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Some-what Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D.1 My boss asks me politely to do things, gives me reasons why, and invites my suggestions							
D.2 I am encouraged to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.							
D.3 I am left to work without interference from my boss, but help is available if I want it.							
D.4 I am given credit and praise when I do good work or put in extra effort.							
D.5 People leaving the organisation are given an 'exit interview' to hear their views on the organisation.							
D.6 I am incentivised to work hard and well.							
D.7 If I want extra responsibility my boss will find a way to give it to me.							
D.8 If I want extra training my boss will help me find how to get it or will arrange it.							

D.9 I call my boss and my boss's boss by their first names.							
D.10 My boss is available for me to discuss my concerns or worries or suggestions.							
D.11 I am given an opportunity to solve problems connected with my work.							
D.12 I like to be involved and consulted by my boss about how I can best do my job.							
D.13 I want to learn skills outside of my immediate area of responsibility.							
D.14 I like to work without interference from my boss, but be able to ask for help if I need it.							
D.15 I work best and most productively without pressure from my boss or the threat of losing my job.							
D.16 When I leave the organisation, I would like an 'exit interview' to give my views on the organisation.							
D.17 I like to be incentivised and praised for working hard and well.							
D.18 I want to be trained to do new things.							
D.19 I want to be able to discuss my concerns, worries or suggestions with my boss or another manager.							
D.20 I like to be given opportunities to solve problems connected with my work							
D.21 I like to have regular meetings with my boss to discuss how I can improve and develop.							

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE