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The Role of Decent Work and Incivility Aggression on Employee Work Outcomes within the Local Government of the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa

By

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ABSTRACT

Orientation: There have been growing calls to address issues of incivility aggression and decent work deficits prevailing in the South African local government.

Research purpose: The study investigated the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee outcomes (employee engagement and job trust) within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

Motivation for the study: The South African local government is in a state of crisis with employees being the most affected. The challenges faced by employees have a major impact on the process of service delivery and these are often accompanied by violent service delivery protests and thus lack of decent work. With workplace incivility being one of the factors that affect the work of public employees, this concept has not been sufficiently addressed in the South African local government. However, decent work remains key to employee well-being, especially as it offers solutions to improving working conditions and job creation and is equally linked to healthy work behaviours. Therefore, the study investigated the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee employee engagement and job trust within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

Research method: The study followed a quantitative research design. Primary data were collected with the help of 425 self-administered questionnaire among employees in the Eastern Cape local government. The inter-relationships among incivility, job trust, decent work and work engagement were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the analysis of a moment structures (AMOS) software.

Main finding: The findings are grouped into two: a) direct relationship tests and b) mediation relationship tests. Concerning direct relationships, the study found that there was a negative but significant predictive effect of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work. Secondly, as opposed to instigated incivility, experienced incivility significantly influenced trust. Thirdly, both experienced and instigated workplace incivility significantly influenced work engagement. Fourthly, decent work significantly influenced job trust. Fifthly, job trust significantly influenced work engagement. Lastly, decent work had a significant and positive influence on work engagement.

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Furthermore, concerning mediation tests, decent work significantly mediated the relationship between incivility aggression and work engagement. Similarly, trust at the workplace significantly mediated the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement. Interestingly, no mediation existed between instigated incivility and work engagement. However, instigated workplace incivility significantly influenced decent work among employees.

Implications for Practice/ theory/ policy: Therefore, policy makers in South Africa should implement policies within the local government that promotes important decent work characteristics such as good working conditions, social support, interdependence, and fairness to counteract incivility aggression. The Eastern local government should provide training, mentoring and coaching sessions on workplace etiquette, standards for respectful communication and interactions among employees in the workplace. These programs would help employees to better understand the impact of their uncivil behaviour on other employees and improve their interpersonal skills in the workplace.

On the theoretical contributions, the findings collectively contribute to the theoretical discourse by offering empirical support and expanding the application of existing frameworks in underexplored contexts such as the South African local government. These findings emphasize the need for organizations to adopt holistic strategies that address workplace incivility, promote decent work, and foster trust to enhance engagement and performance. Additionally**,** the study's focus on the South African public sector particularly the local government, provides valuable contextual insights that expand existing theories predominantly developed in Western contexts. It highlights the unique challenges and dynamics in developing economies, thereby advancing a more inclusive theoretical understanding of workplace incivility and its implications for decent work and employee outcomes.

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Keywords: Experienced workplace incivility, instigated workplace incivility, aggression, decent work, employee engagement, job trust.

DECLARATION

I NGWIMBA VIGELINE YAYIH, hereby declare that the work titled "**Role of Decent Work and Incivility Aggression on Employee Work Outcomes within the Local Government of the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa" submitted** for the degree of PhD in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare is hereby submitted by me, has not been submitted previously for a degree at the this or any other university; that it is my own work in design and execution, and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

..... **...……..23/04/24.....**

NGWIMBA VIGELINE YAYIH **DATE**

Plagiarism Declaration

I, **Ngwimba Vigeline Yayih**, hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare's Plagiarism Policy and I have taken all precautions to comply with the regulations.

Signature **……** Date: **……23/04/2024……**

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Ethical Clearance Declaration

I Ngwimba Vigeline Yayih, with student number **201404399** hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare's Policy on research ethics and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations. I have obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) and my reference number is **CHI011SNGW01.**

Conference Declaration

I, the undersigned, Ngwimba Vigeline Yayih, hereby declare that a paper was presented at the International Conference on Business and Management Dynamics (ICBMD-2023) hosted by the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town with the title "*Effects of incivility aggression on decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province*". A conference proceeding is to be published. The paper was extracted from chapter four of this thesis.

Signature…… **..** **Date: …23/04/2024……**

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CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1. Introduction and Background of the Study

Governments throughout the world seek to provide services to communities within their jurisdiction through public service agencies. When public employees experience a high sense of engagement and job trust in their work, it enhances quality service delivery, which raises the socio-economic status of all citizens (Mhlanga et al., 2019). However, a lack of quality service delivery by the public service agencies could result from incivility and aggression, among other organisational factors such as gross misconduct and unethical and dishonest behaviour faced by employees within the local government. Within the public service, incivility is one of the factors that hinder positive work outcomes such as engagement and trust, and this notion is gaining more attention in popular academic publications worldwide, including South Africa (Boukis et al., 2020; Zivnuska et al., 2020). There are reports of an over 80% prevalence rate of rude, yelling, demeaning and arguing behaviour, which are some of the fastest-growing incivility behaviours among employees in these recent times (Akanni, Omisile & Oduaran 2018). According to Eka and Chambers (2019), incivility is rude speech or behaviour, impoliteness, bad manners, and inappropriateness among employees that violate workplace norms. Incivility in the workplace occurs in several forms, such as experienced workplace incivility, witness incivility and instigated workplace incivility (Raza et al., 2022). Experienced workplace incivility focuses on employees who experience the incivility of others in the workplace or are targets of uncivil behaviour (Schilpzand et al., 2016). On the other hand, witnessed incivility are acts of uncivil behaviour that is being witnessed by others in the workplace (Moll, 2022). On the other hand, instigated workplace incivility focuses on individual employees who perpetrate acts of uncivil behaviour towards others in the workplace (Sharma & Mishra, 2021).

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Indeed, incivility is stressed as a severe social problem affecting over 89% of employees and it continues to spread like wildfire with deleterious consequences in the working environment (Zivnuska et al., 2020). These studies have proven that incivility is a real stressor with significant consequences on employees, though the conduct is subtle, but the consequences are not, giving room for further inquiry in this regard (Cortina et al., 2017; Chung et al., 2021).

Instances of workplace incivility encompass behaviours such as verbally insulting or shouting at someone, deliberately ignoring another person, and making disparaging and disrespectful comments about individuals in the workplace (Sharma & Mishra, 2021). Targets, witnesses, and instigators of workplace incivility display negative consequences such as decreased job engagement and employee trust, less performance, disruptions in peers' relationships, inhibition of cooperation, as well as increased turnover intentions towards the individual employee to whom it is directed (Sohn et al., 2019; Zivnuska et al., 2020).

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Within the working environment, rude and discourteous behaviour is not seen simply as a personal matter but arises from interpersonal assault, which begins with uncivil speech, deeds and minor abuse (Ko et al., 2021; Laschinger & Read, 2016). Consequently, incivility creates a high amount of conflict and intense aggressive working conditions, which reduce employee engagement, trust and job performance (Ko et al., 2021). Although employee engagement and trust in the workplace allow employees to go an extra mile in performing their duties (Melhem & Qudah, 2019; Sanhokwe et al., 2023), these two work outcomes are highly influenced by incivility, which increases psychological distress in employees through its depletion of mental, emotional, and social energy (Cortina et al., 2017). This impairs employee engagement, employee trust, job performance and increases the intentions of employees to quit their work (Cortina et al., 2017). Hence, to achieve high employee engagement and trust, organisations need to prevent workplace incivility in whatever form, including experienced and instigated incivility.

Decent work are the main keys to employee development and well-being (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). Decent work is the amount of aspiration individuals have in their working lives (Pereira et al., 2019). Similarly, Duffy et al. (2016) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2008) alluded to the idea that an environment of work is supposed to be safe and secure, endowed with adequate free time and rest, social and family values, suitable pay and quality health care benefits to its employees. This study adopts the definition of decent work by Duffy and colleagues (2016). Although the decent work concept constitutes compelling aspirations, it is so scarce among employees in most working organisations in the world (ILO, 2008; Blustein et al., 2019). Several studies address opportunities to access decent work (Atitsogbe et al., 2021; Blustein et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2016). However, there remains a crucial problem in the world at large and South Africa in particular in adhering to decent work conditions (Di Ruggiero et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2020). Therefore, this research seeks to investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

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In the world's economy, the local government is a backbone to the delivery of effective governance (Jackson & Jabbie, 2019). The local government comprises activities that the public needs but cannot obtain on an open market unless the government allocates resources towards their provision (Jackson, 2020). The local government is mandated to deliver essential community needs and service delivery to enhance the quality of life and livelihoods of its community members ("the local government"). These services include a) transportation, b) housing, c) education, d) health, f) social care, and g) the legislative framework that stimulates the accurate functioning of markets and economic growth (Jackson et al., 2019).

In addition to providing superior service delivery to its citizens, the local government equally provides decent work to its employees (ILO, 2021). Decent work is work that is conceptualised on five main pillars, namely, safe working conditions, adequate compensation, good health

care, free resting time and increasing complementary work values for all employees (Duffy et al., 2016). Decent work promotes the fulfilment of work and well-being through its satisfaction of employees' basic needs (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). The major goal of the ILO is to achieve a conducive, decent work environment that is both productive for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). This makes the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Eight, whose aim is to promote decent work and economic growth (United Nations, 2012), critical to every nation's development. This study is located within this SDG Eight and will reveal how "working together" is linked with other goals and its importance in reducing challenges of widespread risk (Cernev & Fenner, 2020, p. 3).

In the context of South Africa, decent work concept brings about more hope, especially as it offers solutions to improving working conditions, job creation, engagement, and trust (Ndung'u, 2012; Chinyamurindi et al., 2023). This is evident in the work of labour union movements such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), which continues to demand for decent working conditions from the government (Ndung'u, 2012). In commitment to COSATU's continuous insistence on decent working conditions, the government is compelling employers across all sectors to pay minimum industry wages and adhere to a range of specified working conditions to all workers in South Africa (Webster & Ludwig, 2020).

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In 2010, the South African Minister of Labour launched the Decent Work Programme (DWCP), facilitated by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC), which aimed at entrenching the rights of all people to work, access to decent work, and a decent life (Achieving Decent Work in South Africa, 2010). In early July 2022, Mr. Thulas Nxesi, the South African Minister of Employment and Labour, officiated the launch of the ILO Productivity Ecosystems for Decent Work Programme with Swiss Federal Councillor Guy

Parmelin at a high-level ceremony in Pretoria (Nii, 2022). The DWCP holds firmly on "job-rich growth, sustainable enterprises, including the formalisation of the informal sector, and skills development" as a means of eradicating decent work deficits (Cohen & Moodley, 2012). Furthermore, in President Jacob Zuma's State of the Nation Address in 2011, emphasis was made on the importance of decent work in South Africa (Ndung'u, 2012). Finally, on COSATU's May Day Rally in 2019, President Cyril Ramaphosa's speech praised the numerous successes and achievements of workers in their campaign for decent working conditions, a safe working environment, a living wage, and equal treatment for all at work (May Day Speech by Comrade Cyril Ramaphosa, 2019).

Even though decent work plays a significant role in promoting work equity (ILO, 1999b) and advancing ideals of individual progress and well-being (ILO, 2015), the issue of context remains a neglected variable. Researchers have shown a notable lack of focus on decent work, particularly in the African context (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). Indeed, there is a need to be expansive contextually in how decent work is understood and experienced, considering culture, national economic terrain, and social issues within economies (Duffy et al., 2019). This has even led the concept of decent work to be a "contested notion" and an "agenda" requiring further attention (Di Ruggiero et al., 2015) in most developing nations, including South Africa. Di Ruggiero et al. (2015) went on to explain that the lack of consensus on the meaning of decent work makes it difficult to fully explain the progress made in the betterment of working conditions.

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The impact of incivility on decent work and interaction with organisational variables such as job engagement, employee trust, and performance remain an aspect that needs further inquiry (Zivnuska et al., 2020). This is due to these issues featuring as significant challenges within the local government. An interesting angle concerns exploring how these behaviours, deemed to manifest as aggressive behaviours in the workplace, would not only exert a negative impact on

the work experiences encountered by employees but work-related outcome such employee engagement and job trust (Chinyamurindi et al., 2023; Smittick et al., 2019). The reasoning here is that workplace incivility aggravates psychological loss, which affects work outcomes and decent working conditions in organisations in the form of delayed working hours, decreased organisational performance, decreased employee productivity, decreased employee engagement and the weakening of organisational loyalty behaviours (Pu et al., 2021). However, limited research has been done on the relationship between incivility aggression and decent work. Therefore, this study will contribute to filling this knowledge gap. Similarly, incivility aggression interrupts decent work in the workplace, bringing about high negative consequences to both employees' behaviours and organisational outcomes (Feraro et al, 2020; Zivnuska et al., 2020). These include low employee engagement and trust, high withdrawal behaviours in the employees, high absenteeism, less willingness to work, and low organisational productivity (Smidt et al., 2016; Zia-ud-Din et al., 2017). Hence, this gives ground to research the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

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1.1. Problem Statement

The South African local government sphere is in a state of crisis, with employees being the most affected (Fihla & Chinyamurindi, 2018; Nyabvudzi & Chinyamurindi, 2019). The challenges faced by employees in the local government have a major impact on the process of service delivery to the public (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014), and these are often accompanied by violent service delivery protests (Masuku & Jili, 2019). The violent protests due to poor service delivery cannot be entirely blamed on perceived dismal performance in local government, but it is evident that something is seriously wrong, possibly with under-performance in all spheres of the government (Fourie & Poggenpoel, 2017). This study is located within the local government, wherein there is a need for further inquiry to understand and address those factors

that affect public employees and influence the delivery of services to the public in the Eastern Cape Province (Ruzungunde et al., 2023; Thornhill & Van Dijik, 2018). Employee engagement and job trust are very crucial in the study in solving the challenges affecting public employees in delivering appropriate services to the public, as they are crucial positive organisational outcome contributors (Mhlanga et al., 2019). With workplace incivility being one of the factors that affect the work of public employees (Slattery, 2019), this concept has not been sufficiently addressed in the African context and particularly in South Africa (Smidt et al., 2016; Ugwu et al., 2021). Hence, there is a need for a study to focus more on this construct in the public service of the Eastern Cape province as argued by previous studies (Chinyamurindi et al. 2023).

A high number of public employees are experiencing lack of accountability, inefficiency, incompetency, unproductive work behaviour, a high rate of misconduct, corruption, poor management of finances, poor human resource practices, high turnover, and not adhering to the norms of ethical behaviour in the workplace (Mazibuko-Madalani, 2016). This has led to the suspension of over 500 public servants and over 484 employees dismissed in the public service in the past 3 years because of uncivil work behaviours in the Western Cape local government (Mazibuko-Madalani 2016). Many public employees are expressing frustration over the incivility they encounter while performing their duties daily and this reduces work efforts (Slattery, 2019). If workplace incivility is tolerated in local government, especially among public employees, the consequences can be devastating to communities. Also, there is growing concern over the lack of professionalism that is leading to less engagement and job trust in the form of less collaboration and cooperation in the delivery of public goods (Smidt et al., 2016). The tolerance of incivility is hindering participation, knowledge sharing and ideas among public employees due to the lack of employee job trust (Aljawarneh & Atan, 2018).

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Another concern is the scant focus on studies done on incivility within the public service, with most research favouring private sector organisations (Schilpzand et al., 2016) and paying very

little attention to government employees, particularly those in local government. (Cortina et al., 2013; Slattery, 2019; Sowe & Arslan, 2023). More empirical work on the impact of incivility on employees and organisations is therefore needed in the public service (local government) (Smidt et al., 2016), especially in South Africa. While acts of incivility are reported among employees, very little is known about how incivility aggression manifest among employees in the local government in South Africa (Vink & Adejumo, 2015). Hence, this study seeks to close the knowledge gap on workplace incivility among local government employees in South Africa.

Even though the local government's responsibilities are carried out in a cohesive work atmosphere, where employees demonstrate high levels of civil behaviour, acts such as negative behaviours need to be highly guarded and treated with much severity among public employees (Alias et al., 2020). Incivility acts among public sector employees is mostly characterised by pill-over effects that negatively impair interactions and the standard of services being provided to the entire community (Smith et al., 2020). As incivility occurs more verbally in nature in the workplace, it comprises one of the most common forms of anti-social behaviour at work (Smith et al., 2020). Hence, this anti-social behaviour is not just unethical, but it contributes to tangible and intangible costs in the workplace (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

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Also, since workplace incivility is not in violation of any law in the workplace, employers do not take it seriously, as such the consequences become devastating to employees and the organisation (Alias et al., 2020). Employees facing incivility from fellow colleagues build a tendency to respond with incivility and both targets and instigators of this toxic behaviour tend to suffer from attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioural outcomes (Ugwu et al., 2022). In fact, most academic developments have long paid much attention to the antecedents of workplace incivility and its adverse effects on targeted employees in the workplace (Miner et al., 2019; Zivnuska et al., 2020). However, little has been done on understanding the concept of incivility

in the workplace and the impact of attitude on employee engagement and job trust. This study will therefore contribute to the existing literature by focusing on incivility factors in the workplace and the impact of their attitudes on employee engagement and job trust.

Decent work remains the primary key to employees' development and well-being, very little is known about the framing of decent work, especially on the African continent (Kazimna et al., 2020; Mathibe & Chinyamurindi, 2021). Notably, a stream of work within the public service and local government sector emerges, also advancing the decent work agenda in South Africa (Chigbu, Chinyamurindi & Marange 2024). Moreover, empirical work on decent work is needed in the African context (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). The framing of decent work using the five categories of the ILO has mostly been informed using a developed world context whose contextual situations differ significantly from those of developing nations, bearing in mind issues such as those of a social, economic and political nature (Ribeiro et al., 2019). Given that South Africa is experiencing a decent work deficit (Cohen & Moodley, 2012; Mathibe & Chinyamurindi, 2021), this study will bridge the gap in developing nations using the South African context.

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Similarly, some previous quantitative work on decent work, incivility, engagement, and trust found that decent work is a determinant of employee engagement (Navajas-Romero et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2019). Duffy et al. (2016) affirms that decent work can significantly impact employee engagement and job satisfaction by fulfilling three core psychological needs: survival, social connection, and self-determination. Quantitative research by Ngwimba et al. (2024) investigated the effects of incivility aggression on decent work among local government employees in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa and found that both experienced and instigated incivility aggression significantly influence decent work. Evidence from these studies highlights that reducing workplace incivility and promoting decent work practices can lead to higher levels of employee engagement and trust. No research to date

has been conducted on the combined variables of decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. From the researchers' knowledge, this is the first study to do so in the local government of South Africa, and of which this study seeks to contribute to closing the gap. In addition, there is need to investigate the mediating role of decent work and job trust on the relationships between these variables. Therefore, the study will investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

4.0 Research Objectives

1.4.1. Main Objective

The aim of this thesis is to examine the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee engagement and job trust within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

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1.4.2 Secondary Objectives

Specifically, the aim is to achieve the following secondary objectives

- To examine the effects of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work
- To examine the impacts of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on job trust
- To examine the effects of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on employee engagement.
- To examine the relationship between decent work and employee job trust.
- To examine the relationship between job trust and employee engagement.
- To examine the relationship between decent work and employee engagement.
- To examine the extent to which decent work mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement.

- To examine the extent to which trust mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement.

1.2. Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

H0: Experienced workplace incivility does not significantly influence decent work.

H1a: Experienced workplace incivility significantly influences decent work.

H0: Instigated workplace incivility does not significantly influence decent work.

H1b: Instigated workplace incivility significantly influences decent work.

Hypothesis 2

H0: The presence of experienced workplace incivility does not significantly influence job trust.

H2a: The presence of experienced workplace incivility significantly influences job trust.

H0: The presence of instigated workplace incivility does not significantly influence job trust.

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H2b: The presence of instigated workplace incivility significantly influences job trust.

Hypothesis 3

H0: The presence of experienced workplace incivility does not significantly influence employee engagement.

H3a: The presence of experienced incivility in the workplace significantly influences employee engagement.

H0: The presence of instigated workplace incivility does not significantly influence employee engagement.

H3b: The presence of instigated workplace incivility significantly influences employee engagement.

Hypothesis 4

H0: Decent work does not positively influence employee trust.

H4: Decent work significantly influences trust.

Hypothesis 5

H0: Job trust does not positively influence engagement.

H5: Job trust significantly influences employee engagement.

Hypothesis 6

H0: Decent work does not significantly positively influence employee engagement.

H6: Decent work significantly influences employee engagement.

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Hypothesis 7

H0: Decent work does not mediate the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and employee engagement.

H7a: Decent work mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and employee engagement.

H0: Decent work does not mediate the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement.

H7b: Decent work mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 8

H0: Job trust mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and employee engagement.

H8a: Job trust mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and employee engagement.

Job trust mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement.

H8b: Job trust mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement.

1.1. Significance of the Study

Decent work has received a significant contribution in the development of an organisational scale measuring decent work by Duffy and colleagues (Duffy et al., 2016)). These contributions have been centered in the developed world and not in the African context. As such, this research is pivotal in testing and applying the decent work scale in the South African context, particularly within the Eastern Cape, and contributes to the empirical body of knowledge surrounding decent work in the public sector.

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The findings of this study will enrich existing literature by exploring the impact of decent work on employee engagement, trust, and job satisfaction within a developing nation, particularly in the context of local government. Furthermore, because of the high levels of inequality and the prevailing degree of social inequality in South Africa, which can be addressed through the promotion of decent work (Chinyamurindi et al., 2023), this study is very crucial in supporting the role of decent work while adding value by assessing the specific challenges and opportunities relating to decent work in local government, thereby contributing to both theory and practice. Given that the South African government is encouraging decent work in the public service, especially in the local government, this study will give a comprehensive understanding

of the concept of decent work and try to answer the question on the rise of precarious work in the context of South Africa, which is supported by the (SDG 8) of the ILO (Cernev & Fenner, 2020).

The findings of the study will assist a) practitioners within work psychology by developing interventions intended to enhance policy growth on the working conditions of public workers in South Africa, b) making recommendations that will assist in promoting decent work amongst public workers in their work environment, and c) also prioritising the need to continue improving managerial capability in the South African local government. Decent work holds numerous policy implications, making it equally important to assess whether it can offer solutions to many of the challenges confronting South Africa's local government.

Academics, practitioners, policymakers, and stakeholders need to work together and align their efforts to those espoused by the ILO (Gunawan et al., 2020). Also, given the significant negative impact that incivility aggression has on employee work outcomes in organisations, the study is crucia in investigating the relationship between incivility aggression and decent work while further enriching existing literature on workplace incivility (Zia-ud-Din et al., 2017). The interest in decent work brought about the framing of the Psychology of Working Theory (Duffy et al., 2016), which emphasises the fulfilment of individual needs and well-being as part of work experience. Different studies from different work contexts on decent work have really been exhausted in the developed world and a little framing within the developing African context (Ribeiro et al., 2019). This necessitates for this study apply this theory in South Africa To give insights into how well the PWT holds up in the African context and whether its core concepts are transferable across different social and economic environments (Ribeiro et al., 2019).

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Furthermore, this research seeks to test the structural model in the local government of South Africa on the identified variables. The model is one of its kind to be tested in the local government of South African on decent work especially its mediation effect on the relationship between workplace incivility and employee engagement. This study will contribute to both the theoretical understanding of decent work in a developing context and practical knowledge for improving local government work environments. It will also support the growing body of literature on how decent work can be integrated into the broader social and policy framework, particularly in regions grappling with high inequality and precarious working conditions.

1.12.1 Study's Outline

Chapter One: Study's Introduction

This chapter provides a solid foundation for the study by offering a systematic examination of the reasons behind the research and presenting well-defined and specific objectives. These are clearly presented within the following subheadings: study introduction and background, statement of the problem, objectives, hypotheses, and the study's significance.

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Chapter Two: Context and Conceptualisation

This chapter will lookat the context and background of the local government, their duties to the public, and the crisis in the local government spheres in delivering service delivery to the communities. The chapter gave an overview of the following concepts: decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. Moreover, this chapter delves deeper into the dimensions of the various variables in the study and its importance.

Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework

Importantly, the present chapter looks at theories supporting the study. These theories informed the understanding of the study and specified which variables they related with. The theories

grounding this study include the psychology of working theory, affective event theory, the job demand resource model and social exchange theories.

Chapter Four: Empirical Literature Review

The chapter presents the relationship between the variables of the study, which include decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and job trust. The research hypotheses were reviewed to establish the link that exist between these study variables.

Chapter five: Research Methodology

The chapter outlines the methodology adopted for the study. It delves into the study's paradigm, the methodological approach, and the choices and strategies applied throughout the research. Furthermore, it details the research techniques and procedures, including aspects like the research population, sample size, sampling technique, and measurement instruments. The chapter also covers topics such as data collection, data analysis, ethical considerations, and the study's limitations.

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Chapter Six: Data Analysis and Results Presentation

The chapter presents the findings of the statistical analysis of the data using tables and diagrams, in accordance with the provided hypotheses. Additionally, it offers a comprehensive results interpretation.

Chapter Seven: Discussion of the Study's Results

The chapter discusses the study's findings in relation to the hypotheses and prior research while making comparisons to the literature from previous chapters. The interpretation of the mainempirical findings of the study is based on the aim and objectives of the study. The biographical data of respondents are also discussed, as well as some the mean comparisons of theoretical variables by demographic characteristics in the study.

Chapter Eight: Implications, Contribution, Recommendation and Limitation

In the chapter, a summary of the study's implications, contributions, recommendations for future research, and conclusions are provided based on the research outcomes.

1.13. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter presents the research topic and furnishes background details about the study. It also introduces the research problem and outlined the primary and main objectives of the study. In addition, the chapter presents the research hypothesis and explains study's significance. Furthermore, it delineates the extent and limitations of the research and addresses ethical considerations.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW: CONTEXT AND CONCEPTUALISATION

2. Introduction

The study aims to investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes (employee engagement and job trust) within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province. This chapter will start by looking at context and background of the local government, their duties to the public, and the crisis in the local government spheres in delivering service delivery to the communities. The chapter will give an overview of the following concepts, decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. This chapter will also dive deeper into the dimensions of the various variables in the study and its importance.

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2.1. CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND ON THE SOUTH AFRICAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Governments seek to provide services to communities within their jurisdiction through public service agencies. In the world's economy, the local government is the backbone of effective governance (Jackson & Jabbie, 2019). Local government is recognised as that sphere of government that should provide all the necessary interventions (i.e. services) to its surrounding community because it is the domain that is closer to the community (State of the Public Service Report, 2021). Moreover, the local government is one of the biggest and most important employers of its citizens. In the same line, the local government is that sphere of public organisation that has the authority to manage and govern the affairs of the territories under its jurisdiction (Koma, 2014). Nonetheless, it's important to note that local government is an

administrative body with restricted legislative capabilities and jurisdiction, operating within well-defined geographic and legal boundaries established by a nation or state (Masiya et al., 2021). The local government is that sphere of the government which is closest to the people through local authorities such as municipalities (Erasmus & Coetzee, 2017). Hence, the local government is well-placed within communities to effectively respond to local communal needs, expectations and interests (Msenge & Nzewi, 2021). Local government carries out activities that the public needs but cannot obtain on an open market unless the government allocates resources toward its provision ("the local government"). Hence, local government is the epicentre of delivering services to the public and frequently serves as the initial interface between citizens and various government bodies. Consequently, the primary duty of local government is to furnish essential communal necessities and services that elevate the quality of life and enhance people's well-being of local community members (Masuku & Jili, 2019). The section below will further elaborate on the duties of the local government and the crisis it is facing.

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The 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa places local government at the heart of the government delivery system, designating it as the primary vehicle for addressing poverty in local communities. Within this Constitution, as stipulated in Section 151 of Act 108 of 1996, local government is outlined as: (i) a unique branch of government that is closely related to the citizens under its jurisdiction; (ii) a branch of government that organises and controls its planning, budgeting, and administration procedures that prioritise meeting the community's basic requirements; and (iii) a branch of government that is linked and dependent on the provincial and federal government branches (Msenge & Nzewi, 2021; Koma, 2014). The revised Local Government Municipal Structures Act of 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) outlines the formation of local government in accordance with specified categories and types of municipalities, consistent with the goals of progressive municipal government (Koma, 2014).

The main purpose for the formation of the local government is to provide services within a defined geographical environment. This is because of the inability of the central government to respond to the full needs of communities that must be satisfied by government institutions (Msenge & Nzewi, 2021). Primarily, the local government is the third level of government (after the central and provincial government) which is purposefully formed to draw the grass-roots communities near the government and thus gives them a chance of being involved in the political process that controls their daily lives (Erasmus & Coetzee, 2017).

The administrative structure of local government serves as the framework through which local public policy is formulated and put into action. This includes the (i) Council and its committees which make up the legislative authorities, (ii) the Chief Executive Officer and (iii) Departmental heads and staff as administrative authorities making up the organs of deliberation and representation (Erasmus & Coetzee, 2017; Masuku & Jili, 2019). This structure plays an important role in determining the relationship between the various organs in the local government, capacity, and strength. As per Masiya et al. (2021), the primary objectives of these administrative structures within local government encompass the following: (a) establishing a democratic and accountable government for local communities; (b) ensuring the sustainable delivery of services to these communities; (c) fostering social and economic development; (d) advocating for a secure and healthy environment; and (e) motivating community participation and involvement in matters pertaining to local government. Furthermore, Section 153(1) of the constitution imposes an obligation on local government to prioritise meeting the fundamental needs of communities and advancing social and economic development through the management of its administrative framework, budget, and planning (Masiya et al., 2021). Also, South Africa adopted the concept of development local government' which commits the local government to work with its citizens and the communities to bring sustainable ways that will

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satisfy the financial and social requirements of communities while also improving their quality of life (Maphumulo & Bhengu 2019; Masiya et al., 2019).

In the years 2000 and 2006, the democratic elections at the local government level marked a significant period for local government. During this time, the focus was on expediting service delivery to community members, improving the financial performance of municipalities, bolstering the human resource capacity, and enhancing the overall institutional capacity of municipalities (Masiya et al., 2021). The Department of Provincial and Local Government, now known as the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), devised a comprehensive Five-Strategic Programme of Action aimed at strengthening support, governance, and institutional development within the realm of local government (Erasmus & Coetzee, 2017). On a broader note, the government of South Africa has increased its resources and attention to the local government sphere so as to guarantee its efficacy which is in line with the constitutional legislation (Msenge & Nzewi, 2021). The White Paper on Local Government (1998) makes it abundantly evident that local government sphere has an important duty to improve the well-being of its communities through the provision of a conducive socio-economic environment (Nzewi et al., 2019). As such, the local government is considered the main engine for local development and central to service delivery (Masiya et al., 2019).

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The local governments' action mandate is to provide standardised service delivery and decent jobs to its citizens (Masuku & Jili, 2019). Also, the importance of service delivery in the lives of citizens lies on the shoulders of the local government, which has the duty to maintain healthy living conditions and to improve the quality of life of communities (Msenge & Nzewi, 2021). Therefore, service delivery is the basic services such as transportation, housing, electricity, water, education, health, social care, and the legislative framework which stimulates accurate functioning of the markets and economic growth (Jackson et al., 2019). Finally, the local government upholds the position of providing basic services to communities, alleviating

poverty, enhancing economic growth, and creating employment opportunities that clearly improve citizens' quality of life.

2.2. Crises in the Local Government Spheres in Delivering Services to the Public

The formation of the local government is done with the genuine intention to bring about a significant contribution to the social and financial circumstances of the local communities through delivery of services. However, these service deliveries have not been able to live up to their expectations. There are surmounting crises in the South African local government spheres with employees being the most affected (Kgalema & Mankolo, 2018; Nyabvudzi & Chinyamurindi, 2019). A high number of public employees are experiencing a lack of accountability, inefficiency, incompetency, unproductive work behaviour, high rate of misconduct, corruption, poor management of finances, poor human resource practices, high turnover, and not adhering to the norms of ethical behaviour at the workplace which hinders the delivery of basic services to the public (Mazibuko-Madalani, 2016). Mashamaite and Lethoko (2018) added that the local government is characterised by challenges such as stagnant local government economies, shortage of skills to propel local economic development, incapacity to plan for development, ineffective implementation of policies, and corruption. These challenges in the local government negatively affects the processes of delivering services to the public (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014; Ruzungunde et al., 2023) and these are often accompanied by violent service delivery protests (Masuku & Jili, 2019).

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According to Nkomo (2017), between 2004 to 2016 an average of 94 service delivery protests took place per year. This was due to a lack of accountability in the local government for poor service delivery. Reddy (2016, p. 4), added that "a large percentage of local communities in most townships are yet to receive basic rudimentary services such as getting a pavement fixed or rubbish clearing in streets". Furthermore, communities suffer from a lack of basic communal services such as lack of water, electricity, transportation, housing, education, health care, social

care, and lack of jobs (Mashamaite & Lethoko, 2018; Khambule, 2018). This delivery of poor services to the communities has continuously resulted in a rise in service delivery protests.

In 2018 and 2019, about 237 and 218 public service delivery protests respectively were recorded (Masiya et al., 2019). Equally, there is evidence in media reports on frequent violent service delivery protests in communities because of deterioration in the delivery of service to the public and poor working conditions in the local government (Mashamaite & Lethoko, 2018). Other researchers are pointing out that other numerous causes of the poor service delivery in the local government rest on the financial crisis in municipalities, lack of necessary infrastructure and resources for public employees to carry out their duties to the public at large (Khambule, 2018).

The report of the Auditor-General of South Africa (AGSA) from the period 2017 to 2018 points out that fruitless and wasteful expenditure in the local government amounted to about R62.6 billion as a result of incapacity among municipal officials (Masiya et al., 2021). Similarly, Glasser and Wright (2020) reported that the Auditor-General report in the financial year of 2018 and 2019 indicates that there is a rise in fruitless and wasteful expenditure of about R2.07 billion in the local government. All these challenges in the local government hinder the delivery of suitable services to the public. According to the Public Service Commission (2007, 2008), the South African local government faces challenges in maintaining healthy and productive working conditions amongst its employees such as distrust, service inefficiency, and less engagement. The Public Service Commission, as established under Section 196 of the South African Constitution, is entrusted with the authority and responsibility to facilitate measures that enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the public service and improve service delivery to the public, within the scope of this study (Public Service Commission, 2007).

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Unethical behaviour in the local government is negatively interrupting effective and efficient public service delivery resulting in high wasteful expenditure from the government, which is money that could have been channelled for service delivery (Glasser & Wright, 2020). There is an acknowledgment of a high number of employees within the local government being suspended for uncivil work behaviour (Mazibuko-Madalani, 2016). Many public employees are expressing frustration over the incivility and decent work deficit they encounter while performing their duties daily and this demotivate their efforts toward work (Slattery, 2019). If workplace incivility and indecent work are tolerated in local government, especially among public employees, the consequences can be devastating to communities.

There is also growing concern about the lack of professionalism, characterized by reduced engagement and job trust, as well as diminished collaboration and cooperation in the delivery of public goods (Smidt et al., 2016). Therefore, the study is located within the local government wherein there is a need for further inquiry to understand and address those factors that affects public employees and influences the delivery of services to the public in the Eastern Cape local government (Ruzungunde et al., 2023; Thornhill & Van Dijik, 2018). Hence, this study is investigating the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. The rest of the chapter will discuss various variables in the study such as, decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. This will also include the dimensions of the various variables.

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2.3. THE CONCEPT OF DECENT WORK

Within this 21st century, about 63% of the world's population belongs to the global workforce (Rantanen et al., 2020). This world's population spent about one-third to one-half of their time awake at work which strongly indicates that work forms an essential part of the daily human

lives (World Health Organisation, 2019). Work refers to general efforts and activities put together to accomplish a goal and represent a primary source of identity, meaning, and belongingness among employees (Nazir & Islam, 2020). Work is characterised as a vital endeavour for human survival that fosters cultural progress, offers professional satisfaction, and fulfils life's essential needs (Zammitti et al., 2021). Work assists individuals to gain personal success, satisfaction, and social connection to the society. For most individuals, work is the primary means through which they can satisfy their fundamental needs, including survival, social connection, and self-determination needs (Duffy et al., 2020).

Work itself is crucially significant to employees' health as it provides possible improvement to health when employees could work in good jobs and it provides adverse effects when employees are found in a poor working environment (Rantanen et al., 2020). Work is a fundamental aspect of human existence, influencing various facets of individuals' lives, including basic survival needs, personal identity, family, social integration, health, well-being, and overall quality of life (Duffy et al, 2020). As such, good psychological and economic well-being of individuals is deeply dependent on working. When people experience meaningful and dignified work, it serves as the cornerstone for a fulfilling life, enabling individuals to provide for themselves and their families while also finding an avenue to express their values and interests in the realm of work (Ferreira et al., 2019).

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Since work is very crucial in providing a balanced and meaningful life to individuals, the loss and lack of jobs have serious implications for their health, well-being, quality of life, social integration, economic disruption, and psychological distress (Ferreira et al., 2019). This has made the concept of decent work in the world of work to become such a crucial concept since the labour market has been marked by the influx of technology, globalisation, unemployment, underemployment, inequality, and a precarious working environment (Duffy et al., 2020).

Consequently, this has created significant challenges for individuals in the lower socio-economic strata to attain meaningful employment that satisfies their needs. When it becomes increasingly challenging to secure decent work both in the workplace and the labour market, it hampers individuals and their families from deriving empowerment through work and hinders them from accessing the social protections that work can offer. As a result, the concept of decent work was officially introduced in 1999 during the 87th session of the International Labour Conference and quickly became a top priority for the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 1999).

According to the Director General's report of the ILO, decent work is built on four core elements such as fundamental rights at work, opportunities for productive employment and fair wages, access to social protection, and the promotion of social dialogue (ILO, 1999). These four main pillars have made it possible for decent work to be assessed on a broader scale, using global indicators that can inform policy actions (Atitsogbe, 2021). Therefore, the ILO advises that governments should take responsibility for advancing decent work through legislation, policies, and institutions (ILO, 2013). The objective of the ILO is not solely to generate employment opportunities, but to generate employment opportunities that meet acceptable standards of quality and productivity, ensuring equitable, secure, and dignified conditions for both women and men (ILO, 2022). Moreover, decent employment promotes fair and equal access to jobs where fundamental rights like the lack of harassment or discrimination, the ability to express one's opinions, and the ability to participate through self-selected representation are fulfilled (Blustein et al., 2019; Douglass et al., 2017). Decent work is very significant to employees' well-being and development, as it sets the global standard for job quality that promotes the mental and physical health of workers worldwide while contributing to social connection, survival and self-determination needs (Ferreira et al., 2019).

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An early definition of decent work, articulated by the ILO in response to global labour policy concerns, includes aspects such as people's desires for income and opportunities, their rights, acknowledgment, stable families, personal development, and equity in gender (ILO, 1999a). Decent work is defined as employment that meets the minimum standards required to ensure a comfortable and dignified life (Ribeiro et al., 2019). Nam (2019) recognises that a suitable working environment results in favourable outcomes for employees, including higher engagement, a positive work identity, and enhanced job performance.

According to Duffy et al. (2021), the ILO initially defined decent work as opportunities for work that are productive and offer a fair income, job security, and social protection for families, while also enhancing prospects for personal growth and social inclusion. Additionally, it encompasses freedom of expression, the right to participate in organizational decision-making, and ensuring equal opportunities and treatment for allwomen and men. This study conceptualises decent work based on the five components that were proposed by Duffy et al. (2017); safe working conditions, adequate compensation, good health care, free resting time and increasing complementary work values for all employe. Decent work extends beyond mere access to employment; it entails empowering workers and providing social protection to them and their families. Work opportunities should be just, equitable, and respect fundamental workplace rights, including freedom from discrimination, the right to express one's views, and equal participation (Blustein et al., 2019). This underscores the idea that decent work fundamentally concerns the inner work experience, focusing on the need for job satisfaction and psychological well-being, which are integral to meeting people's needs and promoting their overall well-being.

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To illustrate, the declaration of the ILO (2008, pp. 9-11), defines the concept of decent work as: "(1) Promoting employment by creating a sustainable institutional and economic environment; (2) developing and enhancing measures of social protection, social security, and

labour protection; (3) promoting social dialogue and tripartism and, (4) respecting, promoting, and realizing the fundamental principles and rights at work". The ILO's decent work agenda advocates for a development approach that acknowledges the pivotal importance of work in individuals' lives. It provides support through the development of comprehensive programs aimed at promoting decent work (Rantanen et al., 2020). The set target for this programme is within national development frameworks and is aimed at tackling major decent work deficits through effective programmes that meet each of ILO's four strategies as listed above.

McIlveen et al. (2021) argued that decent work stipulates the following working conditions; a good working atmosphere that is mentally and psychical safe, free allowance and allocation of adequate resting time, suitable compensation, increase complementary work values for all employees, and the provision of adequate health care to employees. Duffy et al. (2016) and ILO (2008) posited that a suitable working environment is one that provides employees with a safe and secure working environment, adequate free time and rest, social and family values, and suitable pay and health care benefits. The ILO suggested the following 10 major elements describing decent work in 2013: (i) employment opportunity, (ii) decent working time, (iii) adequate compensation and work of high productivity, (iv) integrating work, family, and personal life; (v) eliminating undesirable forms of work; (vi) ensuring work stability and security; (vii) promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment in employment; (viii) guaranteeing workplace safety; (ix) providing social security; (x) encouraging social dialogue (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). This is therefore evident in the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) strategy of the United Nation whose aim is the eradication of high amount of poverty and hunger is achievable by attaining complete and productive employment and decent work opportunities for all, encompassing women and young individuals (Rantanen et al., 2020). In so doing, the concept of decent work is integral to Sustainable Development Agenda of the United Nations for 2030 and ILO recommends that

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nations hold the responsibility to promote decent work using laws, policies, and institutions (ILO, 2013).

Even though decent work concept constitutes compelling aspirations, decent work is so scarce among employees in most working organisations throughout the world (Blustein et al., 2019; ILO, 2008). Conditions of employment and job opportunities have been proven to vary in different countries among employees throughout the world (Rantanen et al., 2020). Numerous global reports and publications highlight the ongoing challenge of ensuring access to decent work on a global scale. These reports emphasize the need for governments and organizations to intensify their efforts in this regard (Atitsogbe et al., 2021; Cooke et al., 2019; ILO, 2013). According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), more than 207 million individuals remained unemployed in 2022 (ILO, 2022), and nearly half of the world's workforce still operates under vulnerable conditions, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa (Rantanen et al., 2020).

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Researchers are underscoring the observed lack of emphasis on decent work principles, especially in the African context (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). This has even led the concept of decent work to be a "contested notion" and an "agenda" requiring further attention (Di Ruggiero et al., 2015) in most developing nations including South Africa. There is a need to be expansive contextually in how decent work concept is understood and experienced in less developing settings, giving different considerations to culture, national economic terrain, and social issues within economies (Duffy et al., 2019).

2.3.1. Decent work in the context of South Africa

In the context of South Africa, decent work clearly stipulates that work is not just a source of income but also constitutes a source of personal dignity, family stability, community peace, and economic growth which gives rise to fruitful job opportunities and employment (Cohen &

Moodley, 2012). The concept of decent work brings more hope to South Africa especially as it offers solutions to improving working conditions, job creation, engagement, and trust (Ndung'u, 2012; Chinyamurindi et al., 2023).

The notion of decent work was initially introduced in South Africa during the second Growth and Employment Summit in June 2003 (Ludwig & Webster, 2020). At this event, the government, employers, and trade unions collectively pledged to collaborate in creating more employment opportunities, improving job quality, and striving for decent work for all citizens. (Ludwig & Webster, 2020). The ruling African National Congress (ANC) in its campaign in the 2009 elections used the slogan "decent work for all" which marked the highest limit for use of the concept of decent work in South Africa. In President Jacob Zuma's State of the Nation Address in 2011, emphasis was made on the significance of decent work in South Africa (Ndung'u, 2012). This indicates that the call for improved working conditions has strong historical ties to the fight for democracy in South Africa.

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In 2010, the South African Minister of labour launched the South African Decent Work Country Programme (DWCP) facilitated by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC), which aimed at entrenching the rights of all people to work, access to decent work, and a decent life (Achieving Decent Work in South Africa, 2010). These fundamental rights apply equally to those in employment and the unemployed, rich and poor as entrenched in the constitution. The DWCP holds firmly on "job-rich growth, sustainable enterprises including the formalisation of the informal sector, and skills development" as a means of eradicating decent work deficit (Cohen, & Moodley, 2012). Also, NEDLAC adopted the Decent Work Country Programme from the ILO in 2010, which is responsible for helping through negotiation to attain employment and achieve goals related to quality work as stipulated in the National Development Plan of South Africa (Malan, 2019). The primary objective of the programme is to create circumstances that enable individuals to access

meaningful and productive employment under conditions that uphold freedom, fairness, safety, and human dignity. This programme facilitated aafter-series consultations between the government, employers, labour, and the ILO which demonstrate evidence of the government's dedication to achieving the objective of providing decent work opportunities for everyone. Also, the likes of labour union movement such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), continues to demand for decent working conditions from the government (Ndung'u, 2012). In commitment to COSATU's continuous insistence on decent working conditions, the government is compelling employers in all sectors to pay wide-industry minimum wages and to apply a range of specified working conditions to all workers in South Africa (Webster & Ludwig, 2020).

Furthermore, South Africa is committed to attaining decent work through promulgating labour legislation which plays an important role in protecting all employees (Arbuckle, 2013). But this is often challenged by externalization and formalization in the South African labour market which led to high precarious work in the form of the inadequate legal protection of employees, low employment level, low income, more hours of work, and poor working conditions (Arbuckle, 2013). It is argued that in the South African labour market, wage labour has decreased due to layoffs, and it has also become more uncertain and unstable because of the increasing use of casual labour and the outsourcing of tasks (Ludwig & Webster, 2020). This has increased poor working conditions and workers remained poor even though they are informally employed. Despite all the efforts to stimulate decent work for all and job creation, South Africa is still facing a dilemma when it comes to decent work and job creation as 35.3% of its workforce are unemployed, making the struggle for decent work difficult to achieve (Statistics South Africa 2021).

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According to Cohen and Moodley (2012), a 2011 survey in South Africa pointed out that the current rate of job generation must increase by a factor of ten to meet the government's goal

for job creation for 2020. The report indicated that since the government has a full or partial influence over factors such as external economic factors, labour regulation, and policies, it will need a decisive action on its part to stimulate investors' sentiments that will create the necessary conditions for jobs to be created over a short period of time. In conclusion, female workers in South Africa continue to encounter disparities in the workplace, including significant wage gaps, gender biases, discrimination related to maternity and family duties, and challenges in harmonising work and family obligations, despite the presence Employment Equity Act which is instrumental in achieving equal opportunity and treatment to all employees (Arbuckle, 2013).

2.3.2. Dimensions of Decent work

The above conceptualisation of the concept of decent work, clearly indicates that decent work has been based on a global international forum (i.e., the ILO) representing the world at large and is visible in the work of research subjects pursued by social agents (Dos Santos, 2017; Ferraro et al., 2016). Previously, the concept of decent work was introduced as a means to be implemented in the realms of politics, economics, and legal frameworks, spanning from individual organisations to regional and national levels, primarily in developed countries (cite Ferraro et al., 2016). This was done using indicators and indexes, with a particular focus on reducing poverty and aligning with the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) development objectives (Pereira et al., 2019).

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Consequently, the perspective of individual workers regarding the notion of decent work within their specific work environments was largely absent from the existing assessment methods (Ferraro et al., 2016). Therefore, researchers in psychology have been trying to integrate social, economic, and psychological factors to conceptualise decent work over the years (Blustein et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2017). This shows how important it is to investigate individual perceptions of decent work across different nations (Ferreira et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2020). Furthermore, a psychological perspective of the concept of decent work aligning with the PWT

has been proposed through developing and validating DWS (Duffy et al., 2017). In light of this, this research follows the framework of decent work as outlined by Duffy et al. (2017), which comprises five key dimensions: safe working conditions in terms of physical and interpersonal aspects, the provision of free time and rest, alignment of organisational values with family and social values, fair compensation, and access to quality healthcare.

(a) Physically and interpersonally safe working conditions

Masdonati et al. (2019) stated that physical and personality security are essential for workplace safety. Interpersonal safe working conditions measures "the degree to which the work environment is physically and emotionally safe" (Duffy et al., 2017, p. 4). This includes general job safety in the workplace. Physical and interpersonal safe working conditions include a workplace free from physical, mental, or emotional abuse (Duffy et al., 2016). More so, physical and interpersonal safety involves both the need to feel protected at work and the need for job stability. Uncertain and unstable jobs pose a risk to employees' engagement, trust and well-being (Kalleberg & Vallas, 2018). Studies found that work may become meaningless if it does not protect workers' rights and a safe working environment (Nam & Kim, 2019). Job security is considered a fundamental aspect of decent work. Losing one's job doesn't just mean a loss of income; it has profound effects on the self-esteem of workers, their families, and the stability of the community. Therefore, when individuals have access to decent work, it results in improved overall well-being, both in terms of work-related satisfaction and general life satisfaction. This is because such work fulfils fundamental needs for survival, social participation, and self-determination.

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(b) Hours that allow for free time and adequate rest

The availability of free time and the opportunity for rest highlight the significance of well-being and quality of life in the workplace (Ferreira et al., 2019). Free time and rest are

characterised by the extent to which individuals can enjoy time away from work (Duffy et al., 2017, p. 6). Employees have a fundamental entitlement to safeguarding their physical and mental well-being by ensuring they have sufficient free time for recuperation, as acknowledged by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in 2005. Additionally, free time and rest also involve striking a balance between one's professional work life and personal non-work life. Notably, there is a blur that exist between boundaries of work and non-work life as a result of changing workplace dynamics, and employees are beginning to attach greater significance to their leisure time spent with friends, family, and the community (Wood et al., 2020).

Additionally, employees place a higher value on their free time due to the positive impact of a healthy work-life balance, as it contributes to increased energy levels and a positive outlook towards work. This, in turn, fosters motivation and keeps employees engaged in their tasks (Niessen et al., 2018). A job that does not demand excessive work hours allows for adequate leisure time and flexibility to allow for family obligations denotes a work-life balance (Buyukgoze-Kavas & Autin, 2019). As work-life balance is considered an indicator of favourable working conditions, providing employees with adequate free time and rest away from work, it is closely linked to job satisfaction in the workplace. On a global scale, the conventional work hour system stipulates that employees should not work more than eight hours a day or 40 hours per week (Duffy et al., 2016). However, in practice, around 30% of employees regularly work overtime, with over half of them clocking more than 40 hours per week (Ma et al., 2022).

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(c) Organisational values that align with family and social values

Organisational values that align family and social values relate to the protection provided by the organisation to employees and their families in situations of unemployment, illness, and retirement. According to Duffy et al. (2017, p. 6), complementary values are “assess as the

degree to which the work values of one's organization align with that person's family and community values". Adequate alignment of organisational and familial values refers to the degree to which social values are integrated into the culture of an organisation, as assessed through Hofstede's cultural model (Hofstede, 2010).

Studies employing this model have revealed that many workplaces tend to exhibit characteristics associated with high power distance, collectivism, femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation (Ma et al., 2022; Khairullah & Khairullah, 2013). Furthermore, it is essential for organisations to embrace appropriate social values to achieve decent work and reduce poverty. This is vital for ensuring that organisations provide protection against various uncertainties and vulnerabilities. While the need for protection from life's risks is universal, the level and nature of risks, as well as the available forms of protection, can significantly vary across societies.

(d) Adequate compensation

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This concept signifies that the pay a person receives for their work is viewed as equitable, affording them and their families independence and respect (Kapiriri & Razavi, 2022). This aspect involves the connection between the compensation received and the worker's sense of well-being, consequently shaping their perception of the fairness of this connection. Ensuring a sufficient wage for a decent standard of living is essential for achieving decent work. The International Labour Organisation's (ILO) (2018) programme on decent workplaces the significant importance on providing all individuals with an adequate and justifiable living wage. As pointed out by Cohen and Moodley (2012), "nearly all individuals who work or seek work do so in order to earn an income and ensure the economic well-being of themselves and their Households" (p.327).

As stated by the ILO, every individual worker who seeks employment does so for the desire of adequate pay for productive work. The neoclassical theory of labour supply posited that the main incentive for work is the pay rate (Oppong, 2019). Merely having job opportunities within an economy is insufficient for defining decent work; it must be supplemented by the rate of compensation, which determines a worker's standard of living (ILO, 2013). The ILO has put forth various statistical indicators to assess adequate earnings, including the rate of in-work poverty, the proportion of employees with low wages, the average hourly earnings in specific occupations, the minimum wage relative to the median wage, the manufacturing wage index, and the number of employees who have recently received job training (Oppong, 2019).

(e) Access to adequate health care

Adequate access to healthcare involves employees feeling safeguarded from both physical and psychological health risks while at work (Duffy et al., 2016). This access is defined as the degree to which healthcare services can be obtained through one's employment (Duffy et al., 2017, p. 6). As explained by Gillet et al. (2019), a high level of satisfaction and good health can alleviate stress and reduce the intention to leave one's job among employees. Consequently, when conditions of work are perceived as safe, it ensures the preservation of employees' physical and mental well-being. Government agencies typically provide universal basic healthcare to their citizens, which includes medical insurance for employees in the public sector since they are employed by the state. However, in the non-public sector, employers in these domains have often failed to offer medical coverage to their employees (Ma et al., 2022).

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2.4. THE CONCEPT OF INCIVILITY AGGRESSION

2.4.1. Definition of workplace incivility

Civility is defined as conduct that is mutually respectful and acceptable to a group of people (Mammen et al., 2018). The authors added that, when these social norms for respect and

consideration are violated with a lot of disregards for others in the workplace, it gives rise to acts of incivility. Incivility is derived from the negative form of the Latin word called “civilitas” which means community or group (Mammen et al., 2018). Incivility is one of the most popular antisocial workplace behaviours experienced by employees, which is commonly triggered by uncivil behaviours such as rudeness, dis-courteousness, ignoring peers, or making humiliating comments about co-workers or subordinates (Liu et al., 2020). This negative behaviour is mostly found in organisations such as the public sector, academic and healthcare workplaces (DeMarco et al., 2018). Lata and Chaudhary (2020), define incivility as "a low-intensity deviannt workplace behaviour, with an ambiguous intent to harm the target in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (p. 1). In other words, incivility could be regarded as a form of emotional aggression and psychological harassment behaviour that contravenes the ideals of mutual respect in the workplace (Zivnuska et al., 2020). These behaviours in the workplace may include a lack of respect for peers and more significantly manifest through the exclusion of other workers from participating in important work activities in the workplace, taking credit for employees' work, withholding fundamental information, casting verbal attacks on employees and devising negative comments on employees in the public (Zivnuska, 2020). DeMarcco et al. (2018) added that incivility is an ambiguous behaviour displayed among employees in the workplace with a limited amount of mutual respect, which produces negative outcomes for employees who are directly linked to such behaviour. Workplace incivility is more mundane than other forms of workplace misbehaviours in the work context and therefore appears very normal as everyday interactions or business as usual (Cortina et al., 2017). Though this uncivil behaviour has an ambiguous intent but is very low in intensity as compared to other forms of mistreatment such as harassment or bullying (Smith et al., 2020). It is a form of deviant behaviour in the workplace that violates organisational norms for respect. Literature from (Eka & Chambers, 2019; Vuolo, 2018) proposed some continuum describing workplace incivility

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which includes behaviours such as disruptive behaviour, vertical and horizontal violence, bullying, and threatening behaviour (Eka & Chambers, 2019; Vuolo, 2018). According to (Wang & Chen, (2020); Cortina et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2020), the various uncivil behaviours displayed by employees on an everyday basis in the workplace include,

(i) insulting and yelling at others

(ii) not returning phone calls or emails

(iii) belittling others with different viewpoints

(iv) condescending demeaning others' viewpoint

(v) overruling decisions with no explanation

(vi) ignoring or interrupting others

(vii) making eye roll, and publicly embarrassing

(viii) undermining, or scolding others

(ix) not giving credit where credit is due

(x) taking credit for others' achievements

(xi) talking about someone behind his/ her back.

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Generally, incivility can take the tone of rude behaviour in the workplace that is repeated over a period with low-intensity and can be overlooked easily (Namin et al., 2022). Despite its low intensity, workplace incivility is considered a precursor to more severe forms of aggression and negative work outcomes (Torkelson et al., 2016). This highly impacts employees, groups, and organisations in the form of poor functioning at work, poor creativity, low engagement level, and poor performance ability (Ko et al., 2021).

In the same vein, Nasr et al. (2015) added that workplace incivility in the form of disrespect affects working behaviours such as depression, disappointment, melancholy, fear, anxiety, confusion, injury and loneliness among employees. Workplace incivility is conceptualised as a type of employee misconduct that constitutes a specific subset of deviant behaviours in the

workplace. Workplace incivility is the set of negative behaviours in the workplace that is different from other forms of workplace aggression such as bullying, verbal aggression, social undermining, and violence (Agarwal et al., 2023). These other forms of aggressive behaviours are far more server in nature than workplace incivility which is low-intensity behaviour (Lim et al., 2018). Hence, aggression in the workplace is perpetrated by very highly emotionally passionate individuals which brings a great amount of force and potency (Namin et al., 2022). While the nature of workplace incivility is less server and represents petty tyranny (Chaudhary et al., 2022). On a very great note, perpetrators of workplace incivility look very calm and polite to the victims.

2.4.1.1. Incivility

Within this century, the prevalence of workplace incivility is gaining a lot of attention in most organisations world-wide. Workplace incivility is confirmed to be a global organizational issue, with many organizations struggling to address or prevent it effectively. This challenge arises because incivility is often subtle, making it difficult to identify and manage (Agarwal et al., 2023). An emerging trend from recent studies revealed that employees' tolerance for these uncivil acts triggers negative health-related problems and organisational consequences (Ko et al., 2021). Moreover, workplace incivility tends to be characterised by verbal aggression rather than physical expressions, passive rather than active behaviours, indirect rather than direct actions, and subtle rather than overt conduct (Namin et al., 2022). Due to its low-intensity nature, instigators can easily deny such intentions, and harm from this can transgress targets unintentionally (Namin et al., 2022). However, most organisational leaders overlooked and underestimate the potential impact of workplace incivility (Aarwal et al., 2023). The rise in this discourteous behaviour in the workplace takes a negative toll on the organisation and its employees both financially and physically (Vraimaki et al., 2019).

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Lata and Chaudhary, (2020) revealed that the cost attributed to the frequent occurrence of incivility in organisations of work could amount to $14000 per employee yearly, and of which the psychological effect is far higher than the financial cost. On an individual employee level, incivility decreases performance, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, creativity, ability to decide, memory recall, and employee well-being (Namin et al., 2022). Liu et al. (2020) found that workplace incivility permeates work groups and teams and increases detrimental effects such as withdrawal work behaviours and mental issues in targets. Emotional problems employees suffer as a result of incivility includes anger, isolation, fear, depression, anxiety, nervousness, burnout, and impaired psychological well-being (Agarwal et al., 2023). At an organisational level, it leads to a decrease in production and low performance. Incivility aggression reduces performance in employees, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, creativity, memory recall, and decision-making ability, and increases, anger, interpersonal conflict, psychological distress, job frustration, anxiety, retaliatory behaviour, workplace deviance, turnover, and absenteeism (Vraimaki et al., 2019; Smidt et al., 2016; Lata & Chaudhary., 2020). Even though instances of incivility are not easily identifiable, it is estimated that the incidences of its occurrence have doubled in recent years (Lovett, 2022).

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A study by Lata and Chaudhary (2020) estimated that incivility in the workplace has increased drastically from 49% in 1999 to 62% in 2020. A United State research report confirmed that public sector employees reported 71% incidences of workplace incivility, with over 78% experiencing supervisory incivility and 81% being subjected to co-worker incivility (Holm, 2016). A similar report indicated that 54% of respondents reported to instigate incivility toward others in the workplace, while 12% instigated it several times and 3% do so this daily. Also, 99% of employees in Canada reported having witnessed incivility on daily basis in the workplace, and 50% of these employees reported being the target of incivility once a week

(Torkelson et al., 2016: Pearson & Porath, 2009). A study conducted by Lim and Lee, (2011) affirms that over the past five years, 91% of incivility has been reported among employees in the workplace and an additional study on the population of Asia (China, Hong, India, Japan, Korea, and Singapore) has reported an incivility rate of 77% in the workplace (Torkelson et al., 2016). Research indicates that about 98% of employees experience incivility in the workplace and half of these employees experience these uncivil acts at least once a week (Namin et al., 2022).

According to Sakuria and Jex (2012), incivility is associated with poor performance and low levels of engagement compared to supportive work conditions. Shi et al. (2018) confirm that employees who perceive incivility at work have a greater chance of developing mental health problems, and these result in low job satisfaction, low organisational citizenship behaviour, impaired performance, low productivity, high turnover intentions, lack of loyalty and employees trust, lack of job commitment and engagement, injustice and conflict between work and family. Incivility causes employees to be less committed and withdraw effort in seeing that working groups in the workplace achieve goals and these employees are more concerned with avoiding their perpetrators, thus, decreasing employee engagement (Wang & Chen, (2020). This behaviour brings about a decline in production to parties involved in the acts in the workplace (De Stefano et al. 2020), as these individuals spend more time and energy dealing with incivility and less focus is paid to their work. In fact, victims of uncivil behaviours workplace experience a high level of distress and turnover intentions (Lim et al., 2008).

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For instance, it is estimated that nearly half of the employees in world's organisations who experience incivility contemplate leaving their jobs, while 12% do so (Lovett, 2022). Pearson & Porath, (2009) indicated that in the United States, the average cost for organisations and industries is about $50,000 per employee departing the organisation across all jobs. Porath and Pearson (2009) found similar turnover statistics, with costs ranging from 30-50% of employees'

salaries for low-level departures and up to 400% for high-level employees' departures. Smidt (2016) emphasised that 50% of the workforce subjected to workplace incivility has contemplated departing from their current organisation, with 12% actually terminating their employment contracts due to such experiences. Yearly, the minimum total revenue of about 5% is recorded as costs related to employee turnover (Namin et al., 2022). This high employee turnover is associated with a decrease organisational performance and productivity which amounts to high cost of employee selection, recruitment, and training.

2.4.1.2. Causes of workplace Incivility

There are three primary causes of workplace incivility in every organisation which include work demographics, information informality, and a climate of power and social status (Torkelson et al., 2016). Firstly, concerning work demographics, the 21st century organisational structure is faced with a lot of conflicting viewpoints and voices because of diversity in various forms such as age, value, education, race, ethnicity, national and political affiliation, and religion (Estes & Wang, 2008). Indeed, work demographics and generational conflict, ambition, mind-set, values, and others' viewpoints are giving rise to workplace incivility (Lovett, 2022). Diversity is a huge asset in the organisation as it gives good grounds for competitive advantage such as innovation and creativity (Ko et al., 2021). But too much diversity in the organisation brings about a lack of understanding and empathy among employees which stimulates acts of incivility (Ko et al., 2021). Hence, demographic differences in the workplace play a key role in influencing the frequency with which workplace incivility is expressed by employees.

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Secondly, when it comes to workplace informality nowadays, working organisations are institutionalized with the growing use of technology in the workplace (Giumetti et al., 2013). It is causing a lot of casualties where it blurs the lines between acceptable and non-acceptable work behaviours leading to incivility aggression (Ophoff et al., 2015). These aggressive actions

are made more accessible through electronic communication channels like email, social media, text messages, and other technology-based means (Sohn et al., 2019). According to Lim and Teo (2009), employees may feel that there's no need to maintain politeness or courteous interactions in their electronic communications, as these media lack the traditional hierarchies and structures that demand such respect. Moreover, the utilization of technology platforms within the workplace often creates a less formal work environment, eroding established norms of respect, politeness, and civility (Yin et al., 2020). Consequently, this allows aggressors to engage in abusive behaviours while physically and emotionally distant from their victims (Yin et al., 2020; Sohn et al., 2019).

Thirdly, a climate of power and social status has always been observed as a downward phenomenon that affects incivility (Moon & Sanchez-Rodriguez, 2021). This might be due to the fact that individuals holding higher positions typically face fewer limitations imposed by rules and regulations (Bowles and Gelfand, 2010). Employees in higher positions in the organisation are not held accountable for their negative actions because of their high status in the organisation which gives makes them instigators of uncivil behaviours toward the lower-power individual in the organisation (Moon & Sanchez-Rodriguez, 2021). Hence, as a result of inequitable power and control shared by employees in the organisation, employees in lower ranks are more subjected to incivility than those with high power (Chaudhary et al., 2022). Cortina et al. (2001) found that employees higher in hierarchy experienced low workplace incivility than those in the lower positions in the organisation. If the instigators of uncivil acts are from a top-down position, then the target's reaction to such behaviour will be very cold and feels normal for those who hold superior status (instigators), even if it violates the norms for mutual respect in the workplace (Chaudhary et al., 2022).

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2.4.1.3. Sources of Incivility

Notably, incivility in the workplace could be instigated by supervisors, co-workers, and customers, and this behaviour transits from the top to the lower levels of the organisation (Chaudhary et al., 2022). Supervisor incivility is disrespectful behaviours initiated by individual supervisors toward others such as using "upsetting comments toward others, irritable correspondences, chatter, and exclusion" (Srivastava et al., 2023, p. 363). As such employees in lower positions in the organisation are high targets for acts of incivility by those in higher positions (Vraimaki et al., 2019). DeMarcco et al. (2018), argue that incivility is very high among employees in the workplace in areas where decision-making power is low. Ugwu et al. (2022) affirm that uncivil supervisors are carriers of organisational and health impairment conditions that undermine employee's quality of life and their job performance. So, the experience of supervisory incivility by employees is more harmful than experiencing co-worker incivility (Ugwu et al., 2022). Research reveals that incivility from the supervisor is very dangerous compared to that from co-workers especially for major targets such as employees because supervisors possess reward power which is the formal power to reward employees and to confer or withhold promotions and influence employee's emotional fatigue (Schilpzand et al., 2016; Cho et al., 2016). Instigated supervisory incivility is significantly related to employee negative behaviours outcomes such as fatigue, non-reciprocity, annoyance, job performance, job contentment, job engagement, commitment, and perceptions of fairness (Jawahar & Schreurs, 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2016).

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Furthermore, co-worker incivility takes place during interactions between employees, involving a perpetrator (an individual displaying uncivil behaviour) and a target (an individual perceiving the incivility) (Chen et al., 2021). Co-worker incivility takes place when the offender avoids using words such as "please" or "thank" you to colleagues and goes on to be speaking loudly about others' personal matters, spreading rumors, ignoring colleagues, and

leaving rude messages to colleagues (Srivastava et al., 2023, p. 363). Co-worker incivility has very devastating outcomes such as high emotional fatigue, high burnout, low organisational commitment, and diminished job, low work commitment levels and low performance at work and high turnover intention, poor employee and well-being which results in family work conflict (Chen & Wang, 2019; Srivastava et al., 2023).

Customer incivility is when customers are disrespectful and use offensive language when interacting with employees. Customer incivility occurs when customers have an ambiguous intent to harm an employee (Sharma & Mishra, 2021). The most popular form of customer incivility is verbal aggression and not attending to customers' demands. Literature from Koopman et al., (2020) establishes a relationship between employees' morals in the workplace and well-being. Customer incivility brings about low customer retention, poor employer well-being, poor work performance, and high turnover intention (Chen et al., 2021).

2.4.2. Types of Workplace Incivility

While workplace incivility mostly occurs on face-to-face basis among employees in the workplace, they also vary in different forms in the workplace. Most workplace incivility focuses on instigated workplace incivility and witness incivility and experienced workplace incivility (Lovett, 2022; Sharma & Mishra, 2021). The study will focus on the types of workplace incivility as examined in the literature below.

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2.4.2.1. Experienced workplace incivility (EWI)

Most research on experienced workplace incivility centres on the various outcomes linked to victims that experienced uncivil behaviours in the workplace, while others focus on the consequences as well as the precursors (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Experienced workplace incivility is a negative workplace event that has an adverse effect on performance as well as well-being and is associated with aggressive driving behaviours (Burch et al 2023; Giumetti et al., 2013). In addition, experienced incivility is a situation where employees perceived

themselves as victims of rude behaviour (Mammen et al., 2018). The most common antecedents of experienced workplace incivility include dispositional target attributes, behavioural target attributes, and factors within the workplace environment that predict experiencing uncivil conduct. These antecedents are discussed below.

(I) Concerning dispositional antecedents of experienced workplace incivility, the individual characteristics linked to more frequent experiences of workplace incivility include the following: Age is one of the main factors that is associated with discourteous behaviour in the workplace (Chaudhary et al., 2022). Leiter et al. (2017) found that the younger generation of employees in the workplace (Gen X) experience more uncivil treatment than older employees (Baby Boomer). A report from Lim and Lee (2011) confirmed that younger employees fall prey to experienced incivility more than older ones. Also, research by (Milam et al., 2009) showed that personality trait attributes such as disagreeableness and

Personality traits such as disagreeableness and neuroticism are an antecedents of workplace incivility. The literature explains that employees who possess increased levels of disagreeableness and neuroticism in the workplace also possess increased levels of experienced workplace incivility (Chaudhary et al., 2022). Research by (Cortina, 2008) argue that incivility is a modern way of discrimination, and this act is directed to certain genders or races within the organisation and as such is classified as nothing more than a disguised form of workplace discrimination. Since discriminatory behaviours like sexism and racism are not permitted in the workplace (Schilpzand, 2016), “employees may at times be deferentially targeted with incivility on the basis of their sex or race, potentially creating disparate work environments across social groups” (Cortina, 2008, p. 68). As such incivility that is selectively directed toward certain races and genders in the workplace can be considered a subtle form of disguised modern discrimination (Chaudhary et al., 2022). Hence, diversity should be encouraged in the

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workplace and all employees should be treated with dignity and respect regardless of their age, race, or personality background.

Studies argued (Cortina et al., 2013; Cameron & Webster 2011) that females have been associated with higher ratings of experienced workplace incivility. Cortina et al. (2001) show that women report experiencing more instances of workplace incivility compared to men. Conversely, research investigating the relationship between gender and the experience of incivility contradicts this finding by asserting that men report higher experiences of incivility in greater frequency than women (Lim & Lee, 2011; Chaudhary et al., 2022). Furthermore, race is related to experienced workplace incivility as Cameron and Webster (2011) concur that experienced workplace incivility is positively linked with race, as such employee who possesses minority status undergoes experienced workplace incivility. Welbourne et al. (2015) found that Hispanic men report more incivility than Hispanic women.

(II) Behavioral antecedents of experienced incivility; Scholars have explored targeted behaviours that make individuals more likely to become the target of others' incivility in the workplace. These behaviours being targeted encompass counterproductive actions within the organisation and in the interpersonal relationships of the affected individual (Meier et al., 2013), as well as the adoption of either a highly dominanting or a minimally integrating approach to conflict management (Lovett, 2022). Also, the use of various communication technology platforms in the workplace is increasing the level of experienced workplace incivility (Sohn et al., 2019). The presence of counterproductive behaviours in the workplace is shown as an antecedent to experienced workplace incivility as (Meier et al., 2013) indicated that both interpersonal and organisational counter-productivity were associated with experienced workplace behaviour.

(III) Context: Contextual variables that decrease experienced incivility include the ability of a workgroup to aspire to the norms for high civility in the workplace and experiencing low

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stressor's role (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Walsh et al., 2018). Research has revealed that team-based interventions are effective in decreasing incidents of incivility experienced from supervisors but not from co-workers (Leiter et al., 2012). Therefore, there is a need for civility training and intervention programmes within organisations to address and reduce workplace incivility. Furthermore, Taylor and Kluemper (2012) noted that perceived role ambiguity and role conflict are factors that lead to experienced workplace incivility, subsequently resulting in aggressive behaviours.

2.4.2.1.1. Consequences of experienced workplace incivility

Research on the impact of encountering workplace incivility has primarily focused on the effects it has on individuals in the workplace (Schilpzand et al., 2016). The author elaborates that when employees encounter workplace incivility, it is linked with a range of emotional, attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioural consequences for the individuals affected, as outlined below.

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Affective outcomes: Experienced workplace incivility leads to some outcomes such as high emotionality, emotional labour, emotional exhaustion, depression, negative emotions, negative affect, and lower positive affect (Giumetti et al., 2013; Bunk & Magley, 2013, Liu et al., 2020), and lower affective trust (Cameron & Webster, 2011). Other additional adverse consequences of encountering workplace incivility encompass diminished cognitive, emotional, and social vitality, heightened stress, and increased psychological distress (Giumetti et al., 2013). Literature from (Lim et al., 2018; Liu et al, 2018; Porath & Pearson 2012) posits that some other emotional reaction to experienced workplace incivility includes a high level of anger, fear, sadness, guilt, withdrawal behaviour, and burnout. Furthermore, research has underscored that workplace incivility has ramifications that extend beyond the workplace, impacting not only employees' work experiences but also target lives. This includes lower levels of overall

well-being, reduced marital satisfaction, and heightened work-family conflict (Ferguson, 2012; Lim & Lee, 2011).

Attitudinal outcomes: Literature indicates that experienced workplace incivility influences both the working life and family of targets. That is targets of incivility acts in the workplace demonstrate low commitment levels toward their working organisation, low level of motivation, low satisfaction level with both supervisor and co-workers as well as low life and health satisfaction (Lim & Teo, 2009; Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Wilson & Holmvall, 2013). Experienced workplace incivility has a negative influence on all features of job satisfaction such as work satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and promotion satisfaction (Cortina et al., 2005).

Cognitive outcomes: Besides emotional and attitudinal responses, employees experiencing incivility suffer from cognitive outcomes such as a lower perception of fairness by targets (Lim & Lee, 2011) and lower task-related recall (Porath & Erez, 2007). Experienced workplace incivility can lead to cognitive impairment at work and lower cognitive memory that is dysfunctional in thinking or aggressive ideas (Porath & Pearson, 2009). Giumetti et al. (2013) argue that found that when employees are overexposed to incivility on technology platforms this turns to reduce their cognitive energy in the workplace as well as task engagement.

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Behavioural outcomes: Experienced workplace incivility is associated with different counterproductive behavioural reactions from those affected. Studies reveal that employees experiencing incivility acts in the workplace will reciprocate back this action by becoming perpetrators themselves to retaliate back, and display deviant and counterproductive behaviour in the workplace (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Lim & Teo, 2009). Also, employees that are victims of incivility behaviours in the workplace display very low-performance behaviour in the workplace such as low task performance (Giumetti et al., 2013) while others are found to show withdrawal behaviour from work, low engagement levels, high levels of absenteeism and high turnover intentions (Chen et al., 2013; Sliter et al., 2012). Literature indicates that employees

who encounter incivility suffer feeling such as high-stress levels, depression, mood swings, sleep difficulties, guilt, and low self-esteem (Smith et al., 2020). Employees who experienced incivility in the workplace worldwide decreases their work-related efforts, spent less time at work performing tasks, and try to avoid perpetrators of such uncivil acts.

2.4.2.2. Witnessed incivility.

As a result of incivility occurring on face-to-face basis in the workplace, these acts are always being witnessed (watched) by others in the workplace (Lovett, 2022). Even though workplace incivility has received a lot of empirical attention, the aspect of witness incivility has received very much literature from researchers (Schilpzand et al., 2016). The few studies that are done on witness incivility have revealed very interesting findings such as the study done by (Montgomery et al., 2004), which revealed that females who witness uncivil behaviours see these uncivil acts more inappropriate than their male colleagues. Witness incivility relates to negative affect such decrease performance, low helpful behaviour in the organisation, and high cognitive issues (Porath & Erez, 2009). Totterdell et al. (2012) suggest that witnessing incivility predicts emotional exhaustion, specifically in situations where uncivil behaviour is witnessed directly rather than being heard. Miner-Rubino & Cortina, (2004) concur that individuals who witness uncivil behaviour that is directed toward women in the workplace, display poor health satisfaction levels and more withdrawal behaviour at work, especially in a male-dominated group. Holm et al. (2015) postulated that individuals who belong to a highly cohesive group are more likely to adopt uncivil behaviour if they have witnessed it.

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2.4.2.3. Instigated workplace Incivility (IWI)

Instigated workplace incivility is the "unconscious or subconscious low intent behaviours with an ambiguous aim to harm the target in violation of mutual norm for respect in the workplace" (Raza et al., 2022. p. 2). These are acts of moderate intensity with an overt intent to harm the target (Mammen et al., 2018). The focus of instigated workplace incivility is on employees

who perpetrate uncivil behaviours toward others in the workplace (Sharma & Mishra, 2021). Instigated workplace incivility also looks at the agents of uncivil behaviour in the organisation (Burch et al., 2023). Uncivil behaviours in the workplace can be demonstrated in different ways such as sarcasm, unwelcome jokes, cold behaviour, hostile stares, denigrating tones, and silent treatment (Emirza and Öztürk, 2022). Studies from Schilpzand et al., (2016) expound on what causes perpetrators to get entangled in incivility acts in the workplace and the outcome for these instigators. Most studies have a focus on the antecedents of instigators' incivility such as Belau and Andersson (2005) who posits that emotional burnout, exhaustion, poor job dissatisfaction, and poor distributive and procedural injustice predict instigators' incivility (Raza et al., 2020).

In other words, if employees perceived that they are being fairly treated or abused in some way in the workplace, then this can cause the development of spiral incivility between instigators of incivility and targets (Raza et al., 2022). Meier et al. (2013) added that increase job demand and the perceived lack of reciprocity in the workplace, or the perception that employees invest more into their work just to receive nothing in return anticipated that workers would encourage worplace rudeness. Emirza and Öztürk, (2022) added that other antecedents of instigated workplace incivility might be a result of an unintended and indirect outcome of leaders' emotional states rather than a reactive response to experienced incivility.

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Accordingly, some contextual variables are said to be antecedents of target incivility, as targets of incivility acts might reciprocate their experience of incivility by initiating incivility acts on others in the workplace. Holm et al. (2019) confirmed that employees experiencing incivility from other employees within organisation such as from co-workers, supervisors, and subordinates are highly prone to demonstrate counterproductive behaviour, absenteeism, negative reciprocity and retaliation, and avoidance climate in the organisation (Cortina, 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2012). Also, employees who have encountered incivility from supervisors,

co-workers, and customers have a higher chance of instigating future incivility than those who have not experienced such acts (Trudel & Reio, 2011).

Instigated workplace incivility stimulates some form of a lose-lose situation for every employee involved in these acts (Raza et al., 2022). For example, employees who are targets or instigators of workplace incivility suffer from poor attitudes and behavioural outcomes such as withdrawing from work, poor performance and creativity, high-stress level and emotional exhaustion, and poor health and well-being (Miner et al., 2019). Instigators who are caught carrying-out incivility acts in the workplace suffer from negative outcomes from other employees such as distrust and exclusion (Emirza & Öztürk, 2022). For example, a study by Scott et al. (2013), which centred on instigators' outcomes of uncivil conduct of call centre employees, found that employees who instigated workplace incivility were distrusted and excluded by co-workers. This makes it very important for employees and supervisors to know the causes and remedies of instigated incivility so as to determine successful interventions that can solve incivility problems in the working environment.

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2.4.3. Aggression

Aggression is a different variety of behaviour displayed by individuals at work, intending to inflict harm on other employees in the organisation (Johnson et al., 2018). Hershcovis et al., (2012) defined workplace aggression "as a psychological form of mistreatment that involves negative acts perpetrated against organisational members that victims are motivated to avoid" (p. 2). This mistreatment can be experienced more severely in the form of bullying or low intensity in the form of incivility (Hershcovis et al., 2012). This is a behaviour practiced by people within or out of the workplace, with the intention of physically or psychologically inflicting harm on employees in the organisation (Pacheco et al., 2021). As per Baron et al. (1996), aggression can be categorised into three types, which encompass active versus passive, physical versus verbal, and direct versus indirect. Active aggression encompasses actions that

actively cause harm, such as making threats or using insults, while passive aggression involves behaviours like deliberately keeping relevant information from the target. Physical aggression includes direct physical interactions between the aggressor and the victim, such as punching, slapping, or head-butting. On the other hand, verbal aggression includes actions like yelling, using profanity, and hurling insults. Lastly, direct aggression involves actions specifically intended to cause harm to the target, whereas indirect aggression involves causing harm to something that the target values deeply (Chrisler & McCreary, 2010). Working organisations need to foster a work environment that is free from harm or risk for employees to feel safe and remains engaged (Johnson et al., 2018).

Studies on workplace aggression has argued that perpetrators of workplace aggression are likely all those employees who have suffered from aggression in the past (Pacheco et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2018). In a meta-analysis by Hershcovis and colleagues (2012), a common response to deviant behaviour in the workplace is workplace aggression. To be more precise, victims of this have been seen from time to time exerting high retaliation tendencies towards high power perpetrators in situations where they have low task interdependence (Hershcovis et al., 2012). Individual employees who have been victims of aggression reciprocate this action towards perpetrators and at the same time pour the blames on their organisation of work for tolerating such behaviours (Torkelson et al., 2016). This form of aggression can escalate into a spiral form as workplace incivility where victims retaliate in an uncivil manner for being treated uncivilly. Thankfully, Porath and Pearson (2012) found that prey of incivility is linked to fear and anger, and this is indirectly related to heightened levels of aggression towards aggressors. Aggression that occurs because of incivility, increases threats to the health and well-being of employees, both physically and psychologically.

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2.4.4. Incivility aggression issues in the context of South Africa

Incivility has been investigated worldwide in different work settings but there are gaps in how this discourteous behaviour is perceived in the South African work environment. The South African workplace is filled with a lot of interpersonal violence such as bullying and harassment which cause indecent work in the form of poor working conditions (Smit, 2021). Approximately 55.6% of workplace violence incidents that occur in the South African working environment are directed towards public employees (Khoza et al., 2022). These employees are frequently affected by violent behaviour directed at them, such as ignoring and yelling at others and eventually verbal harassment and threats, physical violence, and property destruction (Zimunya & Alpaslan, 2022; Terblanche & Borcherds, 2018). This has an immediate and indirect repercussion on these employees' work environment because it negatively undermines their well-being and health, compromising effective and efficient service delivery.

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In the ILO report of 2018 bullying and harassment were acknowledged as part of the phenomenon that forms workplace violence both physical and psychological which should be avoided. Workplace bullying is a well-known deviant problem that has received ample amount of investigation in the South African working environment (Hershcovis, 2010; Smit, 2021). Even though this well-known deviance behaviour has gained great attention in South African research, there is still an area around this violent deviance behaviour that needs great attention such as a less severe type of workplace deviance known as workplace incivility (Smit, 2021; Smidt et al., 2016). Contrarily to workplace bullying, workplace incivility can be associated with lower-intensity and less frequent acts which are either verbal or carried out on technology platforms and avert aggression (Zivnuska et al., 2020).

Moreover, for behaviours to affirm incivility, it is necessary that the instigators' intention to harm the victim is perceived as ambiguous, with no clear perceived intention to cause harm to the victim (Ugwu et al., 2022). In other words, in scenarios where the perpetrator has the intent

to cause harm victims, it is termed psychological aggression and cannot merely be considered uncivil (Ugwu et al., 2022). Workplace incivility is rude, sarcastic, and perceived behaviours of impoliteness that are experienced by employees in the workplace (Alias et al., 2020). Other researchers have found out that workplace incivility is a low type of destructive behaviour that interrupts the norms and standards of an organisation (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

To most researchers, workplace incivility has predominantly focused on western and Asian work context, however, the issue of this negative behaviour is also a prevalent issue in South African organisation. Though limited research has been conducted on this specific negative behaviour within South Africa, especially in the local government (Smidt et al., 2016). Since the local government's responsibilities are fulfilled within a cohesive work environment that involves having employees who demonstrate high levels of civil behaviour, acts such as negative behaviours need to be highly guarded and treated with much severity among public employees. This negative behaviour is not just unethical but leads to measurable and unmeasurable costs in the workplace such as poor service delivery to the public (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

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According to Conco et al. (2021), the South African municipal government is undergoing a high level of corporatisation, which is leading in a decrease in the qualities of mutual respect and civility among government employees. The local government is characterised by rudeness among peers, sarcasm, exclusion of others, belittling others, mocking, gossiping, and no cooperation with colleagues in the workplace (Smit, 2021). Employees here, are feeling mistreated, purposely disregarded, undermined by colleagues, or publicly belittled because of the accumulation of these behaviours, causing long-term damage that the local government should organisation concern about (Conco et al., 2021). Similarly, Chikobvu and Harunavamwe (2022) added that the South African working environment is characterised by workplace violence, heavy workload, unpleasant working conditions, uncompetitive wage, and

incompetent management. All these factors contribute to employees' feelings of aggressiveness, which employees demonstrate through hostility, violence, isolation, anxiety, fear, stress, depression and strain, endangering their capacity to provide services delivery to the public (Boafor, 2018).

Furthermore, since workplace incivility does not necessarily violate any law in the workplace, employers do not take it seriously as such the consequences become devastating to employees and the organisation (Alias et al., 2020). Targets of this toxic behaviour tend to suffer from attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioural outcomes which hamper knowledge sharing, employees' well-being, increase job accidents, substance abuse, work team conflict, productivity, and performance in the workplace (Ugwu et al., 2022). It is on this note that this study is conducted to increase productivity in the local government and decent work. This will serve to impact the call of the Sustainable Development Goal Eight for decent work and productive employment for all (Ria, et al., 2020), in order to produce a workplace free from interpersonal violence (Smit, 2021). This will also increase the ability of public employees to provide quality service delivery to the public and quench the high rate of service delivery protests.

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2.5. THE CONCEPT OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Employee engagement has emerged as a significant topic of discussion in organisations now our days because employee engagement is significantly related to employee attitudes, behaviours, employees' well-being, and performance in the realisation of organisational objectives (Saks, 2021). This has made researchers constantly seek means to improve important working conditions to create an engaged workforce (Kwon & Kim, 2020). According to Bakker and Leiter, (2010, p.4) engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption rather than a momentary and specific state". To put it simply, engagement is a long-lasting and widespread emotional and mental state that is not tied to any specific object, event, person, or action (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). It's

a motivational concept; when employees are engaged, they are motivated to work towards ambitious objectives (Li et al., 2021). Additionally, work engagement extends beyond immediate reactions to situations, as employees make a personal commitment to achieving their goals (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Employee engagement represents a positive and gratifying frame of mind related to their work where employees build their personal selves through harnessing their cognitive, physical, and emotional energies into their personal work (Kwon & Kim, 2020). This self-build energy leads to a high substantial positive outcome in the workplace.

The term employee engagement/work engagement is used simultaneously as a construct that comprises physical, cognitive, and emotional energies that are devoted by employees toward their work to positively impact work (Sacks, 2020). This is a psychological state of mind which is full of vigour, dedication, and absorption (Li et al., 2021). Vigour is a mental state which gives employees high energy and mental resilience while performing their duty (Li et al., 2021). Dedication is the state where employees experience a sense of significance and is strong involvement in their employee's work the full enthusiasm (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Absorption is the state of full concentration and engrossment in an employee's work. Employee engagement could also be classified as a multidimensional motivational state holistic and complete investment of an employee's total self in performing their task in the organisation (Sacks, 2021). Since employee engagement promotes positive organisational results such as financial and customer performance metrics, it is highly desired by most organisations (He et al., 2019). Engaged employees experience more positive emotions, a high level of in-role, high performance, and good physical health (Li et al., 2021).

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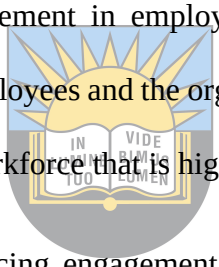
Employee engagement is closely linked to employee attitudes, behaviours, and performance, and employees' well-being in the organisation (Saks, 2021). The variables associated with employee engagement are job satisfaction, employee commitment and employee involvement

(Allam, 2017). Employee engagement leads to several positive outcomes, including reduced staff turnover, higher employee retention rates, lower absenteeism, increased corporate responsibility, transparent communication, a sense of inclusion, meaningful job contributions, decreased product defects, greater customer satisfaction, and enhanced loyalty (Li et al., 2021). Furthermore, collective organisational engagement (i.e., shared perceptions of all organisational members in relation to physical, cognitive, and emotional investment in their work) is described as a unique, value-creating organisational capability which relates to firm performance and realisation of the organisation's objectives (Azmy, 2021). Therefore, employee engagement highly contributes to a high competitive advantage in organisations (Saks, 2021). These increases the concern that organisations have on the various ways to enhance and boost workplace engagement in employee given that, the positive effect of engagement has great benefits for employees and the organisation at large through competitive advantage resulting from having a workforce that is highly engaged (He et al., 2019).



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On the contrary, instead of experiencing engagement at work, employees may experience personal disengagement which involves "the inability of people to cope with their work role, withdrawn behaviour and employees in inability to defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances" (Sacks 2021, p.1). Employees that are disengaged demonstrate an unenthusiastic attitude toward their work. Even though they work within the stated time of work they do not stay at the workplace beyond the stipulated period which is more hours or late hours (Allam, 2017). Disengaged employees "leave the best of their heart, mind, and spirit elsewhere when they show up at work" (Rastogi et al., 2018, p. 63). Disengaged employees demonstrate a lack of commitment at work, high turnover intention, low energy, low pro-social behaviour, withdrawal behaviour, disconnection, disaffection, low learning morals, workplace violence, dissatisfaction, counterproductive work behaviours, and poor work performance (Rastogi et al., 2018).

In the context of South Africa, employee engagement is very crucial in solving the challenges affecting public employees in delivering appropriate services to the public, it is crucial to positive organisational outcome contributors (Mhlanga et al., 2019). Since the local government employees are highly affected by high rates of incivility and poor working condition (Smit, 2021), government departments require committed employees who are internally driven to fulfil their duty of providing services to the public (Bhana & Suknunan, 2021). Given that engaged employees show a positive, fulfilled, work-related mindset which is attributed to vigour, absorption, and dedication, work engagement is important to local government organisations (Bhana & Suknunan, 2021). This is because the local government needs employees who are engaged and has the ability to produce good performance to meet up with their fundamental purpose which is rendering public services to the public for the fulfilment of public needs (Abarantyne et al., 2019). Employee engagement is highly associated with high motivation among employees to better perform their work, and this is achieved with the help of the high passion and feeling that employees invest toward their work and organisation. Lastly, since the targets of incivility suffer from poor attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioural outcomes, employee engagement is highly encouraged to counteract such behaviours and so doing, well-being and performance will be increased among employees.

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2.6. EMPLOYEE JOB TRUST

Brown et al. (2015) define trust as a strong belief in the reliability, truth, or ability of someone or something. For example, employee trust in the environment of work can still stimulate the employees' behaviour which can lead to high performance. Brown et al. (2015) specifies that the degree to which employees are trusting that their supervisors will treat them with honesty and fairness would impact the degree to which they would engage in opportunistic behaviour or vice versa. Therefore, high employee trust in their managers significantly influences overall organisational performance. In addition, employee social trust in the organisation increases

financial improvement and organisational growth through the decrease of transactional costs, and uncertainty while increasing efficiency, cooperation, and coordination among employees (Noda, 2020). Trust is employees' belief in the organisation, management, and co-workers, as these exchange partners conform to employees' needs and interests (Cingöz, & Kaplan, 2015). Thus, if employees' needs and interests are not considered, mutual disagreement will occur within the organisation with employees (Cingöz & & Kaplan, 2015). If employees believe that trust has been breached, they may be hesitant to engage in trust-related behaviours. This can lead to an unproductive work environment characterised by reduced cooperation, less discretionary effort, limited sharing of knowledge, and less effective collaborative problem-solving (Kähkönen et al., 2021).

In the same line (Liu et al., 2020) affirm that trust refers to confidence and the willingness of one party to open itself to the other party. From this definition, trust is looked at from three dimensions that include (i) integrity which is the belief that the company is fair and just; (ii) dependency which is the belief in the organisation fulfils its promise; and (ii) competence which is belief motivate organisation's ability to fulfil its promise. Based on the definition provided, employee trust can be characterised as the employees' readiness to place themselves at risk in response to their organisations' actions, driven by their confidence that their organisations possess honesty, reliability, and competence (Yue et al., 2019). When dimensions of trust such as ability, integrity, and reliability are attributed by employees to their managers or immediate supervisors, this makes employees to efficiently focus their attention and resources on achieving their task goal (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Therefore, employees' trust significantly impacts employee reactions toward the success and effectiveness of the organisation (Alder et al., 2006).

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Noda (2020) defined trust as a "firm belief in the reliability, truth or ability of someone or something" (p.1) in the organisation. When managers or supervisors in organisations honour

their promises to employees, these employees experience a high sense of honesty and fair treatment (Noda, 2020). In doing so, such feelings strengthen employee loyalty and increase the motivation for employees to increase their efforts in their job within the organisation (Noda, 2020). For example, if employees perceive that their treatment within the organisation is equal to or better than that received by peers in other organisations, this increases the feeling of fair treatment and honesty. On the other hand, in situations where employees are faced with dishonest and unfair treatment, their reactions are accompanied by a high rate of absenteeism from work or loafing on the job (Kähkönen et al., 2021). Therefore, in reference to the above definition of trust, what influences employees to increase their discretionary efforts to improve productivity is the strong belief that honest and fair treatment will be received from managers or supervisors (Noda, 2020). This indicates that employee trust has a significant role in the organisation as trusting employees demonstrate a high level of commitment to their work, a high level of cooperation, knowledge sharing, effective problem-solving skills, high performance, and high longevity with the organisation than less trusting employees (Kähkönen et al., 2021). In contrast, in situations where organisations indicate to be untrustworthy, risk occurs, and employees will suffer from great losses.

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Trust was first examined by early researchers from the angle of traits which access how individuals' characteristic could predict their ability to trust (Rotter, 1967; Wrightsman, 1991). Nowadays, the concept of trust has remained a topic of deliberation both at the societal and organisation level and early researchers refer to trust as an important aspect of organisational relationships (Yue et al., 2019). Literature has looked at trust from three perspectives (1) employees trust which is an employee's willingness to be defenceless against the actions of colleagues, whose behaviour cannot be controlled by them; (2) Trust in managers or supervisors which is an employee's willingness to be defenceless in their expectation on the grounds of being trusting in the objective, words or actions of their managers; and (3) Trust in

the institution which is an employees' willingness to be defenceless against the actions and behaviours of the organisation that cannot be controlled by them (Basit & Duygulu, 2018). Trust is the willingness of one party in a relationship to put itself in a vulnerable position to the action of another party and the decision of this party to depend on the other in a risky situation (Yue et al., 2019). In essence, employee trust is an important factor in the organisation that determines the interpersonal relationship that exists between employees and the management, and as such should be treated with care to spur efficiency and performance. For instance, the reciprocity theory suggests that as employees establish trust, they come to perceive the organisation as valuing them as part of its family. Thus, the payment that employees reciprocate to their organisation is helping, cooperating, and self-reporting in organisational activities (Liu et al., 2020).Within South African local government settings, employee trust in the organisational setting is key to the success of the efforts of the municipal entity and this has a great impact on the individual as well as group performance (Potgieter & Mathonsi, 2021). The primary responsibility of the local government is to deliver services to the communities within its authority in a manner that is open, truthful, responsible, streamlined, and productive. High employee trust within public sector entities such as the local government will have direct effects on individual or group performance in local government (Potgieter & Mathonsi, 2021). Employee trust plays a crucial role in fostering cooperation, coordination, synergy, and collective decision-making, leading to enhanced performance in the local government (Ndevu, 2019). Trust is primarily established through the strategies, plans, and conduct of an organisation's managers and supervisors (Noda, 2020). Employee performance in the local government is directly linked to public employees' belief that management and supervisors value their contributions to the organisation (Ndevu, 2019). Employees with high trust in their organisations demonstrate high job satisfaction, productivity, and the intention to remain with the organisation (Kähkönen et al., 2021). Engaged employees in organisations are inclined to

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extend their efforts beyond basic expectations to enhance teamwork and cooperation, ultimately contributing to achieving organisational goals and boosting productivity (Noda, 2020). Research provides strong evidence that trust among essential participants within an organisation is a critical factor for the organisation's success. Therefore, perceive belief by employees in the local government that their managers or supervisors will treat them with honesty and fairness will makes them to increase their discretionary efforts to improve productivity in the organisation. This will help to increase the local government power to fulfil the service delivery needs of the public.

2.7. Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, it was postulated that even though decent work has been seen to constitutes compelling aspirations, conditions of work and job opportunities have been proven to vary in different countries among employees' various organisations including South Africa (Rantanen et al., 2020). The South African working environment is seen to be challenged by externalization and formalization in the labour market which led to high precarious work in the form of the inadequate legal protection of employees, low employment level, low income, more hours of unpaid work, and poor working conditions (Cohen, 2012A). Also, the South African workplace is filled with a lot of interpersonal violence (i.e. negative deviant behaviour) such as bullying and incivility aggression which increases indecent work in the form of poor working conditions (Smit, 2021). This negative deviant behaviour that violates workplace norms and brings about a decline in engagement and trust (De Stefano et al. 2020), as employees spend more time and energy dealing with incivility aggression and less focus paid to their work. Therefore, the local government needs employees who are highly engaged, trusting and has the ability to produce good performance in other to counteract the negative effect of incivility aggression and decent work deficit so as to meet up with their fundamental purpose which is to render services delivery to the public for the fulfillment of public needs.

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The chapter also provides a thorough understanding on the local government of South Africa, its functions, and current challenges when it comes to delivering suitable service to the citizens under its jurisdiction.

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CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE RESEARCH

3.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter the background on the local government of South African, its duties to the public, and the crises the local government is facing in providing service delivery to communities under its jurisdiction is provided. Furthermore, the chapter gave an overview of the conceptualisation of the various concepts in the study such as decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. This chapter discussed the various dimensions of the various variables in the study and their importance. It was observed in the preceding chapter that even though decent work constitutes compelling aspirations, conditions of work and job opportunities still vary in different countries among employees in various organisations including South Africa (Rantanen et al., 2020). The South African working environment is often challenged by externalization and formalization in the South African labour market which leads to high precarious work in the form of inadequate legal protection of employees, low employment levels, low income, more hours of unpaid work, and poor working conditions (Arbuckle, 2013).

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To substantiate, the South African workplace is filled with a lot of interpersonal violence (i.e negative deviant behaviour) in the form of incivility aggression which increases indecent work in the form of poor working conditions (Smit, 2021). This negative deviant behaviour violates workplace norms and brings about a decline in engagement and trust (De Stefano et al. 2020), as employees spend more time and energy dealing with incivility aggression and less focus paid to their work. The present chapter will look at theories supporting the study. The theories grounding this study will inform the understanding of the study. These theories study include the psychology of working theory, affective event theory, job demand resource model and social exchange theory. These will be further discussed below.

3.2. A Psychological Perspective of Decent Work

Within vocational psychology, decent work is utilised explicitly to infuse a social justice-oriented perspective (Guichart, 2013). Along the same line, Blustein et al. (2016) proposed a suitable psychological perspective that measures the extent to which individual employees perceived their work to be decent, through the evaluation of their own subjective experiences of work and their working lives in line with the criteria set by the ILO (ILO; 2008, 2012). Blustein et al. (2016) further stated that the impact of work on employees perceived self-well-being, psychological health and identity is the primary focus of the psychological perspective of decent work. Ribeiro et al. (2016) further gave a similar recommendation that the work experiences of individuals across a broad socio-economic spectrum should be examined and in doing so, work is conceptualised for most people it is seen as a way to meet their basic requirements. Indeed, one of the primary incentives for investigating and intervening to promote decent employment is the enhancement of individual health as well as communal and global health equity (Blustein et al., 2016). Psychological perspective on decent employment thus focuses on how work affects an individual's self-perceived well-being, psychological health, and identity (Blustein et al., 2016). As a result, Blustein (2006, 2008, 2013) established a framework for the Psychology of Working, which Duffy and colleagues extended into a Psychology of Working Theory (Duffy et al., 2016). Within this idea, Duffy et al. (2017) created the multidimensional decent work scale to analyse the five ILO-proposed elements of decent work.

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3.2.1. The Psychology of Working Theory (PWT)

Duffy et al. (2016) developed the Psychology of Working Theory, which explores the relationship between the ILO concept of decent work and a psychological perspective on employment. The theory draws from Blustein's (2016) Psychology of Working Framework, which highlights the significance of viewing work as; (i) a key component of life and

determinant of well-being; (ii) interrelated with other life spheres; (iii) influenced by political and economical pressures; (iv) interconnected with other living spheres; (iv) covering non-paid expenses such as care-giving; and (v) concerning workers and non-workers who strive to work. Consequently, grounded in the ILO guidelines (ILO; 2008, 2012) the PWT emphasizes that decent work comprises of five key components "(a) physical and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absent of physical, mental, or emotional abuse), (b) hours that allow for free time and adequate rest, (c) organisational values that complement family and social values, (d) adequate compensation, and (e) access to adequate health care" (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 130).

Likewise, the PWT symbolises an attempt to respond to inquiries concerning individuals who are employed and individuals searching for work. The PWT " explains how contextual and psychological factors influence an individual's capacity to obtain decent work and how achieving these impacts the satisfaction of personal needs " (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 19). The PWT is interested in both the predictor variables and the outcomes of decent work, as well as the existing moderators that are found in the relationship between predictors and decent work (Duffy et al., 2021). On the part of the predictors, the theory proposed that the main two important contextual variables, marginalisation and economic constraints, have a direct relationship with decent work and an indirect relationship with it through work volition and career adaptability, or the personal resources that people employ to advance their careers and deal with obstacles in the workplace (Douglass et al., 2020).

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Work volition in this sense refers to an individual's ability to make professional choices despite limits (Duffy et al., 2012), whereas career adaptability refers to people's capacity to address present and future vocational challenges (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). As a result, the PWT identifies economic restrictions and marginalisation as contextual determinants of decent employment, that involve work volition and career adaptability. Focusing on the ILO indicators of decent work (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2012), the PWT sees contextual variables as the major forces

in one's ability to freely choose and acquire decent job. Economic constraints and marginalisation affect psychological aspects (i.e. work volition and career adaptability), affecting the likelihood of getting decent job (Duffy et al., 2016).

Conversely, PWT states the hypothesis that there are four factors, namely, proactive personality, critical awareness, social support, and economic circumstances that act as moderators in influencing the pathways to achieving decent work. Each of these factors could be explained as follows:

(i) Proactive personality refers to the initiative taken by employees to bring about positive changes in their work environment (Li et al., 2010). For example, individuals with proactive personalities are more inclined to achieve higher subjective and objective career success, such as perceived success, job satisfaction, higher salaries, and promotions. They also demonstrate proactive work behaviours, improved job performance, increased motivation, and overall well-being. Duffy et al. (2016) suggest that a proactive personality can help lessen the impact of marginalisation and economic constraints on individuals' sense of work volition and adaptability in pursuing decent work.

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(ii) Critical consciousness involves the critical examination of social inequalities, the perceived ability to address them, and taking tangible actions to bring about change. Duffy et al. (2016) suggest that critical consciousness can help reduce the impact of individual experiences of marginalisation and economic constraints on perceived work volition and career adaptability.

(iii) Social support relates to the perceived support that employees receive from peers and family to enhance their ability to cope during times of stress and adversity resulting from marginalisation and economic constraints. Social support plays an essential for assisting people in coping with contextual stressors, as noted by Duffy et al. (2016).

(iv) Economic conditions include broad economic factors like unemployment rates, availability of living wages in society, and opportunities for career advancement within organisations. Positive economic conditions, such as low unemployment rates, are expected to reduce the influence of individuals' marginalisation experiences and economic constraints on their perceived ability to choose work and adapt their careers. In essence, these moderators act to counteract the negative effects of contextual variables on individuals' ability to secure decent work.

On the part of the outcome, the PWT posits that individuals who manage to secure decent work will find that their fundamental survival, connection, and self-determination needs are met, and they will also experience a high degree of job satisfaction, meaningful work, and overall well-being (Duffy et al., 2016). This implies that decent work results in the fulfilment of essential needs such as survival, social connection, and self-determination, ultimately leading to a sense of fulfilment in one's work, job satisfaction, and general well-being, as further elaborated by (Duffy et al., 2021).

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In so doing, the theory indicates that the ability of an individual to secure decent work which leads to increased well-being both in relation to work and overall, as it fulfills basic needs. The theory highlights that an employees' ability to secure decent work leads to greater well-being, encompassing both life satisfaction and physical health, and this well-being is closely tied to the satisfaction of basic needs, including the need for survival, social connection, and self-determination (Autin et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2019). Firstly, social connection needs refer to the ability of an individual to utilise their work with the assistance of peers; Secondly, self-determination needs are fulfilled via engaging in tasks through which one experiences more autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the organisation (Duffy et al., 2016); and thirdly, survival needs refer to biological needs such as shelter, food and health, as well as the social capital needed to sustain opportunity structures, such as quality education. (Duffy et al., 2016).

That is, aspects of decent work play a significant role in the well-being of individuals as it can affect them directly and indirectly by fulfilling basic human needs.

More so, within the PWT marginalisation and economic constraints are the main fundamental variables that affect psychological and vocational constructs (Duffy, 2019). In this theory, economic constraints are characterised as the restricted capacity to acquire economic resources, including factors like household income and family wealth. These constraints create challenges that hinder individuals from securing decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). Limited economic resources refer to living below the poverty line which decreases access to quality education, as such is linked to poor academic achievement which has a negative effect on opportunities for employment and career advancement (Ngalo-Morrison, 2017). Marginalisation is where people or groups are relegated to the less power of the society or are regarded as less important (Duffy et al., 2016) and acknowledges that this type of relegation begins in the early life of the marginalised populations and may go further to a broader area of life.

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Generally, the marginalisation of individuals is sometimes based on social class, which may coincide with other forms of marginalisation such as gender discrimination, immigrants, and the poor groups (Blustein, 2008). Duffy et al. (2016) confirm that the increased level of marginalisation, decreases the ability of individuals to secure decent work, as such social marginalisation reduces equal access to resources and chances to secure decent work. For example, in South Africa women, Blacks and coloured people are still marginalised from securing decent work due to the fact they were a relegated group during the apartheid era, and presently they still occupy most precarious jobs, little or no opportunity to advance to better work (Malan, 2019). Therefore, the primary focus of the marginalisation and economic constraints give life experiences of individuals as well as their feelings in the current circumstances. It shows that these constructs embedded in the knowledge of career development of the individual from a PWT perspective, and as such must be evaluated carefully.

In theory, individuals who are believed to possess higher economic resources and less marginalisation experience are said to have a higher hand in securing decent work (Duffy, 2019). Once this is attained, individuals with decent work experience greater fulfillment in their professional lives because their jobs enable them to meet their basic life needs.

Many scholars have extensively explored the principles of the PWT, concentrating on both the factors that predict the achievement of decent work and have given support for the PWT's propositions, as observed in the works of (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2020; England et al., 2020; Tokar & Kaut, 2018). Furthermore, other researchers have corroborated the PWT hypothesis that decent work correlates with well-being and physical health, which is evident in the research by (Autin et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2019). As noted by Duffy and colleagues (2019), the core component of the PWT, which is decent work, enhances well-being by fulfilling basic human needs. Hence, the PWT offers a model that substantiates how life experiences relate to the attainment of decent work, aligning with the satisfaction of fundamental human needs and overall well-being.

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3.2.3 Comments on the Psychology of Working Theory

The Psychology of Work Theory (PWT) has greatly benefited from its development within a North American context, which is characterised by a capitalist free market and a strong emphasis on individual employee satisfaction at work (Duffy et al., 2016). Importantly, this theory is applicable in societies with diverse cultural backgrounds, even in cases where economic resources are distributed in a less uniform manner, as it was designed to understand various work forces. Therefore, gaining insight into how countries with diverse cultures perceive decent work and its outcomes is exceptionally valuable, given that work occupies a significant portion of people's lives. At present, the PWT is primarily centred on factors that influence individuals' capacity to attain decent work and fulfil their basic needs, largely reflecting an individualistic perspective (Duffy et al., 2016). However, it also incorporates

aspects of a collectivist viewpoint, such as viewing experiences of marginalisation as a predictor of decent work and acknowledging social connection needs as a result of decent work. This indicates that the theory may be applicable and meaningful in collectivist societies as well.

Additionally, putting the idea to the test in societies that are composed of collectivist beliefs could help advance understanding of the individual and collectivist elements that could influence behaviours and experiences connected to the workplace (Duffy et al., 2016). For example, South Africa is well recognised for its rich ethnic and cultural diversity, with one of the most complex and diverse population also called the Rainbow Nation (Malan, 2019). Testing the PWT in a society with a diversity of cultures, where individualism and collectivism are valued to different degrees by different cultures, may therefore complement scholars' knowledge of the PWT and possibly help to improve current policies meant to improve the working lives of people, particularly those with precarious jobs.

3.3. Affective Events Theory (AET) by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996)

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The AET introduces affective responses of employees as a significant variable mediating the understanding of how workplace incivility relates to outcomes in the workplace (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The AET is especially relevant to instances of workplace incivility since it emphasises the importance of emotional encounters in the workplace.

The AET assumes that worker behaviour and productivity are directly affected by employee affect and emotional states (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Workplace incidents lead to emotional reaction which influences people's behavioural responses. AET posits that workplace events occur before individuals undergo emotional responses. This theory places more emphasis on the position that affective response holds in the organisation of work or work environment, and places affect as work engagement and trust. Affect-driven work behaviours are directly influenced by emotional responses to occurrences at work. Affective experiences

and the overall work environment over time influence work attitudes such as job satisfaction, which in turn influence judgment-driven work behaviours such as low job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Employee affective dispositions influence both the affective state and how they interpret emotional work events (for example, employees with a negative affective disposition are more likely to view their work environment negatively and interpret work-related events in an unfavourable way).

According to Domagalski & Steelman (2005), in order to totally understand people's emotions, it is very important to first evaluate what people's relationship with the environment means when it comes to personal well-being in positive or harmful terms. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) noted that emotions are positively stimulated by workplace events that result in positive outcomes. On the other hand, negative induced emotions in the workplace will result in a negative outcome. Indeed, it is the evaluation of the event which determines whether emotions such as "anger", "frustration", "joy" or "fear" ensue.

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AET expounds that affect refers to employees' emotions and moods which can be distinguished from attitudes, and which are evaluative and cognitively judgemental on the premises of the aforementioned effect (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). Emotions and moods are important elements in how employees handle situations at work and so doing, the occurrence and the evaluation of an event indicate a significant distinction between emotions and moods. Thus, emotions are directed at someone or something, while moods do not have an object where the affect can be directed. When experiencing emotions, individuals know the comfort and discomfort of the triggering event and respond particularly toward the event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). On the other hand, mood is ambiguous and lacks object peculiarity (Frijda, 1993), meaning it is often diffused and not tied to a specific event, object, or circumstance, but rather reflects a general emotional state that can influence thoughts and behavior over time. Hence, the theory suggests that affect levels change over time and emphasizes the importance

of evaluating both internal factors, such as mood cycles or affective inclinations, and external factors, such as emotional occurrences, in the workplace.

In the context of the workplace, incivility is a social behaviour that stimulates negative behaviour and any uncivil social intuitive within the work environment are negative work event. When it comes to workplace incivility, the AET argues that negative event such as uncivil experiences within the environment of work, are antecedents of negative results such as retaliatory uncivil conducts. This later develops into a more profound negative evaluation of the work environment such as harmful impacts on employees in the form of less job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Also, AET proposes that workplace events, such as incivility, can prompt the emergence of negative emotions, which, in turn, result in behaviours driven by these emotions, like enacting incivility. Consequently, the theory suggests that employees are more inclined to participate in deviant workplace conduct if they are dissatisfied with their current work circumstances (Koon & Pun, 2018). Spector and Fox (2002) confirmed that adverse work experiences, such as interpersonal conflicts, role conflicts, and role ambiguity, are perceived as threats to an individual's personal well-being and trigger negative emotions.

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So, AET argues that uncivil behaviour at work displayed by individual workers through their verbal interactions with other colleagues result in the development of discrete work situations that relate to affect and attitudes. Given the enormous spiral of incivility in the workplace, negative emotions play a significant role in sustaining incivility, as uncivil actions initially impact an individual's emotional well-being, which subsequently results in subsequent behavioural reactions (Gui et al., 2022). Workplace incivility is an inherently interactive situation that involves two or more parties and is excellently explained from a social interactionist point of view (Zivnuska et al. 2020). Incivility aggression event may impact perpetrators who in turn direct their abusive behaviours on victims. In other words, the presence of negative emotions is likely to raise the probability of negative reactions occurring. These

adverse behaviours can potentially harm both the organisation and its members because employees who have experienced negative situations typically respond in various ways to alleviate their distress.

Moreover, the AET acknowledged that negative emotions in the workplace result in a negative work outcome (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to studies (Febriana & Fajrianthi, 2018; Lianos & McGrath, 2018), emotions are a major factor in the incidence of deviant behaviour among employees in the workplace. For instance, an online poll of young adults in America, Britain, and India showed that the tensions of anger, frustration, and stress trigger incivility and aggressive behaviour in the workplace. Additionally, Lianos and McGrath (2018) stated that people who engage in incivility aggression at work lack self-control in the face of numerous work pressures, which leads to their easily becoming upset. Other prior pressures, including financial problems, academic problems, and victims of cyber bullying, also spark the feeling of anger in individuals. This rage ultimately led to the behaviour of cyberbullying (Lianos & McGrath, 2018).

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Conversely, according to Febriana and Fajrianthi (2018), incivility at work is sparked by emotional exhaustion or unfavourable emotions. Interpersonal conflict, job demands, change, and organisational pressures are just a few examples of these negative emotions. Thus, the perpetrators of incivility in this scenario are individuals who are frustrated because they are unable to cope with various stressful work situations. Liu et al. (2009) added that perpetrators of incivility in the workplace are individuals who have a low sense of collectivity (individualism), so much so that they have a high sense of achievement orientation and focus on themselves. High-achievement-oriented, focused individuals in the workplace try to do everything in their power to achieve the desired outcomes. So, when this fails or is hampered, it triggers frustration, leading to incivility and aggression.

More so, in line with the AET, experiences of incivility from co-workers and supervisors (work events) can increase employees' emotional exhaustion, while undermining their long run intrinsic motivation and creative behaviours in the workplace (Hur et al., 2016). Therefore, employees are expected to regulate their emotions to present the emotional expressions desired by the organisation to their co-workers. This allows for an examination of the connection between workplace incivility and employee conduct, taking into account their emotional responses to uncivil actions in the workplace (Sliter et al., 2010). As such, due to the emotional reactions triggered by uncivil behaviour from both colleagues and supervisors, it is anticipated that employees who encounter workplace incivility will experience emotional exhaustion (Hur et al., 2016). This results in decrease intrinsic motivation, which decreases employee's creativity at work.

To sum up, the AET suggests that when employees are involved in adverse workplace incidents like incivility, it's probable that they will undergo a negative emotional state, which can adversely affect their work-related attitudes. Negative workplace events, such as incivility, are likely to influence an employee's mood, resulting in negative emotions and psychological distress. These affective responses, characterised by a negative mood, can subsequently impede job satisfaction among employees. This heightened employees' feelings of anger, anxiety, and irritation as a result. Thus, employees who engage in uncivil behaviour at work develop discrete events in the organization that are related to affect and attitudes.

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3.4. The Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) model

The concept of work engagement was developed in connection with the job demands-resources model (JD-R) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This model centers around the idea that every aspect of the work environment can be categorised as job demands or job resources, which can either positively or negatively influence work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The

theory explains how the organisational environment impacts employee well-being and performance.

This theory indicates some tensions that exist between the job demands on the individual employee and the job resources that an employee has, which enables them to deal with job demands (Baker & Demerouti, 2007). The JD-R assumes that job characteristics (such as job demand or resources) may have a significant influence on the well-being of workers in an organisation and which also relate to the outcome of employees and organisations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources include physical, psychological, social, or functional organisational characteristics of the job. Which helps in the achievement of work goals, decreases job demands, and induces personal growth, learning, and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources can arise from various sources, including (i) the organisation, encompassing factors like salary, career prospects, and job stability; (ii) social and interpersonal interactions, such as support from supervisors and colleagues, as well as the team's overall climate; (iii) the structuring of work, involving elements like role clarity and participation in decision-making; and (iv) the nature of the task itself, which comprises aspects like the diversity of skills required, the distinctiveness, importance, level of autonomy, and feedback on performance (Baker & Demerouti, 200). Hence, job resources can possess intrinsic or extrinsic motivational qualities. Job resources with intrinsic motivational aspects fulfil fundamental human needs for autonomy, social support (relatedness), and competence. This, in turn, leads to enhanced well-being, increased commitment among employees, and a reduced likelihood of them departing from the organisation (Korunka & colleagues, 2009). On the other hand, job resources may also hold extrinsic motivational attributes by contributing to the effective execution of work tasks, either by offering essential information or cultivating an innovative work environment (Korunka et al., 2009).

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Job demand refers to the physical, psychological, social, or organisational property of a job that needs an uninterrupted mental, physical or psychological effort from individual workers that can result in psychological or physiological costs. These are events in the workplace that draws energy from employees such as insecurity in jobs, workload, conflict at work, the pressure of time, and ambiguity. Specifically, the JD-R model assumes that job resources and job demand evoke two basic psychological processes that include health and the motivational process (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

To start, the health processes pertain to the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social resources that employees possess to effectively handle job demands (Schaufeli, 2017). For instance, when a work situation is characterized by excessive job demands without sufficient resources, it can result in adverse consequences, including diminished work ability, poor performance, and reduced organisational commitment. In essence, when job demands are excessively high and not balanced by adequate job resources, this can deplete a significant amount of an employee's energy, leading to heightened mental exhaustion, subsequently resulting in negative outcomes such as deteriorating health and diminished organisational performance.

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Schaufeli, (2017) added that abundant job resources ultimately result in positive work outcomes like increased organisational commitment, longer employee tenure, engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour, enhanced employee safety, and superior work performance. In fact, job resources possess an inherent ability to motivate employees by fostering high energy levels and a strong sense of engagement, ultimately leading to favourable work-related outcomes. Job resources have an inherent motivational quality that sparks high energy and a high perceived feeling of engagement in employees, which leads to suitable work outcomes.

Job demands such as work overload, conflicts and job insecurity in the workplace, are always associated with employees' psychological state which wears the energy of employees in the workplace and results in an increased level of burnout and disengagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Contrarily, increased resources such as social support, job control, and feedback reduce the level of burnout in the workplace and increase engagement. Many studies have identified different job resources that forecast employee engagement (Saks, 2021). In longitudinal studies, (Bakker et al. 2014; Christian et al. 2011; Mauno et al. 2007), found that job resources, particularly autonomy and social support, have a substantial impact in enhancing work engagement, both over an extended period and on a day-to-day basis. Job resources such as employee engagement and employee job trust fall in the context of jobs with features that, (i) reduce the demands of a job and thus influences health, (ii) play an instrumental role in the achievement of goals at work, and (iii) brings in possibilities of career advancement in employees and learning (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

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Job resources instil optimistic perception in employees, while fostering increased engagement at work, which subsequently yields favourable results. In essence, the JD-R model posits that by reducing job demands and enhancing job resources, burnout can be averted, and work engagement can be elevated, ultimately leading to a reduction in negative consequences and an increase in positive outcomes for both individuals and organisations.

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) suggests that engagement is shaped by the interplay between job demands and resources. Trust in management serves as a key organisational resource, fostering psychological safety and positive emotional states that drive vigor, dedication, and absorption of the core elements of engagement. Within this framework, incivility acts as a job demand and a stressor, indirectly diminishing engagement by increasing emotional strain and exhaustion. However, when trust levels are high, it can mitigate the adverse effects of incivility by providing a supportive

environment for resolving conflicts. The influence of incivility on engagement is often moderated by factors such as trust or support which support hypothesis. This model is linked to hypothesis sevent which states that decent work mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement.

3.5. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The social exchange perspective was championed by Homans (1961) and later influenced by Blau (1964). Although the idea of SET seemed to have started at the beginning of the twentieth century (Ekeh, 1974), it was actually Homans (1961), Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964) that brought the modern form of this theory to lamp-light (Cook and Rice, 2006). The social exchange theory has become a commonly employed framework for examining how people's social behaviours are shaped by the exchange of resources. It stands as one of the most influential conceptual models for comprehending workplace behaviour Scholars have since used this theory to explain the work behaviour of employees, motivation, and commitment with a good grounding on how trust can develop between employees, employers, and peers in the organisation (Korsgaard et al., 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

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As articulated by by Homans (1961), SET as the mutual exchange of activities, whether they are tangible or intangible, especially involving rewards and costs between two individuals or parties. SET focuses on examining how the arrangement of rewards and costs within a relationship influences the dynamics of interactions (Molm, 1994). Individuals will engage in an exchange only after carefully assessing the potential rewards and costs, and they will choose to participate in a relationship where they can maximize benefits while minimizing costs. In this context, cost is evaluated in terms of the alternative activities or opportunities foregone in the interactions between the involved parties, with behaviour being determined by the payoffs derived from the social environment, as indicated by (Cook and Rice, 2006). Conversely, Blau (1964) defines social exchange as the voluntary actions of an individual driven by the

anticipated gains they expect to receive from others. This means that the SET is all about the "mutually contingent exchange of benefits between two or more units" (Gouldner, 1960, p. 164) regardless of how it is defined.

The theory presupposes that there exists an inherent relationship between parties, such as employees and employers, and that individuals partake in a series of interconnected interactions, leading to mutual obligations among those engaged in the exchange (Emerson, 1976). This interdependent relationship has the potential to yield high-quality relationships, as highlighted by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), and this concept is founded on the fundamental and widespread principle of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Homans, (1958) asserts that individuals assess this relationship to gauge the benefits they stand to gain from these exchanges. However, it's important to note that exchanges of benefits may not always be perfectly balanced, and there may be instances where individuals who receive benefits may reciprocate with more or less than what was received (Gouldner, 1960). In any social exchange, individuals evaluate the potential benefits and costs associated with the relationship.

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Molm, (2006, 2010), states the following elements that underpins SET, and these include:

(A) the exchange parties; these are self-interested individuals or teams engaged in an exchange relationship with the goal of maximising benefits and minimising costs.

(B) These are resources exchanged which include the other party's valued talents and behavioural capabilities. They can either be tangible or intangible, depending on how the party behaves to certain extent (for example, being fair, credible, demonstrating respect and justice to those in the exchange). This can lead to the parties being more trusting of one another (Burke et al., 2007)

(C) This is the contextual structures within which these exchange relationships develop including the setting in which the exchange is taking place, such as the number of persons involved

(D) This involves the dynamic process of the exchange, which is an optimistic one that starts with one party initiating the process, followed by the transaction that occurs when the initiation is returned or reciprocated. A recurring transaction forms an exchange relationship being established between supervisors and subordinates. fore example, when supervisors are credible in handling-built trust by subordinates, they give it their all to ensure that the organisation operates at its peak (Molm, 2010).

Emerson (1976), Gouldner (1960), and Blau (1964) outline that the SET encompasses the following key principles: (i) behaviour which is grounded in the notion of rationality; (ii) relationships which rely on the concept of reciprocation; (iii) social exchange which operates within the framework of the justice paradigm; (iv) individuals which aim to maximise their gains and minimise their costs within the exchange relationship; and (v) individuals engagement in relationships, with the perception of mutual benefit rather than being compelled to it .

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Firstly, within the framework of SET, the actions within an exchange relationship are rooted in rationality (Emerson, 1976). Rational behaviour takes into account both the results and the methods of action which assist an individual to achieve things that they value. Notes should be taken that rational behaviour is not always achieved (i.e. people don't always act logically) as the concept of fairness is considered, which is based on the notion of fairness. In light of this, individuals have the opportunity to assess the worth of what they've received, aiming to establish equity in the degree of fairness in the exchange that aligns with their expectations (Ohemeng et al., 2019).

The second component of SET posits that relationships are founded on the principle of reciprocation (Gouldner, 1960). Individuals are anticipated to perceive favourable advantages within the relationship, which in turn generates a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Molm, 2010). In this context, it pertains to a return of value, where the parties engaged in any exchange relationship evaluate both what they contribute and what they receive in return. Consequently, positive reciprocity fosters relationship stability by means of considerate, valued, and equitable exchanges.

Thirdly, the SET element of social exchange is based on the justice paradigm which refers to interactional justice also known as the degree to which the employer and employee have personal interactions. Employees will participate in the trade relationship far more readily if they feel that they will be treated honestly and equally. Specifically, interactional justice has a higher chance of occurring if those that have the decision-making power treat employees or their subordinates with interpersonal dignity, and provide them with some justifications (Ohemeng et al., 2019).

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The fourth component of the SET is that people will strive to maximise their gains while reducing their costs in the exchange relationship. This means that people who find themselves in any exchange relationship will be oriented toward actions that produce the highest benefits, because of the principles of the social exchange theory which comprises actions of mutuality of interests and rewards toward others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As such, people will be involved in an exchange relationship, where they have a competitive advantage for both parties, rather than be forced into it.

Lastly, the fifth element of the SET refers to the desired outcome that individuals in a team or group achieve as a result of their interaction and coordination of efforts. This connection decreases risk and promotes collaboration (Molm, 1994). Thus, rather than coercion, mutual

benefit is created. As such, an exchange relationship should be interdependence which reduces the risk, encourages cooperation and trust.

Trust serves as the core element in social interactions and forms the essential foundation for both interpersonal and inter-organizational connections (Dyer & Chu, 2011). This theory also indicates that the degree to which workers trust their supervisors influences the dynamics of their relationship (Bernerth & Walker, 2009). When a supervisor is fair, credible, and shows some respect toward his subordinates, this will result in the subordinates reciprocating some strong behaviour of commitment, loyalty and trust toward the supervisor (Yukl, 2010). Consequently, trust plays a pivotal role in fostering enduring, mutually beneficial relationships between employees and their supervisors within the work environment (Nyhan, 1999). When employees have faith in the trustworthiness of their supervisors, they are more inclined to demonstrate loyalty and dedication in carrying out their assigned tasks. Trust within relationships and interactions fosters collaboration, establishes a foundation of goodwill that aids in sustaining the relationship, and mitigates feelings of apprehension and self-interest (Lou, 2002). Therefore, trust diminishes an individual's perception of risk, amplifies satisfaction, and bolsters commitment and encourages inter-organisational interaction in the long-term. With regards to the current study, social exchange theory demonstrates that employees expect fair, honest, respectful, and truthful treatment from their working organization and, in return, will demonstrate positive actions through increased commitment to the organisation's objectives and goals and high employee job trust. In relation to the study, if public employees perceive that their input is valued by the local government by rewarding them fairly and honestly, they will be more likely to trust and remain committed to the organisation.

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For trust to be created in any relationship between the employer and employee, it requires both the employer and the employee to pay which in essence is the demonstration of voluntary behaviour found in the social exchange (Wahda et al., 2020; Wang, 2020). When supervisors

or managers provide voluntary behaviours, such as a relaxed working environment and more work autonomy for subordinates, they first conduct social exchange in their relationship. The efforts made by both the supervisors or employer and the employee in the establishment of trust in this relationship shows that trust is a two-sided thing. If only one party that is an employee makes efforts and on the other hand, the supervisor does not make a gesture of return or reciprocate, then the establishment process of trust will also end, which also means the termination of social exchange and even bilateral exchanges (Kark et al., 2003). Thus, the trust-building process requires the joint efforts of both parties involved (employer and employee), and social exchange is the main catalyst that helps trust-building process. Specifically, between supervisors and employees, it is supervisors' voluntary behaviours (such as caring, authorizing, motivating, etc.) that stimulate employees' trust in themselves, thus forming a strong trusting relationship (Wahda et al., 2020). Then, employees will make different voluntary behaviours (such as work performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, employee engagement, etc.) according to different feedback intensity of trust.

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Finally, SET (Blau, 1964) highlights the reciprocal nature of relationships between individuals and organizations. Trust in management creates a sense of mutual obligation, making employees feel valued and supported, which motivates them to reciprocate with increased engagement. For instance, when employees view leadership as dependable and supportive, it strengthens their emotional commitment to their work. This relational dynamic is reinforced through positive interactions, directly promoting engagement. In contrast, incivility disrupts interpersonal relationships but does not inherently affect the quality of exchanges between employees and management unless coupled with low trust. Trust plays a key role in moderating the effects of incivility, determining whether its impact is mitigated or exacerbated. This model supports hypothesis eight which states that job trust mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and employee engagement.

3.5.1 Weaknesses of the Social Exchange Theory (SET)

On one hand, the primary flaw of SET, on the other hand, is that it oversimplifies human behaviour by reducing it to a basic cost-benefit analysis. Human relationships are frequently complex, impacted by elements other than rewards and costs, such as cultural standards, societal pressures, and individual personalities (Homans, 1958).

Furthermore, the SET theory presumes that people always make logical decisions based on the perceived advantages and costs of their activities. Human behaviour, however, is not often motivated exclusively by rationality; emotions, values, and cognitive biases all play important roles in decision-making (Howard & Renfrow, 2014).

Moreover, the SET emphasizes material rewards and costs while ignoring the emotional and psychological dimensions of human interactions. Relationships, for example, are frequently formed on generosity and emotions like love, trust, and empathy, which are difficult to quantify or analyse using a cost-benefit framework (Molm, 2010).

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SET provides a strong emphasis on immediate rewards and outcomes, which may not effectively depict the dynamics of long-term relationships (Howard & Renfrow, 2014). The theory of social exchange fails to explain acts of generosity or selflessness, in which individuals intentionally forego their personal advantages in order to benefit others.

In conclusion, an environment of trust brings about many organisational benefits such, as the encouragement of risk-taking behaviours, co-operation, knowledge sharing, and assisting colleagues in need. This is because of the confidence that employees have that their generosity will be reciprocated back to them (Ohemeng et al., 2019). Also, employees with high levels of trust in the organisation bring important outcomes to the organisation such as a high level of commitment, reduced turnover, high individual performance, enhanced organisational survival

and performance, cooperation, and employee engagement. So therefore, given the advantages of having employees who trust their supervisors, it is crucial for managers or supervisors to recognise ways to build trust among employees in their organisations.

Notably, the chapter elaborates on the PWT and suggests that testing this theory in a culturally diverse society, where individualism and collectivism are valued differently across cultures, could enhance scholars' knowledge of the PWT. This research may contribute to the development of policies aimed at enhancing the quality of working lives, especially for individuals in precarious employment.

The AET proposed that when an employee is involved in adverse workplace situations, like incivility, it is probable that they will encounter a negative emotional state, potentially leading to adverse effects on their work-related attitudes.

The JD-R) model proposed that decreasing job demands and increasing job resources prevent burnout and increase work engagement. Job resources spark positive energy in employees and make them more engaged at work, leading to positive outcomes.

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Chapter Four presents the relationship between decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement and job trust. The chapter reviewed the various research hypotheses and its development.

CHAPTER FOUR: EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Introduction

The current chapter put forth the relationship between the variables of the study which include decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and job trust. The research hypotheses are reviewed to establish the relationship that exists between these variables. This allows for a comparison between existing research findings and the results of this study, paving the way for the discussion of the study.

4.2. Effects of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Decent Work

Incidents of incivility aggression in the workplace are mounting worldwide including its adverse effects on both individuals and the organisation of work at large (Zivnuska et al. 2020. Incivility is described as rude, unsociable speech, offensive comments or behaviour, and belittling others or their opinions. It could be experienced or instigated (Choudhary et al., 2022). Both experienced and instigated incivility has negative impacts on decent work (Raza et al., 2022).

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4.2.1. Negative effects of experienced workplace incivility on decent work:

Experienced workplace incivility by workers has a significant impact on decent work. The ability of workers to feel safe and secure in their work environment is an important aspect of decent work (Rasool et al., 2019). However, incivility can lead to a hostile work environment thus undermining decent work. According to the ILO (2022), employees should be provided with workplace security and social protection for their families. Koon & Pon (2018) posit that an unsatisfactory social environment, unclear job roles, and high work pressure in the workplace have negative impacts on decent work. Indeed, incivility erodes employees' sense of security and undermines the ability of workers to experience decent work. Pu et al. (2021)

added that the major causes of workplace incivility are high job demand, high job insecurity, anger, lack of cooperation, and changes that organisations experience such as downsizing.

Experienced incivility can also negatively impact the ability of workers to experience fairness in the workplace. Although decent work implies equal treatment for both women and men (Lout et al., 2022), incivility can lead to discrimination and unequal treatment. For instance, Cortina et al. (2013), showed that women and minorities are more likely to experience incivility at the workplace. When incivility is being looked at from a gender lens, women are subjected to experienced workplace incivility and disrespectful behaviour in most male-dominated working environments (Cortina, 2008). This is supported by Rawat et al. (2019) who argued that women are at higher risk of incivility than men, especially in environments that are highly dominated by males. This leads to lack of opportunities and unequal treatment, which undermines the ability of workers to experience decent work. Such experienced incivility often makes women feel devalued and disrespected, thus affecting their sense of self-worth and making them question whether they are being treated fairly (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Generally, workers who experience incivility from co-workers or superiors are more likely to view their workplace as toxic, which can result in lower job satisfaction and higher intentions to leave, ultimately impacting the quality of decent work negatively (Cortina et al., 2001; Fida et al., 2018). Studies highlight that incivility is associated with lower job satisfaction, increased stress, and reduced perceptions of fairness and respect in the workplace, which are central to decent work (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001).

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The ability of workers to experience personal development and social integration is another important aspect of decent work. However, experienced incivility can negatively impact this ability. Duffy et al. (2016) expound that the conceptualisation of decent work specifies that it provides better prospects for personal development and social integration. The ILO, (2013) also added that decent work should provide opportunities for work that have improved

opportunities for personal growth and social inclusion. Nevertheless, incivility interrupts this by leading to social isolation, which undermines this aspect of decent work. Workers who experience incivility are less likely to participate in work-related social activities and often have lower levels of job satisfaction (Pearson et al., 2005). Vickers (2006) put forth that incivility can intensify feelings of isolation and alienation, leading to reduced cooperation and mutual understanding. Workplace incivility is therefore linked to poor health (Cortina, 2001). As such, targets of incivility do report feelings of hurt, anxiety, depression, nervousness, sadness, moodiness, and worry (Choudhary et al., 2022). All these decrease decent work and personal well-being on the performance of all employees in the organisation. This further undermines the ability of workers to experience personal development and social integration.

Informal organisational climate stimulates uncivil behaviours among employees and nervousness (Kowalski et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2022). Consequently, experienced incivility is significantly associated with all forms of counterproductive behaviours in the workplace such as withdrawal and deviance. McIlveen et al. (2021) posited that unsafe working conditions that are saturated with unfair pay, inadequate time and rest, and conflicting work values, will stimulate incivility among employees through withdrawal behaviour. Using the decent work scale, Buyukgoze-Kavas & Autin (2019) found the different dimensions of decent work capable of predicting withdrawal intentions among employees because of incivility. Zivnuska et al. (2020) found that engaging in incivility aggression negatively impacts mood evident through negative affect and high psychological distress toward work. Consequently, incivility brings about a decline in production to parties involved in such acts in the workplace, performance, and well-being (De Stefano et al., 2020).

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Casual or informal interactions in the workplace against norms for good interpersonal conduct may unintentionally generate rude behaviours among employees (Ahmad, 2019). When interpersonal relationships are violated, organisation ineffectiveness and the inability of

employees to react to their external environment sets in resulting in uncivil behaviours (Dhanani et al., 2019). Employees in a stressful working atmosphere in organisations react to situations based on instinct instead of restraint (Aquino et al., 2004; Mawritz et al., 2014) thus leading to increased experienced incivility. Shim (2015) found that some organisational culture pervades disrespect, distrust, and dissatisfaction with employees. These employees grow accustomed to hostile and unforgiving organisational cultures. Hardworking and productive employees who cannot align with this aggressive culture will leave the organisation, while those who stay will be unhappy and dissatisfied (Johnson & Invik, 2001). These aggressive cultures or norms may be harmful to decent work, employee well-being, and organisational performance (Shim, 2015). Vickers (2006) equally concurs that hostile organisational culture exerts a lot of consequences in the workplace as it fosters an unfriendly, rude, paranoid, cliquish, and stressful work climate. Schilpzard et al. (2016) added that apart from national culture, industry, and organisational work culture have been found to significantly influence how incivility is perceived or responded to by employees. They add that the nature and frequencies of incivility experienced by employees really do differ from organisation to organisation. For example, organisations such as the private sector which are out to maximize profit, have a more competitive work culture which may predispose employees to less uncivil behaviours than those in the public sector.

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The relationship between experienced workplace incivility and decent work has been described as a vicious circle (Budnick & Barber, 2015) where the outcome of incivility on work is projected into employees' personal life and vice versa. For example, an employee who has disturbed sleep patterns as a result of the experiences of workplace incivility, will mostly have difficulties the next day on the job in processing and performing their tasks or even interpreting given information and thus prone to make poorer work decisions (Lee et al., 2022). Nonetheless, Akella & Lewis (2019) pointed out that when relationships among employees are uncertain or

unstable it increases the chances of incivility being instigated or experienced by employees, as employees tend to withdraw from work more frequently. Thus, this increases absenteeism and reduces productivity, while employees keep disturb about the next incident of incivility.

4.2.1.1. Positive effects of decent work in mitigating experienced incivilityin the workplace:

Studies suggest that reducing incivility through organisational interventions, such as promoting respect and civility training, can enhance perceptions of decent work (Porath & Pearson, 2013). When employees experience decent work, they are more likely to feel satisfied with their jobs and have a greater sense of well-being (Ribeiro et al., 2016). Decent work can promote positive work relationships, fair treatment, and opportunities for skill development and career advancement. It can also provide employees with a sense of purpose and meaning, which can contribute to their overall sense of fulfilment and life satisfaction (Ribeiro et al., 2016). Ismail and Ali (2016) concur that important work characteristics such as social support, interdependence, good working conditions, and individual affectivity is greatly unfavourable for experienced incivility. Rantanen et al. (2020) added that even though decent work is all about safe work in our society, the conditions of employment, and job opportunities still really vary in different work contexts among employees in organisations. The study by Sakurai and Jex, (2012) found that promoting social support, fairness, and autonomy in the workplace was associated with lower levels of experienced incivility. Mammen et al. (2018) posited that a good working environment that is both physically and psychologically safe empowers employees to offer quality services in their various organisations of work. This mitigates experienced workplace incivility and hence, experienced workplace incivility can have a negative impact decent work.

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4.3. Effects of instigated workplace incivility on decent work:

Instigated workplace incivility has a significant effect on workers' ability to experience decent work. Umičević et al. (2021) posited that instigated workplace incivility is causing a spike in mental illness among young employees conducting insecure types of work. This has caused precarious work to present itself in different work forms such as low job security, low pay, low social security, poor working conditions, and high threats of outsourced jobs (Umičević et al., 2021). All these violate physical and psychological safety at work (Duffy, 2017) and thus, the inability of workers to experience decent work. Allan et al. (2021), argue that job insecurity has brought about the concept of precarious work in organisations. There are three psychological states of work precarity namely, precarity of work, precarity at work, and precarity from work. These three psychological conditions explain employees' uncertainty around job insecurity, discrimination, harassment, unsafe working conditions, and the holding of jobs by employees that do not satisfy their needs (Allan et al., 2021). Consequently, this undermines Duffy et al.'s (2017) conceptualisation of decent work based on five components. Instigated incivility can undermine these conditions by creating a culture of disrespect and fear, where workers feel undervalued and mistreated. This can lead to increased stress, anxiety, and depression, which can further exacerbate the negative impact of incivility on decent work.

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Instigated incivility influences pressure from the organisation such as budget cuts, high workforce diversity, high changes to part-time work, changes in management, and high implementation of technology to monitor employee productivity (Kowalski et al., 2018). These pressures create environments that increase stress, competition, and uncertainty, which can contribute to incivility. For example, full-time workers may perceive part-time colleagues as less committed, while part-time workers may feel undervalued, increasing tension and the likelihood of instigated incivility. Also, a budget climate could foster frustration and resentment among employees, which can be manifested as incivility. Similarly, employees may

react negatively to new management styles or decisions, potentially leading to rude or disrespectful behavior and employees under constant scrutiny may experience heightened stress and frustration, which can spill over into interactions with colleagues.

Potential factors that increase indecent work in the workplace are high job demands, conflicts, high workload, poor leadership, climate, compressed time, and deadlines (Torkelson et al., 2016; Vraimaki et al., 2019). A concern from Koon and Pun (2018) shows that power shifts in the workplace and high work demands may lead to high workplace incivility. Other studies have suggested that job insecurity and job autonomy increase incivility among employees through greater stress, overwork, and high diversity leading to interpersonal misunderstandings (Blau & Andersson, 2005). Pearson and Porath (2005) confirmed that job insecurity induces a negative emotional state and enhances the experience of negative emotions such as anger, fear, sadness, jealousy, and guilt, all of which relate positively with workplace incivility. Furthermore, workplace incivility stimulates work overload, shortage of resources, and threatening situations of job losses because of organisational change (Ahmad, 2019). Chaudhary et al. (2022) reiterated that workplace incivility causes the wrongful expression of anger, stress, high job insecurity, high workload, and poor work in organisations. Hence, instigated incivility causes aggressive working conditions which negatively impact the safety and security of employees in that workplace, as such inhibiting decent work.

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Organisational change is extremely upsetting for employees (Neuman & Baron, 1998). This results in employees generating high negative feelings in responding to that such as anxiety and frustration which further escalate workplace aggression. Hence, inevitable organisational change should be implemented with utmost fairness and conducted in a sensitive interpersonal manner to prevent the rise of instigated workplace incivility. Instigated workplace incivility negatively impacts the ability of workers to experience fairness in the workplace (Rawat et al., 2019). For example, Cortina et al. (2013) have shown that women and minority groups are

more likely to experience instigated incivility in the organisations. This can lead to a lack of opportunities and unequal treatment, which undermines the ability of workers to experience decent work.

Employee compensation is a facet of decent work that can be significantly impacted by instigated workplace incivility. Lim & Teo (2009), indicated that instigated workplace incivility is associated with decreased job satisfaction, reduced organisational commitment, and high job turnover intention. This affects organisational performance by decreasing profitability for businesses (Koon & Pun, 2018). A decrease in profitability affects employees' compensation through low bonuses, promotions, and salaries thereby affecting decent work. According to Lee (2002), the pay employees received because of good performance in most public sector organisations stimulates an organisational culture of control and dominance instead of cooperation. Thus, in many instances, this activates workplace incivility aggression.

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Instigated workplace incivility strongly influences decent work through the allocation of hours that allows for free time and rest. A study conducted by Sakurai (2021) found that changes in working hours in the workplace positively predicted changes in co-worker incivility which impact decent work. This is because when the duration of working hours in the workplace is being increased without any proper compensation, feelings of frustration among employees increases. The desire to be involved in uncivil behaviour in the workplace is therefore explained by the frustration-aggression hypothesis described by Miller (1941). In addition, Pearson and Porath, (2005) posited that an increase in time spent in the workplace might induce employees to be less polite in their interpersonal behaviour. This is because the increase in time increases feelings of frustration and stimulates aggressive urge that interrupts employees' achievement of desirable personal or social goals (Sakurai, 2021). Low job satisfaction and poor work-life balance decrease organisational commitment and are marked by an increase in turnover intentions which decreases the decent working of employees (Chaudhary et al., 2022).

Instigated incivility is associated with decreased job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions which affects some aspects of decent work (Aquino et al., 2006). When employees are subjected to instigated incivility, it often leads to feelings of anger, anxiety, and frustration. This leads to increased job stress and dissatisfaction and a decrease in organisational commitment, low productivity, and high turnover intentions. Batista and Reio, (2019) concur that employees in a highly uncivil work environment suffer from high job burnout, health and fitness expenditures, absenteeism, counterproductive behaviour, low organisational citizenship behaviour, and high job stress. Additionally, a study by Torkelson et al. (2016) found that exposure to workplace bullying, which can be considered a form of instigated incivility, is associated with decreased job satisfaction, increased stress, and increased intentions to quit.

Promoting decent work can help to prevent and address instigated incivility in the workplace (Viotti et al., 2018). Organisational justice is a component of decent employment. Raza et al. (2020) found that the perception of organisational justice is negatively related to the likelihood of instigated incivility. On the other hand, Jha and Sud, (2021) expound that perceptions of injustice are associated with organisational dissatisfaction by employees who perceive unfair treatment (instigated incivility) at work. Notably, Blau and Andersson (2005) concur that distributive justice, job satisfaction, and exhaustive work are linked to instigated workplace incivility. Nonetheless, a study by Park & Martinez, (2022) found that employees who perceived their organisation as providing a supportive work environment were less likely to experience instigated incivility. Therefore, instigated incivility can have a negative impact on employees' well-being and job satisfaction. Hence, promoting decent work can have a positive impact on these outcomes. Based on this, it is hypothesised that:

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H_{1a}: Experienced incivility significantly influences decent work.

H_{1b}: Instigated incivility significantly influences decent work.

4.4. Impacts of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Job Trust.

Trust in the workplace implies employees feel comfortable giving co-workers support and is in the position of meeting the goals of the organisation for the betterment of the team. However, experienced and instigated workplace incivility have various consequences on job trust at the workplace. Hence, engaging in acts of incivility aggression brings about mood detraction in the workplace. This results in a host of negative effects such as low trust, low engagement behaviours, low performance, and high turnover intention (Zivnuska et al., 2020). When the working environment is filled with poor physical and interpersonal unsafe working conditions, it brings about psychological distress. As a result, anxiety, stress, fear, discomfort, and worry become common phenomenon at the workplace (Chaudhary et al., 2022). In this type of working atmosphere, the presence of incivility aggression contributes to a lack of employee well-being and job trust. Indeed, an unhappy working environment correlates with deviant workplace behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

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Acts of incivility are all forms of negative deviant behaviour that violate workplace norms and bring about a decline in engagement and trust (De Stefano et al., 2020). Employees tend to spend more time and energy dealing with incivility with less focus on their work. When instigators and targets of incivility work in the same organisation, targets might have difficulties avoiding or confronting instigators of such rude behaviours (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010). This causes targets of this discourteous behaviour to wonder why such behaviour is tolerated in the workplace and thus leading to distrust against members of the organisation. Karim et al. (2015) found that employees with challenges in understanding the views of other colleagues in the workplace are more prone to having poor social skills and relationship difficulties with other colleagues resulting in deviant behaviour. In organisations where incivility is high, victims of these acts perceive that their social connections with peers are vulnerable (Zhou et al., 2014). Victims of incivility mostly encounter negative affective and

cognitive issues in the workplace, in other words, they worry about any possible interactions in the future with instigators (Rawat et al., 2019). Thus, victims of uncivil behaviours have high levels of distrust as compared to non-victims and will tend to be perceived by perpetrators of incivility as being vulnerable (Karim et al., 2015).

According to the social exchange theory, the experience of incivility in the workplace disrupts employees' fundamental social exchange (Blau, 1964). In addition, this experience of incivility violates the norms for respectful workplace treatment (Han et al., 2022). This affects employee's interpersonal trust, organisational perceive support, and good expectation (Han et al., 2022). Indeed, the experience of incivility in the workplace is associated with several interpersonal, exchange-based negative reactions, such as low trust, low job satisfaction, and commitment (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Han et al., 2022). Victims of experienced workplace incivility carry the perception that they receive unfair treatment from their working organisations. This intensifies the level of distrust such employees have toward the organisation. Arshad and Ismail (2018) found that the absence of meaningful interactions among employees as a result of incivility increases the chances of distrust and havoc behaviour in organisations with co-workers slowly losing their sense of cohesiveness.

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The experience of incivility aggression in working organisations results in emotional consequences such as distrust and fear, which has a huge impact on employees' well-being and job satisfaction. Thus, when employees are the targets of incivility in the workplace, they turn to question the intentions of other workers in the organisation leading to a lack of trust, job dissatisfaction, and high turnover intentions (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010). Employees who suffer from incivility in the workplace are more likely to reduce their work efforts, organisational commitment, and hours spent at work which has a high implication on trust and organisational performance (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

In organisations where there is a strong bond of trust binding colleagues and supervisors in their various workplaces then low workplace incivility or high civil behaviour will be experienced (Rawat et al., 2019). Moreover, employees' trust in their supervisors has an impact on their response toward instigated workplace incivility (Raza et al., 2020). In return, employees may instigate workplace incivility when they do not trust their organisation's ability to handle certain processes in the organisations (e.g. lack of procedural justice and equity) (Raza et al., 2020). In such circumstances, employees will reciprocate with acts of incivility. On the hand, Jawahar & Schreurs (2018) posited that employees with low trust in their supervisors are less likely to be affected by incivility because they do not expect any form of favourable treatment from their supervisor. The reasoning here is that they are less likely to experience a trust violation in the form of uncivil behaviour and hence their work engagement is less likely to be affected by trust (Jawahar & Schreurs, 2018). In other words, when employees encounter instigated incivility in the workplace, it increases frustration, anger, aggressive behaviours, or stressors which destroys trust in the organisation (Saleem et al., 2022). Instigated workplace incivility has been found to be associated with stress. Employees suffering from stress are always avoiding others, they are exhausted both physically and emotionally. This leads to job dissatisfaction and distrust (Saleem et al., 2022). Arshad and Ismail, (2018) found that incivility has an enormous negative influence on trust which influences quality and quantity of knowledge sharing. Al-Hawari et al. (2019) concurred that when employees experience rudeness, impoliteness, sarcasm disrespect, and discrimination from both co-workers and supervisors, eventually this leads to low morale and trust. These further limits employees from knowledge sharing which leads to a negative relationship between employees, a low level of commitment, high turnover, and decrease organisational satisfaction (Yuwono et al., 2020).

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On one hand, trust-building efforts can help counteract workplace incivility (Rawat et al., 2019). This is significant because, although trust is a valuable resource, it is frequently delicate and elusive. Factors in the workplace such as organisational politics negatively influence trust in the workplace giving room for workplace incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2016). Also, when the needs and interests of employees are not accounted for by the organisation, there is bound to be mutual disagreement between the organisation and its employees (Cingöz & Kaplan, 2015). In this situation where employees perceived that their requirements are not being met by the organisation, employees are prone to instigate uncivil behaviours. The lack of trust by employees decreases productivity toward the organisation and increases the chances of employees participating in deviant behaviour in the workplace. Cingöz and Kaplan (2015) corroborate with the findings of Baghini et al. (2014 and Thau et al. (2007) that workplace incivility has a significant effect on organisational trust. This is because the perceived acts of incivility in the workplace lead to a loss of trust in the organisation. Hence, in an organisation where there is a high-level distrust, employees are more prone to suffer from acts of incivility. Based on this, the following hypothesis was articulated in this study:

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H_{2a}: The presence of experienced incivility significantly influences job trust.

H_{2b}: The presence of instigated incivility significantly influences job trust.

4.5 The effects of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Employee Engagement

Employee engagement refers to the degree of enthusiasm and dedication that employees exhibit toward their jobs. Engaged employees are committed to their work and the organisation's success, as they believe their efforts contribute meaningfully to achieving goals (Kakkar et al., 2020)). However, both experienced and instigated incivility at the workplace impact employee engagement. Workplace incivility is rising at a rapid rate with a challenging characteristic of

contemporary society. Indeed, every year millions of employees fall victim to peer mistreatment at work (Zivnuska et al., 2020).

Incivility aggression leads to a significant negative impact on employees in in the workplace. This leads to psychological problems, psycho-social issues, low performance-based out-come, and low job engagement (Sohn et al., 2019). Also, incivility whether verbal or non-verbal has a serious effect on employees in the workplace (Zivnuska et al., 2020). According to Sakuria and Jex, (2012), incivility is associated with poor performance and low levels of engagement compared to supportive work conditions. The Job Demand-Resource Model confirms that an abundance of job resources at work (such as supervisory support) is a catalyst that increases job engagement (Baker & Demerouti, 2007). However, high levels of job demand (such as supervisory incivility) decrease employee engagement (Giumetti et al., 2013). Supervisory incivility is a subtle type of interpersonal mistreatment among colleagues, which, over time, can build up as a series of minor stressors and gradually deplete the emotional and cognitive resources of employees (Giumetti et al., 2013). Hence, employees with experienced workplace incivility are emotionally drained resulting in decreased employee engagement.

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Wange and Chen (2020) also found that workplace incivility decreases engagement and job performance among employees in the hospitality industry. In addition, Tricahyadinata et al. (2020) conducted a study among ICT employees and found that incivility negatively predicts employee engagement. In fact, employees with low self-evaluation are more prone to suffer from acts of incivility or are more likely to perpetrate incivility acts in the workplace.

Similarly, Adams and Webster (2013) found that mistreatment by customers contributes to heightened psychological distress among employees. Incivility from customers also negatively affects job demands, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and engagement (Jawahar and Schreurs, 2018). Customer incivility refers to disrespectful behaviors exhibited by

customers towards service providers. These can include sarcastic, rude, or hostile verbal remarks as well as non-verbal actions. Common manifestations of customer incivility involve making derogatory comments, expressing anger, or adopting condescending attitudes toward employees (Ugwu, 2022). For instance, customer incivility has been positively linked to emotional exhaustion, burnout, physical health issues, a desire for revenge, and withdrawal behaviors in service interactions. It is also associated with reduced sales performance, employee sabotage, and increased negative emotions (Cheng et al., 2020; Han et al., 2016).

Indeed, Sakuria and Jex, (2012) have specified that increased levels of face-to-face interactions in the workplace are linked to a large amount of decrease in engagement. Employees who perceive incivility at work have a greater chance of developing mental health problems (Park et al., 2018). This is because of low job satisfaction, low organisational citizenship behaviour, impaired performance, low productivity, high turnover intentions, lack of loyalty and employee trust, lack of job commitment and engagement, a sense of injustice, and conflict between work and family. Incivility causes employees to be less committed, and the withdrawal of efforts in work groups which deters the achievement of set goals, and these employees are more concerned with avoiding their perpetrators, as a result, decreases employee engagement (Gervasi et al., 2022). Madhan et al. (2022) posited that experiencing incivility in the workplace is found to be related to organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment, job involvement, and job engagement. This is reinforced by the assertions of Lim and Cortina in 2005, who contended that workplace incivility would diminish productivity, job dedication, and job engagement.

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When confronted with workplace incivility, employees face high pressure and coping challenges (Guo et al., 2020). This process consumes employees' internal resources leading to a high level of psychological discomfort, thus, creating concentration challenges amongst employees at work and therefore decreasing work engagement (Guan, 2014). Workplace

violence (incivility) negatively impacts individual employee job involvement, job satisfaction, and work enthusiasm. This has an adverse effect on both employee and organisational engagement (Arnetz et al., 2018). Ford et al. (2016) attested to the fact that disengagement in the workplace is associated with physical withdrawal and high turnover from the workplace which results from workplace aggression (Grandey et al., 2007). As such, targets of workplace aggression feel unsafe and thus have limited resources available to face their work due to the stress and strain associated with this aggression (Rodriguez-Munoz et al., 2009). Uncivil behaviour initiated by supervisors depletes employees' psychological resources and impairs their ability to cope with work-related stressors (Shin & Hur, 2020). Incivility which is perpetrated by supervisors has a high detrimental effect on employee self-worth, social identity, and social acceptance which increases a feeling of helplessness and isolation (Shin & Hur, 2021).

Linking incivility and engagement, Kowalski et al. (2018) confirmed that incivility creates a toxic organisational environment with severe and detrimental implications for individuals and organisations such as negative employee behaviour and unhealthy emotional state. Meta-analytic reviews have associated incivility with poor organisational climate, task conflict, job stress, and substance abuse which result in poor working conditions and a lack of employee engagement among employees (Gaffney et al., 2019; Akram et al., 2022). Park et al. (2018) contented that when employees experience incivility, there is a higher chance that they will display increased levels of distress at work because incivility drains employees psychologically. More so, employees who experience incivility feel distressed, and their stress reduces performance and productivity at work, bringing about a lack of engagement among employees in working organisation (Zhang et al., 2021). This has resulted in a greater portion of employees spending most of their life at work, which significantly poses a threat to mental health, well-being, engagement, and productivity (Rantanen et al., 2020). Jawahar and Schreurs (2018)

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reported that workplace incivility reduces engagement levels which in turn affects job performance.

Work engagement can be stimulated by decreasing the possible occurrence of workplace incivility (Adil et al., 2020). For example, Osatuke et al. (2009) put forth that organisational development programs should be developed in a way that would continuously stimulate civil behaviour and promote civility, respect, and engagement in the workplace. As such, this will help employees to experience the feeling of well-being as well as being empowered thus, raising positive work engagement (Adil et al., 2020). Also, Saleem et al. (2020) posited that the negative effect of workplace incivility on employee engagement can be reduced with the improvement of organisational culture. Similarly, Kundu and Lata (2017) and Li et al. (2019) justified that healthy working conditions and good organisational culture can minimize aggravated violence in the workplace and improve employee engagement. Healthy friendly work conditions positively influence employee behaviour in the workplace, and this promotes engagement. This can be strengthened through organisations' culture that inculcates trust in a way of honouring employees and thus, discouraging any form of violence in the workplace (Johnson et al., 2018). Therefore, employee engagement levels can be raised through workplace interaction mechanisms that support peers and supervisors. This then mitigates the demeaning behaviours of peers and supervisors and does not negatively influence employee perceptions of their work environment. Based on these, it is hypothesised in this study that:

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H_{3a}: The presence of experienced incivility significantly influences employee engagement.

H_{3b}: The presence of instigated incivility significantly influences employee engagement.

4.6. The Relationship between Decent Work and Job Trust

The concept of decent work demonstrated through the quality of work, employees' security, and social protection has been championed by the ILO (1999). Decent work is work which

provides for safe working conditions, adequate compensation, good health care, free resting time and increasing complementary work values for all employe (Duffy et al., 2017). It is work that meets employees' needs and aspirations (Salau et al., 2019). Even though, decent work specifies all these, employment quality on employees' behavioural outcomes such as trust remains a growing concern in the working organisation (Braganza, et al., 2021).

Developing nations such as South Africa still suffer from enormous challenges such as the creation of sufficient and quality employment. Indeed, the top concern of the population is issues relating to employment and lack of jobs. Employment quality can be elaborated in two ways viz-a-viz: (1) Job quality (i.e., job contents, skill taxonomy, autonomy, job contexts resources, and expectations) and (2) Employment relations (i.e. job trust, relationship, working hours, pension rights and salary) (Salau et al., 2019; Salau et al., 2020). Specifically, procedures and rules should be focus on enhancing employment quality and fostering positive relationships. The extent to which emerging work practices such as employee autonomy and the relationship between employers and employees have various impacts on the quality of work (Braganza et al., 2021). These lead to high job insecurity and high pressure on employees and lack of trust. As a result, high autonomy, high productivity, job satisfaction, commitment to work, and job trust are also envisaged.

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The driving force behind employee job trust is the value that organisations place on their employees together with accompanying rewards (Salau et al., 2019). Therefore, positive employee relations in an organisation of work are increased by effective and efficient allocation of resources to increase trust. Where employment quality is available, individuals feel trusted and connected to commit to organisational goals. This trend is intrinsically associated with moving toward decent work specified by the SDG 8 of the United Nations.

Job trust is key that influences employee behaviour in the working organisation. Due to high global disruptions in the market and the growth in technology, organisations in the course of fighting to survive in the market have made job trust very significant in achieving its outcomes (Ugwu, 2014). This is evident in the ability and fairness-based expectations that employees have for their employers. A high level of employee job trust improves problem-solving, cooperation, loyalty, and commitment (Salau et al., 2019). Employee trust in the workplace has brought a significant impact on employees' behaviours thus influencing performance (Hughes et al., 2018). Likewise, the level of trust employees place in their managers regarding fair and honest treatment plays a role in determining their engagement in opportunistic behaviours or otherwise (Sharma, 2021). Consequently, the extent of trust that employees have in their managers could have an impact on the performance of the organisation.

Several atmospheres of work such as the formal and psychological dimensions of labour relationships have been found to influence the level of trust among employees (Cropanzano et al. 2007). The rate at which employees trust their subordinates lays the foundation for trust among employees. Mayer et al. (2007) believe that the perception of trust by employees in the organisation greatly influenced subordinates' perceptions of their ability, benevolence, and integrity toward the organisation. Ehlers (2020) suggested that the perceptions of the levels of trust in labour relationships are normally subjective and are related to expectations from both the employer and employee. These expectations are unique and typically informed by the trust and unique experience of societal variables that affect employees' work in the organisation (Ehlers, 2020). Further research is needed on various aspects organisational and labour relationships which have a major impact on job trust (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

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Variables of employment relations such as job quality (i.e. skills, pace, discretion, and autonomy) influence employees' well-being, wealth, physical health, mental health, and job trust (Findlay, 2016). In contractual agreements pay, benefits, and work-life balance is based

on aspects of employment relationships which include procedural justice, perceptual fairness, and trust. As such, in the context of the organisation, good employment relationships influence decent work resulting in good work, productivity, and high performance driven by employee commitment and positive organisational outcomes or trust (Findlay et al., 2013).

At the heart of the employment relationship is pay. Fairness in how pay is distributed and it is essential for motivating employees (Bevan, 2012). Greater transparency is needed in the organisation around rewards. This allows employees to understand what constitutes fair compensation within the organisation. Therefore, establishing transparency in pay structures and promoting shared values within an organisation fosters trust (Bevan, 2012). As such, pay structure transparency in organisations should be evaluated periodically to increase employee job trust.

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Decent work (good work) are jobs that are characterised by: (1) good pay, (2) reasonable hours of work, (3) a promising future of promotional opportunities and job security, (4) work that is not exhausted, and safe work environment, (5) job content which is full of autonomy, interpersonal relationships between supervisors and employees. All these characteristics promote job trust (Clark, 2015). Furthermore, decent work is found in good jobs which are healthy, safe, and give employees some degree of self-worth and some influence on how their work has to be done (Okay-Somerville, 2013). An employee will greatly appreciate decent work that is rewarding. This does not refer only to the compensation or payment and the minimum standards of employment but also includes work-life, job satisfaction, personal recognition, career development, and well-being, which result in job trust. In other words, good working conditions contribute to individual and societal well-being such as workplace health and safety, stability, and career advancement opportunities (regardless of pay) (Kim & Kim, 2022).

Similarly, most employees highly value job security, and the lack of this can affect employee well-being and trust (Bevan, 2012). Snelgar and Venter (2013) affirm that in good working conditions, employees experience job satisfaction, high productivity, high performance, high-level efficiency, low levels of absenteeism, and low turnover which increase employee job trust. For example, Kim and Kim (2022) found that decent work is positively related to overall satisfaction and positive emotions in individuals' lives indicating positive psychological well-being, work fulfilment, and job trust. Employees offered with adequate compensation, suitable working conditions, workplace safety and security, access to healthcare, and work-life balance, have increased trust and performance among others without this offer (Aybas et al., 2022). Grzywacz and Dooley (2003) suggested that it is more beneficial for employees to be in roles that offer psychological well-being, even if they may not come with certain economic advantages, rather than being in economically advantageous roles that lack psychological benefits. For instance, individuals in psychologically rewarding jobs display no disparity in health compared to those in ideal positions, which encompass both psychological and economic benefits (Jones et al., 2017). However, individuals in roles that are only economically rewarding tend to have poorer health compared to those in ideal positions (Kim & Kim, 2022).

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On the other hand, bad jobs have a damaging effect on the health, well-being, and productivity of employees in the organisation, and thus deter job trust. In addition, exposure to toxic working conditions can lead to time off for sick leave for employees and distrust (Bevan, 2012). Employees in such an organisation stand the chance from suffering from various poor health ailments which leads to low productivity and distrust in the organisation. Hence, workplace health issues extend beyond unsafe practices and extended working hours, potentially leading to a deficiency in employee trust. Employees facing high levels of stress due to unrealistic or unattainable targets set by employers, overwhelming job responsibilities, and excessive working hours tend to exhibit adverse consequences. These may include job dissatisfaction,

reduced performance, a lack of trust, and diminished concern for their health and overall well-being (Aybas et al., 2022; Kim & Kim, 2022).

Finding meaning in employees' work is key to organisational commitment and employee job trust which forms part of the strategic understanding around employment relationships in the organisation (Ehlers, 2020). The meaning of work is personal to each individual employee and is accompanied by a range of different factors which changes over a working lifetime of an employee. As such, employers cannot assume that they know these but always need to seek more information. Therefore, the vital role of leaders or managers in the organisation is to provide information for employees to find meaning in their work which results in job trust (Ndlovu et al., 2021). To establish a culture of trust within the organisation, it is crucial for leaders to take on this role and consistently communicate the organisational mission in a manner that extends beyond mere financial gains, encompassing customer and societal values as well. Based on this evidence in the literature, it is therefore hypothesised that:

H_4: Decent work significantly influences job trust.

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4.7. The relationship between Employee Job Trust and Employee Engagement.

Identification of working conditions in the workplace stimulates employee engagement and is very important for the organisations' sustainability and growth. One of the conditions that are vital in strengthening employee work engagement in the workplace is organisational trust (Engelbrecht et al., 2017). Trust from management and subordinates is very important in the organisation because it draws all employees to go above the call of duty in performing their duties in the workplace through dedication and engagement (Engelbrecht et al., 2017).

The relationship between employee engagement and job trust is characterised by the understanding that the organisational social environment and employees' perceptions collectively influence the relationship between the organisation and its employees (Hashmi &

Naqvi, 2012; Ugwu et al., 2014). Employees reciprocate the positive treatment they receive from their organisation by demonstrating fairness and engagement in their work. This reciprocal behavior fosters a deeper connection to their roles and contributes to organisational success (Ugwu et al., 2014). Melhem and Al Qudah (2019) found that respect perceived by employees by their managers and felt trust, positively affects employee engagement. In addition, Buckley (2011) studying the effect of downsizing on trust in the organisation, found that employees who experienced a rise in their trust level also experienced a rise in work engagement levels in the organisation. Similarly, Wong et al. (2010) added that trust has a direct positive effect on work engagement. This study further affirmed that increased trust involves the free exchange of knowledge, ideas, or information which results in an active work engagement climate for all employees. Employees with high trust in the performance of their organisational management, experience high loyalty, and high satisfaction, and are less resistant to any changes (McManus & Mosca, 2015). Therefore, trust plays a crucial role in fostering and sustaining workplace engagement.

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Trust is an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to an organisation with the view that the organisation is competent, open, concerned, and reliable (Melhem & Qudah, 2019). When employees critically trust their organisation or the job they perform, this leads to the development of an interpersonal relationship and a good working climate in the organisation that is positive for engagement (Ugwu et al., 2014). Thus, within public organisations, job trust and the broader socio-political context serve as influential factors that shape the positive attitudes and behaviour of public employees (Hameduddin & Lee, 2019).

Braganza (2021) added that job trust forms the fundamental basis of relationships and agreements that impact how two parties behave towards each other within a relationship. Blau (1964) indicated that in social exchanges where there is no guarantee of receiving a proportional return for a favour, trust is necessary to rely on others fulfilling their obligations.

Trust is therefore a crucial element in fostering positive and productive social interactions and is essential for the success of any social exchange (Agarwal, 2023). When employees trust their workplace environment, they are inclined to reciprocate positive treatment by exerting additional effort, showing increased dedication to their jobs, and becoming more actively engaged in their work (Engelbrecht et al., 2017).

In an organisation, trust is nurtured between employees and their supervisors when supervisors are fair, caring, helpful, and fulfil their promises, which consequently improves employee engagement (Kundu & Lata, 2017). On the other hand, most employment relationships involve obligations that are not specified and non-negotiable. Thus, theoretically, benefits of the acts of reciprocity are non-negotiated, thereby making social exchange a risk-taking opportunity since employees in a social exchange might never reciprocate the treatment given to them.

The rise in global disruption and technological advancements in organisations has resulted in most organisations reaching for faster means to survive in the market. This has made job trust to become more significant in achieving most company's outcomes (Ugwu, 2014). Trust is an essential and effective element for achieving success within every organisation. It is also an important component of employees' relationships in the organisation. Trust is built on the based on mutual respect, cooperation, commitment, reliability, and equity (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). Furthermore, trust allows employees to be productive and enthusiastic about their work. Also, it enables a good working environment and provides employees the opportunity to contribute positively to the demands of the organisation while increasing their engagement level (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011).

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Trust explains why some employees accomplish their task effectively and even above the call of duty in performing their tasks with no compensation notably attached to it (Ugwu et al., 2014; Melhem & Qudah., 2019). A study by Ugwu et al. (2014) examined the impact of

organisational trust on employee engagement in pharmaceutical companies. The findings revealed that organisational trust is significantly associated with higher levels of employee engagement. Indeed, high job trust in an organisation leads to high positive benefits on the quality of communication. It also encourages problem-solving among employees as well as between employees and employers, cooperation behaviour, organisational commitment, and employee loyalty within an organisation. These actions are a typical characteristic of employee engagement making employees go an extra mile in performing their duties. Therefore, the strong exhibition of these engagement behaviours by employees in the workplace can be viewed as a relationship that has over time evolved around employee job trust (Melhem & Qudah, 2019). Employee work engagement is a consequence of the high level of organisational trust among employees in the workplace (Moll, 2021). Employee work engagement is a positive and fulfilling psychological state related to work, characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). It encompasses cognitive, emotional, and behavioural factors that are related to people's performance role in the organisation (Branganza et al., 2021). For example, when employees exert their physical, cognitive, and emotional efforts into their work, it assists them in overcoming challenges and maintaining focus on their tasks (Steger et al., 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013).

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Dedicated employees are deeply engaged in their work and actively pursue excellence. Also, highly engaged employees in an organisation experience a high sense of connection to the affairs of the organisation. They equally conduct high-intensity work for the organisation (Branganza, 2021). Consequently, engaged employees feel a strong connection to their organisation and therefore dedicate their efforts consistently to contribute to the organisation's well-being. These highly engaged employees experience more self-actualization and satisfaction with their working organisation (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017). Suhartanto et al.

(2018), concurred with the fact that employee engagement has a significant impact on employee commitment, satisfaction, and performance outcomes.

Workplace engagement is essential for increasing worker productivity, well-being, and good health (Orgambdez & Extremera, 2020). Van den Heuvel et al. (2017) discovered a positive association between engagement and trust when researching the function of engagement, psychological contract fulfilment, and trust in technology service organisation. As a result, engaged employees enjoy more positive working conditions and less likely to be absent due to illness or have intentions of leaving their job (Bakker et al., 2014; Christian et al., 2011). These fosters behaviours of organisational citizenship and the development of trust. Additionally, trust within organisations is an important motivator for promoting engagement. This is confirmed by Chughtai & Buckley (2008) and Lin (2010) who investigated the direct effects of organisational trust on work engagement. For instance, when employees are investing their efforts in support of an organisation, they want to make sure that they are making a wise decision and expect that the organisation would reciprocate in the same manner. All these evaluative decisions made by employees are a result of trust. Consequently, employees who feel engaged in the workplace and demonstrate these engagement behaviours are doing so by taking some risks (Macey et al., 2011). This is because engagement is the investment of employees' energy in their work in other to achieve organisational goals. In so doing, employees need to have high trust in their organisation of work before they can be fully motivated to engage with their tasks in the organisation. Hofmann et al. (2009) showed that public service employees such as nurses will not be willing to seek advice from their subordinates or experts if there is an absence of trust in the organisation.

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Trust fosters productivity and enthusiasm among employees, as emphasised by (Agarwal, 2014). In situations where trust is lacking, employees tend to invest more of their time and energy into self-protection. Trust has been identified as the underlying reason why some

employees perform their job responsibilities diligently and go above and beyond without expecting extra compensation. Consequently, trust exhibits a positive correlation with both employee engagement and job trust, as evidenced by the studies conducted by (Agarwal, 2014; Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015; Mulki et al., 2006)

In a broader context, trust has a favourable impact on various motivation-related factors such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, and organisational commitment, as supported by research from (Wat & Shaffer, 2005; Ugwu, 2014). Work engagement, which shares conceptual similarities with organisational commitment, also serves as a crucial indicator of motivation, as noted by (Ugwu, 2014). Therefore, trust in organisation is related to work engagement. Organisational trust is thus the main influence on employee well-being seen especially through the work engagement of individuals (Gyu Park at al., 2017). In comparison with low levels of organisational trust, employees with a high level of trust in the organisation experience more vigour, dedication, and absorption at work (Acosta et al., 2012).

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There are three distinct forms of organisational trust which are trust in management, trust in supervisors, and trust in colleagues. All three of these types have the capacity to forecast work engagement (Khawaja & Ahmed, 2021). When employees place their trust in senior management, it results in an improvement in their work engagement. Similarly, employees who have trust in their immediate supervisors, perceiving them as sources of assistance, support, and recognition, can elevate their work engagement levels. Furthermore, according to Khawaja and Ahmed's findings in 2021, trust in co-workers is crucial for improving employees' general well-being and, consequently, their level of work engagement. Therefore, employees` level of trust in management, immediate supervisor, and co-workers acts as a major boost to positive outcomes (Nguyen et al., 2020). Indeed, top management and supervisors are expected to facilitate subordinates, encourage them, and help them in problem-solving. They are also expected to recognize employees' efforts without any manipulation. As such, employees' work

engagement is enhanced. Logically, top management and supervisors, have the responsibility of boosting employee morale, guiding them, and showing reliable behaviour capable of leading work within the organisation (Nguyen et al., 2020). Thus, when employees view top management as being capable of performing their respective roles in the organisation, this will energize them to show connectivity, passion, and dedication towards the work, in other words, be engaged in their work (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). On the other hand, good colleagueship can also boost psychological capital and thus, stimulate employees' work engagement Nigah et al. (2012). Based on the evidence in the literature, it can be hypothesized in this study that:

H_5: Job trust significantly influences employee engagement.

4.8. The relationship between Decent Work and Employee Engagement

Decent work entails productive employment in which certain key features are evident, including the provision of equitable compensation, ensuring the security and social welfare of families, offering enhanced opportunities for individual growth and social protection, facilitating freedom of expression, involving employees in decision-making processes, and ensuring equal workplace opportunities and fair treatment (Lout et al., 2022; Sanhokwe et al., 2023). Decent contributes significantly to motivating employees and creating long-lasting job opportunities (Li, 2020). Also, decent work highly promotes sustainable employee well-being and develops a suitable overall humanistic working climate in the workplace (Kashyap et al., 2021). In addition, it stimulates employee engagement and well-being and thus, contributes enormously to burnout reduction, decrease in stress at work, and work–family conflict among employees (Kashyap & Arora, 2020). According to Navajas-Romero et al. (2019), a decent working environment promotes dignified conditions of living. This develops value at both the individual and social levels and thus, decreases poverty and inequality while enhancing the quality of life and the health of the entire society.

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When working conditions are decent, organisational performance is promoted through work engagement. The job engagement construct has the capacity as an alternative indicator of outcomes regarding decent work experiences of employees in the workplace (McIlveen et al., 2021; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, 2017). Bakker (2011, p. 265) stated that "work engagement is different from job satisfaction because it combines dedication with vigour and absorption, while job satisfaction is typically a more passive form of employee well-being." Therefore, working conditions that are well-equipped with suitable job resources such as good recovery time and psychological climate, good reward, and recognition are significantly linked to employee engagement (McIlveen et al., 2021; Sanhokwe et al., 2023).

Work engagement is a crucial element in organisational context behaviour because of its significant role in enhancing organisational productivity and success (Guo et al., 2020). High sense of engagement that employees have toward their work not only benefits them but also gives positive encouragement to them through increased efforts and high dedication, which contributes significantly to the benefit of the working organisation (Navajas-Romero, 2019; Moisander et al., 2018). On a more similar note, work engagement represents the directness of individual employees' task-related goals, resilience, and the extent to which these employees enjoy their work while demonstrating high-quality performance in the workplace and coping with work challenges (Dubbelt et al., 2016). Moreover, Lout et al. (2022) found that cooperative or collective is a great mechanism that advances decent work among employees. This is due to the fact that cooperatives can encourage representation and engagement, as well as build community-level grievance processes or procedures. Thus, the availability of cooperatives in organisations is purposely to provide suitable infrastructure for organisation and participation among employees in the organisation (Lout et al., 2022).

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Working conditions filled with highly difficult job demands such as high work overload and high emotional conflicts are adversely linked to job engagement (Lesener et al., 2019; Rattrie

et al., 2020; McIlveen et al., 2021). In addition, Mokaya and Kipyegon (2014) argue that various factors, including the performance management system, personal growth prospects, opportunities for advancement, workplace recreational activities, and compensation, all play a role in shaping employees' levels of work engagement. These emphasis individual employee management practices that stimulate supportive working conditions (Simpson, 2009; Navajas-Romero et al., 2019). Consequently, prior research by Ferreira et al. (2019) found that vigour, dedication, and absorption of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale were predicted by the DWS's Safe Conditions and Values sub-scales. Ferraro et al. (2018a, 2019) asserted that the promotion of work engagement is significantly influenced by the concept of decent work. Ferraro et al. (2019) discovered a positive association between quality employment conditions and work engagement, especially within the context of physicians. Similarly, decent work and employee engagement are associated with psychological meaningfulness and meaningful work (May et al., 2004; Byrne et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2017).

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Based on the DWS, decent work dimensions and various individual and organisational outcomes have found decent work dimensions to be linked to work engagement (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2019; Allan et al., 2019; Sanhokwe et al., 2023) in five different ways:

4.8.1. Safe interpersonal working conditions are associated with work engagement, as there exists a favourable correlation between an organisation's safety policies and employees' safe workplace practices (Garcia et al., 2004). In practical terms, organisations that offer safety training, autonomy, and emotional support to their employees are more likely to experience higher levels of employee engagement, fewer accidents, and increased workplace motivation, as shown by a study done by (Garcia et al., 2004; Nahrgang et al., 2011). If organisations invest a great amount of effort toward employee welfare, this stimulates employees to perceive a high amount of support from their organisation of work. These positive actions thus stimulate employees' work attitudes and engagement levels (Osam et al., 2020).

In addition, when employees are provided with decent work practices, these would lead to a positive impact on their performance in their assigned role, resulting in positive outcomes (Kashyap & Arora, 2020). For instance, an organisation that prioritises safe working conditions, a fundamental aspect of promoting decent work, is likely to offer employees a sense of confidence in their workplace safety, ultimately leading to increased levels of employee engagement in their jobs. Moreover, employees who perceive their workplace to be safe and secure, are more likely to have increased work engagement levels (Kashyap & Arora, 2022). Employees' personal development, learning opportunities, and professional advancement are all positively correlated with a safe physical work environment (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). As such, a suitable physical work environment can stimulate a high level of energy that employees use to execute tasks, concentrate on tasks and develop the resilience to respond to difficulties that may arise in the workplace, which are all fundamental aspects of work engagement (Navajas-Romero et al., 2019). Contrary, the changing nature of work, competitiveness, and high job demand, can have an impact on employee engagement at work, which can contribute to job insecurity among employees (Nahrgang et al., 2011).

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4.8.2. As part of decent employment, leisure time and rest are linked to employee engagement in that employees' well-being may be positively impacted and enhanced by their free time and non-work-related activities. In light of this, Bakker et al. (2012) support this claim by pointing out that heavy-duty housework and work-related activities performed outside of the workplace may lower an employee's energy and engagement levels at work. Therefore, in order to encourage a healthy balance between the various spheres of work and life, organisations must comprehend the concept of work-life among employees (McMillan et al., in 2011). Furthermore, most workers place a higher value on their leisure time because a good work-life balance promotes vitality and a positive outlook at work, which in turn fosters positive motivation and energises workers to continue engaging in their work (Niessen et al., 2018).

Positive effects include a longer rest period and improved employee outcomes like proactive behaviour and work engagement (Sonnentag, 2003). Conversely, employment that is marked by long hours, shift work, irregular hours, night work, etc. causes problems with work-life balance, which in turn leads to high levels of work stress and decreased employee commitment within the organisation. This is because workers believe their employers are not attending to their personal needs (Navajas-Romero et al. in 2019).

4.8.3. Adequate compensation as a dimension of decent work relates to engagement. An employee's level of engagement is influenced by the perceived advantages or rewards they receive from their organisation. Employees are more likely to be engaged in their work if they perceive clear rewards/benefits therefrom (Kahn, 1990). These advantages include the link between compensation and the employee's perception of their well-being, as well as the perceived fairness of this relationship. To achieve job engagement, one needs to be paid a living wage. A sufficient living income is required to achieve work engagement. The International Labour Organisation's (2018) decent work program emphasises an adequate and fair living wage which stimulates employee engagement. Anitha (2014) claims that compensation and reward management programs encourage staff to perform at a high level, which is crucial for improving their well-being and avoiding workplace conflict that could have a negative impact on engagement levels.

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Furthermore, Van Aerden et al. (2015) state that one of the most significant material benefits that affects work engagement is wage. Since it enables employees to meet their personal and family needs and maintain their social standing in society, a suitable financial reward positively stimulates work engagement (Van Aerden et al., 2015). According to Navajas-Romero et al. (2019), when employees believe their financial rewards are equal to the work they put in, it strengthens their psychological bond with the employer and increases work commitment.

4.8.4. Work engagement is predicted by "access to health care" and "complementary values" (Kashyap et al., 2021). Employees are always looking for societal values at their workplace, such as trust, respect, meaningfulness, and fairness, and if found, they are more inclined to reciprocate by actively engaging in their work (Agarwal, 2014). Employees are more likely to display high levels of work engagement when working organisations attempt to develop trust, respect, and justice. Additionally, the social exchange theory, which agrees that employees feel obligated to return the benefit in kind when they perceive a high level of benefit from the organisation, can be used to explain the positive impact of decent work on engagement (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Individuals can repay their organisations in the most straightforward and trackable way by increasing their level of engagement, which is defined as immersing oneself more fully into one's job tasks and contributing bigger quantities of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources (Saks, 2006). Thus, when individuals perceive a strong alignment between their role at work and their sense of purpose, their levels of engagement tend to rise (May et al., 2004).

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4.8.5. Adequate healthcare is a dimension of decent work and is linked to work engagement. High levels of satisfaction and health reduce stress among employees and turnover intentions (Gillet et al., 2019) thereby resulting in high engagement. Thus, perceived safe working conditions, which uphold physical and mental well-being, promote employee engagement. The South African public sector is defined by lots of crises making the work environment very stressful for its employees. This has continually taken a toll on employees' physical and mental health in the form of poor physical and psychological working conditions (Payne et al., 2020). But if the government invest in increasing access to health care among public employee, it will motivate and encourage engagement at work. Based on these arguments, this study hypothesizes that:

H_6: Decent work significantly influences employee engagement in the South African public sector

4.9. The mediating role of decent work on the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement

Securing work engagement through decent work causes sustainability, growth, and success in employees (Navajas-Romero et al., 2019). Decent work is an essential job resource because, through its psychology of work theory, it provides employees with full meaning and purpose for work (Kashyap et al., 2022; Sanhokwe et al., 2023). Exposure to quality employment addresses employees' basic needs for survival, social connection, and self-determination, ultimately leading to increased satisfaction, fulfilment in their jobs, and overall well-being (Duffy et al., 2016). A positive decent working environment enhances suitable working conditions, quality of life, and health care and decreases the poverty rate (Navajas-Romero et al., 2019). Decent working conditions that are both physically and socially secure gives employees the ability to express their opinion freely and even go as far as taking certain actions without any fear of discrimination which improves engagement (Roberts & David, 2017). Here, employees have the resources both physically and emotionally to complete tasks in the workplace which limits the chances of them getting involved in uncivil behaviours (Roberts & David, 2017). Employees working in a psychologically safe work environment are more engaged in their work and psychologically available as such do not perpetrate workplace violence.

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Sulea et al. (2012) explored the mediating role of decent work in the relationship between negative workplace behaviors and employee engagement. Their findings demonstrated that job characteristics aligned with decent work principles helped mitigate the adverse effects of workplace aggression on employees' psychological well-being and work engagement. Decent work fosters resilience, psychological safety, and a sense of purpose, enabling employees to

remain engaged despite challenging work environments. Employees in decent work environments exhibited higher resilience and engagement, even when exposed to occasional workplace incivility. Another study by Allan et al. (2019) examined how the components of decent work, such as meaningfulness and fair treatment, moderate the effects of workplace stressors, including aggression. The study found that decent work conditions not only improved employee engagement but also acted as a buffer against disengagement caused by stress.

Hassan et al. (2024) conducted a study on the relationship between decent work and innovative work behavior among academic staff in higher education institutions, focusing on the mediating roles of work engagement and job self-efficacy. The results indicated that decent work predicted innovative work behavior only through the full mediation of work engagement. Additionally, decent work significantly influences job self-efficacy and work engagement. Job self-efficacy also played a critical role in fostering work engagement, acting as a mediating variable between decent work and work engagement. Guo et al. (2020) investigated workplace incivility and its impact on work engagement, focusing on the mediating role of job insecurity and the moderating role of self-perceived employability. The findings revealed that workplace incivility negatively affected work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption). However, self-perceived employability weakened the negative effects of job insecurity on work engagement and moderated the mediating role of job insecurity in the relationship between workplace incivility and work engagement.

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Rajak et al. (2023) explored the relationship between family incivility, employee engagement, and perceived supervisor support in the context of government schoolteachers in the Indian subcontinent. The study found that family incivility significantly decreased work engagement, as employees spent their time worrying and became less engaged compared to their peers. The research highlighted the importance of a supportive work environment and the role of

supervisors in providing emotional support to employees facing family-related stressors. Likewise, Wang and Chen (2020) examined the relationships among workplace incivility, work engagement, and job performance. Their study revealed that both coworker and customer incivility reduced work engagement and job performance, with coworker incivility having a greater impact. Furthermore, work engagement positively influenced job performance. A study by Ugwu et al. (2022) discovered that supervisor positive gossip and workplace friendship prevalence moderate the negative relationship between customer incivility and work engagement, demonstrating that a supportive workplace culture can reduce the detrimental effects of incivility.

Also, Guo et al. (2020) also conducted research on workplace incivility and work engagement, highlighting the chain mediating effects of perceived insider status, affective organizational commitment, and organizational identification. Their findings showed that workplace incivility reduced work engagement through these mediating factors. Integrating AET, the study suggested that moods significantly influence employees' work attitudes. Employees experiencing incivility, especially in local government settings, are more likely to experience emotional pressure, leading to the depletion of positive emotional resources. As a result, they may either reduce their work engagement or maintain what appears to be high engagement by suppressing their emotions.

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Incivility aggression in the workplace has been found to decrease engagement and boosts high-stress levels among employees (Giumetti et al., 2013). If acts of incivility in the workplace are not controlled, they will bring about aggression, which has adverse effects on the reputation of the organisation (Zivnuska et al., 2020). According to Ezerins & Ludwig (2021), victims of incivility spend work time worrying about incidents and future interactions, while others actually change jobs to avoid instigators or have declining organisational commitment. Vickers

(2006) contends that incivility can exacerbate feelings of loneliness and marginalisation while reducing mutual understanding and cooperation between both instigators and targets.

Reduced levels of incivility are positively associated with the general well-being of employees (Rawat et al., 2019). Employees with experience high workplace incivility suffer from low levels of engagement, stress, poor effective commitment level, and increased turnover intentions (Welbourne & Sariol, 2017). Also, workplace incivility aggression increases counterproductive behaviour and negative emotions among employees (Khan et al., 2021). Moreso, Schilpzand et al. (2016) found that poor workplace behaviours or incivility mostly affect employees with low engagement levels, poor organisational citizenship behaviours, higher turnover intentions, and employees with high-stress levels

The relationship between incivility aggression and work engagement is elaborated by the self-enhancement theory (Chen et al., 2013). According to this theory, people tend to seek working environments that enable them to keep a good image of themselves and avoid situations in which they cannot maintain this good image such as an uncivil environment. Hence, workplace incivility jeopardises the good image that employees have about themselves, working conditions, and their worth and value (decent work) (Smidt et al., 2016). When workplace incivility takes place, it negatively affects the positive impression of employees and reduces the interest to part-take in work-related activities in the workplace (Chen et al., 2013). Smidt et al. (2016) found that instigated incivility is a negative predictor of job satisfaction and work engagement. As such, the experience of workplace incivility by employees in the spheres of work encourages counterproductive behaviour which decreases work engagement and decent working conditions (Smidt et al., 2016, Raza et al., 2022).

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A poor working environment is an active determinant of workplace violence which affect employee engagement (Finstad et al. 2019). Nielsen and Einarsen, (2018) found that the risk of workplace violence correlates with high workload, role conflict and role ambiguity, high cognitive, emotional, and physical demands, lack of free time rest, underutilisation of skills, lack of social support, and lack of employee engagement. Workplace violence or instigated incivility is associated with poor physical characteristics of the working environment such as crowdedness, high temperatures, and noisiness which negatively affects decent work and employee engagement (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Even though these authors have investigated literature on the relationship between workplace incivility and work engagement, there is a need to conduct further study on the mediating role of decent work on these combined variables, which were found lacking in the literature, thereby necessitating this study to take place. Based on the role decent work plays in the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement, hypothesis could be drawn that:

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H_{7a}: Decent work mediates the relationship between experienced incivility and employee engagement.

H_{7b}: Decent work mediates the relationship between instigated incivility and employee engagement.

4.10. Job trust mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement.

Trust plays a crucial role in the workplace, particularly in mitigating the adverse effects of incivility, which can lead to job-related burnout (Rahim & Cosby, 2016). Organisational trust mediates the relationship between work-group incivility and turnover intentions (Ghosh et al., 2013). Additionally, trust mediates the relationship between target workplace incivility and work outcomes such as job satisfaction and engagement (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010). This

is seen where higher levels of incivility predict lower organisational trust and lower organisational trust predicts less job satisfaction (Mine-Rubino & Reed, 2010). In essence, when employees are targeted with incivility in the workplace, they will develop less trust in the members of the organisation. This makes them feel disengaged and less satisfied at work wanting to quit. Shi et al. (2018) confirmed that incivility causes employees to be less committed. Similarly, these employees show withdrawn efforts at the workplace to achieve goals. They are equally more concerned with avoiding their perpetrators, thus, a decrease in employee engagement. Employees who perceive incivility at work have a greater chance of developing mental health problems. These result in low job satisfaction, low organisational citizenship behaviour, impaired performance, low productivity, high turnover intentions, lack of loyalty and employee trust, lack of job commitment and engagement, injustice, and conflict between work and family (Shi et al., 2018).

Job trust helps normalize challenging situations, fosters confidence among teams, clarifies misunderstandings, and reduces employee turnover intentions. In fact, trust reduces high conflict levels among employees and thus provides a medium for teamwork which reduce incivility (Moll, 2021). Saleem et al. (2022) examined the relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance, focusing on the mediating role of trust in supervisors. Their findings revealed that trust in supervisors significantly mediates this relationship. This suggests that some employees maintain trust in their supervisors despite experiencing incivility, potentially due to the supervisors' other positive traits, such as competence, benevolence, and integrity (Afsar & Saeed, 2011). However, the incivility observed in such organiations might also stem from gaps in the supervisors' integrity.

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Also, Cortina et al. (2001) argued that in environments where trust in leadership is low, employees are less likely to feel protected or supported, intensifying the detrimental effects of incivility. In the sam line, Raza et al. (2020) noted that trust in management refers to employees'

belief that their leaders are competent, reliable, and have their best interests at heart. Low trust amplifies the negative effects of incivility because employees may feel that management is complicit in tolerating incivility, leading to perceptions of an unfair or unsupportive organisational climate (Raza et al., 2020). Low trust undermines employees' willingness to seek help or report uncivil behaviour, leaving them to cope alone, which exacerbates stress and disengagement (Huang et al., 2019). Conversely, in high-trust environments, employees may perceive incivility as isolated incidents rather than reflective of broader organisational dysfunction, thereby mitigating its impact.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) conducted a meta-analysis on trust in leadership and concluded that it has a significant and direct association with positive workplace outcomes, such as employee engagement. This connection is attributed to the role of trust in creating psychological safety and facilitating open communication. Similarly, research by Erdoğan et al. (2022) revealed that trust in management enhances employee engagement by promoting a sense of fairness, support, and organizational commitment.

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Porath and Pearson (2012) found that workplace incivility indirectly reduces engagement by contributing to emotional exhaustion and diminishing organizational commitment, highlighting its mediated effect. Similarly, Gümüştaş and Karataş Gümüştaş (2023) noted that incivility leads to disengagement primarily when it intensifies stress or fosters a hostile environment, especially in contexts with low organizational support or trust.

According to Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), trust is crucial for building strong relationships within organizations. Trust in management communicates to employees that they are valued and supported, encouraging them to reciprocate with greater effort and engagement. Conversely, incivility disrupts interpersonal relationships but does not directly impact exchanges with management unless coupled with low trust. Additionally, the job demands-

resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) underscores the importance of organizational resources, such as trust in management, in driving engagement. Trust serves as a vital resource that enhances vigor, dedication, and absorption of key dimensions of engagement. In contrast, incivility functions as a job demand, indirectly reducing engagement by heightening emotional strain and exhaustion. Its effect on engagement is typically influenced by mediating factors like trust or organizational support. Eventhough job trust has been studied as a mediating variable, its mediating role in the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement in the South african local government still needs to be investigated. Based on this discussion, it can be hypothesised that:

H_{8a}: Job trust mediates the relationship between experienced incivility and employee engagement.

H_{8b}: Job trust mediates the relationship between instigated incivility and employee engagement.

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4.11. Consolidation of the literature review

A thorough examination of the literature reviewed above reveals that decent working conditions are very important in all societies over the globe because decent work is linked to economic and social growth. It is focusing on human and social development. It reduces inequality and increases societal resilience, raises the vision of sustainable development, and thus, increases employee engagement and trust in the workplace (Cernev & Fenner, 2020; Ria et al., 2019). Even though literature indicates this, there is noted neglect by researchers in paying enough attention to decent work, especially in the African context, (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). It is on this note that the present study is investigating the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the Eastern Cape, local government. However, noting from previous literature, no previous literature has combined these four

constructs in order to determine their relationship in a single study, thus paving the way for this study. Moreover, the above literature review also shows that a very limited number of studies in this area have been conducted within the local government, especially in the African context (Di Ruggiero et al., 2015; Smidt et al., 2016). Therefore, the present study is of great importance and is contributing tremendously to the area of inquiry by filling in the described gaps identified in the literature.

4.1.1 Conceptual Research Framework

The conceptual model in Figure 1.1 outlines the hypotheses and variables used in the research. The conceptual model visually represents the anticipated relationships between the study's variables.

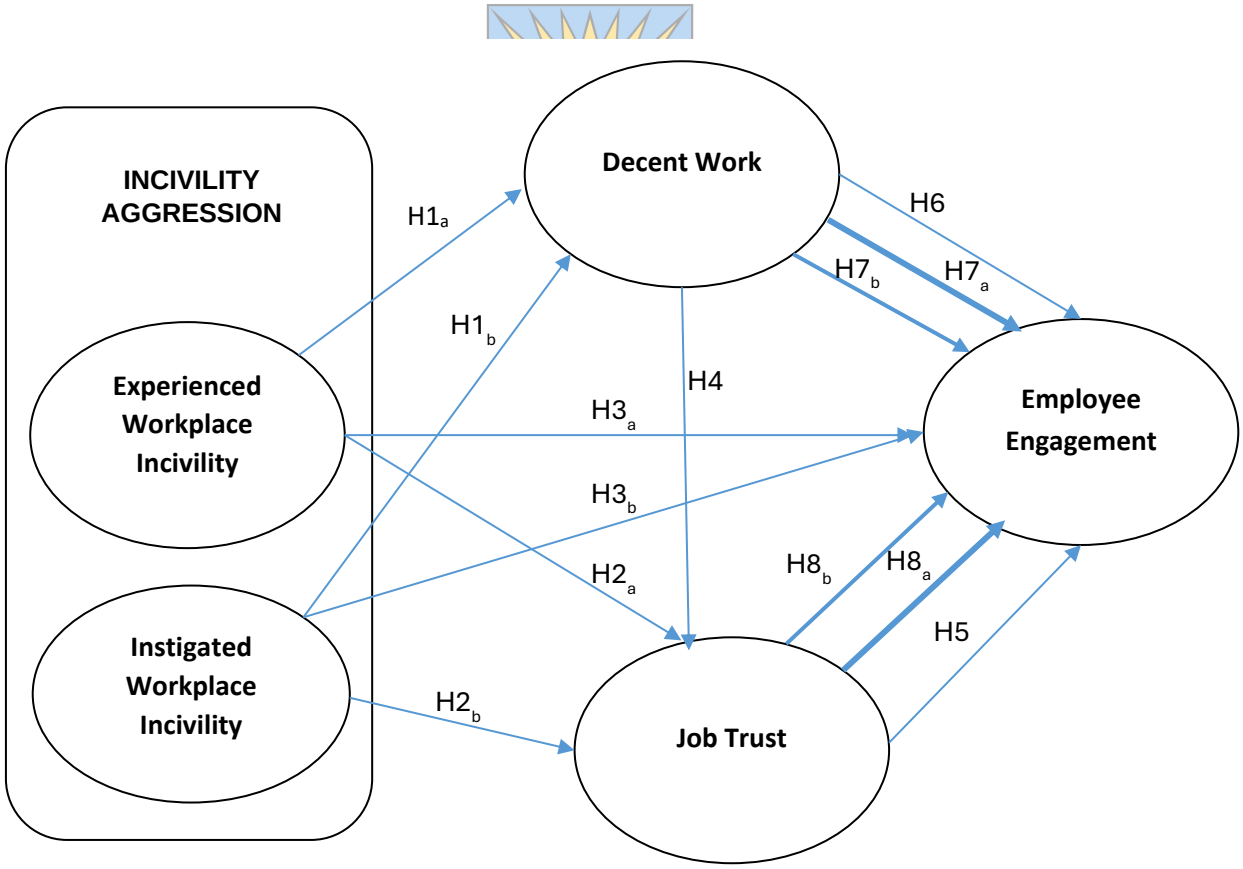

Figure 4.1: Proposed research framework of this study.

4.12. Conclusion

This chapter explores the correlation between decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and job trust. Additionally, it examines existing academic literature to determine the relationships between these variables. This review facilitates a comparison between prior research findings and the outcomes of the present study, potentially leading to the emergence of novel and unequivocal concepts during the discussion chapter.

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CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5. Introduction

The main objective of any research is to develop new understanding by answering unknown and unexplored problems (Patel & Patel, 2019). This chapter describes the study's research design. Before conducting research, researchers must first grasp what the research design entails (Maxwell, 2016). According to Mohajan (2020), research is a systematic and deliberate process of investigation that increases knowledge while also attempting to address questions with no credible answers. Furthermore, Collis and Hussey (2021) argue that research is a methodical investigation aiming at generating fresh insights and expanding understanding through monitoring of a specific data collection. Similarly, Kumatongo & Muzata (2021) argue that research entails a complete, rigorous investigation, an objective, and systematic process of gathering, evaluating, and interpreting data in order to deepen understanding of a topic of interest and facilitate decision-making. The entire strategy utilised to conduct research is known as research design.

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5.1. Research Design

A research design includes a framework that facilitates data gathering and analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Likewise, it is a study outline in which the researcher is instructed on creating, planning, and implementing the research in a way that allows the researcher to achieve the research objectives that were initially intended (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Wiid & Diggines, 2020). The choice of an effective research design depends on the planning of the research, probable issues identified, and the most important paradigm that leads the research effort (Zikmund et al., 2010). Thus, a research design helps investigators to establish the direction and methodology for collecting and analysing data to address research questions and achieve study objectives.

The model of Saunders et al. (2016, p.124), often known as the "research onion" paradigm, was utilised to describe the methodological decisions and approach taken for conducting primary research in this investigation. According to Saunders et al. (2007), the "research onion" framework describes the different stages that research must go through while building an efficient technique (p.130). This model serves as a systematic guideline to help investigators in structuring their investigation by adhering to a research design structured around the various layers of the research onion (Melnikovas, 2018). It is composed of six layers (Figure 2.1), which peel off one at a time as the research methodology unpacks. These include (i) research paradigms (philosophies), (ii) methodological approaches, (iii) methodological choices, (iv) methodological strategies, (v) time horizons, and (vi) data collection and analysis process; each representing a layer within the research framework, progressing inward from the outermost layer of the "research onion" (Saunders et al., 2019, p.130).

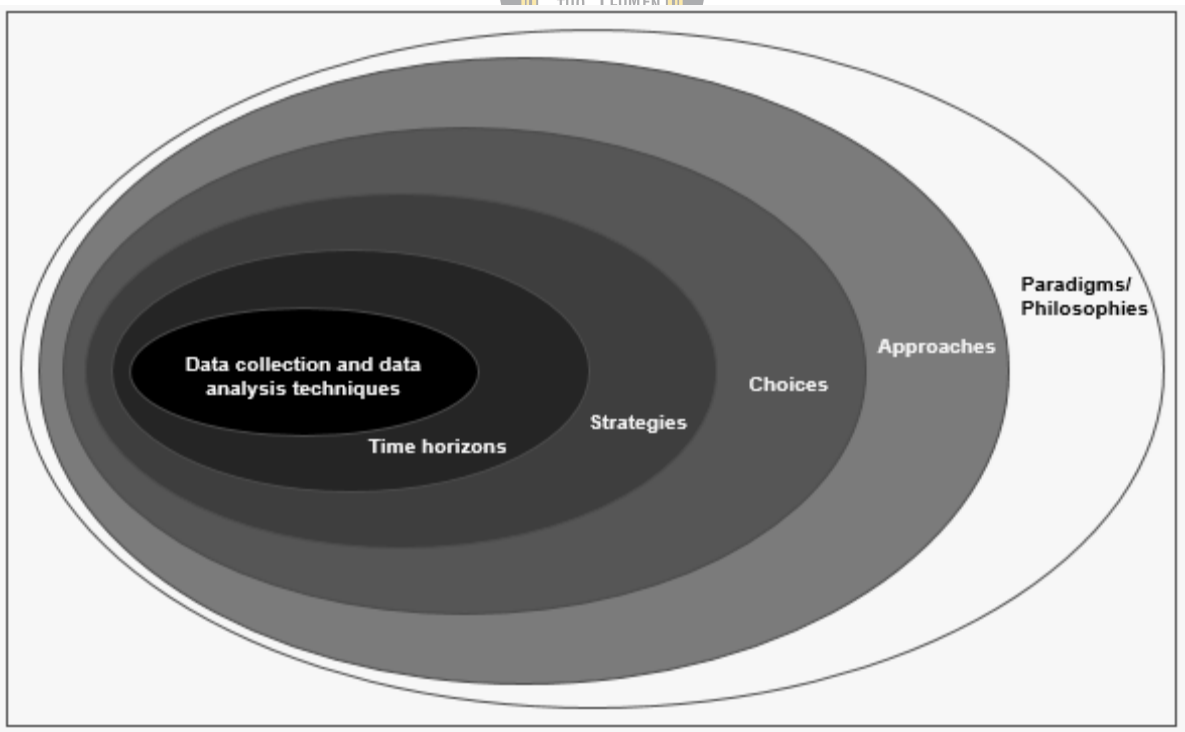

Figure 5.1, The various layers of the “research onion” (from Saunders et al., 2019, p.130).

5.2. Philosophical Foundation and Research Paradigm

In figure 2.1, The first layer of the research onion contains the research philosophy (Collis & Hussey, 2021; Saunders et al., 2019). This is the foundation of any research which describes the set of beliefs upon which the research is built (i.e., how information regarding a phenomenon ought to be collected, examined, and applied). In addition, research paradigm is all-encompassing systems of interrelated practices and thinking (Blanche et al., 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This outlines the essence of the investigation along three aspects for researchers, notably; ontological, epistemological and methodology (axiological) assumptions. Ontology dwells on the nature of reality whereas epistemology talks of how knowledge can be obtained and communicated, while methodology deals with the method used in the process (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). In other words, any research starts with ontology, accompanied by epistemology and ends with methodology. For examplethe study investigates employees' lived experiences and perceptions of incivility and decent work and its impact on work outcomes, recognizing that these experiences are shaped by their unique social and organisational contexts with the use of a survey. These philosophical foundations describe the research paradigm (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Žukauskas et al., 2018). Fundamentally, in human science, the term research paradigm can be used in three ways, namely, to institutionalise intellectual activity, to broaden certain group approaches and perspectives of any study subject, and to describe broad approaches to research such as positivist or interpretive (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2013).

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A research paradigm is the philosophical framework that governs how scientific research is done and interpretated (Collis & Hussey, 2014; Babbie, 2016). It is also a method of investigating social phenomena to get specific understandings and propose explanations (Saunders, 2012). A research paradigm is made up of underlying theories, notions, conclusions, and presumptions regarding the nature of reality, which impact a researcher's approach by

shaping their perspective on research (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Consequently, this is the method used when research is being carried out (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). According to Saunders et al. (2019, p.144), in the discipline of business and management, there are five key study paradigms. These are positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism, and pragmatism. Even though research is dominated by a variety of research paradigms, Collis and Hussey, (2021) claim that there are two dominant research paradigms in the discipline of social sciences, organisational behaviour and business management research. These are interpretivism and positivism. However, these research paradigms are classified primarily based on ontological, epistemological, and methodological considerations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Ukauskas et al., 2018).

5.2. Interpretivist Paradigm

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The interpretivist paradigm is a phenomenological research approach that tries to understand humans and their behaviours (Babbies & Mouton 2008). This phenomenon continues to interpret, generate, define, justify, and rationalise our daily acts. Interpretivism is a significant anti-positivist position that examines present and historically contextual interpretations of the social world (Gray, 2021). This viewpoint implies that there is no one-to-one direct interaction between subjects and the world (things), and that the world is interpreted through mental classification (Gray, 2014). Interpretivism, which is closely related to constructivism, claims that natural and social reality are distinct (Gray, 2014). The interpretivist research paradigm assumes that social reality is not singular or objective, but rather is moulded by human experiences and social settings (Lim, 2023). As a result, it is most effectively studied within its socio-historical context, by integrating the subjective perspectives of its diverse respondents (epistemology).

Importantly, the interpretivist research paradigm seeks to gather insights and interpretations of daily customs, social institutions, experiences, and values that humans associate with such phenomena (Rubin & Babbie, 2010).

The benefits of interpretivist research are seen in the comprehension and interpretation of meaning (Manjoro, 2019). This is associated with human behaviour as opposed to generalising and predicting the effect of behaviour. The interpretivist paradigm, in contrast to the positivist paradigm, uses language to explain and evaluate data rather than numbers and statistics (Blumberg et al., 2014; Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). This research paradigm focuses on small sample sizes, theory formation, the study of qualitative and subjective data, and the ability to generalise findings from one environment to another with similar characteristics (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Collis & Hussey, 2021).

5.2.2 Positivist paradigm

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The positivist paradigm, also called positivism, is the most ancient and widely utilised research paradigm (Kaboub, 2008). Positivism originated as a philosophical paradigm in the nineteenth century, championed by Auguste Comte, who advocated for the dismissal of metaphysics and argued that truth about reality could only be uncovered through scientific knowledge (Henning et al., 2004; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). This notion emphasises the significance of thinking and observation in understanding human behaviour or behaviours (Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). This scientific approach has been accepted as a way of knowledge creation and generation by positivist-inclined thinkers in recent years (Kaboub, 2008). The idea of positivism holds that reality is stable, observable, and amenable to objective description without affecting the phenomena being studied (Blanche, 2016; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). In essence, the phenomena studied are isolated and repeatable observations, and this involves manipulating reality with variation in a single independent variable in order to identify

regularities so as to form relationships between some constituent elements of the social world (Blanche et al., 2016). Positivists believe that attaining knowledge can only be accomplished empirically through research based on measurement and observation (Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). As a result, all knowledge is regarded as posteriori knowledge (knowledge gained by research rather than human thinking) (Henning et al., 2004). According to positivists, knowledge can only be true, false, or meaningless, and if it is not discovered to be true or false, it no longer carries any weight and is thus disregarded. The positivist paradigm incorporates a logical approach that focuses on building explanatory theories capable of explaining social phenomena (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012; Collis & Hussey, 2014).

The positivist paradigm presupposes that social reality is objective, independent, and scientific in nature, being unaffected by the researcher's beliefs or the course of the investigation since individuals are seen to have a consistent sense of reality (Woodside, 2010). As a result, the main tenet of the positivist paradigm is that only visible and measurable occurrences could be defended as data and information from science (Strüwig & Stead, 2013). Large sample sizes are employed by the positivist research paradigm, which also emphasises hypothesis testing, quantitative and objective data examination, and drawing of conclusions from the research sample that could be generalise to the entire population (Woodside, 2010; Collis & Hussey, 2021).

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The positivist researcher likes to work with observable social reality to generate generalisations comparable to those provided by natural scientists (Gray, 2014). Positivism examines the relationships between distinct events by using the principles of proof, verification, and causal ties between bits of information, as well as identifying factors that influence outcomes (Creswell, 2014). The positivist study has the advantage of presenting the research findings as objective facts and established truth. The positivist paradigm aims to generate quantitative data by making predictions and generalisations. Examples include standardised tests, closed-ended

questionnaires, and the use of standardised observation methods to describe occurrences (Bobbies & Mouton, 2008). Positivist research relies on statistical and mathematical procedures, following specific research techniques to uncover a singular and objective reality. Positivists consider their process to be value-neutral, hence the knowledge created is also value neutral. As a result, concepts and thoughts are solely governed by assumptions and theories (Creswell, 2018). This assures that there is no connection between the researcher and the research study's intended aims. Hence, collecting data quantitatively includes conducting investigations on a large sample size, allowing the conclusions to be generalisable to the full population.

5.2.3. This study's research paradigm

This study adopted the positivistic research paradigm to achieve objective conclusions by minimising errors through statistical analysis. Positivism asserts that empirical methods are objective and that researchers remain value-neutral, avoiding any influence on the subject under investigation. It employs scientific terminology and goes beyond ordinary or subjective descriptions. Consequently, this approach has been extensively utilized in business and management research (Creswell, 2018). Since the study seeks to empirically examine the causal relationships among the foundational constructs, the positivistic paradigm was identified as the most appropriate framework. This assures that there is no connection between the research and the intended goals. Subsequent sections will elaborate on the remaining research decisions for the study, aligning with the layers of the "research onion" within the chosen positivist paradigm.

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5.3. Methodological Approach

Howell (2013) defines research methodology as a common research approach that indicates or shows the processes in which a study will be carried out. Collis & Hussey (2014) described

research methodology as a technique for conducting research that is based on the research design's underlying assumptions. In the process of carrying out an investigation, it is very important to select a suitable research methodology capable of facilitating and supporting the attainment of the study's objectives (Quinlan et al., 2015). A research technique a process employed by researchers to gather research information their respondents based on the type of data (Burns & Bush, 2013). It can be either inductive or deductive (Zalaghi & Khazaei, 2016; Mukherji & Albon, 2018). The "research onion" choice layer offers the deductive and inductive research approaches. Collis & Hussey (2021) define these two approaches as the research's logic and justification.

5.3.1. Deductive research approach

The top-down or deductive research approach is the understanding that results from moving from a general rule to a specific law-like deduction used for testing theories. In this strategy, a thorough theory is developed before a summarised hypothesis is developed (i.e., sufficient data on the subject is collected and examined by researchers to accept or reject the hypotheses). The deductive research approach involves constructing a conceptual and theoretical framework and then empirically testing it to confirm or refute its validity (Collis & Hussey, 2021; Mukherji & Albon, 2018). Essentially, this method involves generating one or more hypotheses derived from an established theory and subsequently devising a research plan to evaluate them (Azungah, 2018). The deductive approach searches the literature and existing theoretical frameworks for theories and concepts that will form conceptual framework of the investigation (Saunders et al., 2016). In this way, the deductive approach is theory-driven, with a defined theoretical stance established and evidence collected to verify the veracity of the theory in question (Saunders et al., 2016).

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This approach is most appropriate when the research focus is on verifying whether the observed events align with the expectations set by prior studies (Wiles et al., 2011). Deductive reasoning

is used in deductive research when a logical conclusion is traced from a collection of premises and the true conclusion derives from a true set of premises (Saunders et al., 2016). Deductive reasoning is based on physical argumentation with the goal of controlling functions and gaining direct information (Döringer, 2021). Therefore, the deductive method is considered well-suited for the positivist perspective, enabling the formulation of hypotheses and empirical testing of anticipated outcomes with a reasonable level of certainty (Döringer, 2021). This approach follows the principle of moving from general to specific, where a general theory and knowledge base are established initially, and specific knowledge obtained from the research process is subsequently tested against this foundation (Döringer, 2021).

5.3.2. Inductive research strategy

The inductive approach is distinguished by a shift from the particular to the universal (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The researcher starts process here with observation, aiming to identify patterns within the collected data (Beiske, 2007). Furthermore, the inductive approach is a theory creation process that begins with specific observations on the grounds that justify the establishment of a general rule. Collis & Hussey (2021) define the inductive approach as the study of how a theory is created by studying empirical reality in order to generate theory. Inductive method is commonly related with the interpretive research paradigm, according to Kuosa (2011). This strategy is widely employed when researchers aim to investigate a topic of interest and develop a theoretical explanation based on the data collected and analysed (Saunders et al., 2016). Inductive studies, although they have specific research aims and questions, are conducted without pre-existing theories (Saunders et al., 2016).

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This method lacks a framework that informs data collecting from the start, allowing the study emphasis to be developed after the data has been collected (Bell et al., 2018). Therefore, this approach relies on data, where the primary data collected serves as the foundation of the study, leading to the development of new theories (Saunders et al., 2016, p.51). While this phase is

often seen as a period for generating new theories, it is also recognised that during evidence analysis, the data may align with existing theories (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Bell et al., 2018). This approach is commonly used in qualitative research, where the absence of a predefined theory guiding the research process can be beneficial in reducing potential researcher bias during data collection (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Interviews are conducted on specific topics, and the data is then analyzed to identify patterns among respondents (Bell et al., 2018).

5.3.2. The methodological approach used in this study

A deductive technique was adopted for this study because the current investigation used defined hypothesis testing. This is because the deductive technique aligns with the positivist approach, enabling the formulation of hypotheses and statistical testing of anticipated outcomes with a level of probability deemed acceptable. In this study, the theory served as the foundation for developing and assessing hypotheses within a defined research context, with a focus on theory testing. The premises for using a deductive methodological approach is guided by the study's purpose and objectives, which directly coincides with the adopted research paradigm choice known as the positivist paradigm.

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5.4. Methodological Choice

Once the researchers have chosen the research paradigm and methodological approach, the researcher must then decide whether to pursue a quantitative or qualitative approach for the study (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The quantitative and qualitative approaches are closely linked to the research approach. In general, positivist research paradigms and deductive methodologies are linked to quantitative research methods, whereas interpretive paradigms and inductive methodologies are associated with qualitative research methods (Zikmund et al., 2013). Every research has two major data collection methods that could be used viz-a-viz, quantitative and qualitative approach (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

5.4.1. Qualitative research methodology

The interpretive paradigm, from which the qualitative research approach emerged, places a greater emphasis on comprehending and examining the meanings that people or groups ascribe to societal or human problems (Creswell, 2018). Researchers use this methodology to interpret and comprehend social tendencies by drawing on people's individual worldviews and beliefs (Wiid & Diggines, 2020). Qualitative research methodology deals with subjective and qualitative data, which is aimed at ascertaining a more specific detailed knowledge and meaning that people give to problems (Wiid & Diggines, 2020). In doing so, qualitative research examines aspects that cannot be properly measured or summed numerically, making it unsuitable for research investigations including hypothesised models and statistical analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Researchers, carrying out qualitative research, usually aim at studying many complexities and nuances of specific phenomenon (Kumar, 2011). Qualitative research is commonly used by researchers to carry out in-depth research on a broad range of topics (Yin, 2011). According to Leedy & Ormrad (2014), qualitative research approach is used by researchers to get a deeper and complete understanding of phenomena that are being studied. It is characterised by natural settings where researchers serve as the primary instrument, utilising various data sources, inductive data analysis, participant perspectives, emergent design, and reflexivity (Creswell 2018).

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Qualitative research focuses on words narrative, images, concepts, use of discussion, observations, and projection to elicit a response (Bradley, 2010). Preferably, qualitative research solicits developing theories, as the researcher concentrates on the research process to gather more nuanced details from a limited sample size (Wiid & Diggines, 2020). The use of a small sample size by qualitative approach heavily relies on the researchers' interpretation, making it prone to bias and limiting the capacity to apply the findings to the broader population (Wiid & Diggines, 2020).

5.4.2. Quantitative research methodology

Quantitative design is the process of data gathering or collection techniques and analysis conducted with the use of survey questionnaires, structured interviews and experiments (Wiid, & Diggines, 2020). It places more emphasis on quantities such as amounts and variables of interest (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Here, the researcher is more of an observer and is not in the position to participate or influence the setting of the study. In so doing, the collected data is in a quantitative and an objective form, with the results calculated with the use of statistical and numeric calculations (Albers, 2017; Wiid & Diggines, 2020). This shows that researchers employed a quantitative research methodology to investigate the relationships among various variables, which were examined through a study sample (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Hence, this form of research approach is more suitable to carry out hypothesis testing which is centred on standardised data collection and statistical analyses (Wiid & Diggines, 2018). Furthermore, quantitative research is grounded on the measurability of amount or quantity employed with the collection and analysis of numerical data using a statistical test. Similarly, quantitative research is a methodology whose results and findings are primarily generated from the statistical analysis and summary (Ghauri et al., 2020).

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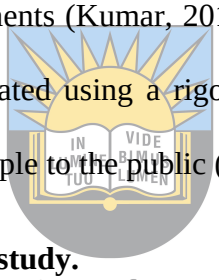
The primary goal of the quantitative method is to formulate and utilised scientific statistical concepts or hypotheses related to a specific phenomenon (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The use of a survey questionnaire in a quantitative study enables the principal investigator to be able to investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee outcome in the local government of the Eastern Cape Province. Findings from quantitative research are subjected to statistical manipulation that generally produces representative data of the entire population.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), quantitative procedures are reproducible, ensuring objectivity, generalisability, dependability, and verifiability. Quantitative research methodologies allow the researcher to summarise vast amounts of data. The quantitative

research approach enables for the collection of data from respondents to be assessed according to a specific scheme that will serve as the foundation for statistical hypothesis testing (Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). The advantage of utilising a quantitative research approach is that it provides for a large sample size, which permits the study's findings or results to be generalisable to the intended population (Tsushima, 2015). As a result, the current study used a large sample size of personnel from the Eastern Cape Province's local government and mainly relied on questionnaires as a data gathering technique. A quantitative research approach was used for the investigation, as it allows researchers to pursue multiple objectives clearly while achieving a specified goal and conclusion (Tsushima, 2015). Furthermore, the quantitative research strategy encourages the use of a specific study question and the collection of numerical data using structured research instruments (Kumar, 2018; Rubin & Babbie, 2010). By doing so, the research can be easily duplicated using a rigorous research methodology, with the prospect of generalizability of the sample to the public (Wiid & Diggines, 2018).



5.4.3. The methodology used in this study.

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The present research employed a quantitative approach within a positivist research framework, utilising a deductive methodological approach. This is because the study sought a conceptual and theoretical structure that required empirical testing. The study employed a large sample size of public employees from the Eastern Cape's local government. Statistical analysis was used to assess the collection of numerical and objective data.

5.5. Methodological Strategy

The methodological strategy refers to the approach that the researcher wants to take in carrying out the research (Saunders et al., 2007). A methodological approach, according to Bryman and Bell (2015), is a methodology used in data collection. This methodology can be accomplished using a mono method, a mixed method, or a multi method (Saunders et al., 2016). To begin, a

mono-method is utilised when a researcher uses only one method, either qualitative or quantitative. Second, a mixed-method approach blends qualitative and quantitative technique to create a specific data set. Third, the multi-method approach is employed when the research is separated into segments, each yielding a unique data collection (Saunders et al., 2016). This study employed a single procedure that promotes the application of quantitative methodology, and data was collected numerically (Strüwig & Stead, 2013). The researcher employed a specific research approach, such as questionnaires, to collect data for this quantitative study (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Surveys are the most popular technique of quantitative data collecting, according to Koenig & Schultz (2016).

5.5.1. Surveys and questionnaire design

The "research onion" survey technique is frequently associated with the deductive approach, where rich and reliable data is acquired. Surveys are ideal for quantitative research where a representative sample of the population is desired (Bell et al., 2022). According to Denscombe (2017), a survey is the process of gathering and evaluating data in which respondents participate in responding research questions and statements created by the research. Surveys are primarily utilised to identify potential relationships or factors influencing different datasets. This is an excellent tool for investigating the interactions between variables in a real-world situation (Muijs, 2011). A huge amount of data is gathered and used to answer the study questions. Surveys are employed to quantify information and discover relationships that exist among two or more variables (Zikmund et al., 2013; Bell et al 2022). The data acquired using this strategy is generalizable to the entire research population (Collis & Hussey, 2021). Surveys, according to Bell et al. (2022), are cross-sectional in nature, enabling the collection of information at a specific moment in time. Surveys allow respondents can examine their own actions and perceptions, i.e., researchers gather data from individuals based on their thoughts, which cannot be physically witnessed (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). In addition, surveys permit

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statistically analysed data to be gathered from a large sample size, thereby necessitating a survey research method to be frequently used for quantitative research (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

The survey research method uses questionnaires to collect data from respondents (Bell et al., 2022). Questionnaires are research tools by which respondents in a fixed order are asked to answer the same set of questions. In other words, questionnaires are used when they fit the objective of the research. Moreover, questionnaires are strategies of getting specific data on a distinct or clear research problem so that the information, when analysed and interpreted gives a stronger appreciation of the matter (Denscombe, 2017).

According to Harrison et al. (2016), questionnaires could be structured, unstructured or blend of the style and can be administered as hard copies face-to-face, email, fax and online through the internet. A questionnaire is made up of a series of planned questions that the researcher has prepared ahead of time. The questions could be open-ended or closed-ended (Gupta & Gupta, 2011). Closed-ended questions provide a comprehensive set of responses from which respondents must choose the best possible answer, whereas open-ended questions enable respondents to offer their individual and varied responses to the questions (Roopa & Rani, 2012). Furthermore, standardised questions are used, allowing respondents to provide replies that may be systematically contrasted or compared (Kumar, 2018). Everyone were given the same identical questionnaire, which contained the same questions, resulting in data that was consistent and comparable (Burns & Bush, 2013).

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Questionnaires are designed to measure various replies, such as yes/no or true/false and answer intervals (i.e., Likert scale) or differential systematic responses ("never", "sometimes", or "always"). Respondents in questionnaires are expected to go through the questions, interpret what is anticipated, and then write down the correct answers (Zhang et al., 2022). As stated by

Strüwig & Stead (2013), the questions in a structured questionnaire need to be standardized and presented uniformly to all respondents in the investigation.

When it comes to the administration of a questionnaire, there are diverse methods that can be explored but the most commonly used method as identified by Phillips et al. (2013) is self-administered questionnaire method. Self-administered questionnaire is described as questionnaires method where it is the responsibility of the respondents to read and answer the questionnaire in their own private time and space (Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Babbie, 2016). A self-administered questionnaire is the best most cost-effective method used by researchers as compared to other methods of administration (Mitchell & Jolley, 2013). This strategy provides respondents with time to reflect on their responses, enabling them to give more precise personable answers at a reduced rate through an in-depth interview (Babbie, 2016; Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In the opinion of Gillham (2007), questionnaires are helpful since they are cost-effective and hence target multiple respondents over limited duration of time. Data intake is rapid, and respondents can complete questionnaires at their own pace and convenience (Gray, 2014). Furthermore, questionnaires reduce interviewer bias and the researcher's impact when collecting and analysing data (Rubin & Babbie, 2010).

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5.5.2 The study's methodological approach

The survey approach was used for this study's investigation. The current study's data was gathered by a face-to-face survey, an online survey utilising survey monkey, and emails (a single mono-method technique was used). Given the geographical spread of the Eastern Cape Province's local government, the survey is utilised to widen the reach and access more respondents. Because of the huge sample size of local government employees in the Eastern Cape local government, the poll used a self-administered questionnaire. Since a questionnaire is most effective in producing statistically significant data from the huge sample size of

respondents needed for the investigation, was used in this research. A self-administered questionnaire is employed because it allows the researcher to quickly gather data, conveniently analyse it, and communicate the results (Creswell, 2014). As noted by Cooper and Schindler (2014) self-administered questionnaire was motivated by its cost efficiency.

5.6. Time Horizon

The term time horizon refers to the time frame for the investigation. The temporal horizon, according to Melnikovas (2018), is the time frame for a certain investigation. Longitudinal studies entail collecting data regularly over a long period of time to compare the data, whereas cross-sectional research involve collecting data over a short period of time (Melnikovas, 2018). As noted by Beri (2013), the two most common types of descriptive research available to academics are longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. Statistical analysis is used in descriptive research to attempt to characterise a phenomenon and comprehend the correlations that are present between a limited set of variables (Augustyn et al., 2014). From the discussion above, it can be deduced that descriptive studies are the best technique to collect data since it allows for the formation of hypotheses and the correlation of various processes between variables. The following sections go into detail about both longitudinal and cross-sectional research.

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5.6.1. Longitudinal research

Researchers employ longitudinal studies to evaluate a sample over an extended duration (Collis & Hussey, 2021). Long-term studies necessitate questioning of research participants on numerous occasions over an extended duration (Collis & Hussey, 2014; Zikmund et al., 2013). Tracking a sample over time to find changes in a specific outcome variable is the main objective of a longitudinal study, and subsequently developing potential explanations for these observed changes (Jewell & Hubbard, 2006). Quinlan and colleagues (2015) suggest that longitudinal

studies are not commonly utilised in research due to their inefficiency and time-consuming nature (Bell et al., 2022).

5.6.2. Cross-sectional research

Cross-sectional studies are conducted in a shorter period than longitudinal studies, and this method is typically employed by researchers to benefit from the shorter time period and lower resources supporting this method (Bell et al., 2022; Collis & Hussey, 2021). This method encourages the collecting of data from respondents within a brief timeframe to examine current similarities and differences among various participants (Bell et al., 2022; Collis & Hussey, 2014). Cross-sectional studies, on the other hand, gather data from participants just once, at a specific moment, without considering changes over time (Bell et al., 2022). Furthermore, cross-sectional research captures a single snapshot of current differences and similarities, rather than tracking changes over time (Collis & Hussey, 2021).

5.6.3. The time horizon chosen for this study.

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The cross-sectional study was employed since this research was conducted over a specific time. After determining the time range for the investigation, the next layers of the research onion comprise specifying the data gathering and data analysis procedures employed in the study.

5.7. Technique and Procedure

Sounder's "research onion" concludes with the technique and procedure. This is the central layer of the research onion. This layer is concerned with data collection and analysis. Data collection and analysis are influenced by the research paradigm, methodological approach, and study plan (Bell et al., 2022). This layer describes how the research data is acquired and analysed. Data collection is a key component of research that helps the study's objectives to be met. Data collection can be defined as the process of gathering the necessary data for the study (Collis & Hussey, 2021). It describes the data source, such as population, sample size, sampling

technique, and measuring equipment (i.e., reliability and validity). The information gathered could be primary or secondary (Kadam et al., 2013). Primary data is information collected directly from a source. This data type is covered in detail in the data collecting technique. Before beginning data collection, the researcher must make important considerations about population, sample size, sampling technique, and measuring scale. All of these mentioned above will be explained further below.

5.7.1. The Population and the Sample

Kumar (2012) describes the population as the group from which the sample is selected. A population is all the potential respondents who can take part in a research study (Collis & Hussey, 2021). This encompasses any well-defined group of individuals or things who are respondents to the study project and have the stated inclusion and/or exclusion criteria (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). Individuals or things that meet a specific set of qualifications for membership in a specific category constitute the target population (Churchill & Brown, 2007). When the research community is unusually tiny, the researcher may include the entire study population; nevertheless, this is uncommon (Collis & Hussey, 2021). Therefore, the researcher will choose a subset from the population to draw conclusions (Patterson & Merunka, 2014). Similarly, this study targeted a demographic of 146714 public employees in South Africa's Eastern Cape Local Government (from Statistics of the Eastern Cape local government) (Department of Cooperate Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2021). This focused on public employees from the Departments of Transport, Human Settlement, Social Development, Health, Education, Public Works and Infrastructure, Economic Development, Environmental Affairs, and Tourism within the Eastern Cape Province's six local municipalities, namely Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality, Amathole District Municipality, Raymond Mhlaba Local Municipality, Alfred Nzo District Municipality, Chris

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Hani District Municipality, and Nelson Mandela Bay District Municipality. These employees were all government officials, ranging from administrative to senior management positions.

5.7.2. Sample Size

According to Creswell (2018), sampling involves selecting a group of individuals from a defined population to participate in research, with the intention of making generalisations from the study results to the entire population. Cant et al. (2008) defined the sample size as the overall number of components or elements involved in the study. This involves the number of respondents that should be incorporated into research which is very vital to any research since the sample size drawn has a very significant impact on the quality and quantity of data generalization (Cant et al., 2010). As a result, the population's generalising errors are reduced. Hence, the sample size chosen and employed in a study should be large enough to ensure that a valid and trustworthy conclusion about the population may be reached (Churchill & Lacobucci, 2010). A sample is a portion of the population that is representative of the research respondents and from whom primary data is gathered (Salkind, 2010).

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Patterson and Merunka (2014) samples are utilised when data collection from every member of the population is impractical due to their vast size. The sampling method, often termed representative sampling, allows scholars to collect data about a population without studying every single member of the population (Salkind, 2010; Wimmer & Dominick, 2014). While researchers have their own suggestions for sample size, Hair et al. (2014) suggested that a sample should typically include a minimum of 100 respondents. In the same vein, Kline (2015) suggested a minimum of 200 respondents should make up a sample size. Due to the inability of the study to sample all the public servants in the Eastern Cape local government, a sample size was chosen from the population of local government employees. To establish the sample size of the study, a Raosoft sample size calculator was used.

The Raosoft sample size calculator is an arithmetic computer software that enables researchers to electronically calculate the sample size from the selected population (Bell et al., 2018). In utilising this Raosoft calculator, there is a degree of confidence that is brought by the researcher to the study as it has an element of precision that reduces the margin of error (Bell et al., 2018). For the purpose of this study, the sample size was calculated based on the statistical records obtained from the Eastern Cape local government of a population of 146714 public service employees. With a 5% margin of error and a confidence interval of 95%, the sample size was determined from the population of 146714 public service employees, using a Raosoft calculator as 384. This technique permitted the estimation of the proper sample size, with a large state of accurateness through entering of the sizes of the population, margin error, and confidence levels in the Raosoft calculator (Rate, 2016).

5.7.3. Sampling Technique

These are the strategies used by the researcher to select a representative sample of the population for the study (Oribhabor & Anyanwu, 2019). Researchers must use a proper sampling technique to pick a sample (Struwig & Stead, 2013). Gorard (2013) categorises sampling techniques into two groups: probability sampling techniques and non-probability sampling techniques. The section below will give an explanation of these two categories.

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5.7.3.1. Probability sampling

Probability sampling involves a process where each member of a research population has an equal chance of being selected as part of the sample, and this opportunity can be precisely calculated (Wiid & Diggines, 2013; Bell et al., 2022). Probability sampling is described by scholars as a method where every member of a research population has an equal opportunity to be selected as part of the sample (Wiid & Diggines, 2020). Simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, and multi-stage sampling are the

primary probability sampling techniques (Collis and Hussey, 2014; Wiid & Diggines, 2020) as summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of the five probability sampling strategies.

Techniques	**Description**
Simple random sample	This a situation where every member of the population gets an equal chance of being selected. Each member is assigned a number, and a random number generator is used to determine which members are incorporated.
Systematic sampling	In this technique, members are selected using a systematic procedure and not a random process entirely. This method arises from simple random sampling. This method begins by selecting entries at random from a list and then includes every nth entry thereafter in the sample selection process.
Stratified Sampling	This method begins with dividing the population into homogeneous subgroups based on specific characteristics, from which a sample is randomly selected. This guarantees an adequate representation of each group received and a fair representation of the population. This method is more tedious and consumes a lot of time compared to others.
Cluster Sampling	In this technique, a large cluster of members is chosen at random from the population, rather than selecting individual members. This technique is simple and more efficient economically. When members cannot be picked at random, this method is typically used.
Multi-stage sampling	This is employed when a cluster sample's groups are too big, necessitating the selection of a sub-sample from each group. This is similar to cluster sampling.

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Source: Strüwig & Stead (2013, p.119-122) and Collis & Hussey (2014, p. 201)

5.6.3.2 Non-Probability Sampling

Non-probability sampling, according to Wiid & Diggenes (2020), is a condition in which the selection of a given unit of the population is unknown and cannot be identified. Certain units

within the population have no opportunity to be selected, or their probability of selection cannot be computed accurately using this sampling technique (Bhattacherjee, 2012). This strategy is also defined by researchers as any type of sampling in which the selection of elements is not dictated by the statistical principle of randomness (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Moreover, Daniel (2012) stated that non-probability sampling is employed when the chosen criteria rely on the researcher's judgment or convenience. Hence, non-probability sampling methods may be chosen when researchers face constraints such as limited time and financial resources, the need to test measuring equipment, or challenges in accessing the entire population or a sample frame (Oribhabor & Anyanwu, 2019). Researchers always employ convenience samples drawn from people who volunteer to participate in the study. Consequently, non-probability sampling does not exempt participants by choice, making it more likely for certain respondents to be selected (Collis & Hussey, 2021). However, because of its subjective and exclusionary nature, this sampling strategy may have a negative impact on the study's validity and reliability (Daniel, 2012; Collis & Hussey, 2021). Non-probability sampling includes techniques such as quota sampling, snowball sampling, judgmental sampling, and convenience sampling (Collis & Hussey, 2021; Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Bryman & Bell, 2015). These are detailed further below.

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5.7.3.2.1 Quota sampling

This is where the researcher employs the non-random sampling approach to collect data from a stratum until the requisite quota, i.e., the planned number of respondents, is fulfilled (Gray, 2014). This sampling strategy aids in the stratification of the population (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In this case, the researcher is only interested in specific strata of the population. In doing so, you may opt to stratify the study based on socioeconomic class and continue to select until each stratum is filled to the desired level. This strategy has the advantage of making each group the same size, which is significant for some inferential statistics tests. Quota sampling,

according to Bhattacherjee (2012), is a technique in which the population is divided into subgroups that are mutually exclusive (much like stratified sampling), and from each subgroup, a non-random collection of observations is selected in order to meet a predetermined quota.

5.7.3.2.2 Snowball Sampling

The researcher identifies a limited number of participants, who then identify others in the population (Gray, 2014). This method of sampling is appropriate when the study's emphasis is a sensitive problem that necessitates the knowledge of an insider to discover respondents for the study (Gray, 2014). Moreover, a sample is generated by initially contacting individuals and asking them if they know anyone possessing specific qualities. Those individuals referred by these contacts are then recruited to participate in the specific research study (Bradley, 2010). According to Oribhabor & Anyanwu (2019), snowball sampling entails the researcher selecting the first individual who matches the profiles of the other participants. This strategy is useful when the researchers request people from psychographic or ethnic groups that are substantially different from the researcher's. Its main disadvantage is that it takes a long time and is susceptible to selection bias.

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5.7.3.2.3 Judgmental sampling

The type of sampling used with a defined goal is known as judgmental sampling. The researcher chooses or makes decisions regarding who should be included in the sample (Oribhabor & Anyanwu, 2019). Only selected members are key informants on the subject under study. Furthermore, this sampling strategy compels researchers to selecting samples based solely on the researchers' judgment and reputation (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In essence, researchers choose individuals whom they consider suitable and qualified to participate in the research project. The challenge with this sampling strategy is that the researcher's predetermined perspectives may impact the outcomes (Collis & Hussey, 2014). As a result of

errors in judgement, this study technique contains a high level of ambiguity, systemic errors, and researcher bias.

5.7.3.2.4 Convenience Sampling

According to Gray (2014), convenience sampling is a sample approach chosen depending on respondents' availability. Participants are chosen in this study depending on how easy or convenient it is for the researcher to approach them (Acharya et al., 2013). Individuals from the intended population who meet specific criteria, such as being easily accessible, geographically close, available at the time of data collection, or willing to participate in the study, are selected as targets for inclusion. It also employs respondents who are easily or conveniently accessible. Convenience sampling is inexpensive, simple, and the subjects are readily available (i.e., it does not recruit respondents who are not relevant to the study) (Leiner, 2014). Furthermore, convenience sampling is used when the researcher chooses persons who are eager and available to participate in the study. At this step, respondents are recruited since this is where people who fit specific criteria tend to congregate, such as selecting a sample of public employees from the Eastern Cape Local Government who are conveniently available. Convenience samples are sometimes referred to as incidental samples because items are chosen based on their proximity or to the researchers' availability rather than through a specific sampling method (Etikan et al., 2016). Numbers are obtained through convenience sampling, which allows the adoption of a statistical method of data analysis (Etikan et al., 2016). The successive sampling technique allows researchers to fine-tune their work by collecting results that provide critical insights into the study. Convenience sampling was employed in the study because it was judged straightforward, efficient, and easy to gather data in a short period of time, such as the easy distribution of questionnaires to public employees in the Eastern Cape local government.

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5.7.3.3. The study's sampling procedure

In this study, convenience sampling methods utilising non-probability sampling were employed after taking the sample procedure argument into account. The researcher found it incredibly difficult to reach the entire study population due to the large number of public employees in the Eastern Cape local government, the vast size of the study area, and time constraints. The convenience sampling strategy was used in this study because it was judged straightforward, efficient, and quick to gather data in a short period of time among public employees in the Eastern Cape Local Government. Convenience sampling is the most frequently used approach to sample, since it allows the researcher easy access to public employees stationed inside the Eastern Cape Local Government. The researcher also employed convenience sampling because it is inexpensive, simple, and the subjects are easily available.

5.7.4. Instrument for Research

As previously stated, the study employed a self-administered questionnaire. As stated by Saunders et al. (2019, p. 168), creating a measuring scale like a questionnaire forms a crucial part of a survey research methodology. Because of the high sample size of public employees, the researcher chose to employ to administer the questionnaire personally because it allowed for quick data gathering, convenient data analysis, and results presenting (Creswell, 2014). A questionnaire was chosen by the researcher since it is a common and essential technique for gathering data from a bigger audience and delivering quantifiable results (Bell et al., 2018). The questionnaire is made up of previously used research scales from similar studies (Woodhead et al., 2016), and it is used to collect primary data. Collis and Hussey (2014, p.205) outlined the basic phases for building a questionnaire, including the informed permission form and instructions, designed questions, the different portions of the questionnaire, and the data collection method.

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5.7.4.1. Informed consent form and Instructions.

Before completing the questionnaire, respondents were asked to sign and give their permission on an informed consent form in the form of a cover letter. The informed consent form described the study's goal, the sort of information sought, and the parties participating. The informed consent form includes information about voluntary and anonymous participation, the ability to quit if desired, guarantees of confidentiality, and guidance on completing the questionnaire. Furthermore, the informed consent form includes the institutional faculty research ethics research committee's ethical clearance number.

5.7.4.2. Variables Scale Development and Operationalisation

The process by which researchers involved in a quantitative study determine explicitly how research variables existing in a study are quantified is known as operationalisation. This procedure outlines the specific measurement scales employed to assess the variables of interest and connects to the underlying theory to empirical information collected from the measuring device (Quinlan et al., 2015). The variables or items that comprise the self-administered questionnaire are included (Taherdoost, 2019). The research instrument utilised in this research assess the different theoretical constructs have been adapted from established and reliable research studies, with Cronbach's Alpha values exceeding 0.70 indicate an adequate level of statistical reliability recommended by Nunnally (1989).

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5.7.4.3. The questionnaire format and statements

The questionnaire utilised in this investigation was divided into six portions labelled sections A to F. Section A contains biographical information. The goal of this section is to determine whether prospective respondents are eligible to participate in the study and to collect pertinent biographic data for statistical purposes. Respondents must submit biographic information such as gender, ethnic group, age, educational qualification, employment status, position held, years

of service, race, and wage level in this part. After completing all these questions, respondents will be able to access the rest of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire's section B includes the 15-item Decent Work Scale (DWS) produced by Duffy et al. (2017), which is divided into five sub-scales. In this section respondents used a seven-point Likert scale to express their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The seven-point Likert scale (i.e., 1-7), where (1) means "strongly disagree", (2) means "disagree", (3) means "somewhat disagree", (4) means "neutral or no opinion", (5) means "somewhat agree", (6) means "agree", and (7) means "strongly agree". The whole scale scores have an internal consistency reliability of 0.84. Physical and interpersonal safe circumstances (0.74), access to health care (0.78), suitable compensation (0.85), hour that allows for free time and rest (0.88), and complementing values (0.93) are the DWS sub-scales with acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach Alpha. According to reports, while the DWS scale proved accurate and valid in models from the United States (US), adapting it to the work experiences of employees from other countries remains crucial (Duffy et al., 2020). Various studies from various work contexts on the reliability and validity of the decent work scale have been thoroughly exhausted in the developed world, including Brazil (Ribeiro et al., 2019), France (Vignoli et al., 2020), Portugal (Ferreira et al., 2019), South Korea (Nam & Kim, 2019), Italy (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2019), and a small frame within the African context (Ribeiro et al., 2019). This necessitates the study's application of this scale to public servants in the local government in South Africa's Eastern Cape Province.

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In Section C, the 7-item Experienced Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS) (Cortina et al., 2001) was used to assess supervisor and colleague incivility. In the developed world, most research have employed the WIS, which comprises seven items, and it provided a satisfactory Cronbach's Alpha of 0.87 for experienced incivility from colleagues and 0.90 for experienced incivility from supervisors. Responses were gathered using a five-point Likert scale, where

participants indicated their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The five-point Likert scale varied from 0 (never) to 4 (usually).

Section D of the questionnaire measures incivility aggression using the 7-item Instigated Workplace Incivility Scale established by Blau & Andersson (2005). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement using a five-point Likert scale. The five-point Likert scale varied from 0 (never) to 4 (usually). The seven items on the scale were graded on a five-point Likert scale varying from 0 (never) to 4 (most of the time). The scale items focused on the perpetrators of uncivil workplace behaviour. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is 0.94, demonstrating excellent internal consistency.

In Section E of the study, the researchers used the 9-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Schaufeli et al. (2006) to assess work engagement. Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, where respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The Likert scale went from 1 to 7, with (1) denoting "strongly disagree", (2) "disagree", (3) "somewhat disagree", (4) "neutral or no opinion", (5) "somewhat agree", (6) "agree", and (7) "strongly agree". International studies have widely used this UWES scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Rattrie et al., 2020). The UWES was employed in an Australian study encompassing several industries and occupations (Dollard & Bailey, 2014), and the following UWES sub-scales had acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach alpha: vigour (0.83), dedication (0.87), and absorption (0.80).

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Shockley-Zalabak et al. (1999) established the 29-item Organisational Trust Index (OTI) in Section F. A five-point Likert scale was employed for data collection, where respondents were instructed to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The OTI was scored on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating very little and 5 indicating a great lot.

The scale comprises five trust dimensions based on the (Mishra, 1996; Zhang et al., 2021) model for organisational trust. The OTI questionnaire has a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89.

5.7.5. Reliability and Validity of Instruments

5.7.5.1. The measuring instrument's Validity

The accuracy with which a research scale measures what it is intended to measure is defined as validity (Heale & Twycross 2017). This is synonymous with dependability (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014, p.91). Equally, validity refers to how accurately collected data represents the study sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Validity is important in analysis since it states that the confirmation justifies the assertions of the research. It indicates the degree to which a notion is reliably measured while taking into account the context in which it is used (Heale & Twycross, 2018). When validity is attained, the measuring instrument reflects the essence of the concept being studied, enabling the scholar to draw conclusions based on the discovery of the scale (Kumar, 2011). Gray (2014) suggested that for a research instrument to be valid, it should accurately measure the intended aspects, thereby establishing credibility when it aligns with validity criteria. In quantitative research, a scale's validity could be increased through suitable statistical data analysis, instrumentation, and sampling (Burns & Bush, 2013). Validity is categorised into content validity, face validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (Heale & Twycross, 2018).

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Content validity of a research instrument adequately covers the extent to which it adequately covers all of the content that it is intended to cover while keeping the variable or construct under examination in mind (Erlinawati & Muslimah, 2021). Indeed, it does not matter whether the study questionnaire covers the complete domain relevant to the variable it was supposed to measure (Heale & Twycross, 2018; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Face validation is more subjective, examining how well a measuring device measures what it was supposed to measure. It is

usually employed in study's that are quantitative in nature, making sure that the measuring equipment adequately covers the subject under consideration. Face validity is established when a researcher who is an expert in the research topic reviews the items in the instrument and concludes that they were relevant, reasonable, and clear. According to Creswell (2014), criterion-related validity is employed to confirm the accuracy of a measurement or procedure by comparing it with another measure or method that is known to be valid. It investigates the relationship between two or more tests that have comparable properties. This graph depicts the effectiveness levels gained by the methods employed for its prediction. Finally, construct validity examines how effectively a scale or test measures what it claims to measure (Cresswell, 2014). It pertains to the extent to which a research scale accurately assesses what it is intended to measure and evaluates its effectiveness in measurement. Construct validity is used to establish whether a research scale can genuinely measure what the lead investigator intends it to measure (Saunders et al., 2019, p.450). Therefore, construct validity assesses the performance of a research scale is looked at by paying attention to the empirical support developed by the measure and its consistency with the conceptual rationale (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

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In the interest of this research, construct validity was utilised to assess the questionnaire's validity. To begin, factor analysis was used in this study. It is a multivariate statistical procedure used to group many variables and data into more manageable groups and to analyse the relationships between variables measured using a rating scale (Collis & Hussey, 2021). As a result, factor analysis is utilised to assess how effectively various components within a measurement instrument cluster together, uncovering commonalities within a shared construct (Watson & Flamez, 2015). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) or exploratory factor analysis (EFA) can be used to undertake factor analysis (Strüwig and Stead 2013). Confirmatory component analysis (CFA) is frequently performed during the scale building process to assist

validate a scale's validity following an EFA. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical method for confirming the factor structure of a group of variables recorded in a measuring instrument (Wiid & Diggines, 2013). By using this method, the investigator can determine whether the anticipated connections between various variables and their underlying constructs are present (Strüwig & Stead, 2013). As a result, CFA is intended to validate a theoretically developed factor model. CFA is frequently used in social sciences and is used when investigators want to determine whether the data, they are investigating in their inquiry align with model being hypothesised (Strüwig & Stead, 2013).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is related with theoretical development and is widely used in exploratory research when developing a measuring instrument (Wiid & Diggines, 2013). Using EFA, the researcher determines if the questionnaire's items correspond to the construct that the questionnaire was designed to measure (Wiid & Diggines, 2013). EFA seeks to explain the link between many observable variables using a limited number of factors, and as such, it is regarded as one of the data reduction approaches. EFA is employed to examine the construct validity of an instrument during the early development phase, allowing researchers to divide a vast item set into relevant subgroups that measure different elements.

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A factor loading indicates the strength of the relationship between each item and a specific factor (Wiid & Diggines, 2018). The primary goal of a factor loading is to identify the factor structure of the measuring instrument (Wiid & Diggines, 2018). Factor loading is defined as the degree of association between the primary variable and its related variables (Hair et al., 2014). Wiid & Diggines (2013) state that a higher loading indicates that the variable is a more accurate measure of the component. In the interest of this study, factor loadings of (< 0.30) were considered inadequate completely standardised factor loadings, loadings of (≥ 0.40) were considered fair, and loadings of 0.50 and above demonstrated statistically significant proof of validity (Wiid & Diggines, 2018).

Item and exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were used to refine the scale items and determine reliability. Items in the reliability output with corrected-item-correlations less than 0.30 (as suggested) and complex items in the EFA result were eliminated. The dimensionality of the scales was determined using the eigenvalues-greater-than-unit rule. Therefore, factor loadings of **0.30 to 0.40** were considered the minimum threshold for retaining a variable on a factor and factor loadings above **0.50** were desired for stronger interpretability in the study. Items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that has good and acceptable model fit indices.

5.7.5.2. Validity assessment in this study

The construct validity of the scales used to measure the independent and dependent variables was evaluated and confirmed by the study using EFA and CFA. This was done in accordance with Hair et al. (2014) recommendations, which require a sample size of at least 200 respondents; consequently, the sample size of 425 in this study meets the requirement. Items with an insufficient totally standardised factor loading (< 0.30) were eliminated (Hair et al., 2006), and only factor loadings of (≥0.40) and those placed onto one factor were deemed genuine in this investigation.

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5.7.5.3 Measurement instrument Reliability

Validity and reliability are important in an analysis because they state that the confirmation justifies the research's claims, and researchers have confirmed that when a research finding is valid, it is also considered to be reliable, though reliability alone does not ensure validity (Bayens & Roberson, 2011). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014, p.91), "reliability is defined as the extent to which a measurement instrument measures what it is intended to measure." According to Kaplan & Saccuzzo (2013), reliability is the degree to which a test score is error-free. As a result, a measuring instrument is regarded dependable if the data it

provides remain constant and unchangeable no matter how frequently the instrument is utilised repeatedly and replicated (Adams & Lawrence, 2015; Collis & Hussey, 2021). When study results may be compared to earlier research results, a deeper knowledge of the situation is provided (Burns & Bush, 2013). Similarly, if the findings of a study can be replicated under identical conditions, i.e., using the same methods, the research instrument is considered credible. This indicates that the reliability of a research instrument is determined by its capacity to deliver consistent results when utilised frequently (Creswell, 2014). According to Heale & Twycross (2018), the adoption of a Cronbach's alpha coefficient always ensures the reliability of a questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is employed to evaluate the internal consistency of a scale (Heale & Twycross 2018). Internal consistency is defined by Sekaran & Bougie (2010) as the degree to which different scale items are interrelated. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is frequently employed to calculate the amount of different components inside a measuring instrument that correlate with one another (Hoekstra et al., 2019). Cronbach's alpha coefficient values range between 0 and 1 (Heale & Twycross 2018). The reliability of the scale increases with score since a high score denotes a significant correlation among the questionnaire items (Hoekstra et al., 2019).

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Diggines & Wiid (2013) recommend a minimum internal consistency requirement of 0.7 for a Cronbach's alpha Coefficient. As a result, any Cronbach's alpha of less than 0.6 for any trustworthy research response is regarded poor, falling below the acceptable range and indicating that the data is unreliable. In this study, Cronbach's alpha was employed to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instrument by calculating the correlation between each item and the total sum of all other items, which helps evaluate the similarity among the items (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Cooper & Schindler, 2014). This study's instrumentation was adapted from previously conducted credible research investigations, with Cronbach's Alpha

values exceeding 0.70 indicating an appropriate statistical testing level indicated (Nunnally, 1989).

5.7. 6. Collection of Data

This is the act of gathering and analysing relevant information about the target variable in a defined systematic manner, allowing the researcher to answer crucial questions and respond to evaluation (Pandey & Pandey, 2021). In this study, primary data gathering methods were used. The act of gathering primary data from respondents is the method of data collection (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). This is also an act of acquiring original data to provide answers to inquiries directly related to the research objectives. This occurs when the necessary information is not yet available to the researcher (Hair et al., 2008). Researchers get them through field research, in which data are collected from relevant respondents that are specific to the study's requirements (Burns & Bush, 2013) for example persons, groups of persons, students, and employees in organisations, communities, or projects can all be respondents for primary data gathering. The current study gathered primary data by administering questionnaires to public employees in the Eastern Cape Local Government. The researcher used survey monkey to send a self-administered questionnaire to respondents for data gathering personally and via emails.

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The questionnaires utilised in this study incorporated a cover page containing instructions and details for all respondents, along with information about the assessments and the purpose of the study. The informed consent form, which respondents can sign, was also linked to the questionnaire. In order to meet up with the calculated sample size, about 600 questionnaires were delivered to persons in the form of a booklet and others by email in the form of survey monkey. Respondents were given four weeks to complete and return the questionnaires by dropping them in a marked box that was placed in various head of department's office. The researcher only assisted in interpreting some of the questions where some public employees call for some assistance. To ensure that questionnaires were fully completed the, the researcher

called the various heads of department offices in the local government on numerous occasions to follow up on the completion of the questionnaires. The researcher also visited the local government departments offices on several occasions to ensure that the questionnaires were retrieved and those participating on the online survey were reminded and assisted on the completion of online survey. After completing them, the respondents email them back to the researcher. Out of all the questionnaires handed out, 425 was answered and this was deemed usable for data analysis, achieving a response rate of about 70%.

5.7.6.1. Data Editing and Capturing

Data editing is done so that the data will have some quality minimum requirement (Bougie & Sekaran, 2019). Churchill & Brown (2007) added that data editing involves the inspection and the correction of the questionnaire. The data collected were captured using Microsoft Excel by the researcher. The data was coded before it was captured. Data were scored on the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet automatically and kept for the final analysis.

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5.7.6.2. Data coding and Cleaning

Kumar (2011) defines data coding as assigning of codes, symbol or number to each possible answer to certain questions in the questionnaire. All the answers in the questionnaire were assigned codes and the data was grouped. The data was scanned before being taken for analysis using statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) version 27 and analysis of moment structures (AMOS) statistical softwares to ensure that the capturing was accurately done in the data file. Questions that were not answered or were answered incorrectly were identified for possible termed data cleaning elimination.

5.7.7. Statistical Analysis

The analysis of moment structures (AMOS) statistical software was utilised to perform a confirmatory factor analysis to determine which items load to specific factors measurement

scales. To examine the reliability and composite reliability of the identified factors, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the Joreskog rho were used. Items with an insufficient totally standardised factor loading (< 0.30) were removed, whereas those with higher values were permitted (Hair et al., 2006). A Likerttype scale was utilised to measure all the variables in the study. Data editing was done so that the data would have some quality minimum requirement (Bougie & Sekaran 2019). The data were scanned before being taken for analysis using SPSS and AMOS statistical software to ensure that the data file was captured accurately. Questions that were not answered or were answered incorrectly were identified for possible termed data cleaning elimination.

Once all these quality minimum requirements were confirmed, to summarise the demographic characteristics of the study as well as the established theoretical components, a descriptive analysis was performed using SPSS. On the respondents' biographic information, descriptive statistical analysis in the form of mean, standard deviation tables, and frequency distribution was used.

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A Friedman's two-way ANOVA test was employed to identify which construct/s for work engagement, workplace incivility, and decent work that exist within the sampled company. An independent samples T-Test was utilised for mean comparisons of the study's theoretical constructs by gender. The study conducted the Kruskal-Wallis H test, which is a nonparametric test based on ranks, to assess if there are statistically significant differences (with a significance level of $P \leq 0.05$) among various levels of independent demographic factors in relation to the theoretical variables. This analysis aimed to determine whether there were meaningful differences between different demographic groups in their impact on the theoretical variables being studied.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was employed in the study to examine the presence, strength, and direction of correlations among the primary theoretical variables under investigation. This statistical method was used to analyze how closely related these variables were and the nature of their relationships, providing insights into the study's theoretical framework and research questions.

To quantify the direct effects of the hypothesised frameworks, path analysis using structural equation modelling was utilized. Mediation effects were examined using the significance of indirect effect in the established structural models. A scale-free least square was used as an estimation approach for the measurement and structural models. Moreover, all essential assumptions were evaluated and appropriately managed.

5.7.8. Ethical Considerations

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Before initiating the data collection process, ethical clearance was collected from the Institutional Faculty Research Ethics Committee of Fort Hare University. The ethical clearance certificate number is CHI011SNGW01. Permissions were also obtained from the Local Government authorities in the different municipalities within Eastern Cape Province. The researcher followed specific ethical criteria when doing the research, which include, informed consent, privacy and confidentiality, and the right of participation.

5.7.8.1. Informed Consent

In order to consent to having the study done on them, respondents had to fill out an informed consent form that came with the questionnaire. Respect for people demands that research participants be given the freedom to decide what will or won't happen to them (Brace, 2018). The researcher avoided coercion, threats, and undue influences, knowing that they could reduce respondents' willingness to participate in the survey. The respondents and their respective organisations gave their permission.

5.7.8.2. Privacy and confidentiality

The ethical dilemma of privacy and confidentiality was guaranteed in this research. This was done by seeking permission from the respondents individually to conduct the research. The privacy of the respondents was respected, and information obtained from the respondents was treated with confidentiality and the right not to reveal their identities. This was done in compliance with the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA), which states that protecting the publication of respondents' personal information ensures that their rights and integrity are respected (Fotrousi et al., 2017).

5.7.8.3. The Right of Participation

Brace (2018) suggests that respondents should have enough time to decide whether to participate in the study without feeling compelled to do so by the researchers. The researcher made it clear to the respondents that they could opt out of the process at any time and that their participation was entirely voluntary. The respondents had the right to withdraw or seek clarification on any questions that concerned them in cases where they felt their rights were being violated.

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5.8. Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter was on the research approach. This section looks at the study's research paradigm, methodological approach, decision, and strategy. The research technique and procedure are then presented, which include the research population, sample size, sampling technique, and research questionnaire utilized in the study. The collection and analysis of primary data were also covered in this section. This was done using self-administered questionnaires, and the data was then taken for analysis. Finally, the chapter explored the study's ethical considerations.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

6 Introduction

The preceding chapter provided a comprehensive explanation of the research method employed by the researcher to gather relevant data. This chapter focuses on presenting the complete data analysis, findings, and interpretation of the research. The researcher made use of descriptive statistics, a confirmatory factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Joreskog rho, a Friedman's two-way ANOVA, sample T-test, and structural equation modelling. All this is elaborated in the section below.

The research employed SPSS version 27 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) statistical software for the analysis. Demographic features and theoretical factors were described through descriptive analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS was conducted to identify the items that load onto specific factors for the measurement scales. The reliability and composite reliability of the established factors were assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Joreskog rho. A Friedman's two-way ANOVA test was carried out to determine the dominant constructs for work engagement, workplace incivility, and decent work within the sampled organisation. Mean comparisons of theoretical constructs by gender were conducted using an independent sample T-test.

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In order to determine if there are statistically significant differences between multilevel groups of independent demographic variables on the theoretical variables, the Kruskal-Wallis H test, which is a rank-based nonparametric test, was used. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to assess the nature, strength, and direction of correlations among the major theoretical variables. Path analysis utilising structural equation modelling was employed to quantify the direct effects of the hypothesised frameworks. Mediation effects were examined by assessing the significance of indirect effects in the established structural models. Both the measurement

and structural models were estimated using a scale-free least squares method, and all pertinent assumptions were assessed and accounted for.

6.1 Biographical Distribution of respondents

Prior to conducting a detailed data analysis, basic distributions based on the research biographical profile were firstly examined. The study's biographical information was compiled and explained through a descriptive methodology (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics for biographical variables

Variable	Levels	df	f	Valid %
Gender	Male	2	221	52.1
	Female		203	47.9
Ethnicity	Black	4	303	71.5
	Coloured		67	15.8
	White		31	7.3
	Indian		19	4.5
	Other		4	0.9
Age	18 – 24 years	4	26	6.1
	25 – 34 years		101	23.8
	35 – 44 years		155	36.6
	45 – 54 years		103	24.3
	55 – 65 years		39	9.2
Qualifications	Grade 12 certificate	3	68	16.0
	Diploma		118	27.8
	Degree		135	31.8
	Postgraduate degree		103	24.3
Employment status	Full-time employee	2	284	67.0
	Part-time employee		48	11.3
	Contract employee		92	21.7
Position	Admin level	4	105	24.8
	General staff		151	35.6
	Lower management		81	19.1
	Middle management		66	15.6
	Top management		21	5.0
Tenure	1 - 5 years	3	136	32.1
	6 - 10 years		117	27.6
	11 - 15 years		96	22.6
	16 years and above		75	17.7
Salary level	Level 1 – 5	4	88	20.8
	Level 6 – 9		143	33.7
	Level 10 – 13		93	21.9
	Level 14 – 19		63	14.9

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Level 20 and above		37	8.7

df = degree of frequency and f = frequency

6.1.1 Percentage distribution by gender

Figure 6.1 illustrate respondents' gender distribution. It can be noted that 52.1% (n = 221) were male respondents, and 47.9% (n = 203) were female respondents.

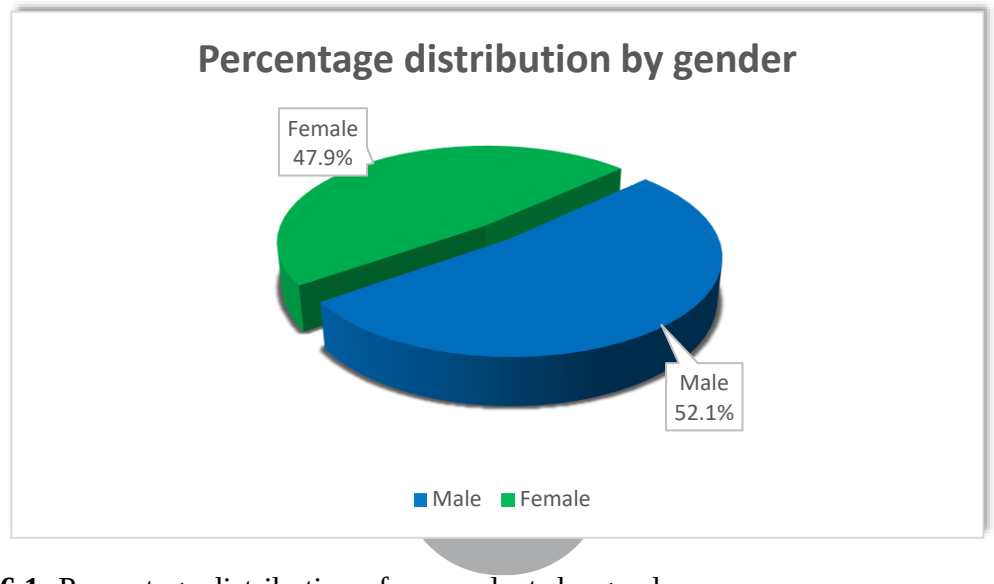

Figure 6.1: Percentage distribution of respondents by gender

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6.1.2 Percentage distribution by ethnicity

Figure 6.2 shows the respondents' distribution according to their ethnicity. Black Africans (71.5%, n = 303) constituted the majority of the sample, followed by Coloured individuals (15%, n = 67). A smaller sample size can be noted for Whites (7.3%, n = 31), Indians (4.5%, n = 19) and other ethnicities (0.9%, n = 4).

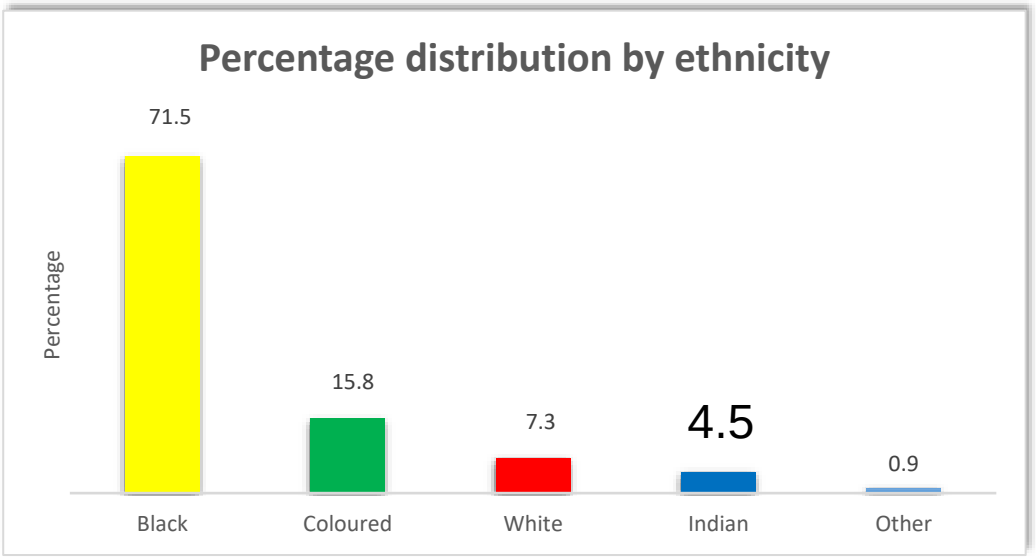

Figure 6.2: Distribution of respondents by ethnicity

6.1.3 Distribution Percentage by age

Figure 6.3 reveals that the majority of respondents (36.6%, n = 155) were between the ages of 35 to 44, 24.3% (n = 103) were between the ages of 45 to 44, and 23.8% (n = 101) were between the ages of 25 to 34 years old. Only twenty-six respondents (6.1%) fell into the 18 to 24 year age group, while thirty-nine respondents (9.2%) belonged to the 55 to 65 year age group.

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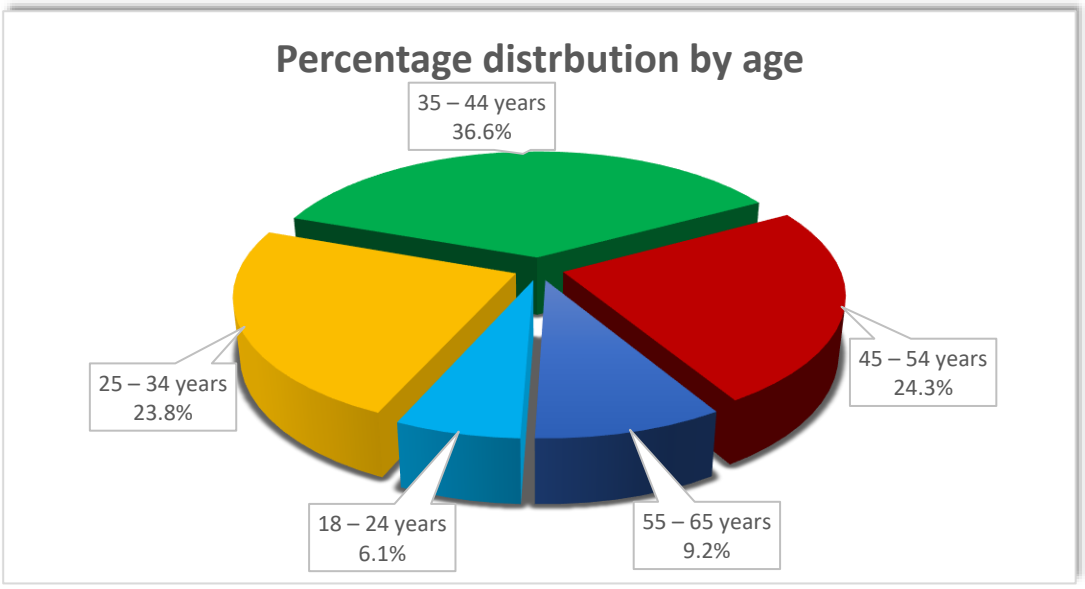

Figure 6.3: Percentage distribution of respondents by age

6.1.4 Percentage distribution by educational qualifications

Figure 6.4 presents the qualification level of respondents. It can be noted that majority of the respondents (31.8%, n = 135) had a degree qualification, while 27.8% (n = 118) had a diploma qualification. Those with a postgraduate degree constituted 24.3% (n = 103) of the sample, and those with a grade 12 matric certificate constituted 16% (n = 68) of the sampled participants.

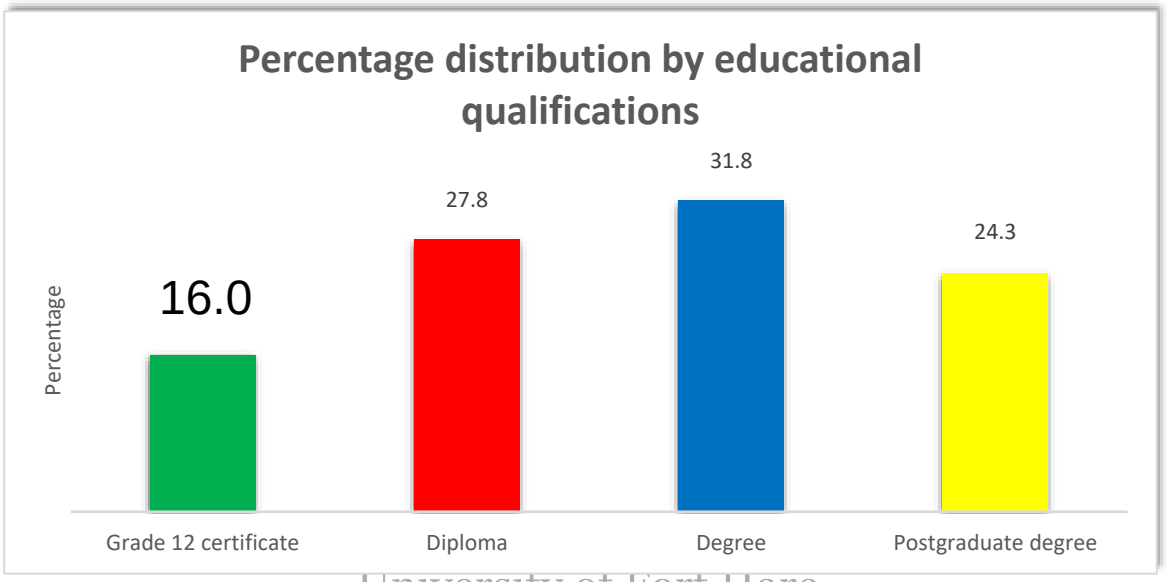

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Figure 6.4: Distribution by educational qualifications

6.1.5 Percentage distribution by employment status

Figure 6.5 displays the respondents' percentage distribution by their employment status. The graph shows that the majority of respondents (67%; n = 284) are full-time employed, 21.7% (n = 92) are employed on a contract basis, and 11.3% (n = 48) are part-time employees.

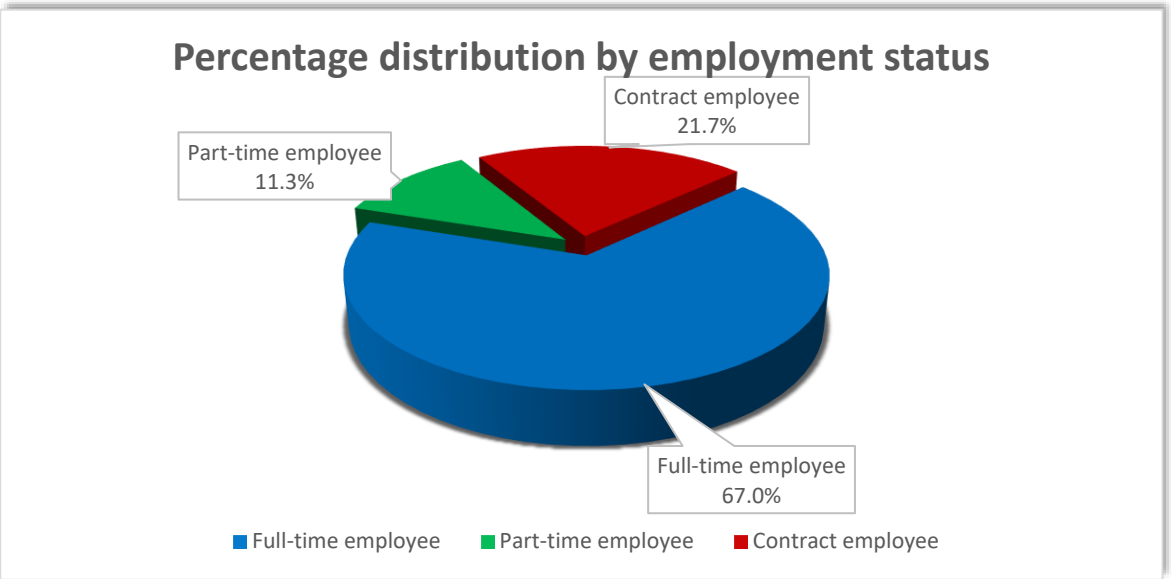

Figure 6.5: Distribution of respondents according to their employment status

6.1.6 Distribution of percentages according to organisational position

Figure 6.6 shows the number of respondents by their positions in the organisation hierarchy. Employees who were employed as general staff constituted most of the respondents (35.6%, n = 151), while those employed at the administrative level constituted 24.8% (n = 105) of the total sample. Employees employed at the lower management level constituted 19.1% (n = 81), and those employed in the middle management constituted 15.6% (n = 66). Lastly, top management employees were 5% (n = 20).

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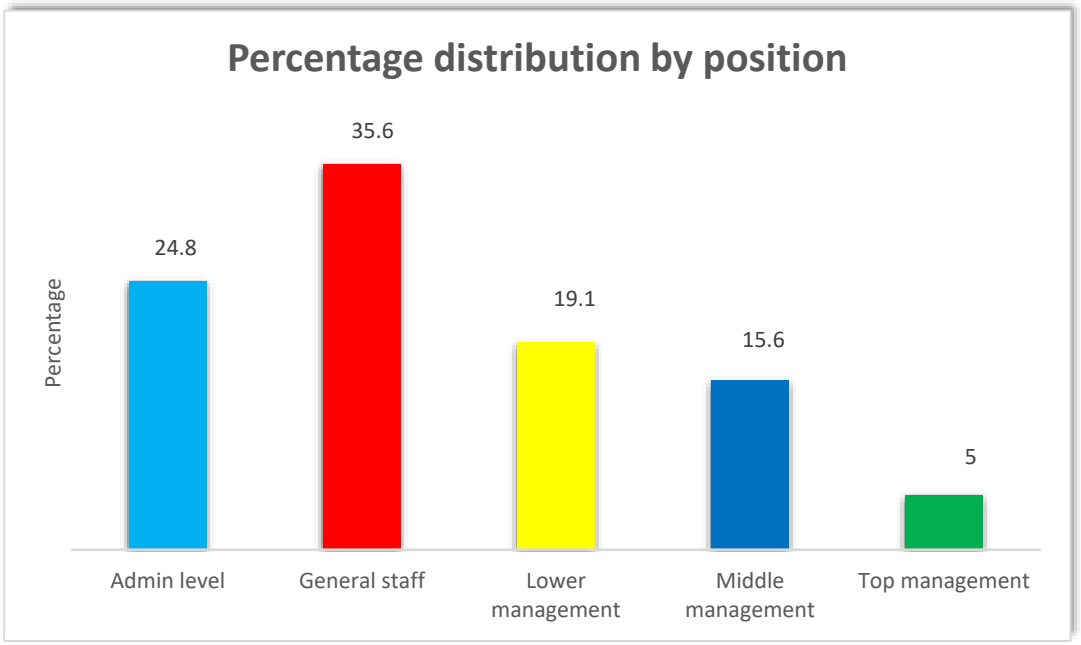

Figure 6.6: Distribution of percentages according to organisational position

6.1.7 Distribution of percentages by tenure

Figure 6.7 shows the respondents' allocation according to tenure. Majority of the respondents (32.1%, n = 136) had 1 to 5 working experience, while 27.6% (n = 117) had 6 to 10 years of service. Ninety-six employees (22.6%) had 11 to 15 years of service, and seventy-five (n = 92) respondents had 16 and above years of service.

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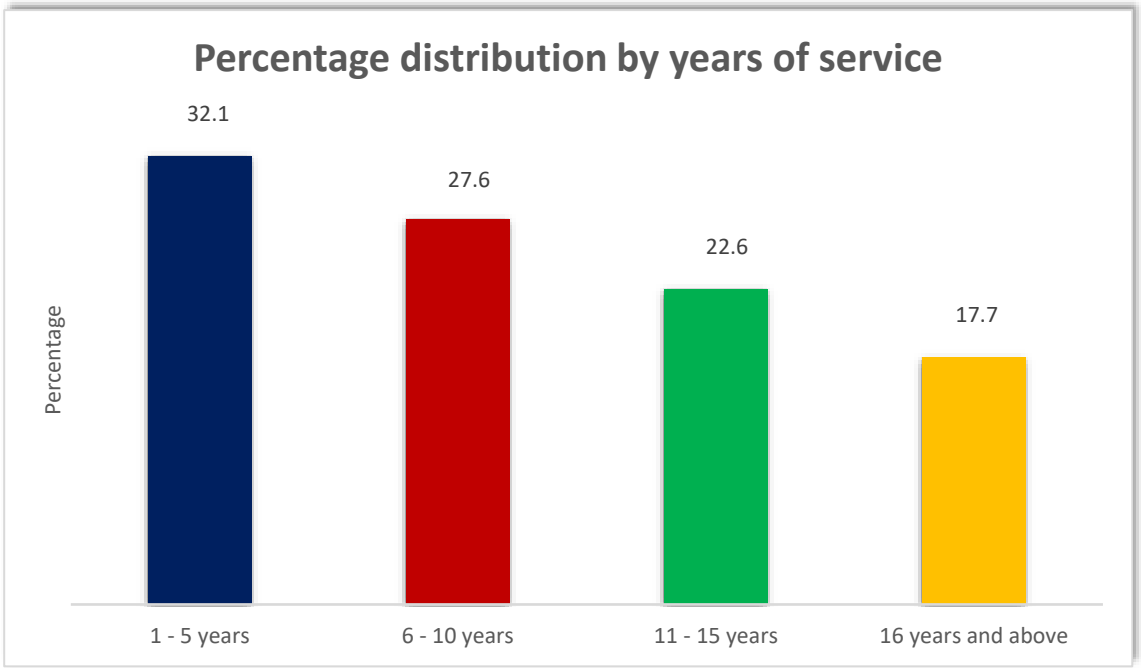

Figure 6.7: Respondents' allocation according to tenure in office

6.1.8 Percentage distribution by salary level

Figure 6.8 shows the respondents' salary distribution. Nearly 34.0% (n = 143) of the respondents were from level 6 to 9 salary level, 21.9% (n = 93) were on level 10 to 13, while 20.8% (n = 88) were on the level 1 to 5 salary scale. Around 15.0% (n = 63) fall under salary levels 14 to 19, and 8.7% (n = 37) fall under the level 20o and above salary scale.

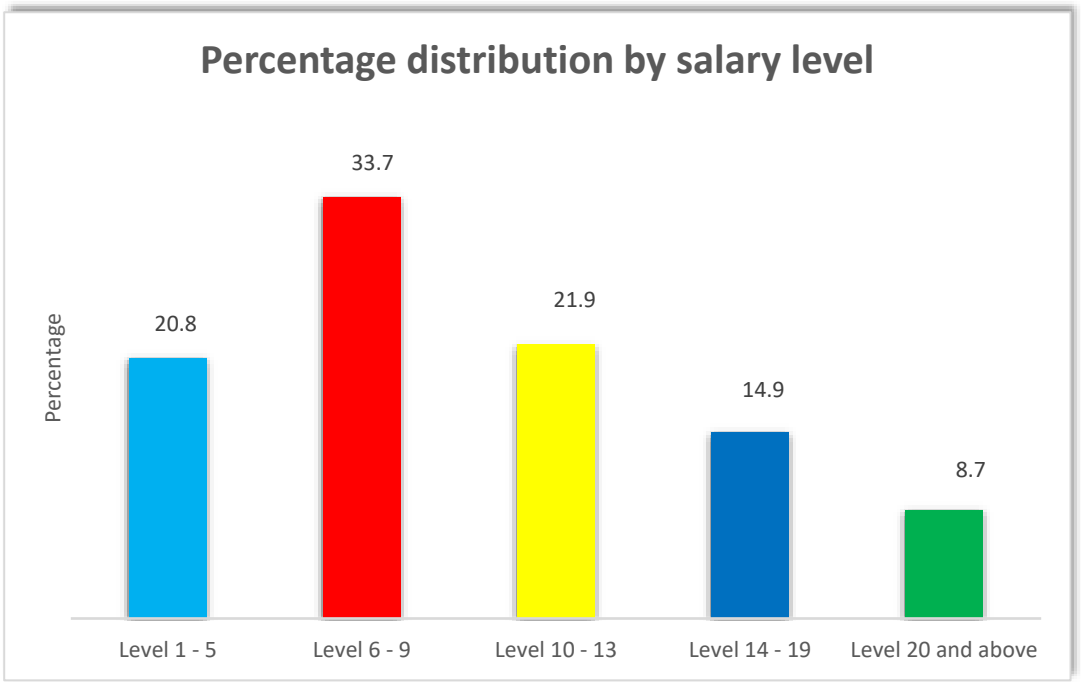

Figure 6.8: Distribution of respondents' base on salary level within the Eastern Cape Province government

6.2 Reliability and Factor analysis

6.2.1 Reliability and Factor analysis for work engagement

A reliability analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were performed to determine the factors for the work engagement. These procedures were necessary to establish validity and reliability of these factors. For the confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling (SEM) consisting of the different items measuring the work engagement was performed in the

statistical software AMOS. For the empirical factor structure, items were loaded to their respective factors using literature as a guide. For the resultant measurement model, some selected model fit indices and pertinent criteria were employed to assess the goodness-of-fit as shown in Appendix I.

Firstly, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the 9 items for the work engagement scale. Three items each were measuring the respective three dimensions for the work engagement scale. Items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that has good and acceptable model fit indices. The most parsimonious model was achieved with six items. All factor loadings were above 0.70 (Table 6.2). The established factor structure shows 2 items each loading for vigour (Factor 2), dedication (Factor 2) and absorption (Factor 3). The value of the average variance extracted (AVE) for all the established factors is greater than the required minimum of 0.50 i.e., vigour (AVE = 0.693), dedication (AVE = 0.758) and absorption (AVE = 0.579), therefore the convergent validity for all the factors is deemed adequate. Furthermore, for measuring the internal consistency of these factors, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used. Assessing this coefficient, the value is more than 0.70 for all the constructs i.e., vigour (alpha = 0.818), dedication (alpha = 0.862) and absorption (alpha = 0.732). A minimum cut-off of 0.70 is recommended for good reliability, and based on these results, the established factors demonstrate good reliability. Furthermore, the values of the Joreskog rho for measuring composite reliability (CR) are all above 0.70 for each of the constructs, indicating satisfactory composite reliability i.e., vigor (C*R* = 0.819), dedication (C*R* = 0.862) and absorption (C*R* = 0.734). Therefore, composite reliability works well with the current measurement model. Thus, the construct reliability is at a very high degree of satisfaction.

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The measurement model demonstrated a good fit when the total assessment criteria for model fitness were examined. In Table 6.3, the results revealed that the value of the standardized root

mean square residual (SRMR) is 0.026 which is below 0.05 which suggests a good model fit. The goodness of fit index (GFI) is 0.998, and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) is 0.994 indicating a good model fit since they are greater than 0.95. These indices were complemented with an assessment of the normed fit index (NFI) and the relative fit index (RFI). Assessing these measures, they were both at least 0.95 which is the minimum recommended for a good fit. Therefore, all these fit indices confirmed the adequacy of the established measurement model for the work engagement scale. Figure 6.9 shows the path diagram for the CFA measurement model for the work engagement factors.

Table 6.2: Output of internal consistency and confirmatory factor analysis of work engagement. (CFA = Confirmatory factor analysis)

Factors and respective items	**CODE**	**CFA Loadings**	**Alpha if Item Deleted**
Factor 1. Vigor			
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	WEV2	0.824	n/a
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	WEV3	0.841	n/a
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.818**; Joreskog rho = **0.819**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.693***			
Factor 2. Dedication			
I am enthusiastic about my job.	WED1	0.856	n/a
My job inspires me.	WED2	0.885	n/a
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.862**; Joreskog rho = **0.862**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.758***			
Factor 3. Absorption			
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	WEA1	0.774	n/a
I am immersed in my work.	WEA2	0.748	n/a
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.732**; Joreskog rho = **0.734**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.579***			
*Overall Cronbach's Alpha = **0.890***			

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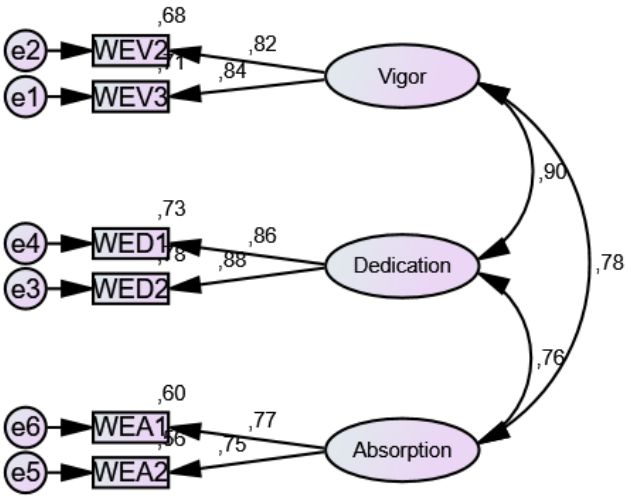

Figure 6.9: Shows path diagram for the CFA measurement model for work engagement

Table 3: The fitness measures assessment for work engagement measurement model

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.026	≤ 0.05	Good fit
GFI	0.998	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.994	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.997	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.993	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index.

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6.2.2 Factor and reliability analysis for decent work

Furthermore, a reliability analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis were carried out to establish the measurement model for the decent work scale. To determine the empirical factors for the measurement model of the decent work, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the 15 items. Items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that have good and acceptable model fit indices. The most parsimonious model was achieved with 13 items retained. All factor loadings were above 0.70 (Table 6.4). The established factor structure shows 3 items loading for safe working conditions (Factor 1), 3 items also loading for access to health care (Factor 2), 2 items loading on adequate

compensation (Factor 3), 2 items loading on free time and rest (Factor 4) and 3 items loading organizational values (Factor 5). The average extracted variance value for each of the specified factors exceeds the minimum needed of 0.50 i.e., safe working conditions (AVE = 0.700), access to health care (AVE = 0.848), adequate compensation (AVE = 0.788), free time and rest (AVE = 0.831) and organisational values (AVE = 0.827). The minimum cut-off point for AVE is 0.50. Hence, it is determined that the convergent validity for all the factors is satisfactory. Furthermore, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was employed to gauge these factors' internal consistency. Assessing these coefficients, the values are at least 0.70 for all the constructs i.e., safe working conditions (alpha = 0.873), access to health care (alpha = 0.943), adequate compensation (alpha = 0.877), free time and rest (alpha = 0.797) and organisational values (alpha = 0.935). The established factors' reliability indicates good and acceptable reliability. The composite reliability values, as measured by Jöreskog's rho, exceed 0.70 for all constructs i.e., safe working conditions (C*R* = 0.875), access to health care (C*R* = 0.944), adequate compensation (C*R* = 0.881), free time and rest (C*R* = 0.797) and organizational values (C*R* = 0.935). Therefore, the composite reliability of the established measurement model is adequate. Thus, the construct reliability is at a very high degree of satisfaction level. Examining the overall assessment criteria for model fitness, the measurement model showed a good fit. In Table 6.5, SRMR is 0.025, which is regarded as a good model fit. A good model fit is also shown by the fact that both the GFI and the related AGFI were above 0.95. Similarly, the normed fit index (NFI = 0.994) and the relative fit index (RFI = 0.992) were also above 0.95, further supporting a good fit for the established measurement model. Figure 6.10 shows the path diagram for the CFA measurement model for decent work.

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Table 6.4: Decent work confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output. (CFA = Confirmatory factor analysis)

Factors and respective items	CODE	CFA Loading	Alpha if Item Deleted
Factor 1. Safe working conditions			
I feel dedicationly safe interacting with people at work.	DWP1	0.818	0.831
At work, I feel safe from dedication or verbal abuse of any	DWP2	0.781	0.849
I feel vigorly safe interacting with people at work.	DWP3	0.906	0.780
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.873**; Joreskog rho = **0.875**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.700***			
Factor 2. Access to health care			
I get good healthcare benefits from my job.	DWH1	0.914	0.922
I have a good healthcare plan at work.	DWH2	0.949	0.898
My employer provides acceptable options for healthcare.	DWH3	0.899	0.932
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.943**; Joreskog rho = **0.944**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.848***			
Factor 3. Adequate compensation			
I am not properly paid for my work.	DWC1	0.948	n/a
I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and	DWC2	0.823	n/a
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.877**; Joreskog rho = **0.881**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.788***			
Factor 4. Free time and rest			
I do not have enough time for non-work activities.	DWF1	0.831	n/a
I have no time to rest during the work week.	DWF2	0.797	n/a
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.797**; Joreskog rho = **0.797**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.831***			
Factor 5. Organisational values			
The values of my organisation match my family values.	DWO1	0.907	0.898
My organisation's values align with my family values.	DWO2	0.922	0.886
The values of my organisation match the values within my …	DWO3	0.899	0.931
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.935**; Joreskog rho = **0.935**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.827***			
*Overall Cronbach's Alpha = **0.819***			

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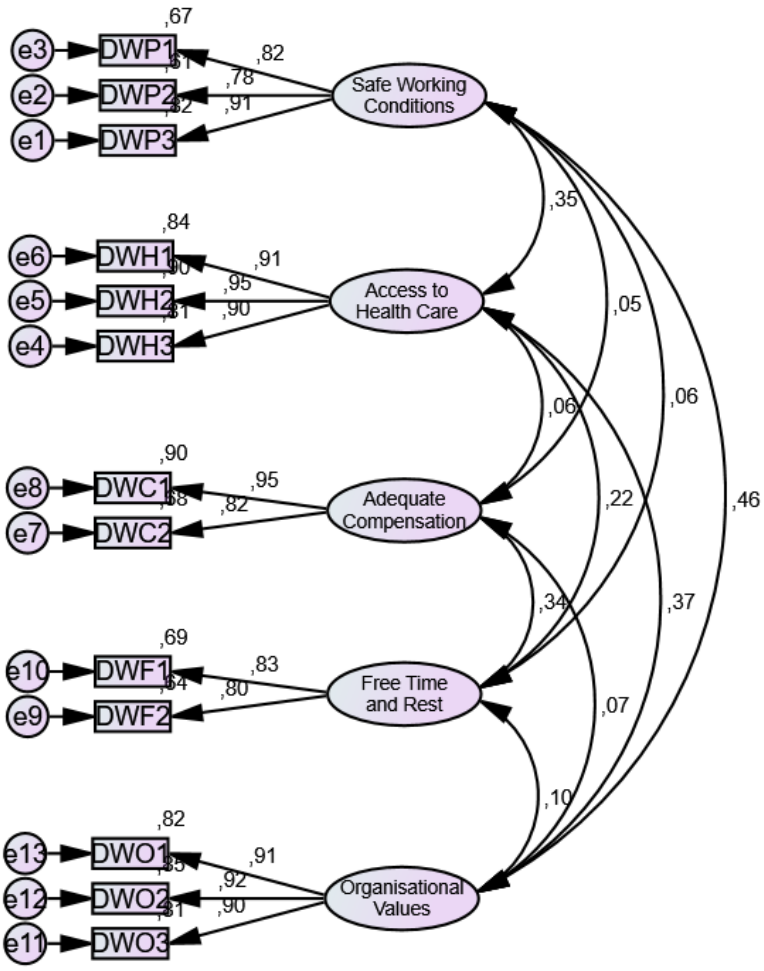

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Figure 6.10: The path diagram for the second-order CFA measurement model for decent work.

Table 6.5: The fitness measures assessment for decent work measurement model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.025	≤ 0.05	Good fit
GFI	0.997	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.994	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.994	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.992	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index.

6.2.3 Factor and reliability analysis for job trust

To begin with, there was a reliability analysis done after a confirmatory factor analysis in order to establish the factor structure for job trust. 11 of the 29 items that underwent confirmatory

factor analysis were retained. Thus, items with poor loadings were removed in order to establish a measurement model that has good and acceptable model fit indices. All retained factor loadings were above 0.70 (Table 6.6). The value of the average variance extracted is greater than the required minimum of 0.50, therefore the convergent validity for all the factors is deemed adequate. Further, for measuring internal consistency, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used. Assessing this coefficient, the value is 0.939 which indicates good and acceptable reliability. The Joreskog rho result for composite reliability measurement is 0.933, indicating a very excellent degree of construct reliability. In Table 6.7, the results revealed that the goodness of fit index is 0.994, and the adjusted goodness of fit is 0.991 indicating a good model fit. Further assessing the NFI and RFI, they are both above 0.95 which reveals a good model fit. Figure 6.11 shows the path diagram for the CFA measurement model for the job trust measurement scale.

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Table 6.6: Job trust confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output. (CFA = Confirmatory factor analysis)

Factors and respective items	ID	CFA Loading	Alpha if Item Deleted
Factor 1. Job trust			
I receive adequate information regarding how I am being …	OGT15	0.723	0.935
I feel connected to my immediate supervisor.	OGT19	0.720	0.935
I receive adequate information regarding how my job-related	OGT20	0.824	0.931
My immediate supervisor is concerned about my personal	OGT21	0.791	0.932
I receive adequate information regarding how organizational	OGT23	0.745	0.934
Top management is concerned about employees' well being.	OGT24	0.707	0.935
My supervisor keeps his/her commitments to team members.	OGT25	0.806	0.932
My values are similar to the values of my supervisor.	OGT26	0.771	0.933
I receive adequate information regarding the long-term …	OGT27	0.769	0.933
My supervisor is sincere in his/her efforts to communicate	OGT28	0.780	0.933
My supervisor speaks positively about subordinates in front of	OGT29	0.770	0.933
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.939**; Joreskog rho = **0.933**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.584***			

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Table 6.7: The fitness measures assessment for job trust measurement model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.046	≤ 0.05	Good fit
GFI	0.994	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.991	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.993	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.991	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index

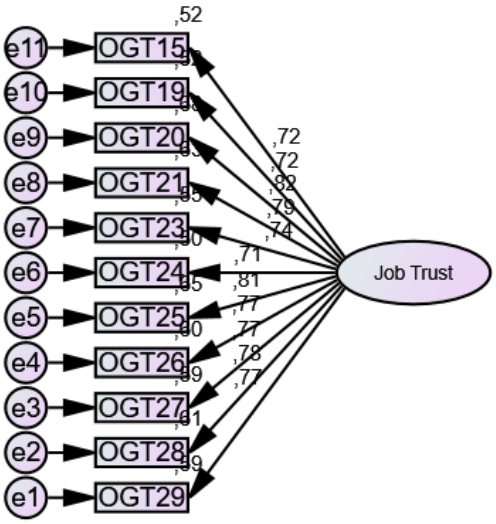

Figure 6.11: The path diagram for confirmatory factor analysis for job trust√

6.2.4 Factor and reliability analysis for experienced workplace incivility

A CFA analysis was done to determine the factor structure for the experienced workplace incivility scale. Table 6.8 shows that all factor loadings were over 0.70, suggesting a good fit for these loadings. The value of the average variance extracted is 0.607, thus the convergent validity of the experienced workplace incivility scale is considered satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha was employed to measure internal consistency, yielding a result of 0.902, which indicates a satisfactory level of reliability. After assessing the Joreskog rho for measuring composite reliability, the calculated CR value of 0.902 indicates that the established measurement model achieves satisfactory composite reliability, demonstrating an acceptable level of construct reliability. Table 6.9 reveals the model fitness indices values for the experienced incivility measurement model. The findings indicate that the model is a good fit. The measurement model met all the criteria, making it appropriate for establishing connections between items and assessing their contribution to measuring experienced workplace incivility. Therefore, the established measurement model is satisfactory, according to the results of the fitness index

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assessment for the structural model of the confirmatory factor analysis. Figure 6.12 shows the path diagram for CFA of the experienced workplace incivility tool.

Table 6.8: Experienced workplace incivility confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output.

Factors and respective items	**CODE**	**CFA Loadings**	**Alpha if Item Deleted**
Factor 1. Experienced incivility			
Have put you down or was condescending to you in some	EWI1	0.823	0.878
Have paid little attention to a statement you made or showed	EWI2	0.725	0.891
Have made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about	EWI3	0.801	0.881
Have addressed you in unprofessional, terms, either publicly	EWI4	0.774	0.885
Have doubted your judgment over a matter in which you have	EWI6	0.714	0.892
Have made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion	EWI7	0.830	0.877
*Cronbach's Alpha = **0.902**; Joreskog rho = **0.902**; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = **0.607***			

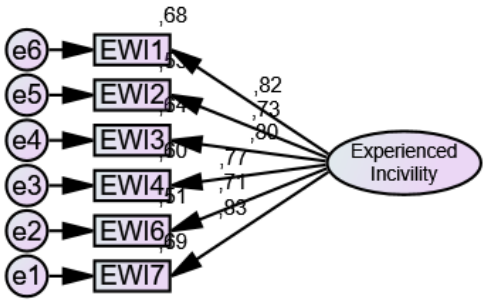

Figure 6.12: The path diagram for confirmatory factor analysis of the experienced incivility scale

Table 6.9: The fitness measures assessment for the experienced incivility measurement model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.055	$0.05 < SRMR \leq 0.09$	Acceptable fit
GFI	0.993	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.983	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.988	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.981	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index.

6.2.5 Factor and reliability analysis for instigated workplace incivility

A CFA analysis was performed to determine the factor structure for the workplace incivility scale that was initiated. Table 6.10 shows that all factor loadings were over 0.70, suggesting a satisfactory fit for these loadings. The value of the average variance extracted is 0.636, thus the convergent validity of the instigated workplace incivility scale is considered satisfactory. For measuring internal consistency, Cronbach alpha was used and the value is 0.872, which reveals a satisfactory reliability level. Evaluating Jöreskog's rho to measure composite reliability, the composite reliability (CR) value was found to be 0.875, indicating that the established measurement model achieves satisfactory composite reliability. Therefore, the construct reliability is deemed acceptable. Table 6.11 reveals the model fitness indices values for the instigated workplace incivility measurement model. The finding indicate that the model is a good fit. Therefore, the established measuring model of instigated incivility is sufficient, according to the results of the fitness index assessment for the structural model of the confirmatory factor analysis. Figure 6.13 shows the path diagram for CFA of the instigated incivility tool.

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Table 6.10: Instigated workplace incivility confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency output

Factors and respective items	CODE	CFA Loading	Alpha if Item Deleted
Factor 1. Instigated incivility			
Have made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about …	IWI3	0.792	0.839
Have addressed someone in unprofessional terms, either	IWI4	0.856	0.817
Have ignored or excluded someone from professional	IWI5	0.761	0.849
Have made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a …	IWI7	0.778	0.841
Cronbach's Alpha = ***0.872****; Joreskog rho =* ***0.875****; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) =* ***0.636***			

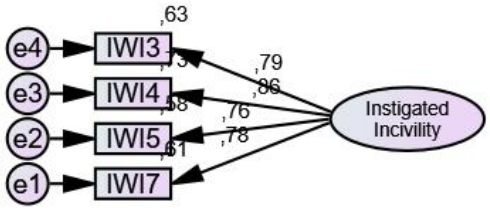

Figure 6.13: The path diagram for confirmatory factor analysis of the instigated incivility scale. (Instigated workplace incivility. IWI =)

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Table 6.11: The fitness measures assessment for the instigated incivility measurement model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.023	< 0.05	Good fit
GFI	0.999	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.994	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.998	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.993	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index.

6.2.6 Full measurement model

Lastly, it was necessary to assess the full measurement model in order to establish the linkage between all the factors measuring different variables and constructs. The resultant full measurement model (Figure 6.14) shows high factor loadings (all above 0.70), which is

suggestive of a good and satisfactory fit for the respective items and constructs. It is important to note that four of the decent work constructs were eliminated from the final measurement models. Organisational values are the only decent work factor remaining, hence this factor will be used to measure decent work in the structural models to be presented later in this chapter. All other factors were retained as established in the sub-sections above. Examining the overall assessment criteria for model fitness, the measurement model showed a good fit. In Table 6.12, SRMR is 0.059, which is regarded as an acceptable fit. A good model fit is also shown by the fact that both the GFI and the related AGFI were above 0.95. Additionally, over 0.95, the relative fit index (RFI = 0.971) and the normed fit index (NFI = 0.974) indicate a strong model fit for the approved full measurement model.

Table 6.12: The fitness measures assessment for the full measurement model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.059	0.05 < SRMR ≤ 0.09	Acceptable fit
GFI	0.979	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.975	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.974	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.971	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index.

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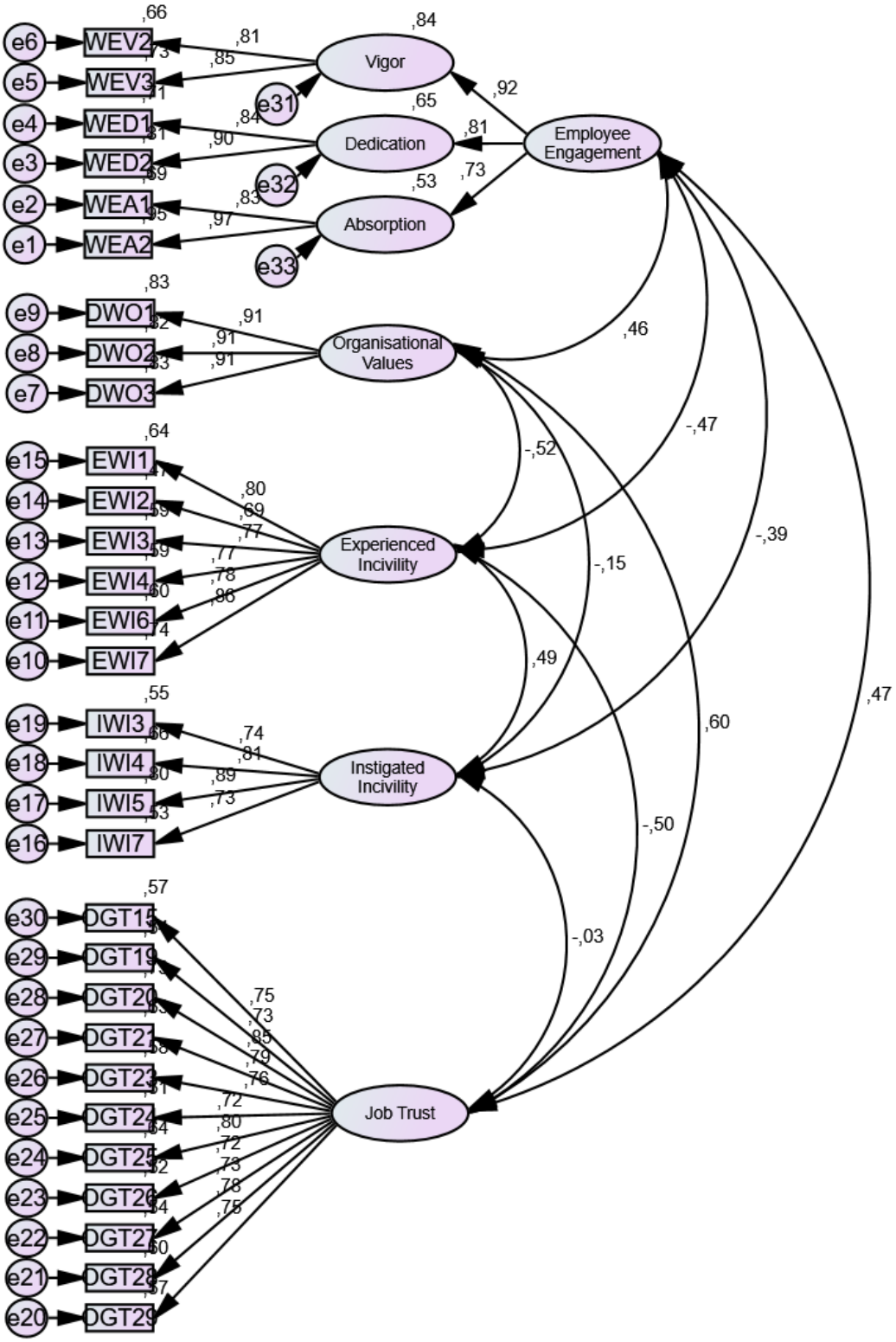

Figure 6.14: The path diagram for confirmatory factor analysis of the full measurement model. (WEV = , WED = , WEA = , DWO = , EWI = , IWI = , OGT =)

6.3 Descriptive analysis on major theoretical variables and constructs

Table 6.14 shows the descriptive statistics of the main study variables and constructs. Work engagement was measured on a 7 –point Likert scale (i.e., 0 – Never; 1 - Almost never; 2 – Rarely; 3 - Sometimes; 4 – Often; 5 - Very often and 6 – Always). The results show that the reported mean level of work engagement was moderate (Mean = 3.8612; SD = 1.23842). This was a similar case to all the construct or work engagement which showed moderate levels within the sample, that is, vigour (Mean = 3.7170; SD = 1.35796), dedication (Mean = 3.9587; SD = 1.50022) and absorption (Mean = 3.9080; SD = 1.37472). On the other hand, experienced and instigated workplace incivility were measured using a 5-point Likert scale (i.e., 1 – Never; 2 – Rarely; 3 – Sometimes; 4 - Quite often and 5 - Most of the time). The sample reported a somewhat low level of experienced Incivility (Mean = 2.5480; SD = 1.07436). In terms of instigated Incivility, the participants revealed that there were low levels of instigated Incivility within the sampled organisation (Mean = 1.8750; SD = 0.84180).

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Decent work and its respective constructs were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (i.e., 1 - Strongly disagree; 2 – Disagree; 3 - Somewhat disagree; 4 - Neither agree nor disagree; 5 – Agree; 6 - Somewhat Agree and 7 - Strongly agree). Overall, the mean level of decent Work (Mean = 4.0880; SD = 0.88639) was moderate among the sampled participants. Among the constructs, safe working conditions (Mean = 4.4638; SD = 1.33461) and access to health care (Mean = 4.4198; SD = 1.59585) were the most highly rated whilst adequate compensation (Mean = 3.7087; SD = 1.66083) and free time and rest (Mean = 3.8184; SD = 1.42712) had the lowest ratings. Lastly, job trust was also measured using a 5-point Likert scale (i.e., 1 - Very little extent; 2 - Little extend; 3 - Some extend; 4 - Great Extent and 5 - Very great extent) with a moderate mean rating (Mean = 3.2991; SD = 0.91059). The skewness and kurtosis coefficients as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test are evident that the respective variables and theoretical constructs are not consistent with a normal distribution.

Table 6.14: Summary of descriptive statistics of main variables.

Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	SW. Sig
Work Engagement	3.8612	1.23842	-0.251	-0.364	<0.0001
1. Vigor	3.7170	1.35796	-0.273	0.004	<0.0001
2. Dedication	3.9587	1.50022	-0.429	-0.590	<0.0001
3. Absorption	3.9080	1.37472	-0.226	-0.610	<0.0001
Experienced Incivility	2.5480	1.07436	0.234	-0.831	<0.0001
Instigated Incivility	1.8750	.84180	0.754	-0.328	<0.0001
Decent Work	4.0880	.88639	0.249	-0.085	0.001
1. Safe working conditions	4.4638	1.33461	-0.202	-0.535	<0.0001
2. Access to health care	4.4198	1.59585	-0.326	-0.659	<0.0001
3. Adequate compensation	3.7087	1.66083	0.207	-0.654	<0.0001
4. Free time and rest	3.8184	1.42712	0.040	-0.270	<0.0001
5. Organizational values	4.0291	1.50734	-0.007	-0.728	<0.0001
Job Trust	3.2991	0.91059	-0.531	-0.268	<0.0001

6.4 Friedman's two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests for establishing dominant factors

6.4.1 Friedman's two-way ANOVA tests for work engagement constructs

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To identify the primary work engagement constructs present in the sample, a Friedman's two-way ANOVA test was performed. The findings presented in Tables 6.15 and 6.16, along with Figure 6.15, indicate significant evidence suggesting that respondents rated the work engagement constructs differently ($p = 0.006$). The mean rankings imply that dedication (Mean rank = 2.10) and absorption (Mean rank = 2.00) were the statistically significant dominant work engagement construct whilst vigor (Mean rank = 1.91) was the least rated.

Table 6.15: Related samples Friedman's two-way ANOVA by ranks for work engagement constructs.

Variable	Mean	N	Test Statistic	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Work engagement					
1. Vigor	1.91				
2. Dedication	2.10	424	10.370	2	0.006
3. Absorption	2.00				

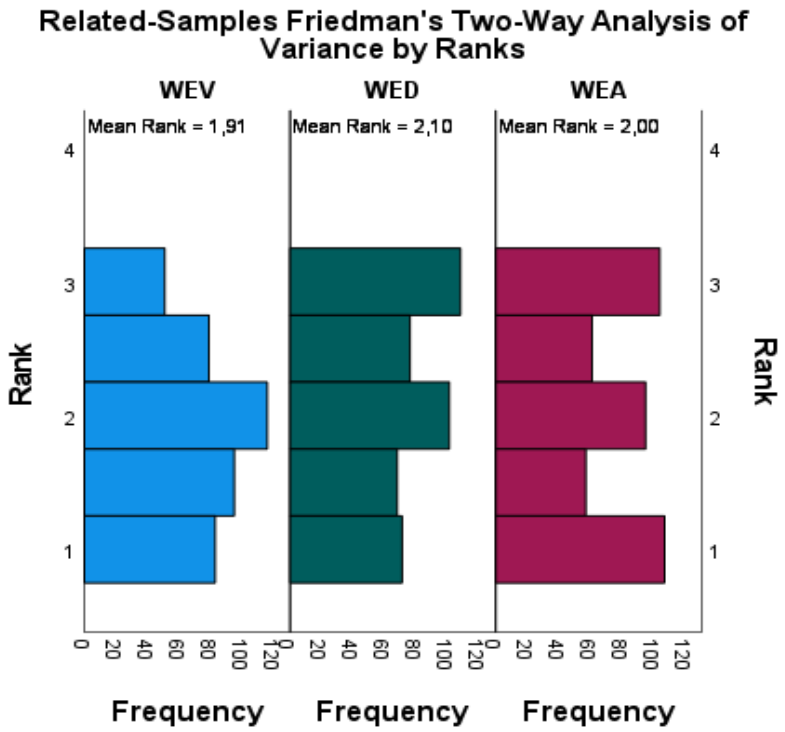

Figure 6.15: The related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance mean ranking for the work engagement scale.

Table 6.16: Friedman's two-way ANOVA pairwise comparisons for work engagement constructs.

Sample 1 – Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj.Sig
Vigor – Absorption	-0.092	-1.339	0.180	0.541
Vigor – Dedication	-0.191	-2.782	0.005	0.016*
Absorption – Dedication	0.099	1.442	0.149	0.448

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05). Sig. = Significance value. Adj.Sig. = Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed.

6.4.2 Friedman's two-way ANOVA tests for experienced and instigated workplace incivility

To identify the primary workplace incivility dimension present within the sample, a Friedman's two-way ANOVA test was also performed. The findings presented in Table 6.17 and Figure 6.16 indicate strong evidence that the workplace incivility dimensions were rated differently by the respondents ($p < 0.0001$). The mean ranking show that experienced workplace incivility (Mean rank = 1.74) was the dominant workplace incivility whilst instigated workplace incivility (Mean rank = 1.26) was the least rated.

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Table 6.17: Related samples Friedman's two-way ANOVA by ranks for experienced and instigated workplace incivility.

Variable	Mean	N	Test Statistic	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Workplace Incivility Factors					
1. Experienced Incivility	1.74	424	116.122	1	<0.0001
2. Instigated Incivility	1.26				

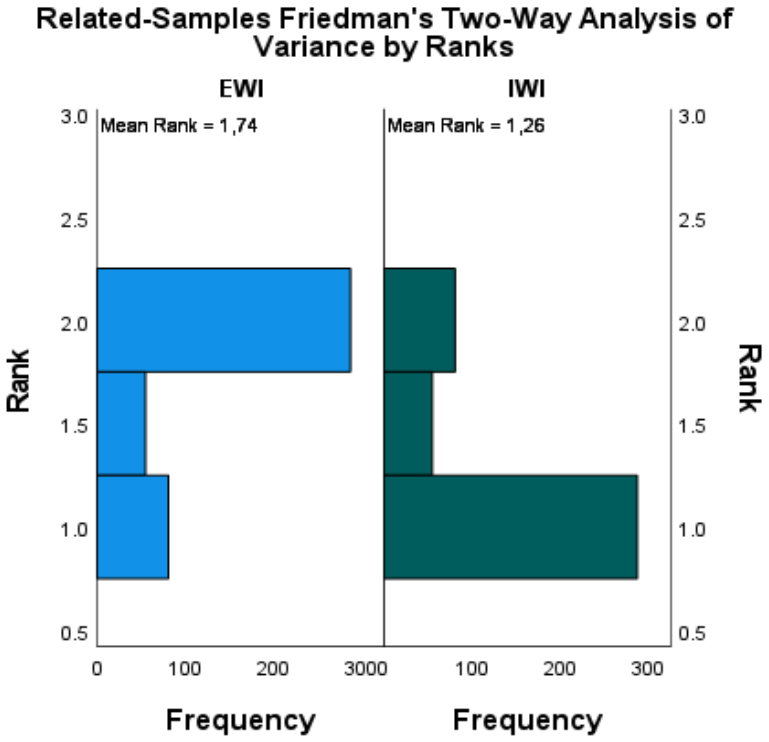

Figure 6.16: The related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance mean ranking for experienced and instigated workplace incivility. (EWI = Experienced workplace incivility, IWI = Instigated workplace incivility).

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6.4.3 Friedman's two-way ANOVA tests for decent work constructs

A Friedman's two-way ANOVA test was used to determine the decent work construct/s that are most prevalent in the sampled organisation. The findings presented in Table 6.18 and Table 6.19, along with Figure 6.17, demonstrate strong evidence that the decent work constructs were rated differently by the respondents ($p < 0.0001$). The mean rankings indicate that access to health care (mean rank = 2.35) and safe working conditions (mean rank = 3.16) were the significantly dominant decent work constructs.

Table 6.18: Related samples Friedman's two-way ANOVA by ranks for decent work constructs.

Variable	Mean	N	Test Statistic	d	Sig. (2-tailed)
Decent work constructs					
1. Safe working conditions	3.16	424	52.958	4	<0.0001
2. Access to health care	3.35				
3. Adequate compensation	2.66				
4. Free time and rest	2.90				
5. Organizational values	2.92				

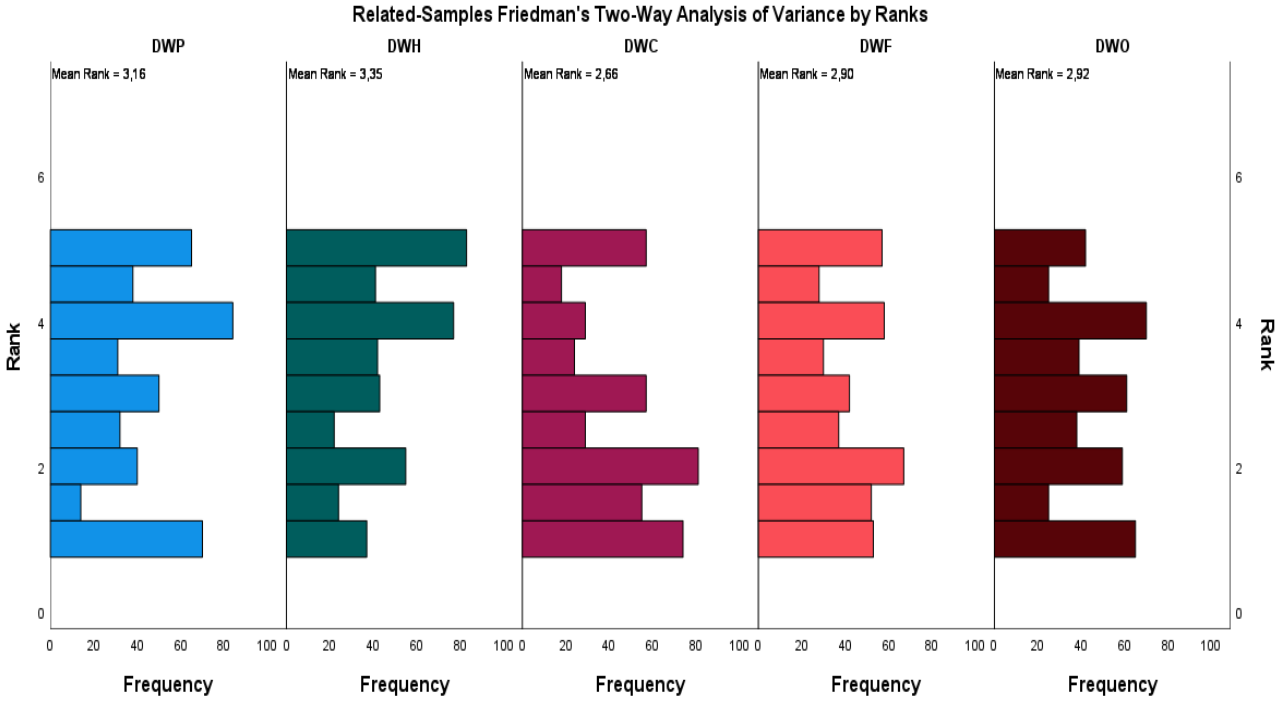

Figure 6.17: The related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance mean ranking for decent work constructs. (DWP = , DWH = , DWC = , DWF = , DWO =)

Table 6.19: Pairwise results for the Friedman's two-way ANOVA pairwise comparisons for decent work constructs.

Sample 1 – Sample 2	Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Compensation & benefits - Free time & rest	-0.244	0.025	0.246
Compensation & benefits - Organisational values	-0.258	0.017	0.174
Compensation & benefits - Safe working conditions	0.504	0.000	<0.0001*
Compensation & benefits - Access to health care	0.692	0.000	<0.0001*
Free time & rest - Organisational values	-0.014	0.896	1.000
Free time & rest - Safe working conditions	0.259	0.017	0.169
Free time & rest - Access to health care	0.448	0.000	<0.0001*
Organisational values - Safe working conditions	0.245	0.024	0.239
Organisational values - Access to health care	0.434	0.000	0.001*
Safe working conditions - Access to health care	-0.189	0.082	0.823

Statistically significant differences (* p < .05). Sig. = Significance value. Adj.Sig. = Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed.

6.5 Mean comparisons of major theoretical variables by demographic characteristics

6.5.1 The independent sample T-Test mean comparisons by gender

In Table 6.20 we have summary results for the mean levels for the major theoretical variables by gender with their respective independent samples T-Tests p-values for mean comparisons. According to the findings, the results showed that the only significant mean differences between males and females were noticed on experienced workplace incivility ($p = 0.027$. Males (2.658 ± 1.069) reported a significantly higher mean level of perceived experienced workplace incivility than their female (2.428 ± 1.070) counterparts. Figure 6.18 shows the graphical presentations of the comparisons for the theoretical variables by gender.

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Table 6.20: Summary mean levels with respective independent samples T-Test mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by gender.

By Gender	Combined	Males	Females	*p*-value
	Mean ± SD	*Mean ± SD*	*Mean ± SD*	
Major theoretical variables				
Work Engagement	3.861 ± 1.238	3.799 ± 1.264	3.929 ± 1.209	0.278
Experienced Incivility	2.548 ± 1.074	2.658 ± 1.069	2.428 ± 1.070	0.027*
Instigated Incivility	1.875 ± 0.842	1.916 ± 0.852	1.830 ± 0.830	0.293
Decent Work	4.088 ± 0.886	4.073 ± 0.913	4.105 ± 0.858	0.712
Job Trust	3.299 ± 0.911	3.244 ± 0.933	3.359 ± 0.884	0.193

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

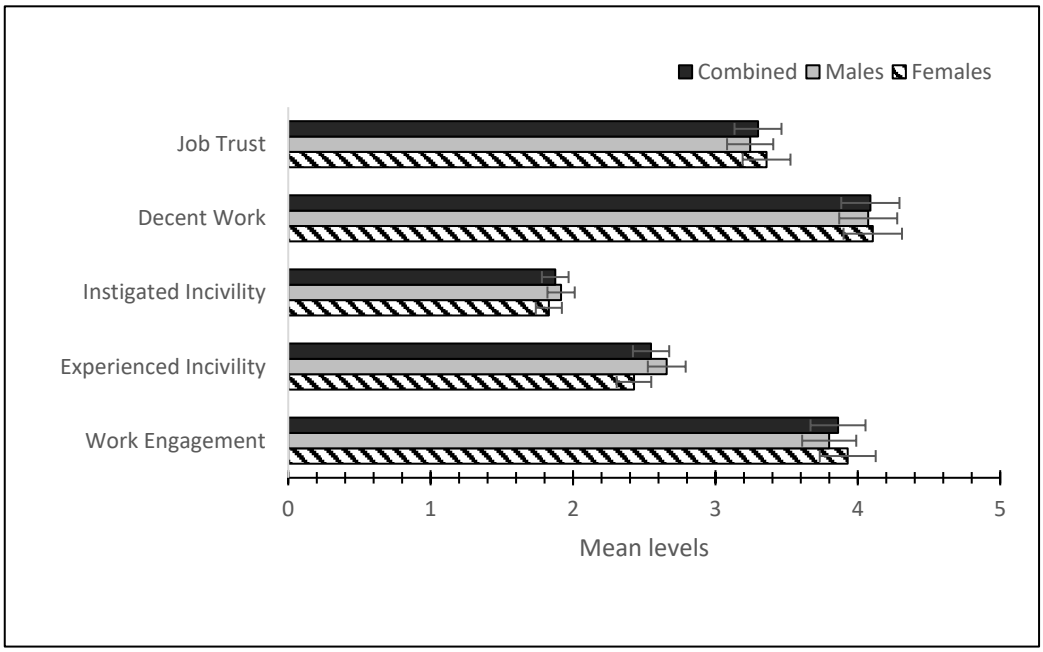

Figure 6.18: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by gender

6.5.2 The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by ethnicity

Table 6.21 shows the summary mean levels and Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by ethnicity of respondents. Evaluating the mean levels, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the perceived mean levels for work engagement (p = 0.076), experienced work incivility (p = 0.107), decent work (p = 0.141) and job trust (p = 0.095) were not significantly different by ethnicity (all p > 0.05). On the other hand, the Kruskal-Wallis test only showed statistically significant differences on ethnicity of respondents with respect to the mean levels of instigated workplace

incivility (p = <0.0001). The grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveal that Blacks (1.744 ± 0.789) and Whites (1.992 ± 0.939) had significant low perceived levels of instigated workplace incivility. Coloureds (2.366 ± 0.850) had the highest levels followed by Indians (2.118 ± 0.875). Figure 6.19 shows the graphical presentation of the theoretical variables by ethnicity.

Table 6.21: Summary mean levels with respective Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by ethnicity.

By Ethnicity	Black *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Coloured *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	White *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Indian *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Other *Mean ± SD* *[Mean*	*p*-value
Major theoretical variables						
Work	3.946 ± 1.231 [222..45]	3.617 ± 1.163 [182.36]	3.866 ± 1.275 [209.37]	3.491 ± 1.452 [175.82]	3.292 ± [162.50]	0.076
Exp. Incivility	2.518 ± 1.123 [207.00]	2.719 ± 0.864 [238.47]	2.709 ± 1.031 [232.97]	2.342 ± 1.013 [196.82]	1.667 ± [110.38]	0.107
Instigated	1.744 ± 0.789 [194.21^{b}]	2.366 ± 0.850 [281.81^{a}]	1.992 ± 0.939 [225.34^{b}]	2.118 ± 0.875 [245.21^{a}]	1.500 ± [182.13^{a}]	<0.0001*
Decent Work	4.075 ± 0.903 [211.65]	4.112 ± 0.911 [211.44]	4.039 ± 0.777 [204.06]	4.053 ± 0.651 [210.08]	5.233 ± [371.50]	0.141
Job Trust	3.221 ± 0.954 [202.41]	3.494 ± 0.679 [237.99]	3.399 ± 0.939 [227.31]	3.608 ± 0.747 [246.34]	3.682 ± [274.75]	0.095

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

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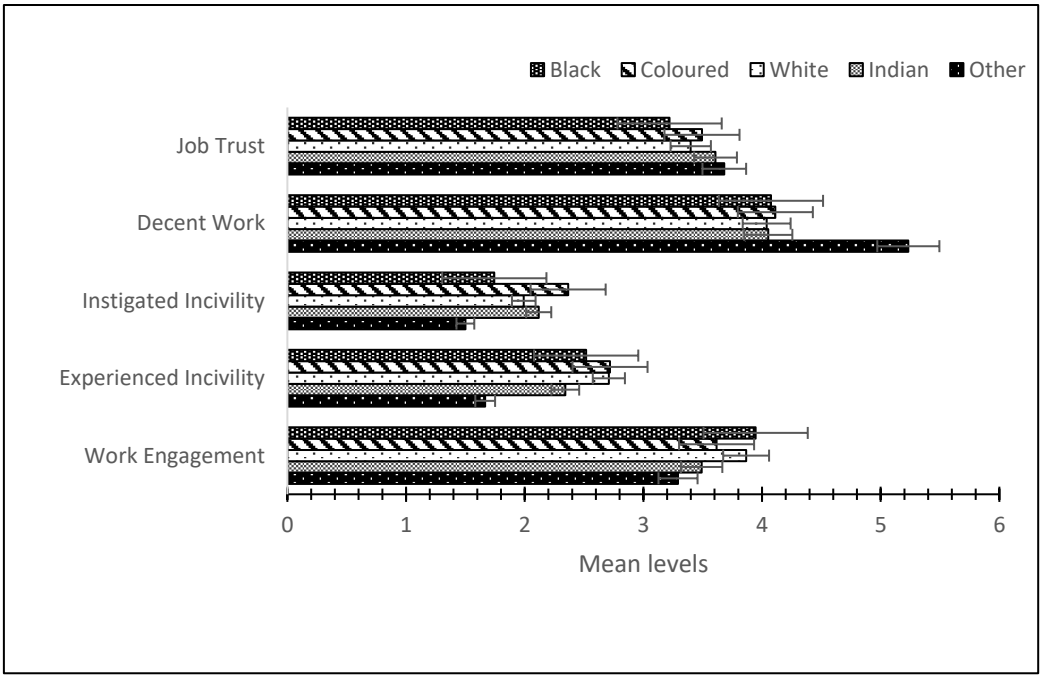

Figure 6.19: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by ethnicity

6.5.3 The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by educational qualifications

Assessing the perceived mean levels of the theoretical variables by educational qualifications (Table 6.22), the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that work engagement (p = 0.224), decent work (p = 0.808) and job trust (p = 0.304) were not significantly different by educational qualification of respondents. However, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed statistically significant differences on educational qualifications with respect to the perceived mean levels of experienced workplace incivility (p = 0.017) and instigated workplace incivility (p = 0.010). The grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveals that those with a post-graduate degree reported higher perceived experienced workplace incivility (2.743 ± 1.103) followed by those with degrees (2.616 ± 1.044). In terms of instigated workplace incivility, the higher the educational qualifications the higher the perceived instigated workplace incivility. Figure 6.20 shows the graphical presentations of the comparisons for the theoretical variables by educational qualifications.

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Table 6.22: Summary mean levels with respective Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by educational qualifications.

By Qualifications	Grade 12 *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Diploma *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Degree *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	Postgrad *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	*p*-value
Work Engagement	4.088 ± 1.312 [236.20]	3.903 ± 1.135 [215.72]	3.070 ± 0.329 [198.65]	3.869 ± 1.167 [211.32]	0.224
Exp. Incivility	2.417 ± 1.038 [194.74[b]]	2.376 ± 1.081 [190.19[c]]	2.616 ± 1.044 [223.16[a,b]]	2.743 ± 1.103 [235.81[a]]	0.017*
Instigated	1.585 ± 0.695 [169.14[c]]	1.864 ± 0.837 [211.89[b]]	1.961 ± 0.865 [224.04[a]]	1.966 ± 0.872 [226.70[a]]	0.010*
Decent Work	4.053 ± 1.030 [209.57]	4.144 ± 0.898 [220.79]	4.109 ± 0.804 [212.49]	4.019 ± 0.882 [204.95]	0.808
Job Trust	3.170 ± 1.006 [198.40]	3.270 ± 0.966 [206.74]	3.411 ± 0.826 [228.47]	3.271 ± 0.882 [207.48]	0.304

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

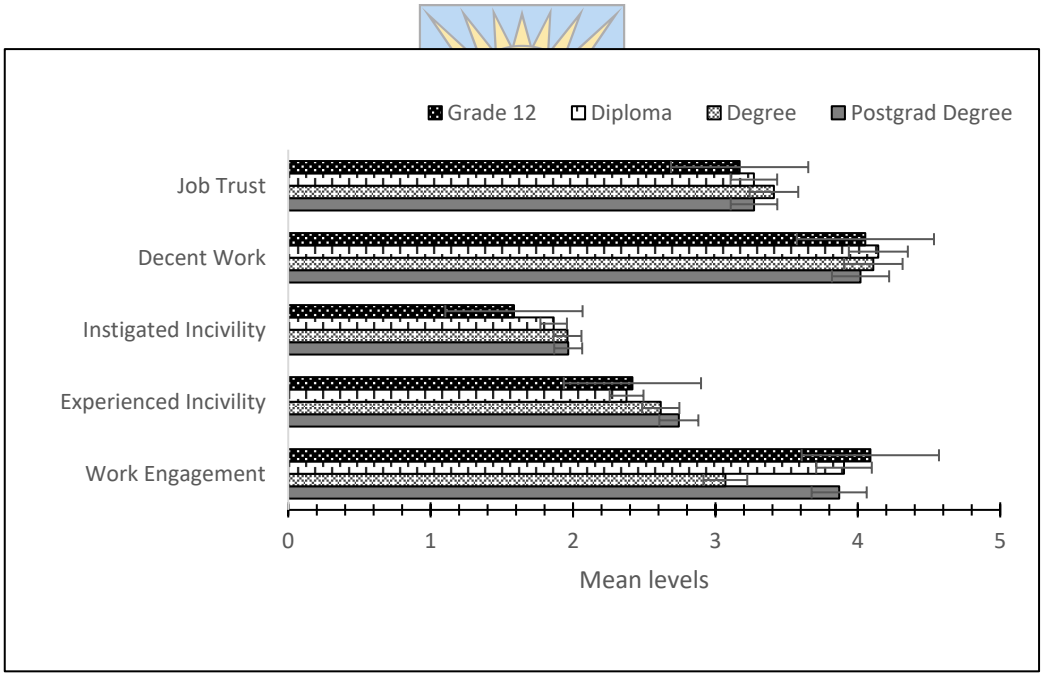

Figure 6.20: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by level of education

6.5.4 The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by employment status

In order to assess the mean differences on the mean levels for the theoretical variables by demographic characteristics of respondents, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted (Table 6.23). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the perceived mean levels for

experienced workplace incivility (p = 0.209), and job trust (p = 0.169) were not significantly different by employment status. Statistically significant differences were reported on mean levels of work engagement (p = 0.007), instigated workplace incivility (p = <0.0001) and decent work (p = 0.015) by employment status. The grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveal that full-time and contract employees had significantly higher mean levels of work engagement and job trust as compared to part-time employees. On the other hand, the post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed that the perceived mean levels for instigated workplace incivility were significantly higher among part-time employees (2.313 ± 0.808) as compared to full-time (1.797 ± 0.829) and contract (1.889 ± 0.837) employees. Figure 6.21 shows the graphical comparisons of the theoretical variables by employment status.

Table 6.23: Summary mean levels with respective Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by employment status.

By Employment Status	Full-time	Part-time	Contract	p-value
	Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]	*Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	*Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	
Work Engagement	3.955 ± 1.237 [223.58[a]]	3.424 ± 1.302 [165.67[b]]	3.801 ± 1.168 [202.74[a,b]]	0.007*
Experienced. Incivility	2.568 ± 1.107 [213.58]	2.688 ± 0.909 [235.36]	2.415 ± 1.048 [197.24]	0.209
Instigated Incivility	1.797 ± 0.829 [201.16[b]]	2.313 ± 0.808 [275.38[a]]	1.889 ± 0.837 [214.69[b]]	<0.0001*
Decent Work	4.136 ± 0.899 [219.75]	3.779 ± 0.603 [164.58]	4.101 ± 0.946 [215.13]	0.015*
Job Trust	3.248 ± 0.982 [209.06[a]]	3.241 ± 0.760 [195.19[b]]	3.486 ± 0.714 [232.14[a]]	0.169

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

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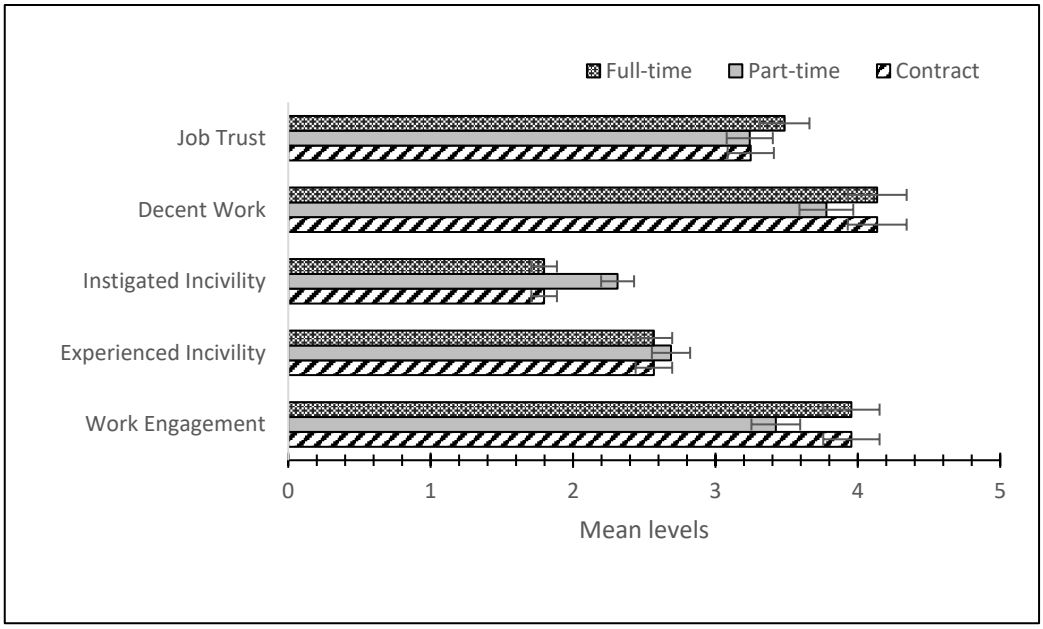

Figure 6.21: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by employment status

6.5.5. The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by years of service

The summary of the mean levels for the theoretical variables by years of service is presented in Table 6.24. Assessing the results, the Kruskal-Wallis test and respective post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that the mean levels for decent work (p = 0.514), and job trust (p = 0.072) were not significantly different by years of service. On the contrary, the mean levels for work engagement (p = 0.005), experienced workplace incivility (p = <0.0001) and instigated workplace incivility (p = 0.023) were significantly different by years of service. The Kruskal-Wallis test and its post-hoc pairwise comparisons, revealed that the mean levels for those with 1 – 5 years of service were significantly the highest whilst those with ≥ 16 years of service has the lowest mean levels perceived work engagement. In terms of experience and instigated workplace incivility, employees with more years of service had higher perceived mean levels as compared to those with fewer years of service. Figure 6.22 shows the graphical presentations of the comparisons for the theoretical variables by years of service.

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Table 6.24: Summary mean levels with respective Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by years of service.

By Tenure	1 – 5 years *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	6 – 10 years *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	11 – 15 years *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	≥ 16 years *Mean ± SD* *[Mean Rank]*	*p*-value
Work Engagement	4.121 ± 1.184 [238.04[a]]	3.667 ± 1.290 [196.58[b]]	3.957 ± 1.289 [219.74[a,b]]	3.571 ± 1.090 [181.75[b,c]]	0.005*
Exp. Incivility	2.192 ± 0.950 [172.66[c]]	2.608 ± 1.059 [221.24[b]]	2.549 ± 1.025 [213.57[b]]	3.098 ± 1.142 [269.73[a]]	<0.0001*
Instigated	1.697 ± 0.747 [187.56[b]]	1.936 ± 0.889 [219.99[a]]	1.943 ± 0.882 [220.27[a]]	2.017 ± 0.840 [236.09[a]]	0.023*
Decent Work	4.125 ± 0.947 [219.47]	4.105 ± 0.835 [213.95]	4.121 ± 0.920 [215.58]	3.952 ± 0.807 [193.66]	0.514
Job Trust	3.393 ± 0.877 [221.63]	3.316 ± 0.860 [213.56]	3.369 ± 0.893 [223.93]	3.012 ± 1.023 [179.65]	0.072

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

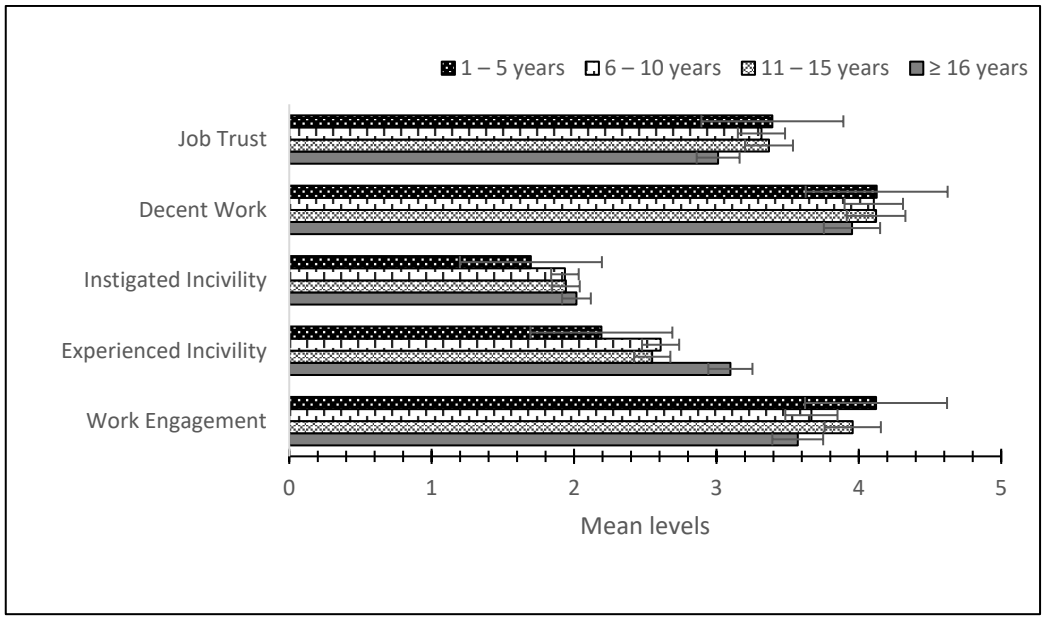

Figure 6.22: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by years of service

6.5.6. The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons by salary level

Lastly, assessing the perceived mean levels of the theoretical variables by salary levels (Table 6.25), the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that work engagement (p = 0.016), experienced workplace incivility (p = 0.045), decent work (p = 0.037) and job trust (p = 0.005) were significantly different by salary levels of respondents. The grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis

post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveals that those with salary levels 14 to 19 reported significantly higher mean levels of perceived work engagement (4.304 ± 1.020) followed by those with salary levels greater than 19 (3.982 ± 1.293). In terms of experienced workplace incivility, those with salary levels above level 19 had significantly higher mean levels of perceived experienced workplace incivility. Further, the grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveals that those with salary levels 10 to 13 and 14 to 19 reported significantly higher mean levels for decent work. Employees within the 14 to 19 salary level had significantly higher mean levels of job trust whilst those within the 1 to 5 and greater than 19 salary levels had the least mean levels. However, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed statistically no significant differences on salary levels with respect to the perceived mean levels of instigated workplace incivility (p = 0.207). Figure 6.23 shows the graphical presentations of the comparisons for the theoretical variables by salary level.

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Table 6.25: Summary mean levels with respective Kruskal-Wallis mean comparisons for major theoretical variables by salary level.

By Salary Level	Level 1 - 5 *Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	Level 6 - 9 *Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	Level 10 - 13 *Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	Level 14 – 19 *Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	> Level 19 *Mean ± SD [Mean Rank]*	*p*-value
Major theoretical variables						
Work	3.903 ± 1.215 [214.88^{b}]	3.643 ± 1.320 [193.68^{b}]	3.808 ± 1.181 [204.27^{b}]	4.304 ± 1.020 [255.48^{a}]	3.982 ± 1.293 [227.07^{a,b}]	0.016*
Exp. Incivility	2.375 ± 0.931 [191.99^{b}]	2.582 ± 1.045 [219.21^{a,b}]	2.536 ± 1.024 [215.03^{a,b}]	2.413 ± 1.154 [194.60^{b}]	3.090 ± 1.333 [259.46^{a}]	0.045*
Instigated	1.861 ± 0.783 [211.13]	1.900 ± 0.874 [215.22]	2.000 ± 0.912 [228.87]	1.861 ± 0.875 [207.38]	1.520 ± 0.465 [172.81]	0.207
Decent Work	3.939 ± 0.875 [192.57^{b}]	4.077 ± 0.920 [211.03^{a,b}]	4.229 ± 0.705 [232.41^{a}]	4.246 ± 0.908 [235.48^{a}]	3.864 ± 1.071 [176.39^{b}]	0.037*
Job Trust	3.222 ± 0.834 [194.17^{c}]	3.267 ± 0.891 [208.53^{a,b}]	3.489 ± 0.763 [234.77^{a,b}]	3.508 ± 0.951 [242.72^{a}]	2.774 ± 1.187 [164.01^{c}]	0.005*

Statistically significant differences (*p-value < 0.05).

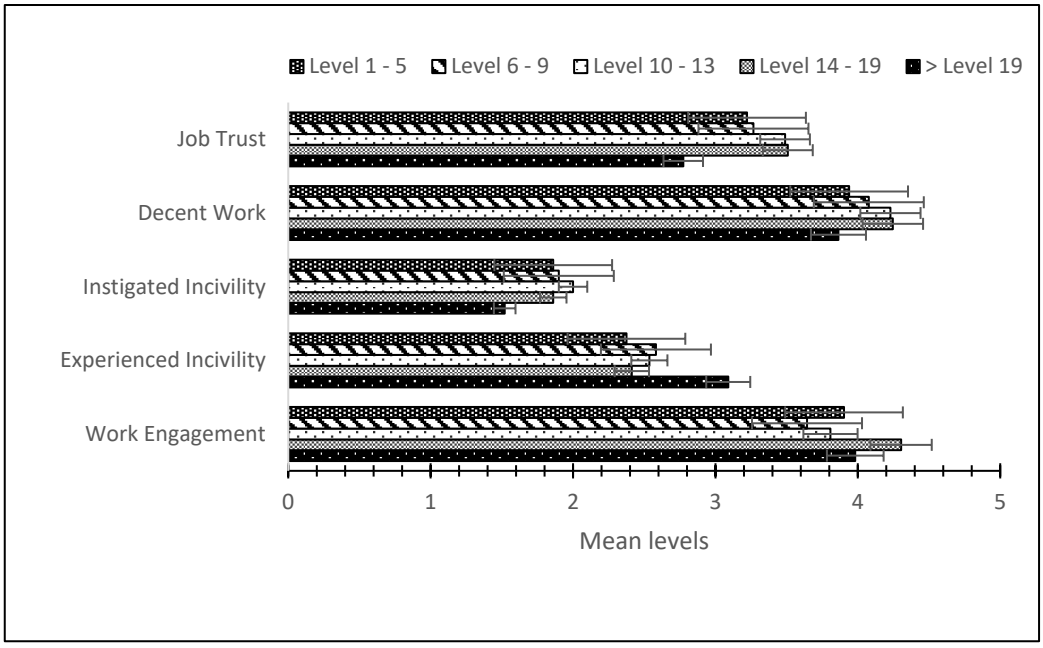

Figure 6.23: Mean levels for major theoretical variables by salary level

6.6 Correlation analysis

The relationships between the study's main theoretical variables were assessed using a correlational analysis. For this investigation, a two-tailed Pearson correlation test was chosen. Table 6.26 presents the results of the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) reflecting the associations between different theoretical variables. Effect size was considered to determine the practical significance of these findings. The effect size is categorized as low if the correlation coefficient value is around 0.10, medium if around 0.30, and large if exceeding 0.50 (Cohen, 1988, 1992).

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In Table 6.26 there are adequate facts to draw a conclusion that there exists moderate, negative and significant correlations between work engagement with experienced workplace incivility (r = -0.394) and instigated workplace incivility (r = -0.328) all suggesting a medium effect size. On the other hand, work engagement was found to have a moderate, significant but positive correlation with decent work (r = 0.400) and job trust (r = 0.405). This suggest that the practical significance of the established correlation between these variables represents a

medium effect size. Experienced workplace incivility had a moderate, positive and significant correlation with instigated workplace incivility (r = 0.428). On the contrary, experienced workplace incivility had a moderate, negative and significant correlations with decent work (r = -0.478) and job trust (r = -0.458). The practical significance of these established correlation coefficients represents a medium effect size. However, on the other hand, instigated workplace incivility had a negative significant but weak correlation with decent work (r = -0.133) whilst there was no significant relationship between instigated workplace incivility with job trust (r = -0.023). Lastly, a moderate, positive and significant relation existed between decent work and job trust (r = 0.567). According to Cohen (1988), the effect size of the relationship of decent work and job trust is regarded as large effect.

Table 6.26: Pearson correlation coefficients *(r)* for relations between the various main theoretical variables.

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Variables	Work Engagement	Experienced Incivility	Instigated Incivility	Decent Work	Job Trust
	R	*R*	*R*	*r*	*R*
Work Engagement	1	-0.394**	-0.328**	0.400**	0.405**
Experienced Incivility		1	0.428**	-0.478**	-0.458**
Instigated Incivility			1	-0.133**	-0.023
Decent Work				1	0.567**
Job Trust					1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 P-value (2-tailed).

6.7 **Hypotheses testing using structural equation modelling in AMOS**

Structural equation models were examined to test for the hypothesised frameworks from the conceptual model. The significance of the direct influence between variables was established through the significance of the respective path coefficients. On the other hand, the mediation effects were assessed using the significance of the indirect effects through the use of a bootstrap procedure. Two models were used for this section. Model 1 (Figure 6.24), was used to assess

the hypotheses in the presence of experienced workplace incivility. Model 2 (Figure 6.25), was used to assess the hypotheses in the presence of instigated workplace incivility.

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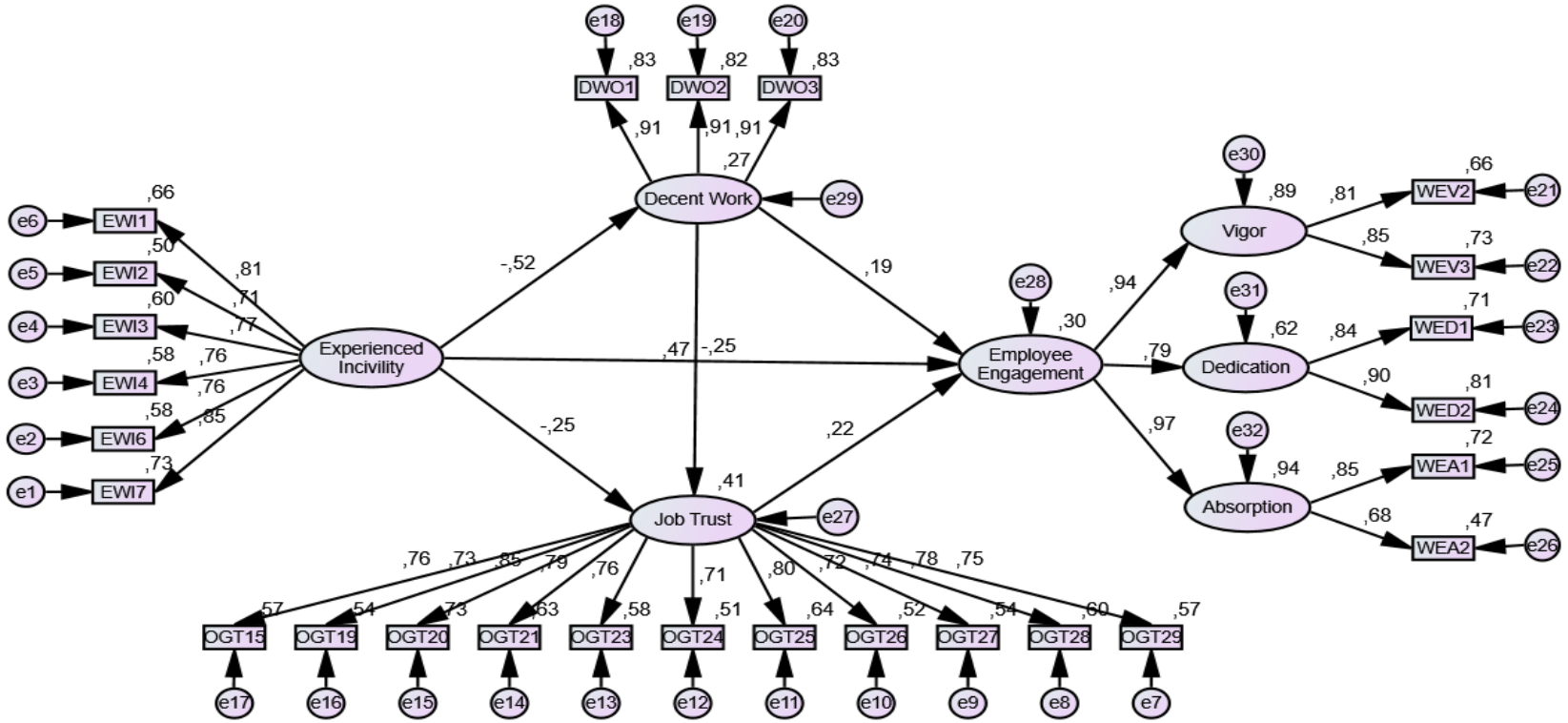

Figure 6.24: Model 1: The path diagram for the presence of experienced workplace incivility structural model. (DWO = , EWI = , WEV = , WED = , WEA = , OGT =).

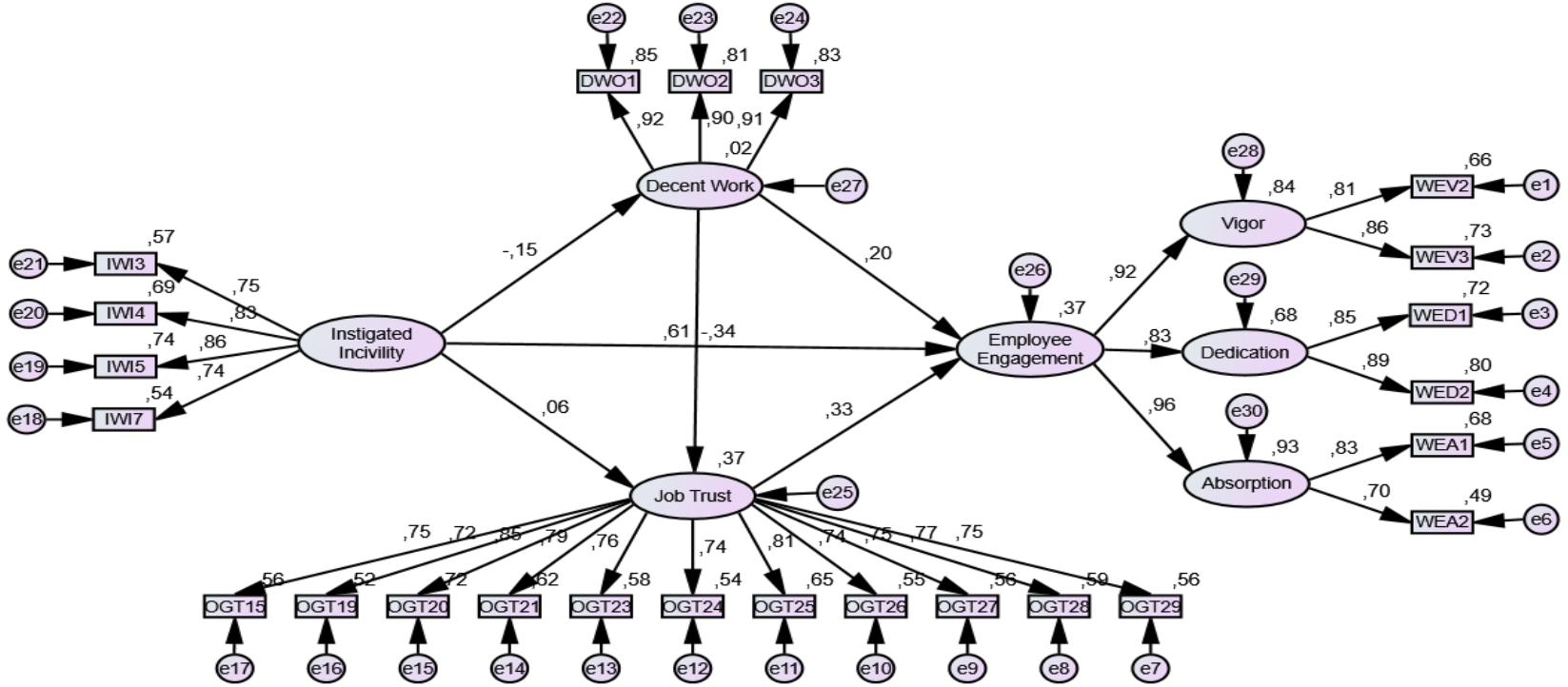

Figure 6.25: Model 2: The path diagram for the presence of instigated workplace incivility structural model. (DWO = , IWI = , WEV = , WED = , WEA = , OGT =).

Before establishing the significance of the predictive effect, it was necessary to assess the model fit indices. For model 1 (Table 6.27), the results showed that the value of SRMR (SRMR = 0.055) is between 0.05 and 0.09 which suggests an acceptable model fit. On the other hand, the GFI index is 0.986, and the AGFI is 0.983 index indicating a good model fit since they are greater than 0.95 and close to 1. These indicators were complemented with an assessment of the normed fit index and the relative fit index. Assessing these measures, they both exceeded 0.95 which is the minimum recommended for a good fit. In summary, all these fit indices confirm the goodness of fit of the established structural model for model 1.

Similarly, the model fit indices of the established structural model for model 2 (Figure 6.25) were examined to ensure that the model properly fitted the data. The results of the model fit analysis are shown in Table 6.28, and the indices demonstrate that the model was a good fit. Thus, SRMR is 0.055 and just above 0.50, which is regarded as an acceptable fit. However, other model fit indices revealed a better fit for the model. The GFI of 0.985 revealed a good fit and its associated AGFI of 0.979 is greater than 0.95, which is suggestive of a good model fit. Last but not least, the relative fit index (RFI = 0.975) is above 0.95, indicating a good model fit for the established structural model 2, and the normed fit index (NFI = 0.978) demonstrates a good fit for the structural model.

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Table 6.27: The fitness indexes assessment for the presence of experienced workplace incivility structural model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.053	0.05 < SRMR ≤ 0.09	Acceptable fit
GFI	0.986	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.983	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.982	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.980	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index, also known as RHO1.

Table 6.28: The fitness indexes assessment for the presence of instigated workplace incivility structural model.

Name of index	Index value	Cut-off points	Comments
SRMR	0.055	0.05 < SRMR ≤ 0.09	Acceptable fit
GFI	0.983	≥ 0.95	Good fit
AGFI	0.979	≥ 0.95	Good fit
NFI	0.978	≥ 0.95	Good fit
RFI	0.975	≥ 0.95	Good fit

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. GFI/AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RFI = Relative Fit Index, also known as RHO1.

6.7.1. Hypothesis testing for the predictive influence of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province

(i) Hypothesis 1a: The influence of experienced incivility on decent work

H1a$_0$: Experienced incivility does not significantly influence decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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H1a$_1$: Experienced incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

The first structural model (Figure 6.24) was used in order to determine the predictive effect of experienced workplace incivility on decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The single-headed arrow pointing towards the endogenous variable was used as the predictive path for experienced workplace incivility on decent work. The standardised estimates and corresponding bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the structural model's regression weights are shown in Table 6.29. Focusing on the experienced workplace incivility-to-decent work path, the results reveal a negative and significant predictive effect of experienced workplace incivility on decent work (β = -0.519; SE = 0.043; 90% CI = [-0.586 – -0.446]; *p* = <0.0001). Based on the significance of the beta

parameter for the predictive path of experienced workplace incivility on decent work, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. Therefore, based on the evidence at a significance level of 5%, we can reject the null hypothesis in support of the alternative hypothesis, leading us to conclude that experienced workplace incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Table 6.29: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of experienced incivility on decent work.

Path Effects for Model 1			**Standardized Beta Estimates**	**Bias-Corrected 90% CI**	***p*-value**
			Estimate (SE)	**[LL ; UL]**	
Decent work	←	Experienced incivility	-0.519 (0.043)	[-0.586 ; -0.446]	0.000
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.909 (0.018)	[0.877 ; 0.937]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.907 (0.023)	[0.866 ; 0.941]	0.000
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.912 (0.022)	[0.874 ; 0.946]	0.001
EWI1	←	Experienced incivility	0.810 (0.028)	[0.760 ; 0.853]	0.000
EWI2	←	Experienced incivility	0.705 (0.039)	[0.641 ; 0.765]	0.000
EWI3	←	Experienced incivility	0.773 (0.032)	[0.714 ; 0.820]	0.001
EWI4	←	Experienced incivility	0.759 (0.038)	[0.689 ; 0.814]	0.001
EWI6	←	Experienced incivility	0.763 (0.038)	[0.702 ; 0.828]	0.000
EWI7	←	Experienced incivility	0.855 (0.030)	[0.799 ; 0.898]	0.000

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. DWO = decent work. EWI = experienced workplace incivility.

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(ii) Hypothesis 1b: The influence of instigated incivility on decent work

H1b$_0$: Instigated incivility does not significantly influence decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H1b$_1$: Instigated incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Structural model 2 was assessed with the aim of statistically examining the predictive effect of instigated workplace incivility on levels of decent work among employees in the local

government of Eastern Cape Province. From this model, the path of interest was the instigated workplace incivility to decent work. Figure 6.25 shows the resultant path diagram of structural model 2 where four observed items measured the exogenous variable, i.e. instigated workplace incivility. On the other hand, the endogenous variable (decent work) was measured using three observed items. Table 6.30 shows that the factors loadings of all the items loading on instigated workplace incivility and decent work were high (all > 0.70) and significant. Examining the standardized estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of instigated workplace incivility on decent work, the results shows that the path coefficient is statistically significant (Table 6.30). Thus, the predictive effect of instigated workplace incivility on decent work is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.148; SE = 0.046; 90% CI = [-0.225 – -0.075]; p = 0.002). In conclusion, since the beta parameter for the instigated workplace incivility-to-decent work path is negative and statistically significant, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Thus, instigated workplace incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.30: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of instigated incivility on decent work.

Path Effects for Model 2			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Decent work	←	Instigated incivility	-0.148 (0.046)	[-0.225 ; -0.075]	0.002
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.921 (0.019)	[0.890 ; 0.950]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.899 (0.026)	[0.852 ; 0.937]	0.001
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.908 (0.023)	[0.868 ; 0.944]	0.000
IWI3	←	Instigated incivility	0.755 (0.034)	[0.691 ; 0.804]	0.001
IWI4	←	Instigated incivility	0.832 (0.029)	[0.783 ; 0.877]	0.000
IWI5	←	Instigated incivility	0.858 (0.031)	[0.807 ; 0.911]	0.000
IWI7	←	Instigated incivility	0.735 (0.037)	[0.665 ; 0.788]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. DWO = decent work. IWI = instigated workplace incivility.

6.7.2 Hypothesis 2: The influence of experienced and instigated incivility on job trust

(i) Hypothesis 2a: The influence of experienced incivility on job trust

H2a$_0$: The presence of experienced incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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H2a$_1$: The presence of experienced incivility significantly influences trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

To determine the underlying predictive effect that experienced workplace incivility has on the levels of trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province, structural model 1 was examined. The exogenous latent variable was measured using six items, and the endogenous latent variable was measured using eleven items. The structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights pertaining to the impact of experienced incivility on job trust are displayed in Table 6.31. The path beta estimate for the experienced workplace incivility to job trust path is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.254; SE = 0.053; 90% CI = [-0.343 – -0.169]; p = <0.0001). Thus, the

regression weight for experienced workplace incivility in the prediction of job trust is significantly different from zero at the 5% level of significance. In conclusion, since the beta parameter for the experienced workplace incivility-to-job trust path is statistically significant, this result supports the alternative hypothesis. Consequently, there is enough statistical data to disprove the null hypothesis and come to the conclusion that the presence of experienced incivility significantly influences trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.31: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of experienced incivility on job trust.

Path Effects for Model 1			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Job trust	←	Experienced	-0.254 (0.053)	[-0.343 ; -0.169]	0.000
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.756 (0.029)	[0.707 ; 0.800]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.733 (0.030)	[0.679 ; 0.778]	0.000
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.853 (0.021)	[0.815 ; 0.883]	0.000
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.794 (0.024)	[0.755 ; 0.832]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.761 (0.028)	[0.711 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.715 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.800 (0.020)	[0.766 ; 0.831]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.722 (0.030)	[0.669 ; 0.769]	0.001
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.735 (0.029)	[0.685 ; 0.781]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.776 (0.034)	[0.713 ; 0.827]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.754 (0.035)	[0.689 ; 0.807]	0.001
EWI1	←	Experienced	0.810 (0.028)	[0.760 ; 0.853]	0.000
EWI2	←	Experienced	0.705 (0.039)	[0.641 ; 0.765]	0.000
EWI3	←	Experienced	0.773 (0.032)	[0.714 ; 0.820]	0.001
EWI4	←	Experienced	0.759 (0.038)	[0.689 ; 0.814]	0.001
EWI6	←	Experienced	0.763 (0.038)	[0.702 ; 0.828]	0.000
EWI7	←	Experienced	0.855 (0.030)	[0.799 ; 0.898]	0.000

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. OGT = organisational trust. EWI = experienced workplace incivility.

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(i) Hypothesis 2b: The influence of instigated incivility on job trust

H2b$_0$: The presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H2b$_1$: The presence of instigated incivility significantly influences trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

In order to statistically determine the predictive influence of the presence of instigated workplace incivility on job trust, structural equation model analysis was used. Figure 6.24

shows the path diagram of the structural model where the presence of instigated workplace incivility to job trust path exists. Examining structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals; the results show that the loadings for the presence of instigated workplace incivility and job trust were all satisfactory and statistically significant (Table 6.32). Of interest, the path for the predictive influence of the presence of instigated workplace incivility on job trust is not statistically significant (β = 0.060; SE = 0.046; 90% CI = [-0.016 – 0.135]; p = 0.199). In conclusion, since the beta parameter for the presence of instigated workplace incivility-to-job trust path is not statistically significant, the null hypothesis is therefore not rejected. Thus, the presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.32: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of instigated incivility on job trust.

Path Effects for Model 2			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Job trust	←	Instigated incivility	0.060 (0.046)	[-0.016 ; 0.135]	0.199
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.030)	[0.694 ; 0.792]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.718 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.001
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.847 (0.020)	[0.812 ; 0.876]	0.001
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.786 (0.024)	[0.746 ; 0.824]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.760 (0.028)	[0.710 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.737 (0.028)	[0.689 ; 0.782]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.807 (0.019)	[0.773 ; 0.836]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.741 (0.029)	[0.690 ; 0.785]	0.000
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.747 (0.027)	[0.700 ; 0.789]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.767 (0.034)	[0.705 ; 0.817]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.035)	[0.683 ; 0.799]	0.001
IWI3	←	Instigated incivility	0.755 (0.034)	[0.691 ; 0.804]	0.001
IWI4	←	Instigated incivility	0.832 (0.029)	[0.783 ; 0.877]	0.000
IWI5	←	Instigated incivility	0.858 (0.031)	[0.807 ; 0.911]	0.000
IWI7	←	Instigated incivility	0.735 (0.037)	[0.665 ; 0.788]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit.OGT = organisational trust. IWI = instigated workplace incivility.

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6.7.3 Hypothesis 3: The influence of experienced and instigated incivility on work engagement

(i) Hypothesis 3a: The influence of experienced incivility on work engagement

H3a$_0$: The presence of experienced incivility does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H3a$_1$: The presence of experienced incivility significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Structural model 1 (Figure 6.24) was examined in order to determine the influence of the presence of experienced workplace incivility on work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The resultant structural equation model shows that the latent exogenous variable, i.e. presence of experienced workplace incivility is measured using six observed items and the latent endogenous variable, i.e. work engagement that was also measured using six observed items loading on three dimensions. All the factor loadings are satisfactory and significant. The bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals and structural equation estimates for the regression weights relating to the influence of experienced incivility on work engagement are shown in Table 6.33. Focusing on the presence of experienced workplace incivility-to-work engagement path, the results reveal a negative and significant influence of the presence of experienced workplace incivility on work engagement (β = -0.248; SE = 0.061; 90% CI = [-0.344 – -0.145]; p = 0.001). Based on the significance of the beta parameter for the path of presence of experienced workplace incivility on work engagement, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. Thus, there is sufficient evidence at a 5% level of significance to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the presence of experienced incivility significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.33: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of experienced incivility on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 1			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Work engagement	←	Experienced incivility	-0.248 (0.061)	[-0.344 ; -0.145]	0.001
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.942 (0.051)	[0.852 ; 1.019]	0.000
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.790 (0.045)	[0.714 ; 0.861]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.967 (0.048)	[0.890 ; 1.050]	0.000
EWI1	←	Experienced incivility	0.810 (0.028)	[0.760 ; 0.853]	0.000
EWI2	←	Experienced incivility	0.705 (0.039)	[0.641 ; 0.765]	0.000
EWI3	←	Experienced incivility	0.773 (0.032)	[0.714 ; 0.820]	0.001
EWI4	←	Experienced incivility	0.759 (0.038)	[0.689 ; 0.814]	0.001
EWI6	←	Experienced incivility	0.763 (0.038)	[0.702 ; 0.828]	0.000
EWI7	←	Experienced incivility	0.855 (0.030)	[0.799 ; 0.898]	0.000

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. EWI = experienced workplace incivility.

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(ii) Hypothesis 3b: The influence of instigated incivility on work engagement

H3b$_0$: The presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H3b$_1$: The presence of instigated incivility significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

To determine the underlying predictive influence that the independent variable, presence of instigated workplace incivility has on work engagement, structural equation model 2 was examined. Figure 6.25 demonstrates that the endogenous latent variable was measured using six items from three dimensions, whereas the exogenous latent variable was measured using four items. Table 6.34 shows the parameter estimates of the regression weights. The beta estimate for the presence of instigated workplace incivility to work engagement path is negative

and statistically significant (β = -0.335; SE = 0.053; 90% CI = [-0.422 – -0.245]; p = 0.001). Thus, the regression weight for presence of instigated workplace incivility in the prediction of work engagement is significantly different from zero. In conclusion, since the beta parameter for the presence of instigated workplace incivility-to-work engagement path is negative and significant, this result supports the alternative hypothesis. Therefore, there is substantial statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis and draw a conclusion that the presence of instigated incivility significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Table 6.34: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of instigated incivility on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 2			**Standardized Beta Estimates**	**Bias-Corrected 90% CI**	***p*-value**
			Estimate (SE)	**[LL ; UL]**	
Work engagement	←	Instigated incivility	-0.335 (0.053)	[-0.422 ; -0.245]	0.001
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.918 (0.051)	[0.829 ; 0.996]	0.001
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.825 (0.040)	[0.759 ; 0.889]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.963 (0.044)	[0.892 ; 1.037]	0.000
IWI3	←	Instigated incivility	0.755 (0.034)	[0.691 ; 0.804]	0.001
IWI4	←	Instigated incivility	0.832 (0.029)	[0.783 ; 0.877]	0.000
IWI5	←	Instigated incivility	0.858 (0.031)	[0.807 ; 0.911]	0.000
IWI7	←	Instigated incivility	0.735 (0.037)	[0.665 ; 0.788]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. IWI = instigated workplace incivility.

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Table 6.35 shows the summary for the hypothesis testing for predictive influence of experienced and instigated workplace incivility among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Table 6.35: Summary results for the influence of experienced and instigated incivility hypotheses.

	Description (Null Hypothesis)	Test Statistic	*p*-value	Decision
H1a$_0$	Experienced incivility does not significantly influence decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = -0.519	*p* = <0.0001*	Reject
H1b$_0$	Instigated incivility does not significantly influence decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = -0.148	*p* = 0.002*	Reject
H2a$_0$	The presence of experienced incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = -0.254	*p* = <0.0001*	Reject
H2b$_0$	The presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = 0.060	*p* = 0.199	Accept
H3a$_0$	The presence of experienced incivility does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = -0.248	*p* = 0.001*	Reject
H3b$_0$	The presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	β = -0.335	*p* = 0.001*	Reject

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(*) Statistically significant effects. The beta coefficients are standardized estimates of the structural default models (Model 1 and Model 2).

6.7.4 Hypothesis testing for the predictive influence of decent work and job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province

H4$_0$: Decent work does not significantly influence job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H4$_1$: Decent work significantly influences job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Structural models 1 and 2 were both examined in order to determine the predictive influence of decent work on job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. In Tables 6.36 and 6.37, the resultant structural equation models show that the loadings for the respective items on the latent exogenous variable, i.e. decent work and latent endogenous variable, i.e. job trust that are all satisfactory and significant. The estimates and corresponding 90% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals for the regression weights of the 1st structural model are displayed in Table 6.36. Focusing on the decent work-to-job trust path, the results reveal a positive and significant influence of decent work on job trust (β = 0.472; SE = 0.052; 90% CI = [0.382 – 0.552]; *p* = <0.0001). Further, in Table 6.37 the structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on job trust for the 2nd default structural model shows that decent work has a significant influence on job trust. Thus, there also exist a positive and significant influence of decent work on job trust (β = 0.612; SE = 0.041; 90% CI = [0.539 – 0.675]; *p* = 0.001). In both structural models decent work has a significant and positive influence on job trust. Therefore, there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis and conclude that decent work significantly influences job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.36: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on job trust.

Path Effects for Model 1			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Job trust	←	Decent work	0.472 (0.052)	[0.382 ; 0.552]	0.000
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.756 (0.029)	[0.707 ; 0.800]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.733 (0.030)	[0.679 ; 0.778]	0.000
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.853 (0.021)	[0.815 ; 0.883]	0.000
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.794 (0.024)	[0.755 ; 0.832]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.761 (0.028)	[0.711 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.715 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.800 (0.020)	[0.766 ; 0.831]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.722 (0.030)	[0.669 ; 0.769]	0.001
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.735 (0.029)	[0.685 ; 0.781]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.776 (0.034)	[0.713 ; 0.827]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.754 (0.035)	[0.689 ; 0.807]	0.001
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.909 (0.018)	[0.877 ; 0.937]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.907 (0.023)	[0.866 ; 0.941]	0.000
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.912 (0.022)	[0.874 ; 0.946]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. OGT = organisational trust. DWO = decent work.

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Table 6.37: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on job trust.

Path Effects for Model 2			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Job trust	←	Decent work	0.612 (0.041)	[0.539 ; 0.675]	0.001
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.030)	[0.694 ; 0.792]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.718 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.001
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.847 (0.020)	[0.812 ; 0.876]	0.001
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.786 (0.024)	[0.746 ; 0.824]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.760 (0.028)	[0.710 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.737 (0.028)	[0.689 ; 0.782]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.807 (0.019)	[0.773 ; 0.836]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.741 (0.029)	[0.690 ; 0.785]	0.000
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.747 (0.027)	[0.700 ; 0.789]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.767 (0.034)	[0.705 ; 0.817]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.035)	[0.683 ; 0.799]	0.001
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.921 (0.019)	[0.890 ; 0.950]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.899 (0.026)	[0.852 ; 0.937]	0.001
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.908 (0.023)	[0.868 ; 0.944]	0.000

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. OGT = organisational trust. DWT = decent work.

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6.7.5 Hypothesis 5: The influence of job trust on work engagement

H5$_0$: Trust does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H5$_1$: Trust significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

With the aim of statistically examining the predictive influence of job trust on levels of work engagement, the 1st and 2nd structural models were utilized. Figure 6.24 and Figure 6.25 shows the resultant path diagrams of the structural models where eleven observed items measured the exogenous variable, i.e. job trust whilst six items loading on three sub-scales were used to

measure the endogenous variable (work engagement). Firstly, model 1 structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of job trust on work engagement were examined (Table 6.38). Of interest, the path for the predictive influence of job trust on work engagement is positive and statistically significant (β = 0.223; SE = 0.066; 90% CI = [0.114 – 0.329]; p = 0.002). Similarly, model 2 structural equation estimates and respective 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights of the influence of job trust on work engagement were examined (Table 6.39). The path for the predictive influence of job trust on work engagement is also positive and statistically significant (β = 0.325; SE = 0.061; 90% CI = [0.219 – 0.422]; p = 0.001). In conclusion, since both the beta parameters for the job trust-to-work engagement paths are positive and statistically significant, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, job trust significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.38: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of job trust on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 1			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Work engagement	←	Job trust	0.223 (0.066)	[0.114 ; 0.329]	0.002
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.942 (0.051)	[0.852 ; 1.019]	0.000
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.790 (0.045)	[0.714 ; 0.861]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.967 (0.048)	[0.890 ; 1.050]	0.000
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.756 (0.029)	[0.707 ; 0.800]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.733 (0.030)	[0.679 ; 0.778]	0.000
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.853 (0.021)	[0.815 ; 0.883]	0.000
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.794 (0.024)	[0.755 ; 0.832]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.761 (0.028)	[0.711 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.715 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.800 (0.020)	[0.766 ; 0.831]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.722 (0.030)	[0.669 ; 0.769]	0.001
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.735 (0.029)	[0.685 ; 0.781]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.776 (0.034)	[0.713 ; 0.827]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.754 (0.035)	[0.689 ; 0.807]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. OGT = organisational trust.

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Table 6.39: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of job trust on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 2			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Work engagement	←	Job trust	0.325 (0.061)	[0.219 ; 0.422]	0.001
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.918 (0.051)	[0.829 ; 0.996]	0.001
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.825 (0.040)	[0.759 ; 0.889]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.963 (0.044)	[0.892 ; 1.037]	0.000
OGT15	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.030)	[0.694 ; 0.792]	0.000
OGT19	←	Job trust	0.718 (0.031)	[0.662 ; 0.764]	0.001
OGT20	←	Job trust	0.847 (0.020)	[0.812 ; 0.876]	0.001
OGT21	←	Job trust	0.786 (0.024)	[0.746 ; 0.824]	0.000
OGT23	←	Job trust	0.760 (0.028)	[0.710 ; 0.804]	0.000
OGT24	←	Job trust	0.737 (0.028)	[0.689 ; 0.782]	0.000
OGT25	←	Job trust	0.807 (0.019)	[0.773 ; 0.836]	0.000
OGT26	←	Job trust	0.741 (0.029)	[0.690 ; 0.785]	0.000
OGT27	←	Job trust	0.747 (0.027)	[0.700 ; 0.789]	0.000
OGT28	←	Job trust	0.767 (0.034)	[0.705 ; 0.817]	0.001
OGT29	←	Job trust	0.746 (0.035)	[0.683 ; 0.799]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. OGT = organisational trust.

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6.7.6 Hypothesis 6: The influence of decent work on work engagement

H6$_0$: Decent work does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

H6$_1$: Decent work significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

Structural models 1 and 2 were both examined in order to determine the predictive influence of decent work on work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. In Table 6.40 and Table 6.41, the resultant structural equation models show that the loadings for the respective items on the latent exogenous variable, i.e. decent work and

latent endogenous variable, i.e. work engagement that are all satisfactory and significant. Table 6.39 shows the beta estimates and respective bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights of the 1st structural model. Focusing on the decent work-to-work engagement path, the results reveal a positive and significant influence of decent work on work engagement (β = 0.188; SE = 0.074; 90% CI = [0.063 – 0.307]; p = 0.012). Further, in Table 6.40 the structural equation estimates and respective bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on work engagement for the 2nd default structural model shows that decent work has a significant influence on work engagement. Thus, there also exist a positive and significant influence of decent work on work engagement (β = 0.205; SE = 0.069; 90% CI = [0.089 – 0.315]; p = 0.004). In both structural models decent work has a significant and positive influence on work engagement. Therefore, there is ample evidence to reject the null hypothesis and reach a conclusion that decent work significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.40: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 1			**Standardized Beta Estimates**	**Bias-Corrected 90% CI**	***p*-value**
			Estimate (SE)	**[LL ; UL]**	
Work engagement	←	Decent work	0.188 (0.074)	[0.063 ; 0.307]	0.012
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.942 (0.051)	[0.852 ; 1.019]	0.000
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.790 (0.045)	[0.714 ; 0.861]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.967 (0.048)	[0.890 ; 1.050]	0.000
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.909 (0.018)	[0.877 ; 0.937]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.907 (0.023)	[0.866 ; 0.941]	0.000
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.912 (0.022)	[0.874 ; 0.946]	0.001

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. DWO = decent work.

Table 6.41: Structural equation estimates and bootstrapped 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the regression weights for the influence of decent work on work engagement.

Path Effects for Model 2			Standardized Beta Estimates	Bias-Corrected 90% CI	*p*-value
			Estimate (SE)	[LL ; UL]	
Work engagement	←	Decent work	0.205 (0.069)	[0.089 ; 0.315]	0.004
Vigor	←	Work engagement	0.918 (0.051)	[0.829 ; 0.996]	0.001
Dedication	←	Work engagement	0.825 (0.040)	[0.759 ; 0.889]	0.000
Absorption	←	Work engagement	0.963 (0.044)	[0.892 ; 1.037]	0.000
DWO1	←	Decent work	0.921 (0.019)	[0.890 ; 0.950]	0.000
DWO2	←	Decent work	0.899 (0.026)	[0.852 ; 0.937]	0.001
DWO3	←	Decent work	0.908 (0.023)	[0.868 ; 0.944]	0.000

SE = standard error for the structural regression estimates. CI = confidence interval. LL = lower limit. UL = upper limit. DWO = decent work.

Table 6.42 shows the summary results of the hypothesis testing for the predictive influence of decent work and job trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.

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Table 6.42: Summary results for the influence of decent work and job trust hypotheses.

	Description (Null Hypothesis)	Test Statistic	*p*-value	Decision
$H4_0$	Decent work does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	$\beta_{m1} = 0.472$	$p = <0.0001$*	Reject
		$\beta_{m2} = 0.612$	$p = 0.001$*	Reject
$H5_0$	Trust does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	$\beta_{m1} = 0.223$	$p = 0.002$*	Reject
		$\beta_{m2} = 0.325$	$p = 0.001$*	Reject
$H6_0$	Decent work does not significantly influence work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province.	$\beta_{m1} = 0.188$	$p = 0.012$*	Reject
		$\beta_{m2} = 0.204$	$p = 0.004$*	Reject

(*) Statistically significant effects. Standardised estimations of the structural default models are represented by the beta coefficients.

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scenario represents a form complementary partial mediation. There is enough statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis and infer that decent work significantly mediates the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement since the indirect effect is significant.

Table 6.43: Mediation effects and respective path estimates to determine the mediating role of decent work on the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement.

Path and Effects	Beta Estimates		Bias and Bias-Corrected 90% Confidence Interval			*p*-value
	Estimate	SE	Bias	Lower	Upper	
Specific Direct Effects						
DW ← EWI (X)	-0.519	0.043	0.000	-0.586	-0.446	<0.0001*
EE (Y) ← DW (M)	0.188	0.074	0.001	0.063	0.307	0.012*
EE (Y) ← EWI (X)	-0.248	0.061	-0.003	-0.344	-0.145	0.001*
Total Effect						
	-0.394	0.070	-0.006	-0.506	-0.278	0.001*
Indirect Effect						
EWI (X) → DW (M) → EE	-0.111	0.048	-0.002	-0.195	-0.038	0.011*

(*) Statistically significant effects. S.E. is the standard error for the respective estimates. The table presents the bias-corrected 90% confidence intervals using 5000 replications. Independent variable (X): Experienced workplace incivility (EWI). Dependent variable (Y): Work engagement (EE).Mediator variable (M): Decent work (DW).

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Hypothesis 7b: The mediating effect of decent work on the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement

H7b$_0$: Decent work does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.

H7b$_1$: Decent work does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.

In order to determine whether decent work significantly mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement structural model 2 was utilised. The

mediation effects and respective beta estimates to determine the mediating role of decent work on the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement are presented in Table 6.44. Assessing the regression estimates, instigated workplace incivility had a significant, direct and negative effect on decent work (β = -0.148; SE = 0.046; 90% CI [-0.225, -0.075]; p = 0.002). Furthermore, decent work had a significant, direct but positive effect on work engagement (β = 0.205; SE = 0.069; 90% CI [0.089, 0.315]; p = 0.004). When controlling for decent work, the findings showed that instigated workplace incivility had a negative and significant influence on work engagement (β = -0.335; SE = 0.053; 90% CI [-0.422, -0.245]; p = 0.001). Further, the total effect of instigated workplace incivility on work engagement is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.630; SE = 0.111; 90% CI [-0.829, -0.463]; p = 0.001). The indirect effect was looked at in order to determine the mediating role of decent work. The indirect effect was shown to be statistically significant and negative based on the results (β = -0.052; SE = 0.025; 90% CI [-0.106, -0.021]; p = 0.002). This is a case of a complementary partial mediation since the direct effect (β = -0.148) and indirect effect (β = -0.052) point in the same negative direction. Given the significant indirect effect, there is compelling statistical evidence is available to refute the null hypothesis and affirm that decent work plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.

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Table 6.44: Mediation effects and respective path estimates to determine the mediating role of decent work on the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement.

Path and Effects	Beta Estimates		Bias and Bias-Corrected 90% Confidence Interval			*p*-value
	Estimate	SE	Bias	Lower	Upper	
Specific Direct Effects						
DW ← IWI (X)	-0.148	0.046	0.000	-0.225	-0.075	0.002*
EE (Y) ← DW (M)	0.205	0.069	0.000	0.089	0.315	0.004*
EE (Y) ← IWI (X)	-0.335	0.053	-0.002	-0.422	-0.245	0.001*
Total Effect						
	-0.630	0.111	-0.005	-0.829	-0.463	<0.0001*
Indirect Effect						
IWI (X) → DW (M) → EE	-0.052	0.025	0.000	-0.106	-0.021	0.002*

(*) Statistically significant effects. S.E. is the standard error for the respective estimates. The table presents the bias-corrected 90% confidence intervals using 5000 replications. Independent variable (X): Instigated workplace incivility (IWI). Dependent variable (Y): Work engagement (EE). Mediator variable (M): Decent work (DW).

6.7.8 Hypothesis 8a: The mediating effect of job trust on the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement

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H8a$_0$: Trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement.

H8a$_1$: Trust significantly mediates the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement.

Model 1 was also used to assess whether job trust significantly mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement. Table 6.45 shows the mediation effects and respective beta estimates to determine the mediating role of job trust on the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement. Examining the beta estimates, experienced workplace incivility had a significant, direct and negative effect on job trust (β = -0.254; SE = 0.053; 90% CI [-0.343, -0.169]; p = <0.0001). On the contrary, job trust had a significant, direct but positive effect on work engagement (β = 0.223; SE =

0.066; 90% CI [0.114, 0.329]; p = 0.002). While controlling for job trust, the results indicated that experienced workplace incivility had a negative and significant influence on work engagement (β = -0.248; SE = 0.061; 90% CI [-0.344, -0.145], p = 0.001). Further, the total effect of experienced workplace incivility on work engagement is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.347; SE = 0.071; 90% CI [-0.463, -0.233]; p = <0.0001). The indirect effect was looked at in order to determine the mediating role of job trust. The indirect effect was shown to be statistically significant and negative based on the results (β = -0.064; SE = 0.023; 90% CI [-0.109, -0.032]; p = 0.001). The direct effect and the indirect effect both point in the same negative direction, making this a case of complimentary partial mediation. There is sufficient statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis and come to the conclusion that job trust plays a major mediating role in the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement since the indirect effect is statistically significant.

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Table 6.45: Mediation effects and respective path estimates to determine the mediating role of job trust on the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement.

Path and Effects	Beta Estimates		Bias and Bias-Corrected 90% Confidence Interval			*p*-value
	Estimate	SE	Bias	Lower	Upper	
Specific Direct Effects						
JT (M) ← EWI (X)	-0.254	0.053	-0.001	-0.343	-0.169	<0.0001*
EE (Y) ← JT (M)	0.223	0.066	-0.001	0.114	0.329	0.002*
EE (Y) ← EWI (X)	-0.248	0.061	-0.003	-0.344	-0.145	0.001*
Total Effect						
	-0.347	0.071	-0.004	-0.463	-0.233	<0.0001*
Indirect Effect						
EWI (X) → JT (M) → EE (Y)	-0.064	0.023	0.000	-0.109	-0.032	0.001*

(*) Statistically significant effects. S.E. is the standard error for the respective estimates. The table presents the bias-corrected 90% confidence intervals using 5000 replications. Independent variable (X): Experienced workplace incivility (EWI). Dependent variable (Y): Work engagement (EE). Mediator variable (M): Job Trust (JT).

Hypothesis 8b: The mediating effect of job trust on the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement

H8b$_0$: Trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.

H8b$_1$: Trust significantly mediates the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.

In order to establish whether job trust significantly mediates the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement structural model 2 was utilized. The mediation effects and respective beta estimates for establishing the mediating role of job trust on the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement are presented in Table 6.46. Examining the beta estimates, instigated workplace incivility had no significant and direct effect on job trust (β = 0.060; SE = 0.046; 90% CI [-0.016, 0.135]; p = 0.199). Conversely, job trust had a significant, direct and positive effect on work engagement (β = 0.325; SE = 0.061; 90% CI [0.219, 0.422], p = 0.001). When controlling for job trust, the findings showed that instigated workplace incivility had a negative and significant influence on work engagement (β = -0.335; SE = 0.053; 90% CI [-0.422, -0.245]; p = 0.001). Further, the total effect of instigated workplace incivility on work engagement is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.544, 90% CI [-0.735, -0.375], p = <0.0001). The indirect effect was looked at in order to determine the mediating role of job trust. The indirect effect was not statistically significant, according to the findings (β = 0.034; SE = 0.028; 90% CI [-0.007, 0.084]; p = 0.169). There is enough statistical evidence to support the conclusion that job trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement, even though the indirect effect is not statistically significant.

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Table 6.46: Mediation effects and respective path estimates to determine the mediating role of job trust on the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and work engagement.

Path and Effects	Beta Estimates		Bias and Bias-Corrected 90% Confidence Interval			*p*-value
	Estimate	SE	Bias	Lower	Upper	
Specific Direct Effects						
JT (M) ← IWI (X)	0.060	0.046	0.001	-0.016	0.135	0.199
EE (Y) ← JT (M)	0.325	0.061	0.002	0.219	0.422	0.001*
EE (Y) ← IWI (X)	-0.335	0.053	-0.002	-0.422	-0.245	0.001*
Total Effect						
	-0.544	0.110	-0.004	-0.735	-0.375	<0.0001*
Indirect Effect						
IWI (X) → JT (M) → WE (Y)	0.034	0.028	0.001	-0.007	0.084	0.169

(*) Statistically significant effects. S.E. is the standard error for the respective estimates. The table presents the bias-corrected 90% confidence intervals using 5000 replications. Independent variable (X): Instigated workplace incivility (IWI). Dependent variable (Y): Work engagement (WE). Mediator variable (M): Job Trust (JT).

Table 6.47 shows the summary results of the mediating effects of decent work and job trust on the relationship between experienced and instigated workplace incivility and work engagement.

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Table 6.47: Summary results for the mediating effect hypotheses.

	Description (Null Hypothesis)	Test Statistic	*p*-value	Decision
H7a$_0$	Decent work does not significantly mediate the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement.	β = -0.111	*p* = 0.011*	Reject
H7b$_0$	Decent work does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement.	β = -0.052	*p* = 0.002*	Reject
H8a$_0$	Trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement.	β = -0.064	*p* = 0.001*	Reject
H8b$_0$	Trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement	β = 0.034	*p* = 0.169	Accept

(*) Statistically significant effects. Standardised estimations of the structural default models are represented by the beta coefficien

CHAPTER SEVEN: STUDY'S RESULTS DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This study aimed to investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. This section gives an analysis of the major outcomes of this research concerning the hypotheses and existing study's discoveries while making a comparison to the literature from previous chapters. The main empirical findings of this research are interpreted based on the study's aim and objectives. The biographical data of respondents is also discussed in this section as well as some of the mean comparisons of major theoretical variables by demographic characteristics in the study. The biographical information of the respondents is explained in the section that follows.

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7.2 Biographical distribution of respondents

Most of the respondents were Black Africans, with females being well represented alongside males within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. As evident in this finding, the high proportion of female respondents in this survey indicates that the Eastern Cape local government complies with the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998), which seeks to encourage equal opportunity and fair treatment in the workplace by doing away with unfair discrimination (Mkhize, 2023). In line with the findings, Chaudhary et al. (2022) added that diversity should be embraced in the workplace and all employees should be treated with dignity and respect regardless of their age, race, or personality background. Furthermore, most employees fall between the ages of 35-44 years with most of them holding a university bachelor's degree Also, the majority of these employees are full-time general staff who work on a salary level of between 6-9 in the municipality and most of these municipal workers' tenure of office lies between 1-5 years.

7.3 Relationships of theoretical Variables with demographic characteristics

7.3.1. Gender

There was a significant difference between males and females who experienced workplace incivility with males reporting higher levels than females. This could be as a result of males alleged elevated social standing and their intolerant attitude toward rude behaviour in the workplace. This supports the results of previous studies (Lim & Lee, 2011; Chaudhary et al., 2022), which revealed that men tend to report more frequent experiences of incivility compared to women. However, this result contradicts the findings of Cortina et al. (2001) who reported that women report more uncivil encounters than men. Even though the South African local government has a history of unfair discrimination of women in the workplace, the tide appears to be turning. With respect to work engagement, instigated grind incivility and decent work, there were no significant differences between the gender.

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7.3.2 Ethnicity

The perceived levels for work engagement, experienced work incivility, decent work and job trust were not significantly different between the different ethnic groups within the Eastern Cape local government. However, there were statistically significant differences in the ethnicity of respondents with Blacks and Whites having low perceived levels of instigated workplace incivility while Coloureds had the high levels of instigated workplace incivility. This result aligns with Cortina's (2008) argument that employees may experience differential targeting of incivility based on their gender or race, leading to varied work environments across social groups. Moreover, Chaudhary et al. (2022) added that selective incivility that is directed toward certain races in the workplace is considered as a subtle form of distinguished modern discrimination.

7.3.3 Educational qualifications

Assessing the perceived mean levels of the theoretical variables by educational qualifications, showed statistically significant differences in educational qualifications with respect to the perceived mean levels of experienced workplace incivility as well as instigated workplace incivility. Individuals with a post-graduate degree reported the highest level of perceived experienced workplace incivility followed by individuals with degrees. In terms of instigated workplace incivility, the higher the educational qualifications the higher the perceived instigated workplace incivility. Both of these findings contrast with MacLennan's (2015) results, which indicated that employees with the highest level of education reported the lowest occurrences of incivility within the organisation. The results differ from the existing literature due to contextual differences and sample characteristics. For example, while MacLennan's study focused on property managers across the United States, the current findings are based on the South African local government context. This reflects unique challenges and social dynamics that shape how employees perceive and experience incivility. Also, individuals with higher educational qualifications may have different expectations regarding professional behavior and workplace interactions, increasing their likelihood of perceiving incivility. Other contributing factors may include their roles and responsibilities, which set them apart from their peers, as well as professional envy, competition, or challenges to their decision-making authority. This may be probably due to the fact that as employees are attaining higher educational training, they develop a progressive mentality and self-esteem (Chaudhary et al., 2022).

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7.3.4 Employment status

The perceived mean levels for experienced workplace incivility and job trust were not significantly different with respect to employment status. This is contrary to statistically significant differences for work engagement, instigated workplace incivility and decent work

with respect to employment status. The grouping for the Kruskal-Wallis post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveals that full-time and contract employees had significantly higher mean levels of work engagement and job trust as compared to part-time employees. In line with this result, Khawaja & Ahmed (2021) confirmed that permanent employees express trust in the top management, supervisor, and co-workers enhanced work engagement in the form of vigour, dedication, and absorption at work than none-permanent staff.

On the other hand, the post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed that the perceived mean levels for instigated workplace incivility were significantly higher among part-time employees compared to full-time and contract employees. This finding contrasts with previous studies that suggested permanent top-level employees exhibit more uncivil behaviours compared to part-time employees (Pearson et al., 2000). The increased incidence of workplace incivility among part-time employees may be attributed to their low morale and lack of self-esteem since they are not fully absorbed in the Eastern Cape Province local government.

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7.3.5. Years of service

Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that the mean levels for decent work and job trust were not significantly different with respect to the number of years of service. On the contrary, the mean levels for work engagement, experienced workplace incivility and instigated workplace incivility were significantly different with respect to the number of years of service. Employees with one to five years of service were significantly the highest whilst those with more than sixteen years of service had the lowest levels of perceived work engagement. These findings indicate that employees with fewer years of service may exhibit higher levels of work engagement, which could be due to factors such as enthusiasm, motivation, and a sense of novelty or excitement in their roles (Kwon & Kim, 2020). On the other hand, employees with longer tenures might experience reduced levels of work engagement over time, potentially due

to factors like burnout, decreased job satisfaction, or a lack of new challenges (Rastogi et al., 2018).

In terms of experience and instigated workplace incivility, employees with more years of service had higher perceived mean levels as compared to those with fewer years of service. This result contrasts with Schilpzand et al. (2016) finding that suggested that as employees spend more years and time at work, it increases socialisation and job satisfaction which could potentially reduce the likelihood of engaging in workplace incivility. These differences may stem from variations in organisational culture and environment in the two contexts, which can greatly influence perceptions of workplace incivility. For instance, in this context, employees with more years of service may hold positions of authority, making them more likely to both experience and instigate workplace incivility due to power dynamics, professional conflicts, or resistance of change from others. As well, employees with longer tenures may face accumulated stress, fatigue, and organisational changes over time which could lead to feelings of frustration, reduced patience, and a higher likelihood of engaging in incivility. Hence employees with more years of service are less likely to instigate as well as experience uncivil behaviours at work than those with fewer years.

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7.3.6. Salary level

Work engagement, experienced workplace incivility, decent work and job trust were significantly different with respect to the salary levels of employees within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. The grouping for the post-hoc pairwise comparisons reveals that those with salary levels 14 to 19 reported significantly higher levels of perceived work engagement followed by those with salary levels greater than 19. Building upon this findings, Navajas-Romero et al., (2019) confirmed that a positive decent working environment enhances suitable working conditions, quality of life, and health care and decreases the poverty rate.

In terms of experienced workplace incivility, employees with salary levels above level 19 had significantly higher mean levels of perceived experienced workplace incivility. In line with this finding, McIlveen et al. (2021) concur that unsafe working conditions that are saturated with unfair pay, inadequate time and rest, and conflicting work values, will stimulate incivility among employees through withdrawal behaviour. Further, post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed that those with salary levels 10 to 13 and 14 to 19 reported significantly higher mean levels for decent work. Employees within the 14 to 19 salary level had significantly higher mean levels of job trust whilst those within the 1 to 5 and greater than 19 salary levels had the least mean levels.

7.4 HYPOTHESIZED FRAMEWORKS FROM CONCEPTUAL AND STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELS

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The significance of the direct influence between variables was established through the significance of the respective path coefficients. Furthermore, the mediation effects were assessed using the significance of the indirect effects through the use of a bootstrap procedure. Two models were used for this section. Model 1 (Figure 6.22), was used to assess the hypotheses in the presence of experienced workplace incivility. Model 2 (Figure 6.23), was used to assess the hypotheses in the presence of instigated workplace incivility.

7.4.1 Effects of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Decent Work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province

7.4.1.2 The influence of experienced incivility on decent work

The results reveal at a 5% level of significance, there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis in support of the alternative hypothesis and reach a conclusion that experienced workplace incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. In essence, the results show that, when employees are

subjected to experienced workplace incivility, this undermines their experience of decent work and has detrimental effects on various dimensions of their work environment. The research finding is supported by significant evidence which suggests that the ability of workers to feel safe and secure in their work environment is an important aspect of decent work which is often affected by incivility leading to a hostile work environment thus undermining decent work (Rasool et al., 2019). Although the ILO (2022) stipulates that workers should have workplace security and social protection for families, Koon & Pon (2018) posit that experienced workplace incivility leads to an unsatisfactory social environment, unclear job roles, and high work pressure in the workplace which negatively impact decent work. Indeed, incivility erodes employees' sense of security and undermines the ability of workers to experience decent work. Pu et al. (2021) added that the major causes of workplace incivility are high job demand, high job insecurity, anger, lack of cooperation, and changes that organisations experience such as downsizing.

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The results are further supported by Lout et al. (2022) whose study argues that although decent work implies equal treatment for both women and men, incivility can lead to discrimination and unequal treatment. For instance, Cortina et al. (2013) showed that women and minorities are more probable to experience workplace incivility, while this finding from Lim and Lee, (2011) and Chaudhary et al. (2022) asserts that men report higher experiences of incivility at higher rates than women. Duffy et al. (2016) confirmed that the increased level of marginalisation decreases the ability of individuals to secure decent work in the workplace. Generally, workers who experience incivility from coworkers or superiors are prone to view their workplace as toxic, resulting in reduced job satisfaction and increased intentions to leave, which ultimately undermines decent work (Cortina et al., 2001; Fida et al., 2018).

Moreover, in support of this finding, Duffy et al. (2016) expound that the conceptualisation of decent work specifies that it offers improved opportunities for personal growth and social

integration, but nevertheless, incivility interrupts this by leading to social isolation, which undermines this aspect of decent work. This result adds to that of Pearson et al. (2005) who found that workers who experience incivility are less likely to participate in work-related social activities and often have lower levels of job satisfaction. This result further adds to the findings of Zivnuska et al. (2020) who found that engaging in incivility aggression negatively impacts mood evident through negative affect and high psychological distress toward work. All these decrease decent work and personal well-being on the performance of all employees in the organisation.

Experienced incivility is significantly associated with all forms of counterproductive behaviours in the workplace such as withdrawal and deviance (Welbourne & Sariol, 2017; Han et al., 2022). Using the decent work scale (DWS), Buyukgoze-Kavas & Autin (2019) found the different dimensions of decent work predict withdrawal intentions among employees as a result of incivility. Studies that have investigated the relationship between experienced incivility and decent work found that experienced incivility was positively associated with turnover intentions but negatively associated with perceived job control (Shoss et al., 2016; Riadi & Tricahyadinata, 2019). This result is further supported by findings from Budnick & Barber, (2015) who argue that the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and decent work has been described as a vicious circle (Budnick & Barber, 2015) where the outcome of incivility on work is projected into employees' personal life and vice versa. For example, an employee who has disturbed sleep patterns as a result of the experiences of workplace incivility, will mostly have difficulties the next day on the job in processing and performing their tasks or even interpreting given information and thus be prone to make poorer work decisions (Budnick & Barber, 2015). This result further explains and considers experienced workplace incivility as a hindrance to decent work, as it has very negative effects on employees such as high emotional fatigue, high burnout, low organisational commitment, low work commitment

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levels, low work performance, high turnover intention, and poor employee well-being (Chen & Wang, 2019; Srivastava et al., 2023). However, most of these authors only looked at some facets of decent work in relation to experienced workplace incivility and not all the five elements of decent work, which this study did. This study is the first of its kind that tests the joined constructs of experienced workplace incivility and decent work, as far as the researcher is aware. Thus, although this finding is negative, it is still providing new insight into the field of organisational psychology by indicating a significant effect of experienced workplace incivility on decent work. The study further suggests that important work characteristics such as social support, interdependence, good working conditions, and individual affectivity could be used to counteract experienced workplace incivility.

7.4.1.2. The influence of instigated incivility on decent work

The results illustrate that instigated workplace incivility significantly influences decent work among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. In essence, when there is high instigated workplace incivility among employees, this negatively affects decent work. The result revealed that instigated workplace incivility is characterized by intentional and deliberate acts of disrespect, rudeness, or mistreatment, which has very detrimental consequences for the work environment and employees' experience of decent work. The result is buttressed by evidence from Umičević et al. (2021) who posited that instigated workplace incivility causes a spike in mental illness among young employees conducting insecure types of work and causes costly changes to the entire organisations environment (Khalid et al., 2022). Support from Raza et al. (2022) shows that instigated workplace incivility stimulates some form of a lose-lose situation for every employee involved in these acts. For example, employees who are targets or instigators of workplace incivility suffer from poor attitudes and behavioural outcomes such

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as withdrawing from work, poor performance and creativity, high-stress levels and emotional exhaustion, and poor health and well-being (Miner et al., 2019).

Emirza & Öztürk, (2022) added that instigators who are caught carrying out incivility acts in the workplace suffer from negative outcomes from other employees such as distrust and exclusion. All these violate physical and psychological safety at work (Duffy, 2017) and thus, the inability of workers to experience decent work. Instigated incivility undermines these conditions by creating a culture of disrespect and fear, where workers feel undervalued and mistreated. This can lead to increased stress, anxiety, and depression, which can further exacerbate the negative impact of incivility on decent work.

In the same vein, Kowalski et al. (2018) supported that, instigated incivility influences pressure from the organisation which affects decent work in the form of budget cuts, high workforce diversity, high changes to part-time work, changes in management, and high implementation of technology to monitor employee productivity. Workplace incivility causes the wrongful expression of anger, stress, high job insecurity, high workload, and poor work in organisations (Ahmad, 2019). Hence, instigated incivility causes aggressive working conditions which negatively impact the safety and security of employees in that workplace, as such inhibiting decent work.

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Furthermore, findings from Rawat et al., (2019) show that instigated workplace incivility negatively impacts the ability of workers to experience fairness in the workplace which is a facet of decent work. For example, Wasti and Erdas (2019) uncivil behaviours, such as disrespectful comments, exclusion, or undermining someone's contributions, violate the norms of mutual respect and dignity in the workplace. This can lead to a hostile work environment, where employees perceive a lack of fairness, trust, and social support, which are essential components of decent work. Also, in line with the study findings, Lim & Teo (2009), indicated

that instigated workplace incivility is associated with decreased job satisfaction, reduced organisational commitment, and high job turnover intention. This affects organisational performance by decreasing profitability for businesses that affect employees' compensation through low bonuses, promotions, and salaries thereby affecting decent work. (Koon & Pun, 2018).

Consistent with this finding, a study conducted by Sakurai (2021) found that changes in working hours in the workplace positively predicted changes in co-worker incivility, which impacts decent work. In addition, Pearson and Porath (2005) posited that an increase in time spent in the workplace might induce employees to be less polite in their interpersonal behaviour. This is because the increase in time increases feelings of frustration and stimulates aggressive urge that interrupts employees' achievement of desirable personal or social goals (Sakurai, 2021). Poor work-life balance and low job satisfaction decrease organisational commitment and are marked by an increase in turnover intentions which decreases the decent working conditions of employees (Chaudhary et al., 2022). This finding adds to the finding of Aquino et al. (2006) who found that instigated incivility is related with low job satisfaction and high intentions to leave the organisation which affects some aspects of decent work. On the other hand, Park & Martinez (2022) found that employees who perceived their organisation as providing a supportive work environment were less likely to experience instigated incivility. However, most of these authors only looked at some facets of decent work in relation to experienced workplace incivility and not all the five dimensions of decent work, which this study did. As far as the investigator is aware, this research is the first one of its kind in examining the combined constructs of experienced workplace incivility and decent work. Thus, the influence of instigated workplace incivility on decent work has been fully covered in this study.

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7.4.2 Impacts of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Job Trust.

7.4.2.1 The influence of experienced incivility on job trust

Based on the statistical evidence here, the null hypothesis is rejected and a conclusion is drawn that the presence of experienced incivility significantly influences trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The results indicate that when employees are targets of incivility in the workplace, they tend to question the intentions of other workers in the organisation, leading to a lack of trust. In support of this finding, Zivnuska et al., (2020) found that engaging in acts of incivility aggression brings about mood detraction which results in a host of negative effects such as low trust, low engagement behaviours, low performance, and high turnover intention. Acts of incivility are all forms of negative deviant behaviour that violate workplace norms and bring about a decline in engagement and trust (De Stefano et al., 2020). When instigators and targets of incivility work in the same organisation, targets might have difficulties avoiding or confronting instigators of such rude behaviours (Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010). This causes targets of this discourteous behaviour to wonder why such behaviour is tolerated in the workplace and thus leading to distrust against members of the organisation.

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In addition, victims of incivility mostly encounter negative affective and cognitive issues in the workplace, in other words, they worry about any possible interactions in the future with instigators (Rawat et al., 2019). Thus, victims of uncivil behaviours have high levels of distrust as compared to non-victims and will tend to be perceived by perpetrators of incivility as being vulnerable (Karim et al., 2015). Notably, the social exchange theory agrees to these findings by confirming that encountering workplace incivility disrupts employees fundamental social exchange (Blau, 1964). In addition, this experience of incivility violates the norms for respectful workplace treatment (Han et al., 2022) which affects employees' interpersonal trust, organisational perceive support, and good expectations. Indeed, the experience of incivility in

the workplace is associated with several interpersonal, exchange-based negative reactions, such as low trust, low job satisfaction, and commitment (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Han et al., 2022).

The theoretical model of workplace aggression posits that interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace is associated with affective response or trust (Barling, 1996; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010). The experience of incivility aggression in working organisations results in emotional consequences such as distrust and fear, which has a huge impact on employee's well-being and job satisfaction. Employees who suffer from incivility in the workplace are more probable of reducing their work efforts, organisational commitment, and hours spent at work which has a high implication on trust and organisational performance (Schilpzand et al., 2016). However, in contrast to this finding, Rawat et al. (2019) found that in organisations where there is a strong bond of trust binding colleagues and supervisors, there is bound to be low workplace incivility or high civil behaviour being experienced. Authors in the literature have not really digested the influence of experience workplace incivility on job trust which this study has done. Thus, this new finding will bring contribution to both the field of experienced workplace incivility and job trust.

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7.4.2.2 The influence of instigated incivility on job trust

Results of this study show that the presence of instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The results imply that employees who trust their organisation and colleagues are more likely to be engaged, collaborate, and contribute to their fullest potential, as such may not be affected by instigating workplace incivility. In support of this finding Jawahar & Schreurs (2018) found that employees with low trust in their supervisors are less likely to be affected by incivility because they do not expect any form of favourable treatment from their supervisor. The reasoning here is that there is a high chance of employees experiencing trust violation in ways of uncivil behaviour and hence their work engagement is less likely to be affected by trust (Jawahar &

Schreurs, 2018). Rawat et al. (2019) added that in organisations where there is a strong bond of trust binding colleagues and supervisors in their various workplaces' low workplace incivility or high civil behaviour will be experienced. Generally, it is expected that repeated incidents of incivility would undermine trust in the workplace, but trust is often built on mutual respect, fairness, and positive interactions, which may not be easily eroded by workplace incivility.

Contrary to the results, Arshad and Ismail (2018) found that incivility has a significant negative influence on trust, which affects both the quality and quantity of knowledge sharing. Al-Hawari et al. (2019) concurred that when employees experience rudeness, impoliteness, sarcasm disrespect, and discrimination from both co-workers and supervisors, eventually this leads to low morale and trust. Cingöz & Kaplan (2015) corroborate with the findings of Baghini et al. (2014) and Thau et al. (2007) that workplace incivility has a significant effect on organisational trust.

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Moreover, employees' trust in their supervisors has an impact on their response toward instigated workplace incivility (Raza et al., 2020). Employees may tend to instigate workplace incivility when they do not trust their organisation's ability to handle certain processes in the organisations (e.g., lack of procedural justice and equity) (Raza et al., 2020). In this situation where employees perceive that their requirements are not being met by the organisation, decreases productivity and employees are prone to instigate uncivil behaviours. However, the authors confirming this finding did not show if there is a positive statistically significant relationship between the constructs of instigated workplace incivility and job trust. In contrast, this study has established a statistically significant relationship in this regard. Therefore, this study presents a novel discovery concerning the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and job trust, which is an area that has not been giving prior research attention.

7.4.3 The Effects of Experienced and Instigated Workplace Incivility on Employee Engagement

7.4.3.1 The influence of experienced incivility on work engagement

Focusing on the presence of experienced workplace incivility-to-work engagement path, the results reveal a negative and significant influence of the presence of experienced workplace incivility on work engagement. In essence, the results indicate that engaged employees care about their work and the performance of the organisation with the feeling that their efforts make a difference, but experienced workplace incivility negatively influences this great effort. The finding of this study is buttressed by research evidence from (Sohn et al., 2019) who found that incivility aggression has a significant negative impact on employees in working organisations leading to psychological problems, psycho-social issues, low performance-based outcomes, and low job engagement. Zivnuska et al. (2020) added that incivility whether verbal or non-verbal has a serious effect on employees in the workplace.

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Incivility is associated with poor performance and low levels of engagement compared to supportive work conditions (Sakuria & Jex, 2012). This is consistent with this study. The Job-Resource Model confirms that an abundance of job resources at work (such as supervisory support) is a catalyst that increases job engagement (Baker & Demerouti, 2007), but high levels of job demands (such as supervisory incivility) decrease employee engagement (Giumetti et al., 2013). Supervisory incivility refers to a subtle type of interpersonal mistreatment that gradually builds up mild stressors over time, impacting employees' emotional and cognitive resources (Giumetti et al., 2013). Hence, employees with experienced workplace incivility are emotionally drained resulting in decreased employee engagement.

Ford et al. (2016) attested to the fact that disengagement in the workplace is associated with physical withdrawal and high turnover from the workplace which results from workplace aggression (Grandey et al., 2007). Employees who perceive incivility at work have a greater

chance of developing mental health problems (Park et al., 2018). This is a result of low job satisfaction, low organisational citizenship behaviour, impaired performance, low productivity, high turnover intentions, lack of loyalty and employee trust, lack of job commitment and engagement, a sense of injustice, and conflict between work and family. Incivility causes employees to be less committed, and the withdrawal of efforts in work groups deters the achievement of set goals. These employees are more concerned with avoiding their perpetrators, as a result, decreases employee engagement (Gervasi et al., 2022). Madhan et al. (2022) posited that experiencing incivility in the workplace has been found to be associated with organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment, job involvement, and job engagement. Incivility causes employees to be less committed, and the withdrawal of efforts in work groups deters the achievement of set goals. These employees are more concerned with avoiding their perpetrators and, as a result, decrease employee engagement (Gervasi et al., 2022). This is further reinforced by Lim & Cortina (2005), who suggested that workplace incivility diminishes productivity, job commitment, and job engagement. Incivility from customers also negatively affects job demands, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and engagement (Jawahar & Schreurs, 2018).

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7.4.3.2 The influence of instigated incivility on work engagement

The result revealed that the beta estimate for the presence of instigated workplace incivility to work engagement path is negative and statistically significant (β = -0.335; SE = 0.053; 90% CI = [-0.422 – -0.245]; p = 0.001). Therefore, there is significant statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis and draw a conclusion that the presence of instigated incivility significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The results imply that instigated workplace incivility indeed has detrimental effects on employees' levels of engagement in the organisation. In cognizance of this finding, Wange & Chen (2020) found that workplace incivility decreases engagement and job performance

among employees in the hospitality industry. In addition, Tricahyadinata et al. (2020) conducted a study among computer company employees and found that incivility negatively predicts employee engagement. Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2023) argue that workplace incivility is an impolite behaviour instigated by colleagues against their peers with massive effects on employee engagement. Bibi and Karim (2013) found a positive relationship between incivility and employees' work withdrawal behaviour in the higher education sector. In fact, employees with low self-evaluation are more prone to suffer from acts of incivility or are more likely to perpetrate incivility acts in the workplace.

Research findings from Kowalski et al. (2018) confirmed that incivility creates a toxic organisational environment with severe and detrimental implications for individuals and organisations such as negative employee behaviour and unhealthy emotional state. In consistent with this finding, meta-analytic reviews associate incivility with poor organisational climate, task conflict, job stress, and substance abuse which result in poor working conditions and a lack of employee engagement among employees (Gaffney et al., 2019; Akram et al., 2022). Incivility which is perpetrated by supervisors has a high detrimental effect on employee self-worth, social identity, and social acceptance which increases a feeling of helplessness and isolation (Shin & Hur, 2020).

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More so, employees who experience incivility feel distressed, and their stress reduces performance and productivity at work, bringing about a lack of engagement among employees in the working organisation (Zhang et al., 2021). This has resulted in a greater portion of employees spending most of their lives at work, which significantly poses a threat to mental health, well-being, engagement, and productivity (Rantanen et al., 2020). Jawahar & Schreurs (2018) indicated that incivility in the workplace reduces the level of engagement, which affects job performance. However, findings from Adil et al. (2020) showed that a better way of stimulating engagement can be by decreasing the possible occurrence of workplace incivility.

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feel trusted and connected to commit to organisational goals. However, contrary to this finding, Braganza et al. (2021) argue that although decent work specifies employees' experiences of meaningful and suitable income, employment quality on employees' behavioural outcomes such as trust remains a growing concern in most working organisations.

Variables of employment relations such as job quality i.e. skills, pace, discretion, and autonomy) influence employees' well-being, wealth, physical health, mental health, and job trust (Findlay, 2016). As such, in the context of the organisation, good employment relationships influence decent work resulting in good work, productivity, and high performance driven by employee commitment and positive organisational outcomes or trust (Findlay et al., 2013). Bevan, (2012) also found that creating clarity about pay structures (which are at the heart of the employment relationship) and setting out shared values in an organisation builds trust. As such, pay structure transparency in organisations must be assessed regularly to increase employee job trust. Also, the findings of this study received collaborative support from (Bevan, 2012; Ehlers, 2020) who acknowledges that finding meaning in employees' work is key to organisational commitment and employee job trust which forms part of the strategic understanding around employment relationships in the organisation.

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A study by Clark, (2015) found that decent work (good work) are jobs that are characterized by: (1) good pay, (2) reasonable hours of work, (3) a promising future of promotional opportunities and job security, (4) work that is not exhausted, and safe work environment, (5) job autonomy and interpersonal relationships, which promote job trust. Kim and Kim (2022) found that decent work is positively related to the general satisfaction and supportive emotions that people have in their lives indicating positive psychological well-being, work fulfilment, and job trust. Snelgar & Venter (2013) affirm that in good working conditions, employees experience job satisfaction, high productivity, high performance, high efficiency, low levels of absenteeism, and low turnover will increase employee job trust. Employees offered adequate

compensation, suitable working conditions, workplace safety and security, access to healthcare, and work-life balance, have increased trust and performance among others without this offer (Aybas et al., 2022).

Consistent with this study's results, Cropanzano et al. *(*2007) revealed that several atmospheres of work such as the formal and psychological dimensions of labour relationships have been found to influence the level of trust among employees, which is an aspect of decent work. (Aybas et al., 2022; Kim & Kim, 2022) discovered that employees facing high work demands from the employer such as unreasonable and unreachable goals, high job duties, and long hours working, tend to experience negative outcomes, including job dissatisfaction, decreased performance, distrust, and reduced attention to their health and well-being. In addition, exposure to toxic working conditions, poor working procedures in an organisation, and poor work design could result in employees taking time off for sick leave and distrust (Bevan, 2012).

Therefore, for a climate of trust to be built in the organisation, leaders or managers in the organisation should provide information for employees to find meaning in their work which results in job trust. Thus, leaders should take on this responsibility by consistently communicating the organizational purpose in a manner that extends beyond financial value, embracing customer needs, and delivering social value to employees. However, looking into the previous literature, limited contributions have been received on the relationship between decent work and job trust. This finding has contributed to this fact with great statistically significant findings on such. The finding of this study further reveals that various employment quality and employment relationships (decent work) have a major statistically significant positive impact on job trust.

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7.4.5 The influence of job trust on work engagement.

Having tested the fifth hypothesis using the 1st and 2nd structural equation models, results from model 1 structural equation revealed that, the path for the predictive influence of job trust on work engagement is positive and statistically significant (β = 0.223; SE = 0.066; 90% CI = [0.114 – 0.329]; *p* = 0.002). Similarly, the model 2 structural equation showed that the path for the predictive influence of job trust on work engagement is also positive and statistically significant (β = 0.325; SE = 0.061; 90% CI = [0.219 – 0.422]; *p* = 0.001). Since both the beta parameters for the job trust-to-work engagement paths are positive and statistically significant, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, job trust significantly influences work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape Province. In essence, this result indicates that higher levels of job trust are associated with increased work engagement among employees. In support of this finding, Engelbrecht et al. (2017) found that one of the conditions that are vital in strengthening employee work engagement in the workplace is organisational trust. In the same vein, the study (Hashmi & Naqvi, 2012) demonstrated that the link between employee engagement and job trust is characterized by the belief that the organisational social context and employees' perceptions influence the relationship between the organisation and its employees. A study by Ugwa et al. (2014) investigated the effect of organisational trust on engagement in pharmaceutical companies and found that organisational trust is significantly related to engagement. As such employees turn to give back the good treatment that they received to their organisation of work in a fair manner through engagement (Ugwu et al., 2014). Hofmann et al. (2009) support the finding of this study by showing that public service employees such as nurses will not be willing to seek advice from their subordinates or experts if there is an absence of trust in the organisation.

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Moreover, Melhem & Al Qudah (2019) found that respect perceived by employees by their managers and felt trust, positively affects employee engagement. In addition, Buckley (2011)

in a study on the impact of downsizing on organisational trust, discovered that employees who experienced an increase in trust also reported a rise in work engagement levels in the organisation. Similarly, Wong et al. (2010) added that trust has a direct positive effect on work engagement. The author also emphasized that increased trust fosters a climate of active work engagement by facilitating the free exchange of knowledge, ideas, or information which results in an active work engagement climate for all employees. Thus, for public organisations such as the local government area, job trust an as a resource that shapes public employees' positive attitudes and behaviour (Hameduddin & Lee, 2019).

Working on technology service organisations to understand the role of engagement, psychological contract fulfilment, and trust Van den Heuvel et al. (2017) discover that a positive relationship exists between engagement and trust. Collaborative findings from (Bakker et al., 2014; Christian et al., 2011) found that engaged employees typically encounter more favourable working environments and are less likely to experience absenteeism due to illness or consider leaving their jobs. This promotes organisational citizenship behaviour and trust. Findings from Chughtai & Buckley (2008) and Lin (2010) which investigated the direct impact of organisational trust on work engagement demonstrated that having trust in organizations is a key factor that promotes engagement. For instance, when employees are contributing their support to an organisation, they need to be sure that their decision is the right one and expect that the organisation will reciprocate in the same manner, thereby supporting the social exchange theory. All of these evaluative decisions made by employees are a result of trust.

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There is a positive relationship between employee engagement and job trust. Therefore, trust in organisation is related to work engagement (Mulki et al., 2006; Agarwal, 2014; Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Organisational trust is thus the main influence on employee well-being especially through the work engagement of individuals (Acosta et al., 2012). Khawaja & Ahmed, (2021) concur with this finding by showing that there are three types of organisational

trust namely trust in management, trust in supervisor, and trust in coworkers. It is anticipated that each of these can indicate work engagement. Therefore, employees` level of trust in management, immediate supervisor, and co-workers acts as a major boost to positive results such as employee engagement (Nguyen et al., 2020). Branganza, (2021) added that highly engaged employees conduct high-intensity work for the organisation, and they experience more self-actualization and satisfaction with their working organisation (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017).

The findings of this study have significant implications for organisations, as they indicate that fostering a trusting work environment will result in increased levels of worker engagement. This finding contributes to past literature on the relationship between job trust and engagement especially in the public sector where responsibilities are carried out in a harmonious work environment. As such, employee engagement is crucial in solving the challenges affecting public employees in delivering appropriate services to the public. Indeed, top management and supervisors are encouraged to inculcate trust in the working environment by, facilitating subordinates, and encouraging and helping employees in work-related problem-solving. This enhances cooperation behaviour, organisational commitment, work engagement and employee loyalty within an organisation.

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7.4.6 The influence of decent work on work engagement

Having tested the decent work-to-work, engagement pathboth structural models showed that decent work has a significant and positive influence on work engagement among employees in the local government of Eastern Cape. In essence, the results indicated that when working conditions are decent, organisational performance is promoted through work engagement. This is buttressed by evidence from Kashyap & Arora, (2020) who admitted that decent work stimulates employee engagement and well-being and thus, contributes enormously to burnout reduction, decrease in stress at work, and work–family conflict among employees. Literature

from Navajas-Romero et al. (2019), adds that a decent working environment promotes dignified conditions of living. This develops value at both the individual and social levels and thus, decreases poverty and inequality while enhancing the quality of life and the health of the entire society.

Considering this study's results, McIlveen et al. (2021) found that well-equipped working conditions with suitable job resources such as good recovery time and psychological climate, good reward, and recognition are significantly linked to employee engagement. Lout et al. (2022) found that cooperative or collective is a great mechanism that advances decent work among employees. This is because cooperatives can enhance representation and engagement by implementing community-level grievance procedures. Additionally, Mokaya and Kipyegon (2014) suggest that various factors like pay, workplace recreation, personal development, growth possibilities, and performance management, have an effect on workers' work engagement. These emphasise individual employee management practices that stimulate supportive working conditions and employee engagement (Simpson, 2009; Navajas-Romero et al., 2019).

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In consistence with the study's results, prior study by Ferreira et al. (2019) found that vigour, dedication, and absorption of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale were predicted by the DWS's Safe Conditions and Values sub-scales. Ferraro et al. (2018a, 2019) supported the results of this study with an argument that decent work demonstrates a significant function in boosting employee's engagement. Specific findings from Ferraro et al. (2019) found that a positive association exist between decent work and work engagement among physicians. Similarly, these authors (May et al., 2004; Byrne et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2017) supported this finding with facts that decent work and employee engagement are both related to psychological meaningfulness, and meaningful work.

Based on DWS, “decent work scale” dimensions and various individual and organisational outcomes have found decent work” dimensions to be linked to work engagement (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2019; Allan et al., 2019). The findings are relatable to Garcia et al., (2004) who found that interpersonal safe working conditions are linked to work engagement in that, there exists a favourable correlation between an organisation's safety procedure and the safe work behaviours exhibited by employees. Sonnentag (2003) found that adequate rest periods have a positive impact on worker outcomes like work engagement and proactive behaviour. Anitha (2014) agrees with the results, pointing out that incentive and pay management programmes encourage workers to perform at a high level, which is also critical for improving workers' well-being and avoiding workplace conflict that could lower levels of engagement at work. Kashyap et al., (2021) added that factors such as access to healthcare and shared organisational values predict levels of work engagement. Gillet et al., (2019) showed that increase levels of satisfaction and health reduce stress among employees and turnover intentions thereby resulting in high engagement. When employees are provided with decent work practices, these would have a favourable impact on their assigned roles and produce favourable results, which contributes significantly to the benefit of the working organisation. However, it is worth noting that the specific factors within decent work and their impact on work engagement may vary across different work contexts such as South Africa given its culture, national economic terrain, and social issues within economies. Thus, the research results made a consensus that creating a work environment that promotes decent work positively influences work engagement among employees, thus promoting organisational performance.

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7.4.7 The mediation role of decent work on incivility aggression and employee engagement

7.4.7.1 The mediating effect of decent work on experienced incivility and work engagement

The outcome of the different statistical tests conducted on hypothesis 7a revealed that decent work significantly mediates the relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement. In essence, when employees have access to fair treatment, supportive policies, a safe environment, and other aspects of decent work, it may enhance their engagement with their work, despite experiencing incivility. These results are in line with those of Navajas-Romero et al. (2019) who suggested that securing work engagement through decent work causes sustainability, growth, and success in employees. This study's results build Kashyap et al. (2022) work which identifies that decent work is an essential job resource because, through its psychology of work theory, it provides employees with full meaning and purpose for work which enhances employee engagement. The author adds to this study's literature by stating that a positive decent working environment enhances suitable working conditions, quality of life, and health care which decreases the rate of poverty and increases engagement (Navajas-Romero et al., 2019).

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Sulea et al. (2012) supported the study with research which explored the mediating role of decent work in the relationship between negative workplace behaviors and employee engagement. Their findings demonstrated that job characteristics aligned with decent work principles helped mitigate the adverse effects of workplace aggression on employees' psychological well-being and work engagement. Decent work fosters resilience, psychological safety, and a sense of purpose, enabling employees to remain engaged despite challenging work environments. Employees in decent work environments exhibited higher resilience and engagement, even when exposed to occasional workplace incivility. Another study by Allan et

al. (2019) examined how the components of decent work, such as meaningfulness and fair treatment, moderate the effects of workplace stressors, including aggression. The study found that decent work conditions not only improved employee engagement but also acted as a buffer against disengagement caused by stress.

Contrarily to this finding, Hassan et al. (2024) conducted a study on the relationship between decent work and innovative work behavior among academic staff in higher education institutions, focusing on the mediating roles of work engagement and job self-efficacy. The results indicated that decent work predicted innovative work behavior only through the full mediation of work engagement. Additionally, decent work significantly influences job self-efficacy and work engagement. Job self-efficacy also played a critical role in fostering work engagement, acting as a mediating variable between decent work and work engagement.

Unlike the authors mentioned previously who did not examine a mediation model involving these three constructs in a single study, this study specifically investigated this aspect. This statistically significant mediation effect demonstrated by this finding is because when individuals perceive their work environment as decent, the negative relationship between experienced incivility and work engagement is weakened. Thus, decent work conditions can act as a protective factor, fostering employees' resilience and maintaining their engagement in the face of workplace incivility.

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7.4.7.2 The mediating effect of decent work on instigated incivility and work engagement

Based on the statistical outcome illustrated in **Chapter Six (i.e. section 6.7)** hypothesis 7b, the results revealed decent work significantly mediates the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement. Essentially, the results inferred that decent work conditions contribute to a positive work environment, promote psychological safety, and provide job

resources and support, which can help mitigate instigated incivility and enhance work engagement. This is a new mediation effect insight as existing literature does not examine such relationship effect.

Guo et al. (2020) investigated workplace incivility and its impact on work engagement, focusing on the mediating role of job insecurity and the moderating role of self-perceived employability. The findings revealed that workplace incivility negatively affected work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption). However, self-perceived employability weakened the negative effects of job insecurity on work engagement and moderated the mediating role of job insecurity in the relationship between workplace incivility and work engagement.

Rajak et al. (2023) explored the relationship between family incivility, employee engagement, and perceived supervisor support in the context of government schoolteachers in the Indian subcontinent. The study found that family incivility significantly decreased work engagement, as employees spent their time worrying and became less engaged compared to their peers. The research highlighted the importance of a supportive work environment and the role of supervisors in providing emotional support to employees facing family-related stressors. Likewise, Wang and Chen (2020) examined the relationships among workplace incivility, work engagement, and job performance. Their study revealed that both coworker and customer incivility reduced work engagement and job performance, with coworker incivility having a greater impact. Furthermore, work engagement positively influenced job performance. A study by Ugwu et al. (2022) discovered that supervisor positive gossip and workplace friendship prevalence moderate the negative relationship between customer incivility and work engagement, demonstrating that a supportive workplace culture can reduce the detrimental effects of incivility.

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Also, Guo et al. (2020) also conducted research on workplace incivility and work engagement, highlighting the chain mediating effects of perceived insider status, affective organisational commitment, and organisational identification. Their findings showed that workplace incivility reduced work engagement through these mediating factors. Integrating AET, the study suggested that moods significantly influence employees' work attitudes. Employees experiencing incivility, especially in local government settings, are more likely to experience emotional pressure, leading to the depletion of positive emotional resources. As a result, they may either reduce their work engagement or maintain what appears to be high engagement by suppressing their emotions.

Therefore, the statistically significant mediation effect of decent work on the relationship between instigated workplace incivility and employee engagement demonstrates that employees working in a psychologically safe work environment are more engaged in their work and psychologically available as such do not perpetrate workplace violence. Therefore, decent work mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement. The findings bring new insights into the field of decent work, incivility aggression and engagement.

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7.4.8 Mediation of Job trust mediates between incivility aggression and employee engagement.

7.4.8.1 Mediation of job trust on experienced incivility and work engagement

The outcome of the different statistical tests conducted on hypothesis **8a** showed that job trust significantly mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement. Basically, the results imply that indeed job trust can play a significant role in mediating the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement by mitigating the negative impact of incivility on employees' perceptions, interpretations, and emotional responses. In so doing, employees who possess increase power of trust in their

organisation and colleagues, may perceive experienced incivility as isolated incidents rather than representative of the overall work environment. Here, trusting employees may attribute such behaviour to individual factors rather than organisational norms, which helps to preserve their work engagement. This is because job trust provides employees with a sense of security and support, thereby enabling them to cope with workplace incivility more effectively. Consistent with the findings of this study Rahim and Cosby, (2016) found that trust plays a crucial role in the workplace, particularly in mitigating the adverse effects of incivility, which can lead to job-related burnout.

This finding supports the research of Guest (2017), who found that a high level of trust motivates positive employment relationships and well-being, thereby increasing engagement and performance. Hence, a trustful relationship among employees and between management and employees in any work setting increases performance while eradicating incivility in the workplace. However, these authors did not examine any mediation effect, making this a new mediation effect insight. This study's mediation effect adds to the study of Ghosh et al., (2013) who found that organisational trust mediates the relationship between work-group incivility and turnover intentions. This study also, builds on the findings of Miner-Rubino & Reed (2010) who found that trust mediates the link between targeted incivility in the workplace and outcomes of work which include the job satisfaction and engagement. Indeed, trust is a significant component that inculcates the overall relationships found in the organisation and when such a relationship is available then uncivil behaviours are eliminated. Hence, by fostering trust within the organisation, leaders can help employees maintain their engagement despite the presence of workplace incivility. In so doing, organisational trust and the availability of environmental working mechanisms motivate the achievement of organisational set goals and productivity.

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7.4.8.2 Mediation effect of job trust on instigated incivility and work engagement

Based on the statistical outcome illustrated in **Chapter Six (i.e. section 6.7)** hypothesis 8b found that job trust does not significantly mediate the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement. This implies the results did not find a significant mediation effect of job trust in the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement. The absence of mediation effects between instigated incivility and work engagement suggests that the theoretical relationship between perpetration of incivility and engagement may operate through mechanisms other than those studied here, such as guilt, cognitive dissonance, or social ostracism. This calls for further exploration of the psychological and organisational factors that influence the outcomes of instigated incivility.

In contrast to the findings of this study, Saleem et al. (2022) examined the relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance, focusing on the mediating role of trust in supervisors. Their findings revealed that trust in supervisors significantly mediates this relationship. This suggests that some employees maintain trust in their supervisors despite experiencing incivility, potentially due to the supervisors' other positive traits, such as competence, benevolence, and integrity (Afsar & Saeed, 2011). However, the incivility observed in such organiations might also stem from gaps in the supervisors' integrity. Hence, the mediation model was not supported for this study. From the researcher’s knowledge, there is presently insufficient scholarly work that corroborates this outcome, similar to what was demonstrated in this study through its mediation analysis. This appears to be the first of its kind in the field of organisational psychology testing such constructs.

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7.5 Conclusion

The current study investigated the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the Eastern Cape, local government. Noting from previous studies, no previous literature has combined these four constructs to determine their relationship in a single

study. The following results were found: (i) a negative and significant predictive effect of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work, (ii) experienced incivility significantly influences trust and instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust, (iii) experienced and instigated workplace incivility significantly influences work engagement, (iv) decent work significantly influences job trust, (v) job trust significantly influences work engagement, (vi) decent work has a significant and positive influence on work engagement, (vii) decent work significantly mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and work engagement, and (viii) trust significantly mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement, while interestingly, mediation does not exist in the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement. This study's objectives were met, concluding decent work and incivility aggression significantly affect employee engagement and job trust among employees within the Eastern Cape, local government. These findings have provided new insights into relationships, which allows this work to provide fresh research foundation and further building on present knowledge in the area of industrial psychology. These findings offer valuable insights into new relationships, enhancing this study's contribution to establishing a fresh foundation of research and advancing available knowledge within the discipline of organisational psychology

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CHAPTER EIGHT: IMPLICATIONS, FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter, as outlined in Chapter One, encapsulates the implications, contributions, future research recommendations, and conclusions drawn from the study's findings. It proposes practical suggestions based on the research outcomes that managers, employers, and stakeholders could implement to effectively manage the identified issues highlighted in this study. Lastly, the last chapter further reports on the research limitations and possible conclusions.

8.2. Overview of the Study

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The South African local government sphere is in a state of crisis, with employees being the most affected (Fihla & Chinyamurindi, 2018; Nyabvudzi & Chinyamurindi, 2019). The challenges faced by employees in the local government have a major impact on the method of providing services to the public, (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014), and these are often accompanied by violent service delivery protests (Masuku & Jili, 2019). This study is located within the local government wherein there is a need for further inquiry to understand and address those factors that affect public employees and influence the delivery of services to the public in the Eastern Cape Province (Ruzungunde et al., 2023; Thornhill & Van Dijik, 2018). With workplace incivility being one of the factors that affect the work of public employees (Slattery, 2019), this concept has not been sufficiently addressed in the African context particularly in South Africa (Ugwu et al., 2021). Incivility and decent work remain key to employee well-being, but very little is known about the framing of decent work, especially on the African continent (Kazimna et al., 2020). However, no previous literature has combined these four constructs in order to determine their relationship in a single study. Furthermore, only a few studies have been

undertaken within the realm of local government in this particular area, especially in the African context. Therefore, the study will investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa.

8.2.1. Secondary Objectives

- To investigate the effects of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work
- To determine the impacts of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on job trust.
- To examine the effects of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on employee engagement.
- To examine the relationship between decent work and employee job trust.
- To explore the relationship between job trust and employee engagement.
- To determine the relationship between decent work and employee engagement.
- To evaluate the extent to which decent work mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement.
- To examine the extent to which trust mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and employee engagement.

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To achieve the study's objectives as highlighted above, chapter two gave an overview of the following concepts, decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and employee job trust. The chapter also looked into the dimensions of the various variables in the study and their importance. Chapter three gave the theories grounding the study such as the psychology of working theory, affective event theory, job demand resource model and social exchange

theory. Chapter four elucidates the relationship between the study's variables which include decent work, incivility aggression, employee engagement, and job trust.

Chapter five presents that the study followed a quantitative research methodological choice coupled with a positivist and a deductive approach. The targeted population of the study is composed of all public employees in local municipalities Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality, Amathole District Municipality, Raymond Mhlaba Local Municipality, Alfred Nzo District Municipality, Chris Hani District Municipality, Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan Municipality. This study was exclusively carried out within the Eastern Cape local government. Convenience sampling was employed along with a questionnaire as the research tool. Prior to commencing data collection, a factor analysis was conducted to verify the reliability and validity of the research instrument, yielding dependable results. Data collection spanned over seven months and yielded 425 usable questionnaires, which were analyzed statistically with SPSS.

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Chapters six and seven provide the following findings: (i) a negative and significant predictive effect of experienced and instigated workplace incivility on decent work, (ii) experienced incivility significantly influences trust and instigated incivility does not significantly influence trust, (iii) experienced and instigated workplace incivility significantly influences work engagement, (iv) decent work significantly influences job trust, (v) job trust significantly influences work engagement, (vi) decent work has a significant and positive influence on work engagement, (vii) decent work significantly mediates the relationship between incivility aggression and work engagement, and (viii) trust significantly mediates the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and work engagement, while interestingly, mediation does not exist in the relationship between instigated incivility and work engagement. This study's objectives were met, concluding decent work and incivility aggression significantly affect employee engagement and job trust among employees within the Eastern

Cape, local government. These findings have revealed novel insights into relationships, allowing this research to add new foundational insight and further develop existing knowledge in the field of organisational psychology.

8.3. Implications of the study

8.3.1 Theoretical Implications

The results of this study have significant ramifications for social scientists and management researchers as well as practitioners of human resources. To begin with, the study's focus on the South African public sector particularly the local government, provides valuable contextual insights that expand existing theories predominantly developed in Western contexts. Literature indicates that there is noted neglect by researchers in paying enough attention to decent work, especially in the African context (Atitsogbe et al., 2021). The findings highlight the unique challenges and dynamics in developing economies, thereby advancing a more inclusive theoretical understanding of workplace incivility and its implications for decent work and employee outcomes.

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The current research contributed to the body of knowledge concerning the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the Eastern Cape, local government. The study’s findings support and extends existing theories on workplace incivility by providing empirical evidence of its detrimental effects, specifically in the context of the South African public service. Additionallly, the findings suggest that experienced incivility has a more pronounced effect on trust compared to instigated incivility. This nuanced distinction contributes to the understanding of incivility by highlighting the divergent pathways through which different forms of incivility impact workplace dynamics and outcomes. It also suggests a need for theoretical frameworks that account for the distinct roles of victim and perpetrator in shaping organizational trust and engagement.

Noting from previous literature, no previous literature has combined these four constructs in order to determine their relationship in a single study, thus highlighting the importance of the contribution made by this study. The findings affirm the interconnected nature of workplace incivility, decent work, trust, and engagement. This supports integrated theoretical models that view these constructs as part of a broader system influencing employee behavior and organisational effectiveness. The results provide evidence for the cascading effects of workplace experiences on employee engagement, emphasizing the systemic nature of workplace challenges. It is crucial to mention that, by examining how concepts such as decent work and respectful interactions intersect, the researcher has successfully contributed to theories related to organisational psychology, sociology, and management discipline such as those examined in chapter three and seven of the study.

In fact, the findings of the study align with existing theoretical models that emphasize the role of interpersonal trust in fostering positive organizational outcomes. The findings also extend the literature by demonstrating that trust at work can mitigate some of the adverse effects of experienced incivility on engagement, reinforcing its role as a protective factor. These findings have shed light on fresh perspectives on relationships, which has allowed this study to expand on previous research in the discipline of organisational behaviour, psychology and management and laid a new research basis.

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Similarly, the findings of this study highlight the theoretical importance of decent work as a foundational element for fostering employee well-being and productivity. This reinforces the International Labour Organization's (ILO) decent work agenda and emphasizes its relevance in addressing workplace challenges in developing economies. In the same line, the study extends the PWT, as established by Duffy et al. (2016), which underpins the concept of decent work, by highlighting the positive effects of decent work such as fair compensation, job security,

opportunities for advancement, and a supportive work environment in counteracting incivility aggression and positively influencing employee engagement and job trust.

Equally, this exploration has shed light on the complex interplay between organisational policies, workplace culture, and employee experiences, offering insights into how to promote a positive work environment while mitigating negative behaviours such as incivility. To further support, theoretical advancements in this area have informed the creation of interventions and policies designed to promote healthier practices in workplace relationships and improving overall job satisfaction and performance.

Finally, findings collectively contribute to the theoretical discourse by offering empirical support and expanding the application of existing frameworks in underexplored contexts such as the South African local government. The study emphasizes the need for organisations to adopt holistic strategies that address workplace incivility, promote decent work, and foster trust to enhance engagement and performance.

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8.4.2 Practical implications

The main practical outcome of this study involves accomplishing the overall research objective and developing a conceptual model. The findings of this investigation conclude that decent work and incivility aggression significantly affect employee engagement and job trust among employees within the Eastern Cape, local government. Consequently, incivility decreases job engagement and employee trust, and performance, disruptions in peers' relationships, inhibition of cooperation, as well as increasing turnover intentions towards the individual employee to whom it is directed (Zivnuska et al., 2020). However, the experience of decent work brings about feelings of job satisfaction and a greater sense of well-being (Ribeiro et al., 2016). Decent work promotes positive work relationships, fair treatment, and opportunities for skills development and career advancement. A good working environment that is furnished with both

physical and psychologically safe empowers employees to offer quality services in their various organisations of work. Drawing from the research findings and theoretical insights, this study offers practical guidance to the management of the Eastern Cape local government, human resource practitioners, and policymakers:

The Eastern local government should provide training, mentoring and coaching sessions on workplace etiquette, standards for respectful communication and interactions among employees in the workplace. These programs can help employees to better understand the impact of their uncivil behaviour on other employees and improve their interpersonal skills in the workplace. The Local government of Eastern Cape should foster a positive work culture that values respect, empathy, and cooperation. They should also recognize and reward positive work behaviour and contributions. As such, the Eastern Cape local government should also, develop and communicate clear guidelines for acceptable behaviours in the workplace and a zero-tolerance policy for workplace incivility. While all the necessary measures are put in place to make known these policies to employees and the consequences for violating them, to guard against the prevalence of incivility.

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Also, the top management in the Eastern Cape local government should do everything in its power to address incidences of incivility promptly and appropriately. They should always conduct thorough investigations of incivility complaints among employees and a potential proactive problem-solving action to resolve the workplace incivility situation should always follow.

Moreover, teamwork and collaboration should always be encouraged and emphasised among public employees in the Eastern Cape local government. Also, creating a peer network of support in the workplace could help employees feel more connected, valued, trusting, and engaging. This can help the boss and employee's job trust as well as engagement.

The research is also informing the management of Eastern Cape local government and policymakers, as well as practitioners to create a safe and comfortable physical environment where productivity work could be conducted. In addition, employees should be provided with fair compensation and access to suitable benefits.

The top management in the Eastern Cape local government should continuously promote a healthy work-life balance which has the ability of decreasing stress and enhance overall employee well-being. In situations of persistent workplace incivility problems in the workplace, the top management in the local government should consider seeking assistance from their HR professionals to identify and address the underlying cause.

This research also provides insights to organisational managers, the leadership of the Eastern Cape local government, policymakers, and other arms of government about the importance of embracing the principles of social exchange and showing genuine concern for employees' well-being to cultivate lasting relationships. Essentially, by treating employees with respect, organizations can foster higher levels of engagement and reduce incidents of workplace incivility and aggression.

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8.4.3. Policy Implications

Investigating the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes has several policy implications for organisations and policymakers. Here are some potential policy implications:

(i) Enforcing fair wages, job security, work-life balance, and career advancement opportunities are just a few of the policies that organisations such as the local government of the Eastern Cape should put into place and uphold in order to support decent work. This will help to reduce the possibility of rudeness and hostility behaviour by fostering a healthy work atmosphere where employees feel appreciated and respected.

(ii) Creating Anti-Incivility Policies: Employers need to set up explicit guidelines and processes for dealing with incivility aggression in the workplace. This could entail setting up procedures for reporting occurrences and settling disputes, as well as educating managers and employees on how to identify and deal with rude behaviour.

(iii) Establishing a Culture of Respect: Establishing a culture of civility and respect in the workplace should the local government of the Eastern Cape top priority. This will motivate open communication, empathy, and teamwork among their employees in addition to condemning actions that support an unfriendly workplace.

(iv) Training and Development Programs: Providing training and development programs for managers and employees on topics such as communication skills, emotional intelligence, and conflict resolution can help mitigate incivility aggression in the local government. These programs can empower individual employees to effectively navigate interpersonal dynamics and manage conflicts constructively.

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(v) Enforcement and Accountability: Organisations such as the Eastern Cape local government should ensure that policies related to decent work and workplace behaviour are consistently enforced and that employees who engage in incivility aggressive behaviour are held accountable for their actions. This might involve disciplinary measures, up to and including sanctions, for individuals who violate organisational policies.

(vi) Monitoring and Evaluation: Regular monitoring and evaluation of workplace dynamics, including employee satisfaction surveys and incident reports, can provide valuable insights into the effectiveness of policies and interventions aimed at addressing incivility and promoting decent work. The local government should use this feedback to continually refine their approaches and strategies.

8.4 Recommendations

The researcher provides actionable advice to the Eastern Cape local government, policymakers, human resource management professionals, and other organisational managers based on the implications brought to light by the findings as follows:

Based on the research findings on the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work in the Eastern Cape local government, the study recommends that the local government and other provincial and national governments should adopt decent work factors, such as supportive supervisors, fair compensation, and opportunities for growth, which can buffer the negative consequences of workplace incivility aggression on employees (Day & Leiter, 2014). The study suggests that acknowledging and rewarding positive behaviour, teamwork, and respectful communication reinforces employees to maintain respectful interactions. In addition, the local government should implement policies that promote a healthy balance between work and personal life, such as conducive hours working or hybrid working options where applicable.

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The local government should provide a suitable environment of work that is both physically and psychologically safe to empower employees to offer quality services to the entire public. Also, the local government should promote a positive organisational culture of leadership behaviour. This leadership should set a culture and grounds for clear organisational values, mission, and code of conduct that emphasize respect, collaboration, and open communication among employees in the local government.

However, the Eastern Cape local government and all other municipalities throughout the country should promote organisational justice. When employees trust their organisation's ability to handle certain processes in the organisations (e.g., procedural justice and equity) this will reduce acts of incivility among employees in the workplace. The Eastern Cape local government, along with other provincial and national governments, should embrace a social

exchange approach and demonstrate genuine care for employees' well-being and career growth to establish trust and foster enduring relationships with their workforce. With regards to the current study, social exchange theory demonstrates that employees expect fair, honest, respectful, and truthful treatment from their working organisation and, in return, will demonstrate positive actions through increased commitment to the organisation's objectives and goals and high employee job trust.

Nevertheless, the Job-Resource Model states that an abundance of job resources at work (such as supervisory support) should be adopted in the local government so as to increase job engagement (Baker & Demerouti, 2007). Supervisory support increases the emotional and cognitive resources of employees. Also, the local government should provide resources for employees to seek support, such as counselling or mentorship programmes, especially for those who are suffering from acts of incivility and aggression. Hence, this cultivate a more conducive environment where worker are more comfortable seeking help without any fear of retribution from others. Employees should be offered wellness initiatives such as health programmes, mindfulness activities, and stress management resources to help cope with the psychological and emotional effects of incivility. They should prioritise employees' mental and physical well-being.

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Furthermore, the local government should introduce educational and training programs that make available training sessions on communication skills, conflict resolution, and emotional intelligence to employees. Also, and campaign needs to be introduced in the local government that raises awareness about the impact of incivility on individuals and the organization. Additionally, the Eastern Local government needs to train its managers and employees in conflict resolution techniques to help them address issues of incivility aggression constructively. They should encourage parties involved in any act of incivility to talk privately to resolve problems before they escalate. Hence a regular check-ins schedule between managers and

employees to discuss challenges and provide guidance should be put in place. To address any signs of tension or incivility early to prevent escalation.

Moreover, practitioners and policymakers need to develop and implement clear policies and Procedures regarding workplace behaviour, including consequences for incivility aggression. Managers and other supervisors in the workplace need to put in place measure that notify employees of these policies and the reporting mechanisms available to them.

The Eastern Cape Local government should adopt a zero tolerance for acts of incivility aggression in the workplace: Implement a zero-tolerance policy for bullying, harassment, and any form of discrimination. Take swift and appropriate action when incidents occur, ensuring a fair investigation process. They should also establish a regular feedback channel for employees to express concerns or offer suggestions anonymously about their working conditions. Act on the feedback to demonstrate that the organization values employee input.

The Eastern Cape local government should create an upskilling programme that offers employees opportunities for skill development, training, and career advancement. This creates a decent work environment where employees feel that their growth is valued and supported by the organisation leading to more job trust and employee engagement. In addition, encouraging teamwork and collaboration through cross-functional projects and open sharing of ideas increases trust and engagement.

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Ultimately, this research sheds light on the impacts not only of incivility aggression but also underscores the critical role of intra-organizational activities and procedures in ensuring that the local government operates as efficiently as possible to provide the general public with adequate services.

8.5. Limitations of the study

To start with, based on the study's aims and objectives, the current research used a purely quantitative paradigm, which did not take into cognizance the perceptions and experience of the respondents through qualitative methodologies. Although some of the relationships in the hypotheses were supported by the research, it was not possible to understand why these relationships existed.

Furthermore, there were no open-ended questions on the research instrument; all of the questions were closed-ended, as such limiting inside to in-depth findings of the study while improving the likelihood of survey participation. Hence, the future combine studies on decent work, incivility aggression, employee job trust and employee engagement among employees should embrace a qualitative approach in order to observe for potential modifications in the variables being examined.

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Due to the fact that the data was collected among public employees in the local government with employees having many duties to complete on a daily basis, some missing data was realised from the respondents and some inconsistency in the way some questions were answered. This was attributed to respondents hurrying to complete the questionnaires swiftly so as to attend to their work duties. Future investigations should make sure that the questionnaires are entirely filled out with no missing information before exiting the study site.

In addition, this research was done only in the Eastern Cape Province and did not extend to other provinces in South Africa or the whole country. As such hindering the generalisability of the findings study to the entire country of South Africa. The researcher faced some delays in response from a greater number of local government employees who took a longer period in answering the questionnaire hindering the data collection process.

Another constraint of this research is the utilisation of convenience sampling as the primary sampling technique. Convenience sampling was chosen because it was impractical to gather all respondents in one location at a specific time. This approach involved selecting participants based on their convenient availability during the investigation period until the desired sample size was achieved using a questionnaire. Consequently, bias may be considered a limitation of this research, as respondents were responsible for rating both the predictors and criterion variables through the questionnaire-based assessment of all research variables.

8.6. Future Research Direction

Noticeably, the present research exclusively targeted only public employees in the Eastern Cape Local Government. The researcher is recommending that the same study be undertaken or replicated throughout the country, both at the provincial and national levels, as well as in private enterprises. The researcher also suggests that a study on this combined variable is undertaken employing a mixed research approach and with a larger sample size in other organisations. Additional studies should be conducted in different work environments on these variables such as decent work, incivility aggression, job trust, and employee engagement in order to enrich the literature in the field of organisational psychology. Moreover, the aspect of witness incivility has received very much literature from researchers (Schilpzand, 2016) as well as in this study. This research recommends that a further study on workplace incivility should fully utilise all three aspects of workplace incivility including witness incivility, so as to fully assess the impact of workplace incivility among employees in the workplace.

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8.7. Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter explores the theoretical and practical implications of the study, examines its limitations, and provides suggestions for future research. The study's findings offer valuable insights for managers concerning the influence of decent work and incivility aggression on job

trust and employee engagement. It is expected that the real-world applications of this study will have a substantial impact on the progress of human resources within local government, contributing to the development of job trust and employee engagement.

In summary, the study sort to investigate the role of decent work and incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. The primary goal of the study was achieved, with results indicating that decent work and incivility aggression significantly affect employee engagement and job trust among employees within the Eastern Cape, local government. In essence, providing decent work conditions, such as fair compensation, job security, opportunities for advancement, and a supportive work environment, counteract incivility aggression and positively influences employee engagement and job trust. Hence, employees have a greater chance of feeling engaged and trusting in their organisation if there is a high perception of a decent working environment.

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Furthermore, the study highlights the importance for management in the Eastern Cape local government to prioritize creating a work environment that promotes decent work practices and addresses issues of incivility aggression. This may involve implementing policies and procedures to ensure fair treatment, fostering a culture of respect and professionalism, and providing training for employees and supervisors on interpersonal skills and conflict resolution.

Moreover, the study recommends policy interventions aimed at reducing acts of incivility aggression in the workplace and also improving working conditions, employee engagement and job trust within the Eastern Cape local government. These recommendations is targeted towards human resources practices, leadership development, organisational culture initiatives, and conflict management strategies.

Another limitation of this research could be common method bias, arising from the fact that respondents rated both the predictor and criterion variables. This issue stems from the use of questionnaires to measure all variables, which may have led respondents to strive for consistency in their answers or rely on personal assumptions about the expected relationships between items. Such tendencies could have influenced the observed relationships in the study.

Overall, addressing issues related to decent work and incivility aggression among employees requires a multifaceted approach that involves both policy interventions at the organisational level and broader cultural shifts within society. Prioritizing the well-being and dignity of workers, organisations and policymakers can create healthier, more productive work environments for everyone.

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APPENDIX I

Model fit indices summary of the most important parameters and their accepted values accordingly to the literature

Name of index	Cut-off points	Comment	Reference
SRMR	≤ 0.05	Good fit	Diamantopoulos & Siguaw (2000)
	$0.05 < SRMR \leq 0.09$	Acceptable	Hu & Bentler (1999)
GFI	1	Perfect fit	Kline (1998), Hu & Bentler (1998)
	≥ 0.95	Good fit	Kline (1998), Hu & Bentler (1998)
	$0.90 \leq GFI < 0.95$	Acceptable	Kline (1998), Hu & Bentler (1998)
AGFI	1	Perfect fit	Tabachnick & Fidell (2007)
	≥ 0.95	Good fit	Tabachnick & Fidell (2007)
	$0.90 \leq AGFI < 0.95$	Acceptable	Tabachnick & Fidell (2007)
NFI	1	Perfect fit	Daire Hooper, et al. (2008)
	≥ 0.95	Good fit	Daire Hooper, et al. (2008)
	$0.90 \leq NFI < 0.95$	Acceptable	Daire Hooper, et al. (2008)
RFI	1	Perfect fit	Bentler & Bonett (1980)
	≥ 0.95	Good fit	Bentler & Bonett (1980)
	$0.90 \leq RFI < 0.95$	Acceptable	Bentler & Bonett (1980)

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APPENDIX II: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

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THE DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

The research is done to fulfil the requirement of PhD in Industrial Psychology qualification at the University of Fort Hare by Ngwimba Vigeline Yayih, student number 201404399. The study seeks to investigate the role of decent work and ICT incivility aggression on employee work outcomes within the local government of Eastern Cape Province. The research is done strictly for academic purposes and the information solicited will be kept confidential and anonymity is assured. This questionnaire will not take more than 30 minutes to complete. The Ethical Clearance Certificate number for this project is **CHI011SNGW01.** Your participation is voluntary and your name is not required, but your responses are of great importance. I therefore highly value your co-operation. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact one of the Supervisor Dr. Dywili (mdywili@ufh.ac.za) and Prof Willie Chinyamurindi (wchinyamurindi@ufh.ac.za) or contact me on email at 201404399@ufh.ac.za. Thank you in anticipation for your co-operation

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Yours sincerely,

UFH Department of Industrial Psychology

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding "The Role of Decent Work and Incivility Aggression on Employee Work Outcomes within the Local Government of Eastern Cape Province". I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop the questionnaire at any point should I do not want to continue, and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in the online questionnaire.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the online questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

……..

Signature of respondent **Date**: ……

I hereby agree to the electronic storing of my answers in participating in the study.

……..

Signature of respondent **Date**: ……

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Instruction: Tick the correct answer by making an (X where appropriate).

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1.	Gender	Female	Male				
2.	Ethnic group	Black	Coloured	White	Indian	Other	
3.	Age	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-65	Over 65 years
4	Educational Qualification	Grade 12 Senior certificate	Diploma	Degree	Postgraduate degree		
5	What is your institution of work						
6.	Employment Status	Full- time Employee	Part- Time Employee	Contract Employee			

7	Position	Admin level	General staff	Supervisor lower manager	Middle management	Top management /director
8	Years of Service	1-5 year	6-10 years	11-15 years	16 years and above	
9.	Salary level	1-5 (e.g. employees earning from R14999 and below)	Level 6-9 (e.g. employees earning between R15000-18000)	Level 10-13 (e.g .employees earning between R23000-27000)	Level 14-19 (e.g.employs earning between R23000 -27000)	Level 19 and abov (e.g.employees earnin from R45000 and above

SECTION B: Decent work Scale

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This section relate to the work conditions. ***Please indicate your response with each of the following statements:***		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Decent Work :Physically and Interpersonally Safe Working Conditions								
1	I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Access to Health Care								

4.	I get good healthcare benefits from my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I have a good healthcare plan at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	My employer provides acceptable options for healthcare.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adequate Compensation								
7.	I am not properly paid for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am rewarded adequately for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hours that Allow for Free Time and Rest								
10.	I do not have enough time for non-work activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I have no time to rest during the work week.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I have free time during the work week.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Organisational Values Complement Family and Social Values								
13.	The values of my organisation match my family values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	My organisation's values align with my family values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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15.	The values of my organisation match the values within my community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Section B: Experienced Workplace Incivility Scale								
	"*During the Past Year (s) while employed by your Organisation, have you been in a situation where any of the your Supervisors or Coworker":*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Quite often**	**Most of the time**		
16.	Have put you down or was condescending to you in some way	1	2	3	4	5		
17.	Have paid little attention to a statement you made or showed little interest in your opinion	1	2	3	4	5		
18.	Have made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about you	1	2	3	4	5		
19.	Have addressed you in unprofessional, terms, either publicly or privately	1	2	3	4	5		
20.	Have ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie (e.g. social conversation)	1	2	3	4	5		
21.	Have doubted your judgment over a matter in which you have responsibility	1	2	3	4	5		
22.	Have made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters	1	2	3	4	5		
Section C: Instigated Workplace Incivility Scale (ICT)								

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	"During the Past Year (s) while employed by your Organisation, have you been in a situation where you":	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Quite Often**	**Most of the time**
23	Have been put down others or was condescending to them in some way	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4	5 5
24.	Have paid little attention to a statement (s) someone made or showed little interest in their opinion	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4	5 5
25.	Have made demeaning, rude, or derogatory remarks about someone	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4	5 5
26	Have addressed someone in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4	5 5
27	Have ignored or excluded someone from professional camaraderie (e.g. social conversation)	1	2	3	4	5
28	Have doubted someone's judgment over a matter in which they had responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
29	Have made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal matters	1	2	3	4	5

Section E: Scales Used to Measure Engagement (UWES)

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	Please read each statement carefully and mark an (X) if you ever feel this way about your job, from 0= (never) to 6= (always).	**Never**	**Almost never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**often**	**Very often**	**Always**
30.	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	1 0	2 1	3 2	3 3	5 4	4 5	5 6
31.	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1 0	2 1	3 2	3 3	5 4	4 5	5 6
32.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1 0	2 1	2	3 3	4	4 5	5 6
33	My job inspires me	1 0	1	2	3 3	4	4 5	5 6
34	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	1 0	2 1	4 2	3 3	4	4 5	5 6
35	I feel happy when I am working intensely	1 0	2 1	3 2	3 3	5 4	4 5	5 6
36	I am proud of the work that I do.	1 0	2 1	4 2	3	5 4	6 5	5 6
37	I am immersed in my work	1 0	2 1	3 2	4 3	6 4	5 5	6
38	I get carried away when I am working	10	1	32	43	4	6	6

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Section F: Organizational Trust

	Please mark an (X) on the response that best indicates the extent to which the statement describes the current reality of your organization.	**Very little extent**	**Little extend**	**Some extend**	**Great Extent**	**Very great extent**
39.	I can tell my supervisor when things are going wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
40	My supervisor follows through with what he/she says.	1	2	3	4	5

41	I am highly satisfied with the organization's overall efficiency of operation.	1	2	3	4	5
42	My supervisor listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I feel connected to my peers.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I am free to disagree with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
45	The top management is sincere in its efforts to communicate with employees.	1	2	3	4	5
46	My supervisor behaves in a consistent manner from day to day.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I feel connected to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I am highly satisfied with the overall quality of the services of the organization	1	2	3	4	5
49	I have a say in decisions that affect my job.	1	2	3	4	5
50	My supervisor keeps confidential information	1	2	3	4	5
51	I receive adequate information regarding how well I am doing in my job	1	2	3	4	5
52	I am highly satisfied with the capacity of the organization to achieve its objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
53	I receive adequate information regarding how I am being evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5
54	Top management listens to employees' concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
55	Top management keeps their commitments to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
56	I am highly satisfied with the capability of the organization's	1	2	3	4	5

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	employees.					
57	I feel connected to my immediate supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
58	I receive adequate information regarding how my job-related problems are handled.	1	2	3	4	5
59	My immediate supervisor is concerned about my personal well being.	1	2	3	4	5
60	My values are similar to the values of my peers.	1	2	3	4	5
61	I receive adequate information regarding how organizational decisions are made that affect my job	1	2	3	4	5
62	Top management is concerned about employees' well being	1	2	3	4	5
63	My supervisor keeps his/her commitments to team members.	1	2	3	4	5
64	My values are similar to the values of my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
65	I receive adequate information regarding the long-term strategies of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
66	My supervisor is sincere in his/her efforts to communicate with team members.	1	2	3	4	5
68	My supervisor speaks positively about subordinates in front of others.	1	2	3	4	5

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APPENDIX III:ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

V Ngwimba's
ethics letter.pdf

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APPENDIX IV: EDITING CERTIFICATE

Ngwimba Vigeline
Yayih CERTIFICATE

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APPENDIX V: PUBLISHED ARTICLE:

Ngwimba, V.Y., Chinyamurindi, W. & Dywili, M., (2024). 'The role of incivility aggression on decent work: A local government sector case', Journal of Local Government Research and Innovation 5(0), a197. https://doi.org/10.4102/ jolgri.v5i0.197

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APPENDIX VI: TURNITIN REPORT

NGWIMBA'S
Thesis-201404399.(

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