FACULTY OF BUSINESS SCIENCES

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP

DECENT WORK AND INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENTNT OF THE DOCTOR OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP DEGREE

By

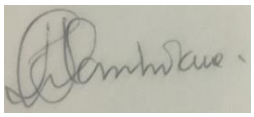
HAMFREY SANHOKWE (R161143B)

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR W.T. CHINYAMURINDI

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR. J. MUZURURA

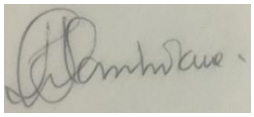
DECLARATION

I, Sanhokwe Hamfrey, student number R161143B, declare hereby that this thesis for the qualification of Doctor of Business Leadership at the Midlands State University is my original work. It has not been or will not be submitted elsewhere for any other qualification.

Signed: 

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION

I solemnly declare that this academic work is original and is not in any way a reproduction of someone else's work. All the important sources that inspired my thought processes in the form of ideas and actions were acknowledged in the relevant sections of the thesis, as well as in the reference list. I also attached a plagiarism report, generated using Turnitin software, in the appendices as further evidence of the originality of this work.

Signed: 

Date: 21 June 2023

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my late father, Founder Sanhokwe. Father, I know you wanted me to be a Medical Doctor. The alternative path took me here. I am grateful! I hope this doctorate brings you a smile!

To my wife, Sheeba, and our children, Tatenda, Candice, Mufaro, and Adiwa, I hope this doctorate serves as a source of inspiration. The world is a place of possibilities! Embrace a growth mindset.

This is for you too, mom! You remain a great source of inspiration.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I sincerely thank Professor Chinyamurindi and Dr. Muzurura for their great leadership during this project. Together, they created the much-needed space for dialogue while facilitating important processes to fruition. Great appreciation to the relevant MSU committees that promoted this work.

I extend my gratitude to my wife, Sheeba, my daughters, Tatenda, Candice, Mufaro, and Adiwa, as well as my mother (Francisca Sanhokwe), who believed in and supported me throughout the course of my studies. Their sacrifices kept my focus and motivation high during this intensive, yet empowering journey. Thank you, family, for nourishing this worthwhile effort.

To Simon Takawira, a big thank you for all you sacrificed as we conceived the analytical aspects of the study. I did my first set of publications with the direct and indirect support of Professor J. Kruger, Professor J. Ntayi, Dr. H. Shava, Dr. F. Maunganidze, and Professor L. Chitongo. In various ways, they motivated me and convinced me that it was possible. I thank you, colleagues!

I benefited a lot from all the lecturers who were part of the cast for the 10-plus modules we undertook as part of this doctoral program. Thank you. To my colleagues from church (kumasowe) and classmates, you enriched my networks and provided the much-needed spiritual and moral support. I cannot thank you enough.

Appreciating the organisation that supported this study. A personal thank you to all respondents who made this study possible. I learned a lot from this study. I hope the results will influence the future of work and workplaces globally.

I am forever indebted to the Almighty who makes all things possible at the right time!

ABSTRACT

The idea that innovations enable organisations to enjoy adaptive, competitive, and generative advantages has seen many low and middle-income countries (LMICs) add innovation policy to their national frameworks. However, most LMICs continue to experience economic stagnation and low productivity growth despite promulgating pro-innovation policies. Management and scholarly research on innovation remains marginal and highly fragmented in LMICs, amid calls for further theoretical and practical examinations of what could foster and sustain innovative work behaviour in such settings. Without adequately understanding innovative work behaviour, including the mechanisms and pathways to influence it, efforts to sustainably generate new sources of value remain constrained. Effectively unpacking what influences and sustains this complex behaviour demands an interrogation of the theories and paradigms that link individuals, organisational contexts, and processes. Hinged primarily on the social exchange theory and the resource-based view, the study developed and tested a conditional mediation model explaining the activation of innovative work behaviour with a focus on the central role of decent work. The study simultaneously examined multiple mediators to tease apart the relative effects of competing theoretical explanations on innovative work behaviour to inform theory and practice. A time-lagged study design informed data collection from two probability samples (n_1 = 151 and n_2 = 102) situated in a multinational manufacturing firm. Employees self-reported using previously validated measures of decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative behaviour. The study used bifactor and multi-group confirmatory factor analyses to assess the quality of the four measurement models. Covariance-based structural equation modelling was used to test the mediation model. The study modelled the general factors for the decent work scale, Utrecht work engagement scale, and the innovative behaviour inventory; however, the organisational learning capability exhibited multidimensionality. All the four measures were invariant. Decent work had significant, positive relationships with organisational learning and work engagement. Organisational learning and work engagement were positively and significantly associated with innovative work behaviour. Work engagement and organisational learning mediated the effect of decent work on innovative work behaviour. The findings show that decent work facilitates organisational learning and fosters work engagement. Organisational learning and work engagement bolster innovative work behaviour. Furthermore, decent work promotes innovative work behaviour through enhancing organisational learning and work engagement. The results provide complementary insights into how decent work may transform into innovative work behavior. Leadership teams seeking to effectively harness the innovative capabilities resident in their organisations should develop and nurture enterprise-wide, healthy workplaces anchored on the tenets of decent work. The modelled capabilities are learnable, and hence developable. Theoretical and managerial implications and study limitations are discussed.

TABLE OF ONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Four papers were derived from this thesis:

1. Sanhokwe, H., & Takawira, S. (2023). Evaluating the decent work scale measurement model in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Career Development, 50*(3), 727-742.
2. Sanhokwe, H., Chinyamurindi, W., & Muzurura, J. (2023). Bifactor modelling and measurement invariance of the Innovative Behaviour Inventory. *African Journal of Psychological Assessment, 5*, 9.
3. Sanhokwe, H., Chinyamurindi, W., & Muzurura, J. (2023). Decent work and innovative work behaviour: The mediating roles of organisational learning and work engagement. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 2350021.
4. Sanhokwe, H., Chinyamurindi, W., & Muzurura, J. (2023). Evaluating the quality of the organisational learning capability measurement model. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 35*(5), 401-416.

Other articles published during my DBL studies:

5. Sanhokwe, H. (2022). Evaluating a desire to telework model: The role of perceived quality of life, workload, telework experience and organisational telework support. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 20*, 7.
6. Sanhokwe, H. (2022). Opportunity Recognition and Discontinuation of Ownership in SMEs: The Role of Innovation, Opportunity Exploitation, and Instrumental Risk-Taking. *Journal of Small Business Strategy*, *32*(3), 98-112.
7. Sanhokwe, H. (2022). Reimagining the SME failure phenomenon: incorporating regenerative effects and predicting enterprise regenerative capacity. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, (ahead-of-print).
8. Sanhokwe, H. (2022). The dimensionality of the UWES-17 and UWES-9: Testing second-order and bifactor models. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *32*(2), 115-122.
9. Sanhokwe, H. (2022). The influence of nonwork resources, nonwork demands and external support on work engagement and productivity: A moderated mediation model. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *48*(1), 1-8.

10. Sanhokwe, H., & Chinyamurindi, W. (2023). Work engagement and resilience at work: The moderating role of political skill. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *49*(1), 1-9.
11. Sanhokwe, H., & Takawira, S. (2022). Appreciating resilience at work: Psychometric assessment, measurement, and practical implications. *Cogent Psychology*, *9*(1), 2052620.
12. Sanhokwe, H., Takawira, S., Kunene, Z., & Maunganidze, F. (2022). Impact of COVID-19 induced teleworking arrangements on employees in NGOs: Implications for policy and practice for leadership. *SAGE Open*, *12*(2), 21582440221079908.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AGFI - Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index

AIDS - Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome.

AMOS - Analysis of Moments Structures

AVE - Average Variance Extracted

CB-SEM - Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling

PLS-SEM – Partial Least Squares-based Structural Equation Modelling

CFA - Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI - Comparative Fit Index

CI - confidence interval

CMIN - In SPSS AMOS, the chi-square value for the model is called CMIN.

COVID-19 – COVID-19 is caused by a coronavirus called SARS-CoV-2

CR - Composite Reliability

DF - Degrees of freedom

DRC - Democratic Republic of the Congo

EIB – Employee innovative behaviour

ESAP - Economic Structural Adjustment Program

GDP, Gross Domestic Product

GFI - Goodness of Fit Index

GII – Global Innovation Index

GNU - Government of National Unit

HIV - Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IMF - International Monetary Fund

JD-R - Job demands-resources

JOB - Journal of Organisational Behaviour

KMO - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

OLC – Organisational learning capability

RMSEA - Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SEM - Structural Equation Modeling

SET - Social Exchange Theory

SPSS – Statistical Package for Social Scientists

SRMR - Standardised Root Mean Square Residual

STERP - Short-Term Economic Recovery Programs

U.S.$ - United States Dollar

UWES - Utrecht Work Engagement Survey

WB – World Bank

Δ – Delta

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

"How in a creative economy where entrepreneurial (and intrapreneurial) genius is the secret to success do you inspire employees to bring the gifts of initiative, imagination, and passion to work every day?" (Hamel, 2009, p.2). Such timeless inquiry preoccupies goal-directed leadership teams of today given the continued disruption of the workplace amid calls for continuous innovation if organisations are to remain sustainably future-fit (Al-edenat, 2018). The idea that innovations enable organisations to enjoy adaptive, competitive, and generative advantages (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022; Kahn, 2018) has seen many low and middle-income countries (LMICs) add innovation policy to their national strategic frameworks (Lema et al., 2021). However, most LMICs continue to experience economic stagnation and low productivity growth despite promulgating pro-innovation policies (Dobrzański et al., 2021; Matekenya & Moyo, 2023). According to the 2022 Global Innovation Index (GII) report, a key first step towards enhancing innovation-driven growth and competitiveness is to continuously understand innovation performance and related factors using data-based evidence (World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), 2022). Yet, creativity and innovation management in LMICs remains marginal and highly fragmented (Lema et al., 2021). Further theoretical and practical examination of what could foster and sustain innovativeness in such settings is an urgent priority (Sanhokwe et al., 2023; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017).

Globally, scholarly, and corporate interest in innovations has progressed beyond the early focus on definitions and contexts, tilting strongly toward the role of employees – as individuals and the collective - in the innovation process (Abd Awang et al., 2019; Taylor, 2017; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Employee innovative behaviour – also called innovative work behaviour in this study – has become a critical, highly sought-after, value adding quality at work (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022). A meta-analytic study by Bos-Nehles et al. (2017) defined innovative work behaviour as "intentional behaviours of individuals to produce and implement new and useful ideas explicitly intended to benefit the individual, group or organisation" (p. 1232). Innovative work behaviour is expected to generate innovative outputs ranging from new, expanded, or renewed products,

services, procedures, and processes to the evolution of new production methods and new management and leadership system (Bos-Nehles et al., 2017; Lukes & Stephan, 2017).

The potential to act innovatively resides in individual employees who make choices on what/which action to take when to execute it, and whether to execute it or not (Hoang et al., 2022). The realisation of such potential is a complex phenomenon that continues to occupy today's management and scholarly researchers, despite the limited traction on the subject in LMICs (Lema et al., 2021; Li et al., 2019). It is concerning that research on innovative work behaviour is still in its infancy given the need for innovation to sustain human well-being (Li et al., 2019). Without adequately understanding the innovative work behaviour construct, including the mechanisms and pathways to influence it, efforts to sustainably generate new sources of value remain constrained given employees' role in the innovation process (Kwon & Kim, 2020).

Innovative work behaviour has been widely studied in the developed world (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Lukes & Stephan, 2017; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Yet, the behavior does not only have direct relevance to developed countries; it is equally important in LMICs given their pursuit of innovation-driven socio-economic growth amidst stagnation (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Extant literature in several low-income settings reveals a dearth of understanding of the determinants of innovative work behaviour and how these manifest and contribute to higher levels of innovativeness (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). There are urgent calls for more theory-based examinations of the not-easy-to-discern pathways and mechanisms that could explain the activation of the behaviour in LMICs (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017; also see Lema et al. 2021).

Hinged primarily on the social exchange theory and the resource-based view, the study developed and tested a conditional mediation model explaining the activation of innovative work behaviour. The model is anchored on decent work and explicates the mediating roles of work engagement and organisational learning. The model is motivated by today's needs for organisations that deliver consistently superior performance by sustainably generating new sources of value with the highest level of human satisfaction (Bagorogoza & Moya, 2017; Bagorogoza & Nakasule, 2022). Understanding the hypothesised causal mechanisms and pathways is fundamental to theory development and carries significant practical implications. Organisational leaders are guided on

where to invest more strategically to promote and sustain the value-adding behaviour of their talent.

1.1 BACKGROUND

Most scholars present innovative behaviour as a multi-dimensional phenomenon (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Lukes & Stephan, 2017; Scott & Bruce, 1994). For instance, Scott & Bruce (1994) operationalised it as encompassing idea generation, coalition building, and implementation. Janssen (2000) depicts three elements: the generation of ideas, the promotion of ideas to colleagues and management, and the realisation of such ideas. Kleysen and Street (2001), on the other hand, present five elements: exploration of the opportunity, generativity, investigation or interrogating the available and missing information, championing the ideas, and application of the ideas. The submissions by De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) point to four aspects namely the exploration of ideas, generation of succinct thoughts and ideas (entails processing of the ideas), championing the ideas that seem to add value, and implementation of the select ideas. The study operationalises innovative work behaviour using the hexa-dimensional lens proposed by Lukes and Stephan (2017) encompassing idea generation, idea search, idea communication, implementation starting activities, involving others, and overcoming obstacles. While theoretically, the construct appears multi-dimensional, empirical evidence suggests that the dimensions are not distinctive. Rather, they appear as a mix of discontinuous, interrelated behaviours exhibited in space and time (Bos-Nehles et al.,2017).

Effectively unpacking what influences and sustains this complex behaviour demands an interrogation of the theories and paradigms that link individuals, organisational contexts, and processes. In the quest for answers, the study draws insights from current global movements advocating for decent work (International Labour Organisation (ILO), 2022; Ruggie, 2020; also see Sustainable Development Goal 8 and the 2017 Taylor Review of modern working practices (Taylor et al., 2017)). According to ILO, decent work is productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity. The study operationalised decent work using Duffy et al.'s (2016) conceptualization as embedded in the psychology of working theory (PWT). Decent work is conceived as: "(a) physically and interpersonally safe working conditions

(e.g., absence 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). According to PWT, decent work satisfies employees' needs for self-determination, survival, and social connection (Duffy et al., 2016).

Emerging evidence links decent work to desirable workplace behavior and outcomes (Koekemoer & Masenge, 2023; Sönmez et al., 2023). Several studies have reported on significant decent work deficits prevailing in LMICs, including Zimbabwe, the study setting (Mujeyi & Sadomba, 2019; Muzurura, 2019a, 2019b, Simbrisio et al., 2021; Siwela & Njaya, 2021; Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). The study centrally positions and tests, through mediation, if decent work could be a vital piece of the puzzle explaining the activation of innovative work behaviour in LMICs. Research on the decent work-innovative behavior relationship remains scant (Xu et al., 2022), more so in developing countries, hence the focus.

Organisational learning and work engagement are proposed as mediators in the hypothesised relationship between decent work and innovative behaviour. Additional work is required to evaluate the causal or explanatory sequence by which decent work impacts enabling qualities such as organisational learning and work engagement as these have been shown to have proximal influences on performance-related outcomes, including IWB (Argote et al., 2021; Sari et al., 2021; Mazzetti et al., 2021). The proposed mediators are covariates associated with the independent variable and the outcome. Mediators do not provide alternative explanations to a hypothesised relationship; rather they provide auxiliary, if not enhanced, theoretical insights into how the relationship of interest plays out.

Organisational learning is the comprehensive, value-adding knowledge structure of an organisation that promotes the generation and harnessing of experience in the workplace, paradigms for interpreting these individual and collective experiences and using such experiences for the betterment of the organisation (Argote et al., 2021; Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015; also see Senge, 2017). Companies need organisational learning capabilities to adapt to dynamic and complex environments, allowing them to enjoy value generation through their employees' innovativeness (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017; Sanhokwe et al., 2023). Organisational learning capabilities include continuous learning, inquiry and dialogue, empowerment, managerial commitment, openness and experimentation, knowledge transfer and integration, risk

management, interaction with the environment, and participative decision-making (Jerez-Go´mez et al., 2005; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Based on Jerez-Go´mez et al. (2005), organisational learning capabilities are aggregated into four main dimensions namely management commitment, systems perspective, openness and experimentation, and transfer and integration (also see Sanhokwe et al., 2023).

As submitted by Hammel (2009), the winds of creative destruction are blowing at gale force, challenging companies to innovate nimbly and boldly to stay relevant and profitable (Hamel, 2009). Literature suggests that most companies in LMICs do not have the requisite capabilities to adapt to highly disruptive environments that demand rapid innovation and sustained value creation, hence their stagnation (Lema et al. 2021; Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Organisational learning capabilities indicate the potential to innovate quickly, survive, and grow (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017); the capability is shaped by work conditions (Sanhokwe et al., 2023). Building primarily on the resource-based view (Barney,1991a,1991b, 2001; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2009) and the theoretical roots of organisational and innovation studies (Hoogendoorn et al., 2010), the study hypothesises and empirically test if organisational learning could be a significant avenue to pursue. This mediated pathway has rarely been examined and could offer fresh, complementary insights to the current puzzle.

Employees who are engaged in their work find it meaningful and feel highly connected to their work. Exuding high levels of energy, and enthusiasm, and completely absorbed in their work, such employees are psychological owners of their performance, and willing to go the extra mile for personal, team, or organisational benefit (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Engaged employees express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally when executing their work (Huang et al, 2022). The study operationalises the work engagement construct using Schaufeli et al.'s (2017) ultrashort version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-3) that focuses on employees' vigor, dedication, and absorption. Based on the between-person approach, the study tests if work engagement could be a function of working conditions, manifesting as decent work, and reinforcing IWB.

Meta-analytic and corporate research studies associate work engagement with value-adding, performance-related behaviour, and outcomes at work (Gallup, 2023; Mazzetti et al., 2021; Sari et al., 2021). However, according to Gallup's State of the Global Workplace report, only 23% of the workforce, globally, was engaged at work in 2022 (20% in Sub-Saharan Africa; Gallup, 2023).

The same study reported that 59% were 'quitting quietly' (not engaged; minimum effort, psychologically disconnected) while a further 15% were loudly quitting (actively disengaged; their actions may harm the organisation). Gallup estimates that low engagement costs the global economy US$8.8 trillion and accounts for 9% of global GDP (Gallup, 2023). Shoko and Zinyemba (2014) and Mpundu (2016) also reported very concerning statistics on work engagement in Zimbabwe. Both studies revealed that less than two in five employees were highly engaged at work. Maleka et al. (2019) reported that Zimbabwean employees had the lowest work engagement scores relative to their counterparts in South Africa and Namibia. Earlier, a qualitative study drawing on public sector experiences in Zimbabwe concluded that suboptimal work engagement (or disengagement) manifested as mal-service performance (Sibanda et al., 2014). These findings heightened interest in interrogating whether decent work could influence work engagement and if work engagement explained innovative behaviour in the study context. In addition, extant literature linking decent work with work engagement is still laden with empirical inconsistences (Ferraro et al., 2020; Graça et al., 2021; Kashyap et al., 2022), hence the heightened interest.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Zimbabwe, like most emerging economies, is seeking to grow its industrial manufacturing sector through innovation. Perspectives that motivate and sustain innovative work behaviour have been scantly investigated in scholarly and corporate research in Zimbabwe. Conversations on nurturing employee innovative behaviour should preoccupy researchers and leadership teams in the country at a time when the country's industrial and economic competitiveness has waned significantly (Chitauro & Khumalo, 2020). According to the 2022 Global Innovation Index (GII) report, the top three innovation economies in Sub-Saharan Africa comprise Mauritius (1st; 45th out of 132 economies assessed globally), South Africa (2nd; 61/132), and Botswana (3rd; 86/132) (World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), 2022). South Africa and Botswana are Zimbabwe's neighbours and trading partners. Zimbabwe is ranked 11th out of the 25 economies that were assessed in Sub-Saharan Africa (and 107th out of 132, globally) despite being renowned for exporting quality talent beyond the African region (Magaisa & Musundire, 2022). While acknowledging macro-level constraints (Chitongo et al., 2020), the asymmetric performance and competitiveness of firms in Zimbabwe strongly suggest that other factors within the organisations'

management interests could be at play (Chitauro & Khumalo, 2020). The country will benefit from further scholarly and corporate research on what develops and sustains innovations by interrogating the drivers of innovative behaviour. The limited empirical studies addressing the antecedents of employee innovative behaviour in Zimbabwe, more so the potential role of decent work, work engagement, and organisational learning, presented a unique opportunity for the theoretical realisation and rationalisation of the proposed relationships.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The primary and secondary goals of research provide clarity on what the study is pursuing. The former summarises the main purpose while the latter articulates the interconnections among the constructs of interest. The secondary objectives unpack the primary objective by showing all possible local effects or relationships.

1.3.1 Primary Objective

The primary intent was to evaluate the mediating roles of organisational learning and work engagement in the relationship between decent work and employee innovative behaviour.

1.3.2 Secondary Objectives

The ancillary objectives were:

1. To determine whether decent work is associated with organisational learning.
2. To assess if organisational learning predicts employees' innovative behaviour.
3. To evaluate the mediating role of organisational learning in the relationship between decent work and innovative behaviour.
4. To determine whether decent work is associated with work engagement.
5. To assess if work engagement predicts employees' innovative behaviour.
6. To evaluate the mediating role of work engagement in the decent work-innovative behaviour relationship.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In 1986, Kenny and Baron stated that the first condition for exploring mediation effects was to establish the interconnection between the criterion and the independent variables. However, this claim has since been found to be irrelevant. (Gürbüz & Bayik, 2021).

Two major approaches are considered when formulating hypotheses to test for the mediation effects: the segmentation and transmittal approaches (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). When employing the segmentation approach, three main hypotheses can be traced: H1) independent variable effect on the mediating variable; H2) mediating variable effect on the criterion variable, and H3) mediation effects. The transmittal approach only requires one hypothesis to explain the mediation of a third variable between the independent and the criterion variables (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021).

Informed by the primary and ancillary objectives, as well as the analysis framework, the research followed the segmentation approach.

Hinged on the above submissions, this study made the following claims.

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: There is no association between decent work and organisational learning.

H_1*:* Decent work is positively associated with organisational learning.

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: There is no relationship between organizational learning and innovative work behaviour.

H_2*:* Organisational learning positively relates to innovative work behaviour.

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: Organisational learning does not mediate the relationship between decent work and innovative work behaviour.

H_3*:* Organisational learning mediates the decent work and innovative behaviour relationship.

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: Decent work is not associated with work engagement.

H_4*:* Decent work is positively associated with work engagement.

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: There is no relationship between work engagement and innovative work behaviour.

H_5*:* Work engagement positively relates to innovative work behaviour.

***H*$_0$**: Work engagement does not mediate the decent work and innovative work behaviour relationship.

H_6*:* Work engagement mediates the decent work and innovative behaviour relationship.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study consciously integrates individual employee dimensions (innovative behaviour and work engagement), conditions of work (decent work), and workplace processes (through organisational learning). In so doing, the study reduces errors of attribution while optimizing the understanding of the construct in the workplace. Appreciating the conditions and mechanisms that foster innovative work behaviour carries theoretical and practical significance as it exposes the causes of such behaviour and the design of interventions, including social environments, that optimise employee and organisational growth, development, and performance. The model offers leadership teams practical avenues for harnessing the value-adding capabilities of employees through targeted, enterprise-wide initiatives. This way, a comprehensive, enterprise-wide leadership excellence agenda can be developed, implemented, and monitored in the workplace.

At the policy level, the study reignites the dialogue on creating decent workplaces as part of the global agenda for decent work and satisfying the SDGs (specifically SDGs 3 and 8). As enunciated in the Global Decent Work Agenda and SDGs, decent work could be an important avenue for harnessing innovative capabilities in the workplace and revitalising Zimbabwe's competitiveness. The integrated model sheds light on the various effects securing decent work has on core, developable, value-creating organisational outcomes.

Decent work is anchored on the Fordist employment regime that promised stable, accessible, and secure employment with wide-ranging benefits (Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). Expectedly, extant research on the decent work explanatory and causal pathways has been predominantly undertaken in global north contexts (Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2017; Masdonati et al., 2021). Situated in Zimbabwe, a developing country, this empirical study makes the following contributions. First, we add to the existing literature by focusing on decent work and explaining if and how it influences innovative work behavior in an LMIC setting. We rely on social exchange theory (SET; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965; Masterson et al., 2000), the

resource-based view (RBV; Barney, 1991a, 1991b, 2001), and other complementary organisational and motivational theories to understand the hypothesised relationships. Second, the study takes place in an under-researched country in a non-western context where decent work deficits are exacerbated by a socio-economic-political context characterized by high unemployment and poverty rates (Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). The dearth of innovative capabilities in the formal and informal sectors in LMICs (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017) made the study setting unique for the theoretical realisation of the proposed relationships, beyond the boundaries of the developed world. Third, the study evaluates alternative theoretical pathways, examining whether the select mediators differentially influence the decent work-innovative work behavior relationship. This way, the study addresses a resonant theme in innovative behavior-related research, that is, the need to simultaneously examine multiple mediators to tease apart the relative effects of competing theoretical explanations on innovative work behaviour to inform theory and practice.

1.6 THEORETICAL REVIEW OF THE MODEL CONSTRUCTS

This section situates the study within the existing theoretical literature. The study constructs are defined based on their underpinning theories.

1.6.1 Decent Work

As postulated by Blustein et al. (2022), decent work denotes the standard conditions of (and at) work that all employees inherently deserve. Employees experiencing decent work enjoy tolerance, respect, and acceptance without disregard for who they are; receive commensurate earnings that ensure dignity and autonomy; have access to social protection; are guaranteed time to rest and recuperate, access to health services, and security (Ferraro et al. 2020). Embedding the tenets of work meaningfulness and social justice, decent work creates valuable human experiences and positively impacts employee and organisational wellbeing (Blustein et al., 2020). Decent work fulfills the self-determination, social connection, and survival needs of the employed and those who aspire to work (Duffy et al., 2020).

The renewed momentum on the phenomenon is a global acknowledgment that sustained deprivation of decent work will undermine individual, family, community, and societal well-being,

the very basis on which humanity is anchored (Blustein, Kenny, Autin, et al., 2019; Blustein et al., 2019). Such exposure could create a vicious cycle that disrupts any accrued adaptive advantages beyond the organisation (ILO, 2022a). The psychology of working theory (PWT) conceived by Duffy et al. (2016) provides a useful vantage point for appreciating the decent work construct.

1.6.1.1 The Psychology of Working Theory (PWT)

The PWT model is anchored on the psychology of working framework (PWF; Blustein, Kenny, Di Fabio, et al., 2019). PWF emphasises the fundamentality of work in people's lives, including its influence on mental health. The framework also highlights the interplay of employee experiences at work and home, and how they shape outcomes at the individual level. Furthermore, the framework recognises the significance of work in fulfilling fundamental human needs as well as appreciating the forces of a political, economic, and social nature that influence aspects of contemporary working (Blustein et al., 2019).

PWT integrates contextual and psychological variables to explain the experience of decent work. Duffy and colleagues submit that economically constraining environments, experiences of marginalisation, and an individual's adaptability to their career can predict a person's chances of securing decent work. PWT states that securing and experiencing decent work satisfies an employee's primary needs, such as social connection, self-determination, and survival. The theory suggests that meeting these necessities promotes work and the employee's overall well-being. In addition, the model accounts for employees' subjective perspectives and experiences as unique individuals (Duffy et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2022). PWT positions decent work as a foundational component of positive workplace outcomes. Theoretically plausible direct and indirect connections could, therefore, exist between decent work and desirable workplace behaviour and processes such as work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative work behaviour.

1.6.2 Work Engagement

Work engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al. 2002, p. 74). Vigour is the behavioural-energetic component that manifests through high energy levels, greater mental resilience and persistence at work, employee willingness and drive to invest effort toward work goals (Bakker &

van Wingerden, 2021; Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). Dedication is the emotional component characterized by strong involvement in the work and the employee experience of enthusiasm, challenge, and significance (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). Absorption is the cognitive component of the construct (Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). Highly absorbed employees fully immerse in their work with characteristically high levels of concentration (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). The happiness associated with work causes time to pass by quickly, and at times, without noticing. Highly engaged employees experience fulfillment (Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020).

The work and the workplace benefit when employees apply themselves or invest cognitively, physically, emotionally, and mentally at work (Mazzetti et al., 2021; Schaufeli, 2021). Managerial and scholarly research suggests that the need satisfaction nourishes and fuels engagement at work. Satisfying employee needs gives them a chance to contribute, promotes relatedness, and provides opportunities for them to learn, develop, and grow (Khusanova et al., 2021). Employees who are engaged radiate high energy levels, are enthusiastic, and promote the ideals of a good workplace (Graça et al., 2021; Khusanova et al., 2021). Moreover, they perceive and act capably when handling various tasks and can easily share their positive drive with others (Graça et al., 2021; Kashyap et al., 2021; Khusanova et al., 2021; Schaufeli, 2021). The work engagement construct is anchored on the JD-R theory.

1.6.2.1 Job Demands and Resources Theory (JD-R)

The JD-R theory draws on the principles of positive psychology that encourage employee well-being (Radic et al., 2020). The theory delineates work characteristics in a binary fashion. Job demands are the various physical, mental, and social characteristics inherent in the job that take substantial or significant physical and or psychological effort to address (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Schaufeli, 2021). As will be explained later, the model further delineates job demands into challenge and hindrance demands. Regardless of the type, job demands by their nature can consume employees' energies, culminating in the depletion of personal and work-related energy reservoirs. This stressor–strain relationship denotes the health impairment and or energy-sapping process and represents one arm of the model (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Schaufeli, 2021).

Job resources enable employees to improve their performance and satisfy their goals. These include physical, economic, social, and other aspects of the job (or work environment) that facilitate the execution of work tasks and stimulate personal growth. Exuding a motivational bias, job-related resources activate motivational processes that promote work engagement (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Schaufeli, 2021). Job resources circumvent the strain from job demands, that is, they have a compensatory if not the restorative, effect (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Mäkikangas et al., 2021). The latest JD-R model acknowledges and incorporates the influence of personal factors on job demands and resources. It also incorporates feedback loops to account for the mutual connections between motivation, job resources, and demands (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021).

1.6.3 Organisational Learning

Organisational learning is a continuous process embedding the use of experience to generate quality knowledge that adds value to an organisation's cause (Argote et al., 2021). It involves the formal and informal interaction of individual employees and the collective. It is bent on satisfying overarching organisational goals over time (Mitchell & Larry, 2021). Organisational learning enables organisations to modify their mental models such as governing policies, values, and rules, as well as processes and procedures to promote adaptation and growth (Argote et al., 2021). The literature also recognises organisational learning's systematic and ad hoc, if not informal, nature.
Theorists on organisational learning situate it within the three complementary levels: individual, group, and organisation with an emphasis on the complementarities embedded therein (Argote et al., 2021). Theorists also recognize the importance of essential workplace conditions, structures, competencies, and practices that nurture and promote learning (Khan, 2021).

1.6.3.1 Theories of Organisational Learning

Behavioural, cognitive, social, and technical theoretical perspectives greatly influence the comprehension of organisational learning (Basten & Haamann, 2018). The behavioural perspective considers organisational learning as an adaptive behaviour of the organisation to satisfy an evolving environment (Basten & Haamann, 2018; Lenart-Gansiniec, 2019). Theories of cognitivism view organisational learning as actions and behaviour that facilitate continuous learning beyond the individual employee. The company seeks to use and enrich its existing base

of knowledge resources. These actions and behaviour enable employees - as active, individual, or collective agents in the environment - to move beyond adaptation to flourishing states. This way, the organisation sustains its competitive advantage and value generation. (Basten & Haamann, 2018).

The social approach links organisational learning with the structure and culture of the organisation (including its leadership). These connections influence a company's propensity to acquire, process, disseminate, interpret, use, and store knowledge (Argote et al., 2021). In unison, the above perspectives associate organisational learning with the desire to expand or enlarge the scope of value-creating or adding behaviour in the workplace (Argote et al., 2021).

1.6.4 Employee Innovative Behaviour

The phenomenon depicts all behaviour that promotes the generation, introduction, or application of new or improved ideas to promote value creation at work (Botha & Steyn, 2022; Hammad, 2020; Kwon & Kim, 2022). Beyond being a cognitive process, employee innovative behaviour also has a motivational component (Afsar & Masood, 2018). Innovative work behaviour benefits shareholders and stakeholders alike, including leadership, employees, and customers (Roszkowska-Menkes, 2018). For shareholders, employees' innovative behaviour sustains the generation of new sources of value. By generating new sources of value, innovative behaviour creates healthy organisations that, among other things, can further guarantee better work conditions and secure employment. In addition, innovative behaviour guarantees customers satisfaction and delight through improved services, products, and processes. The individualistic and intrapreneurial theoretical perspectives explain the innovative behaviour construct.

1.6.4.1 Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT), developed by Deci and Ryan in 1985, seamlessly integrates the individual behavioural and intrapreneurial perspectives, thus offering a healthy vantage point to appreciate innovative behaviour and its intimate relations with the other study variables. SDT posits that employees have a propensity for growth, integration, discovery, and transformation (Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). The need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness gravitate employees towards achieving a strong sense of self and optimal functioning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). The need for competence denotes an employee's desire to experience

and express one's capacities. Faced with the incessant challenges of today, the need for competence motivates employees to create and transform their work contexts by tapping into their capacities and enhancing their skills to lead the change (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). The need for competence creates a sense of confidence that fuels innovative behaviour. The need for relatedness highlights individual needs for connection to others and reciprocal care at work. Relatedness creates joint problem-solving contexts and opportunities to survive and develop collectively by tapping into individuals' dynamic capabilities (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). Autonomy manifests through personal initiative or self-driven acts anchored on an employee's inherent, integrated values (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). Such an intrinsic posture can be promoted or nurtured by external sources; however, the employee values and shows initiative toward it (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020). Self-determined individuals exhibit adaptive and proactive tendencies that fuel innovative behaviour at work.

1.7 RESEARCH VARIABLES

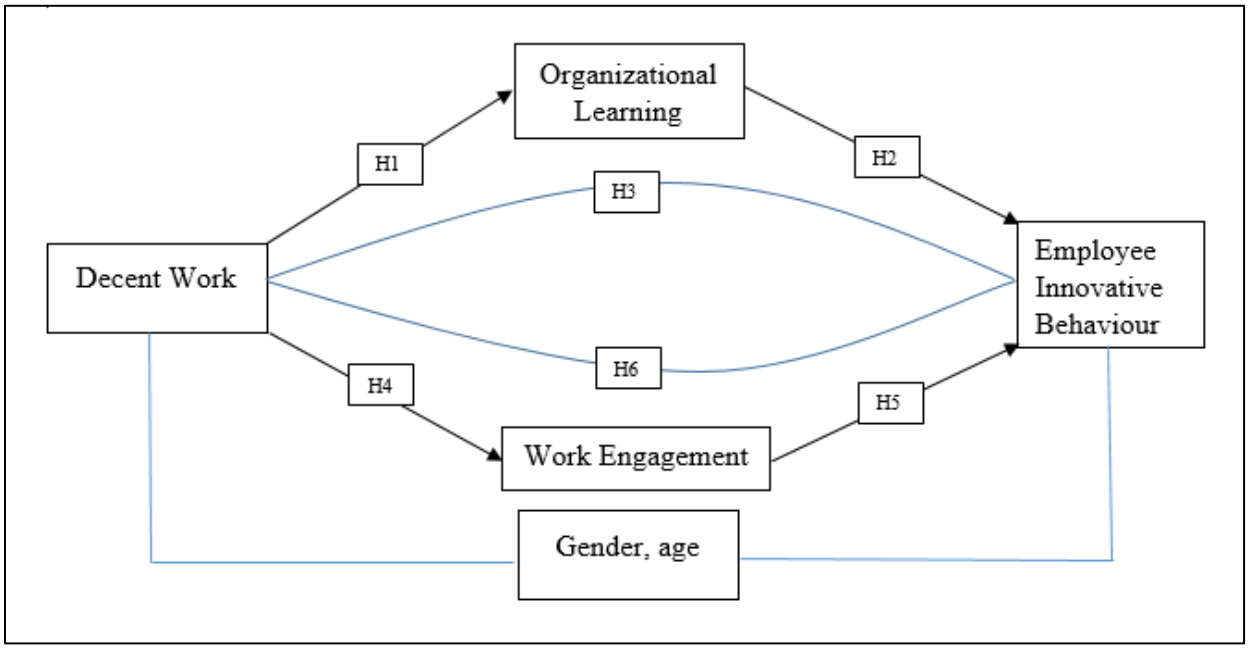
Several factors informed the selection of variables and the model conceptualisation. First, work conditions affect the 'being' of the employee and the organisation (Blustein et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2022). Further, characteristics of the employee and the organisation – as living systems - influence the activation of innovation behaviour in the workplace. In unison, individual and organisational factors, anchored on work conditions, could interact in complex, subtle ways, to influence the activation of employee innovative behaviour. Hence the decision to use a mediation model to unpack the underlying mechanisms that could explain the observed innovative behaviour.

The study consciously chose to focus on malleable variables. The decision was to select variables sensitive to dedicated leadership efforts/interventions in the workplace. Furthermore, the choice was to choose variables that follow theoretically and practically coherent pathways. The two mediators – organisational learning and work engagement - are covariates associated with the independent variable (decent work) and the outcome (innovative behaviour). The two mediators lie in the hypothesised causal pathway between decent work and innovative behaviour. The mediators do not explain the interconnection between the criterion and independent constructs

observed in the study. Instead, the two mediators provide auxiliary, if not enhanced, insights into causal inference. The relationships are hypothesised based on theory and empirical evidence and are deemed plausible on that basis. In this regard, the two mediators temporally follow a putative cause.

The study model is depicted in Figure 1.1. The proposed connections among the four constructs are based on a firm theoretical base as highlighted in sections 1.6 and 1.7. The proposed model hypothesises that decent work propagates employees' innovative behaviour by promoting work engagement and organisational learning.

Figure 1. 1: Research model



Source: Author's conceptualization

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The study is guided by Ethical Clearance BS/GSBL/001/23. Voluntary participation in this study was satisfied at the organisation and individual employee levels. Supporting documents, including the entire proposal, were shared to assist the firm in making an informed decision and protect its

right to participate. Employee participation was strictly confidential, safe, and voluntary. Data collection did not include any personally identifiable information. Contact details were provided to facilitate any follow-ups as needed.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS

Delimitations stipulate what the research covers (or does not cover), including the methodologies to satisfy the research objectives (Theofanidis & Fountouki, 2018). The emphasis is on narrowing the focus in a manner that simultaneously improves the specificity and relevance of the study. The study focused on four core variables: decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and employee innovative behaviour. The study is limited to the formal, large-scale manufacturing sector in Zimbabwe. Survey data were collected from a registered multi-national firm. The sampling frame comprised all employees across this organisation's work levels. Despite the growing significance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Zimbabwe, they were not part of this study. Self-reported data were collected online using the KoBo Toolbox platform.

1.10 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

No empirical construction can be entirely true despite the firm theoretical base. The construction I argued in this study relied, to a large degree, on my reasoning and persuasion to make conclusions. While the report goes into detail regarding the conceptualization and lays several persuasive claims, including the results, this is just another human construction premised on several assumptions, as highlighted earlier. The workplace is a complex phenomenon that is constantly evolving, and so are individual employee perceptions.

It is known that the 'being' of the individual and the environment are not static phenomena. A quantitative study is, therefore, inadequate to capture some of these nuances despite using a time-lagged design. Several sources of literature are referenced, most of which are derived from other significantly different contexts. This limits the use of such literature in substantiating some of the claims advanced in this study, hence the need to interpret the results with the caution they deserve.

It was previously specified that the study is situated in Zimbabwe, which has its peculiarities. Extending the conclusion beyond the Zimbabwean context is, in a way, constrained.

The exclusive focus on one large manufacturing company in the manufacturing sector enabled the phenomena under observation to be pursued in detail while diminishing the potential external influences on the same. However, such a controlled focus imposes external validity constraints. While the sample size was powered enough, see Chapter 6, it still limits drawing the whole-of-industry conclusions. Finally, the results are an outcome of the assumptions of the study and the observations; therefore, replicability is always constrained in that regard. It is in this vein that the study made a deliberate choice to report actual p-values, standard deviations, and confidence intervals to aid future studies that seek to replicate the model.

1.11 RESEARCH LAYOUT

The first chapter contextualised the study. The introduction and background positioned the research. The research problem articulated why the study subsists, culminating in a presentation of the goal, objectives, and hypotheses. The motivation for the research was presented with a focus on the significance of the investigation. Theoretical insights on the four variables, including plausible explanations linking them, were provided with detail. A synopsis of the methodology was presented with coherence. The boundaries for the study were delineated and should help users of this report in their review and interpretation of the same.

The second chapter synthesises theoretical perspectives on decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative behaviour, including synergies, gaps, and implications for this research. The theoretical and empirical basis for the expected relationships among the constructs in use is elaborated. The chapter also situates the study within the contextual realities of Zimbabwe.

The third chapter details a carefully thought methodology to generate quality information to address the six objectives. This chapter covers the various decisions and logic involved in selecting the sample, gathering data, subsequent analysis, and derivation of meanings.

The fourth chapter details the outputs of the measurement model and structural model evaluations. The main findings are presented simultaneously with a preliminary interpretation of the same. The results in this section substantiate the claims made as part of the investigation.

The last chapter provides meaning to the results presented in the previous chapter. The theoretical and practical implications are thoughtfully delineated to influence corporate and scholarly practice. The study's limitations and areas of further research are articulated and should promote further research on the same. The conclusion wraps up the report.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Employees' centrality in the growth and development of organisations has been a subject of corporate and academic research interest over the last century, albeit slowly. The need to sustainably generate new sources of value has become more critical given the increasing competition and natural selection challenges. One of the most important factors that organisations are considering when it comes to growing their businesses is innovation. Innovation resides in the behaviour of individuals. Innovative work behaviour is a multi-faceted, complex behaviour that drives continuous improvement and innovation. Innovation, as a general term, encompasses many ideas and concepts. Scholars (e.g., Kahn, 2018; also see Griffith, 2021) acutely recognise how the term innovation is not only overused but also underspecified. To close this knowledge gap, this chapter documents the evolution of the employee innovative behaviour construct. Theoretical perspectives and empirical issues related to the construct are presented and form the base for the expected relationships.

2.2 APPRECIATING THE INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR CONSTRUCT

2.2.1 Historical Development of the Innovation Concept

Since time immemorial, societies have relied on implementing ideas as improvements or solutions to existing systems, extant processes, and products to address current or emerging problems, if not needs (Godin & Vinck, 2017). This section details the evolution of the innovation concept to aid in comprehending the criterion variable, as will be discussed in later sections of this chapter.

Various schools of thought exist regarding how the term innovation came into being. The term innovation is derived from two seemingly contrasting terms, invention, and imitation, derived from the Greek philosophy (Godin & Vinck, 2017; Taylor, 2017). Literature traces the imitation of reality to the work of Plato (Taylor, 2017). The imitation of goods and services to improve their quality, design, and appearance is a theme that dates to the sixteenth century and continues to this day.

From an invention perspective, the literature emphasises important episodes dating back to the 14th century that places scientific discovery and the search for the 'new' at the heart of early efforts that culminated in the industrial revolution (Taylor, 2017). The shift to the economics of profit, which continues to impact society, is seen as a massive driver of the inventions in the 19th century. During this time, Marx introduced the economic theory of social and technological advances and the conceptualization of production efficiencies (Taylor, 2017).

In the early to mid-20th century, innovations were conceived as instruments of survival for firms and economic growth; hence, the attention on the same grew (Taylor, 2017). By the late 20th century, the innovation terminology had morphed and embedded technological change and societal advancement and development, albeit the different interpretations of the same (Taylor, 2017). Since the twentieth century, an essential attribute of research is the inclination toward the role of individuals in the innovation process (Abd Awang et al., 2019).

The innovation concept has assumed myriad meanings and conceptualizations since the turn of the new millennium, with a growing desire to appreciate the factors influencing the phenomenon. The following section presents some of the contemporary thinking on the concept.

2.2.2 Defining Innovation

A closer introspection of the available literature shows a wide array of definitions of the phenomenon, primarily influenced by the field of the study, sector, and whether one is looking at products, services, and or processes. These conceptualizations enrich understanding of the phenomenon despite the various languages and interpretations of the same (Taylor, 2017). The available literature details the constituent elements of the concept, as well as the models, frameworks, and theories that underpin the concept.

Schumpeter (1934, 1942) acknowledged and documented the vital role of innovation in the 1930s and early 1940s. The conceptualization by Schumpeter emphasized the creation or production of new combinations from the existing, yet distinct, resources or elements. The 2005 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) International Guidelines embed the 'new' and 'improvements' in defining innovation. The OCED guidelines go beyond products and processes to include new and or improved changes in marketing, workplace organisation (including management and skills), and relations. The Confederation of British Industry (CBI//QUINETIQ) broadened the definition, that is, innovation pertained to the transformation of

behaviour and ideas into sources of value (Taylor, 2017). Such transformations include the practical application of ideas to enhance business models that alter, in a progressive fashion, the ways and approaches to working (see Taylor, 2017).

While the above conceptualization appeared more inward-looking, Evers et al. (2014) were more explicit in highlighting the disruptive nature of innovations to present structures and routines internal and external to the organisation. Dogru and Peyrefitte (2022), building on extant literature, defined innovations as novel solutions of practical, financial, and/or social significance or value. In unison, the above conceptualisations emphasize two critical features of innovations, i.e., offering solutions to existing or emerging practical needs and adding value to stakeholders and shareholders alike.

Viewed this way, innovations are value-creating and adding actions. Such actions can be viewed as an outcome (hence the need to understand how to influence them); a process (the focus is on how the actions are organized optimally); and as a mindset (role of individuals and the organisational environment as important influence levers) (Kahn, 2018). This analogy creates space for this research as will be depicted in the rest of this chapter.

2.2.3 Historical Development of the Innovative Work Behaviour Construct

During the twentieth century, literature shifted toward the need to understand *who* was responsible for innovation. Researchers took an active interest in understanding the psychological aspects inherent in the innovation process. Researchers began to develop linear models to explain what motivated the acts of innovation. Simonton (1984) reckoned the role of individual efforts and dedication as a driver of innovation. West and Farr (1990) further articulated how innovation appeared to exist at multi-levels, i.e., individual, and accumulating at the group and organisational levels.

The submission by West and Farr (1990) was further supported by Scott and Bruce (1994) who suggested that for innovations to be enjoyed at the organisational level, they should be inculcated at the individual level. The 1994 study by Scott and Bruce also raised an important finding: there was an apparent lack of a correlation between the level of education (they used engineering students) and dimensions of innovation. From a workplace perspective, this introduced the need for an enterprise-wide focus on innovation behaviour regardless of the level of work. The following section unpacks the employee innovative behaviour construct.

2.2.4 Defining Innovative Work Behaviour

Employees interact with organisational processes, services, and products on an ongoing basis. Through such interactions, employees can presumably recognise problems, detect performance gaps, explore opportunities, and seek new or alternative ways of doing things (Bos-Nehles et al., 2017). Proactive behaviour and capabilities empower individuals and the collective to generate, introduce, and apply innovative ideas on specific aspects of work in a manner that creates value, attains advantage, and ensures work sustenance for the benefit of shareholders and stakeholders alike (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022). It is a choice to act proactively for the organisation's good and or to satisfy self-serving interests.

Scholars such as Axtell et al. (2000), Janssen (2000), Kanter (1988), as well as Scott and Bruce (1994) are associated with some of the early work on innovative behaviour. Innovative behaviour is value-creating, complex behaviour nested in individuals. Such behaviour helps identify potential opportunities and solutions and develops new procedures and methods that benefit the organisation, shareholders, and stakeholders (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022). Innovative work behaviour is proactive and voluntary; the behaviour is consciously (and in some instances subconsciously) activated in the workplace to create or sustain value for the benefit of the employing organisation and or personal gain (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022). This behaviour creates a new or improved dimension to business conduct and performance. The behaviour gives organisations a new impetus by renewing and revitalising various aspects of the work and workplace – including processes, products, and procedures - in a goal-directed manner (Argote et al., 2021). The created value can be incremental or radical.

Most scholars present innovative behaviour as a multi-dimensional phenomenon (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Lukes & Stephan, 2017; Scott & Bruce, 1994). For instance, Scott & Bruce (1994) operationalised it as encompassing idea generation, coalition building, and implementation. Janssen (2000) depicts three elements: generation of ideas, promotion of ideas to colleagues and management, and the realising of the ideas. Kleysen and Street (2001), on the other hand, present five elements: exploration of the opportunity, generativity, investigation or interrogating the available and missing information, championing the ideas, and application of the ideas. The submissions by De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) point to four aspects namely the exploration of ideas, generation of succinct thoughts and ideas (entails processing of the ideas), championing the

ideas that seem to add value, and implementation of the select ideas. The recent submission by Lukes and Stephan (2017), referenced in this study, recognises six elements: generation of ideas, searching for noble, contextual ideas, communicating the ideas to constituencies that matter (colleagues, leadership, others), implementation starting activities, involving significant others, and overcoming any real or perceived obstacles.

Common themes run across the propositions referenced above. First, the literature emphasises the employee's role in developing and processing ideas, i.e., the individual's contribution to the innovation process, hence the study's focus on the individual employee as a critical resource. Second is the role of the workplace as an environment where such ideas are born and nurtured. Third, depending on context and need, employee innovative behaviour could appear as discontinued activities or integrated, if not simultaneous, actions involving an individual and or the collective (Scott & Bruce, 1994; De Bruin & Steyn, 2019). Fourth, such behaviour needs to be encouraged (Bos-Nehles, 2017; Botha & Steyn, 2022). Two main perspectives dominate contemporary research on the voluntary activation of innovation behaviour. These are the individualistic and intrapreneurial perspectives.

2.2.5 Theoretical Perspectives Underpinning Innovative Work Behaviour

2.5.5.1 Individualistic Perspective

This perspective is delineated into two, i.e., the behaviourists and the Gestalt-field psychologists (Phillips, 2021; Taylor, 2017). The behaviourist view depicts behaviour as an outcome of the interaction between the employee and their environment. Behaviourists assume that the activation of a specific action is influenced by the expected consequences (Taylor, 2017). In this vein, reward mechanisms are fundamental in shaping employee behaviour. Gestalt-field psychologists submit that employee behaviour is influenced by how individuals use reason in interpreting the stimuli from the environment to which they are exposed (Phillips, 2021). In other words, the observed behaviour is an outcome of the environment and reason.

One of the core theories of behaviourism is the expectancy theory, anchored on cognitivism. The theory emphasises the role of external motivation and how perceptions of expectations (e.g., positive incentives or lack thereof) activate behaviour towards the desired outcome (Taylor, 2017). For example, an employee chooses (implying there are alternatives) a specific behaviour simply because of what they expect their behaviour to yield, i.e., the desirability of an outcome fosters the

activation of behaviour. While rewards, in their many forms, play a role in activating innovative behaviour, how the reward systems work remains unclear. Nonetheless, the above submissions make it clear that work conditions could potentially drive observed employee behaviour at work. Deci and Ryan (1985; also see Ryan and Deci, 2019, 2020) do not submit to the external motivation school of thought. Instead, they argue that self-motivation is central to innovative behaviour and responsibility, see self-determination theory. Intrinsic motivation implies that an employee is wholly involved in the activity, and the reward is the feeling of accomplishment and enjoyment (Ryan & Deci 2019, 2020). The submissions by Deci and Ryan (1985) resonate with earlier scholars such as Bandura (1977). According to Bandura (1977), individuals possess self-directing capacities and capabilities. This submission from a seminal study by Bandura (1977) views employees as active agents who interpret and reciprocally interact with their environment. Bandura (1977) submitted that images of desired futures by employees encourage thoughts and actions toward the desired distant goals.

2.5.5.2 The intrapreneurial Perspective

The intrapreneurial perspective offers a complementary dimension in explaining the activation of employee innovative behaviour. As highlighted earlier, employees enjoy exclusive insights into a company's daily processes (Bos-Nehles et al., 2017). Employees are proximal to customer needs and expectations (Moghadamzadeh et al., 2020). The perspectives of individuals and the group are critical for producing ideas and executing effective problem solutions. Intrapreneurship is an approach pinned on collaborative, inclusive, internally networked cultures that contribute to organisational goals, hence the choice to situate decent work as a core antecedent to innovative behaviour.

The intrapreneurship perspective also places value on the characteristics of the employee while acknowledging the multilevel, cross-organisational interaction that happens in an iterative way to produce value (Blanka, 2019; Duradoni & Di Fabio, 2019). This perspective is anchored on the recognition that businesses operate in very fluid environments where long-range technical and strategic planning is complex. Therefore, the primary function of leadership is to develop and nurture environments that promote individual employee, group-level, and organisational learning as well as other conditions that encourage adaptation. This conceptualisation introduces organisational learning as a variable in this study. While intrapreneurship and organisational

learning could be viewed as firm-level variables, individual-level employee actions underpin them. Hence, the individual employee is used as an object of analysis in the study setting.

In addition to the role of leadership in nurturing an environment for organisational learning, research also acknowledges the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to engage in intrapreneurial acts (Badoiu et al., 2020). Unfortunately, there is scant literature on how decent work interacts with organisational learning to activate innovative behaviour. If confirmed, the decent work- organisational learning - employee innovative behaviour nexus could serve as a valuable catalytic mechanism for driving internal innovations at a rate faster than external change. This way, organisations will become active agents in the environment rather than merely embracing change.

2.3 APPRECIATING THE DECENT WORK CONSTRUCT

Decent work is a fundamental, universal phenomenon (International Labour Organisation, ILO, 2022a). Decent work is anchored on the human right to work and social justice. This includes the right to enter employment and protection from unfair labour practices. (ILO, 2022a). The human right to work is acknowledged globally and is embedded in country-specific human rights and labour instruments and tools.

Building on ILO (1999), Duffy et al. (2016) defined decent work as: "(a) physically and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absence 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). Decent work enables employees "attain a sense of self-respect and dignity, experience freedom and security in the workplace, and (as far as possible) afford the opportunity to choose and execute productive, meaningful, and fulfilling work that will allow them to construct themselves adequately and without restrictions and make social contributions" (Di Fabio & Maree, 2016, pg.: 9). This integrated conceptualization of decent work has shaped research over the last decade.

2.3.1 Theoretical Basis of the Decent Work Construct: A Focus on Anticipated Outcomes

According to the PWT (Duffy et al., 2015), decent work satisfies meaningfulness, fulfilment, and well-being by securing the survival needs of the employees, as well as their social connection needs. Survival needs include shelter, food, and social capital. This is guaranteed through fair and reliable wages, physically and psychologically safe conditions of work, and the security of the significant others e.g., family.

Decent work is vital for social connectedness, attachment, and belonging. Building on the relational theory of working and the PWF, the PWT posits that work fulfils social connection needs by creating an avenue for in-person and virtual interactions with peers and the broader society. Thus, healthy workplaces build solid networks and serve as platforms for interactions and connectedness, a panacea for meaningfulness.

The PWT model also hypothesises that decent work promotes self-determination. Building on SDT (see Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020), Duffy et al. (2016) submitted that only a minority of people have opportunities to serve in purely rewarding work environments. This suggests the need to design work environments that promote more meaning and purpose. Conceived this way, decent work could foster self-determination.

The PWT model further submits that satisfying one's social connection, self-determination, and survival needs can lead to well-being and fulfillment. Meaningful work promotes fulfilment and well-being (Martela et al., 2021). Meaningful work creates a unity of purpose with others, develops the inner self, serves others, and enables one to express their full potential (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2020). Meaningful work is the subjective experience of positive meaning in the work that one does, deriving meaning from the work experience, and perceiving the work to satisfy a greater good beyond the employee (Lysova et al., 2019; Martelaet al., 2021). Meaningful work creates a genuine connection that pervades work and a broader life purpose (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2020). These submissions recognise the need to serve a transcendent good beyond self.

Meaningful work can come directly from the employee as an individual or as a talent embedded in an organisation (Lysova et al., 2019). Simply put, some employees create and bring a sense of meaning or mission to the work; this can radiate within the workplace (Martela et al., 2021). In the same vein, some organisations build environments where meaningfulness permeates all aspects of the organisations (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2020). Furthermore, the individual and the

organisation can simultaneously create meaningfulness in the workplace (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2020).

Work fulfilment is the experience of personally satisfying and meaningful work (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2020). Well-being is related to the various psychological, cognitive, and affective aspects. It can be linked to life satisfaction. Having a high well-being is also associated with a positive affect that can radiate beyond the individual. Building on the above, the PWT model suggests that by satisfying the need for self-determination, social connection, and survival, decent work develops, and nurtures work fulfilment and well-being. Well-being and work fulfillment are assumed to be positively interrelated.

Existing research supports several elements of the PWT model (see Duffy, Blustein et al., 2020). The conception of the DWS breathed life into empirical, primarily quantitative, research on decent work. Developed in the U.S., the tool has since been tested in predominantly global north contexts (Buyukgoze-Kavas et al., 2019; Di Fabio et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2019; Masdonati et al., 2021; Vignoli et al., 2020). Building on Atitsogbe et al. (2021), this study offered an opportunity to further expose the DWS to the Sub-Saharan African context while assessing the influence of the decent work construct on desirable work outcomes.

2.3.2 Decent Work in Zimbabwe: A Synopsis

i) Safe and Secure Working Environments, Interpersonally and Physically.

NSSA's Workers' Compensation Scheme Notice No. 68 of 1990 and the *Labour Act*, Chapter 28.01 cover all employers' and employees' occupational health and safety issues. However, an estimated 20,641 serious injuries and more than 400 deaths were reported between 2009 and 2013 (Mkungunugwa, 2022). In 2014, Zimbabwe established a national occupational safety and health policy (ZNOSHP). The objective of the ZNOSHP is to reduce accidents in the country. The National Social Security Authority (NSSA) provides oversight on policy implementation.

Less than 20% of Zimbabwean firms have implemented the policy (Mkungunugwa, 2022). Suboptimal adoption and execution of the policy are due to inadequate resources, limited government leadership, and a lack of knowledge and commitment from firms. Sub-optimal implementation of the policy places employees at increased risk of physical and psychological harm at a time when public health services are severely compromised. In addition, intimidation,

and abuse of subordinates, especially women (Nyanga & Chindanya, 2020) and the limited space for labour unions (Chipaike & Marufu, 2020) remain current issues in Zimbabwean workplaces.

ii) Free Time and Rest

Employment is governed by the *Labour Act* (Chapter 28:01) as enshrined in the 2013 Constitution. Regulations, Industry Specific Bargaining Agreements (ISBA), judicial precedents, common law, and authoritative texts guide implementation. The Collective Bargaining Agreement stipulates eight (8) hours, up to 10 hours, of work per day. Section 14 C provides no less than 24 hours of rest each week. Despite these promulgations, poor work conditions characterized by long working hours are prevalent in the private and public sectors (Ncube & Oni, 2020).

iii) Adequate Compensation

Given the state of the economy, the informal sector is now the largest employer in the country (Sebele-Mpofu & Msipa, 2020). Among those formally employed, civil servants constitute a significant proportion. There are sectoral minimum wages in the private sector, while the Civil Service Commission determines minimum wages in the public sector. The poverty datum line has hovered above US $500 for a family of five (Winmore et al., 2021). The average minimum sector wages have remained below the PDL for the majority. Such poverty wages signify decent work deficits. A re-emerging trend is partial or non-payment of salaries and benefits (Uzhenyu, 2019). Furthermore, the employee collective bargaining environment has continued to deteriorate, characterized by minimal wage decreases (Hadebe, 2019). For the umpteenth time, civil servants have declared incapacitation on multiple occasions in the last few years.

iv) Organisational Values Aligned with Employees, Their Families, and Communities.

Research affirms the importance of ensuring alignment between individual, community, and organisational values (Duffy et al., 2016). A common way to ensure alignment is through corporate social responsibility (CSR). In Zimbabwe, economic (accountability to shareholders) (Carroll & Olegairo, 2020); socioeconomic (accountability to stakeholders, including employees) (Rodriguez-Gomez, 2020); and environmental perspectives (the triple bottom line) are more common forms of CSR actions. Most companies in Zimbabwe, including SMEs, are aware of the principles of CSR (Niykahadzoi,2022; Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). Several government instruments also guide CSR. However, the macro-social-economic and political environment has constrained the implementation of CSR actions.

v) Access to Healthcare

Despite the constitution's guarantee of the right to health care, the situation in Zimbabwe remains severely compromised. The country's health services are severely lacking. This is because of government's failure to adequately resource the country's institutions. The necessary infrastructure to support the delivery of effective and efficient healthcare services is largely dilapidated (Nkala et al., 2021; Roets et al., 2020). Private medical insurance is available to employees under an employer plan. However, the hyperinflationary environment has compromised access to services even when insurance is available. Most private health service providers now require upfront cash payments in U.S. dollars to protect against the hyperinflationary environment. However, most employees are still paid in local currency. Therefore, significant top-ups are needed even if one has a paid-up medical scheme. Other employers have eliminated such privileges due to incapacitation. According to the 2015 Demographic Health Survey (DHS), about 9 in 10 men and women did not have medical insurance, while social security coverage was minimal (Musuka et al., 2021).

2.3.3 Existing Studies and Gaps in the Decent Work Literature in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe participated in three generations of the ILO-led Decent Work Country Programs (DWCP), i.e., 2006-2007, 2009-2011, and 2012-2015 (ILO, 2013). The country does not have a current DWCP (ILO, 2022b). The DWCPs were biased toward creating decent jobs and promoting productive employment given the prevailing socioeconomic challenges. From a research perspective, it is worth acknowledging the studies on decent work in Zimbabwe by researchers such as Agapiou (2010); Bhebhe and Takaindisa (2020); Loewenson (2021); Maphiri et al. (2021); Mbiba and Ndubiwa (2006); Ndebele (2018); Sibanda (2019); Vertigans et al. (2020); Werna and Lawrence (2009), among others.

These studies show a growing interest in the decent work phenomenon in the country. The available research looks at specific strands of decent work with a bias towards structural and policy aspects guided by the ILO frameworks. None of the studies investigated used the frameworks and tools referenced in this study, i.e., the PWT or the DWS. Most of these studies did not look at the individual employee. Furthermore, most of these studies are qualitative. None of the studies explored potential associations involving decent work, organisational learning, work engagement, and innovative behaviour. This research utilized a complex model to predict the activation of

innovative behaviour. As mentioned earlier, the choice was driven by the recognition that mechanisms and pathways through which decent work influence innovative behaviour are essentially an unknown quantity.

2.4 APPRECIATING THE WORK ENGAGEMENT CONSTRUCT

This construct has been labelled differently since it was conceptualised. It has been labelled personal engagement (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004), employee engagement (Harter et al., 2002), work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002); and job engagement (Rich et al., 2010). Nonetheless, the 'work engagement' terminology is commonly referenced in the existing literature. To aid in understanding the concept, the development of the concept from the existing literature is presented. Broadly, the evolution can be categorized into three dominant themes, as espoused below.

2.4.1 Theoretical Basis of the Work Engagement Construct

The first conceptualisation can be traced to Goffman (1961). Goffman (1961) observed differences in how people feel about themselves and their work environment. The differences manifested in the quality of attachment or conversely detachment to their work roles. However, Kahn (1990) is highly regarded as setting the tone for contemporary research on work engagement. In 1990, psychologist William Kahn stated that engagement related to employees' psychological experience of their work. Kahn (1990) posited that psychological conditions such as safety at work, meaningfulness, and the right energy/resources influenced employees' physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement. May et al. (2004) affirmed Kahn's conceptualisation, showing that the experiences of meaningfulness and psychological safety positively affected employee engagement. Kahn's conceptualisation offered an empirically tested multidimensional framework that reflects the latent conditions of the willingness to engage.

Another conceptualisation of the work engagement construct is premised on the social exchange theory (SET). SET, as posited by Saks (2006), is hinged on the evolving nature of relationships – such as trust, loyalty, and mutual commitments – within the work environment, that creates silent but mutually reciprocal rules (Banihani et al., 2013). SET (Saks, 2006) suggests that organisational resources (economic, socio-emotional) provided to employees create reciprocity, an unwritten rule

challenging the employee to repay the organisation through engagement. In the absence of adequate resources, employees compromise the quality of emotional, cognitive, spiritual, and physical resources they, at a personal level, are willing to devote to their work role, i.e., they disengage (Schaufeli, 2018).

To a large extent, Kahn (1990) and Saks (2006) similarly explain the employee-work engagement nexus, i.e., the beneficial, mutually reinforcing interconnection between the physical, emotional, and mental engagement of individual employees viz. what the workplace offers (Banihani et al., 2013). These submissions suggest that engagement would be compromised when employees experience decent work deficits or precarity.

The third conceptualisation treats work engagement as negatively related to burnout (Schaufeli, 2018). This analogy defines work engagement as a gratifying psychological posture characterized by intense concentration, dedication, and vigour (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Unlike other forms of the mental state that are tied to a particular event or object in the work environment, work engagement is not. Work engagement is a persistent psychological inclination where employees are highly absorbed in their work, with vigour and dedication (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Vigor refers to one's ability to overcome various obstacles and challenges in the work environment and their willingness to invest in their success. Dedication is expressed in the form of enthusiasm, pride, and significance. Absorption is the high degree of concentration to work; it is a peak experience that can result in a distorted temporal experience and a heightened focus on the present moment (Schaufeli, 2020). It can also lead to a lack of self-consciousness.

This conceptualisation leans heavily on the job demands and resources (JD-R) model. The JD-R theory elucidates the interconnection of job demands and resources and how this interaction influences two primary employee outcomes, i.e., burnout and engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2017) recently summarized the seven propositions that gird the JD-R theory.

The first proposition articulates a binary classification for job characteristics. Job demands include the work's social, psychological, physical, or organisational elements that bear physiological costs to the employee. In the other vein, job-related resources encompass physical, psychological, social, or other organisational aspects that diminish or protect against work-related demands and costs while promoting learning, employee growth, and development (Bakker et al., 2021).

The second proposition states that work-related resources and demands activate different processes and outcomes, i.e., the job demands cause health impairment via burnout. In contrast, job resources promote motivation by harnessing personal and organisational resources. The third proposition suggests the compensatory influence of job resources on the demands. Empirical evidence shows that resources at work subdue the negative effect of job demands in their various forms (Mazzetti et al., 2021; Khusanova et al., 2021). This submission suggests that decent work could influence work engagement.

The fourth proposition emphasises the importance of the quality and or the number of job resources when exposed to myriad job demands. Like the COR theory, this proposition suggests that work and non-work resources have a protective effect when faced with high job demands (Sanhokwe, 2022d). The proposition is born out of the recognition that the work environment may place heavy demands on employees. Hence, the organisation and the employee can offset the burden by enhancing availability and access to high resource streams, e.g., securing decent work (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). The term 'active jobs' is used in the literature to explain jobs that consciously or otherwise combine high demands with high resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Bakker & de Vries, 2021). The highly chaotic business environments of today present increasing demands in the workplace. Providing adequate resources under such circumstances challenges employees to learn and motivates them to activate extra-role behaviour. It is partly on this basis that the decent work - work engagement nexus should be appreciated.

The fifth proposition articulates the influence of personal (including non-work) resources in augmenting other resources at work. Personal resources include the perceived level of control over an employee's environment. As Ryan and Deci (2020) mentioned, employees are active participants in their environment, i.e., they do not passively respond to the stimuli in their environment. This proposition implies that personal resources positively influence work engagement (Schaufeli, 2017).

The sixth proposition is that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see Proposition 5 above) positively impact job performance, whereas job strain has the opposite effect (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). Employees suffering from impairment exhaust their energy reserves and fail to deliver. On the contrary, motivated employees are goal-oriented and exhibit enthusiasm and energy (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). This proposition highlights the need to offer employees time to rest and recuperate

to remain engaged, again emphasising the inclusion of decent work in the study model. The last proposition links motivation to proactive behaviour such as innovative work behaviour. This proposition highlights how such proactive behaviour acts in mutually reinforcing, virtuous fashion by generating higher levels of job and personal resources. Propositions 5-7 further cemented the choice to interrogate the decent work - work engagement relationship.

Although it is generally considered that job demands are negative, they can also be beneficial, that is, job demands can either be a challenge or a hindrance (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). Hindrance job demands can lead to excessive restrictions that prevent employees from fulfilling their goals. (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). In the context of the mass teleworking induced by the COVID-19 pandemic, ILO (2022a) highlighted how role overload had resulted in employees failing to disconnect from work. Challenging job demands, in contrast, promote personal growth and development (Kim & Beehr, 2018). Achieving them creates meaning and fulfilment (Kim & Beehr, 2018). This conceptualisation further suggests the potential influence of context-specific decent work experiences on work engagement.

2.4.2 Gaps and Other Pointers on the Work Engagement Construct

Shoko and Zinyemba (2014) and Mpundu (2016) reported concerningly low statistics on work engagement in Zimbabwe. Both studies revealed that less than 40% of the employees were highly engaged at work. Maleka et al. (2019) reported that Zimbabwean employees had the lowest work engagement scores relative to their counterparts in South Africa and Namibia. Earlier, a qualitative study, drawing on public sector experiences in Zimbabwe, concluded that suboptimal work engagement (or disengagement) manifested as mal-service performance (Sibanda et al., 2014). These findings heightened interest in interrogating the work engagement construct in the study context.

Extant research in Zimbabwe strongly suggests the significant role of psychological capital (Ngwenya & Pelser, 2020) on work engagement. In support of SET, the study by Chinyamurindi & Tsvangirai (2019) established a link between workplace surveillance and employee engagement. Furthermore, Bhebhe (2020) reported on the influence of workplace conditions, such as management behaviour towards employees, on work engagement. Meanwhile, Tshuma (2022) found that rewards & recognition positively influenced work engagement. In that study, job

demands, and resources predicted work engagement as well as work happiness and job satisfaction. Ndengu & Leka (2022) also established similar findings.

While the list of studies presented above is not exhaustive, the paucity of research on how the work engagement construct interacts with innovative behaviour is evident. This is a major gap given that work engagement and innovative behaviour are much-needed capabilities in Zimbabwe, today. The literature is also scant on its interaction with the decent work construct proposed as an antecedent in the study model. The suboptimal business environment in Zimbabwe requires a better comprehension of the pathways and mechanisms that influence, nurture, and propagate self-initiated behaviour beyond the simple linear model investigations prevalent in the current literature. The workplace has become very complex, hence the need to adopt tools (such as mediation analysis) that enhance the understanding of complex phenomena, including how factors such as work engagement interact with other theoretical concepts/constructs.

The Utrecht Work Engagement Survey (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002) has been exposed to the Zimbabwean context in very recent studies. Masvaure and Buitendach (2019) tested and confirmed the utility of the UWES in a Zimbabwean setting. Sanhokwe (2022c) also confirmed the quality and utility of the UWES-17 and UWES-9 using bifactor modelling.

Despite the extensive literature on the work engagement construct, research linking job resources to work engagement has produced mixed results, see the metaanalysis by Mazzetti et al. (2021). Mazzetti et al. (2021) attribute the inconclusive results, premised on the JD-R model, to the contextual differences between countries and organisations. Decent work is a universal concept measured using a standard scale. Decent work simultaneously embeds motivational, resource, and justice attributes that could uniquely impact and sustain work engagement. Thus, the study contributes to the current debates on organisational influences on the work engagement construct. The decent work-work engagement nexus has been scantly investigated in the literature, more so in global south contexts. Furthermore, while the antecedents of work engagement have been extensively explored, its outcomes and well-being/fulfilment correlates, such as employee innovative behaviour, are still lacking (Mazzetti et al., 2021). This study addresses some of these gaps by further interrogating the work engagement- innovative behaviour nexus. This relationship has not been extensively investigated in a Zimbabwean setting.

2.5 APPRECIATING THE ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING CONSTRUCT

Practical issues in the workplace have promoted the growth of corporate and scholarly research on organisational learning (OL). The rate and quality of acquiring learning-based knowledge have developed into a vital conduit for generating competitive advantage. The increasing complexity of organisations e.g., as multi-unit, multinational entities in knowledge-based economies demands effective acquisition, transfer, and utilisation of quality knowledge. Competition requires organisations to process internal and external signals at high speed to facilitate decision making. The connected environment challenges organisations to act locally but think globally, placing further demands on organisational learning. The significant growth in information communication and technology (ICTs) has increased organisational capacity to collect, process, store, and use data for decision-making. This has created new possibilities for OL. The volatile and wildly uncertain business environment of today demands increased quality of judgment, wisdom, and action. Encompassing 'non-human' (via ICTs e.g., artificial intelligence) and human attributes, the quality of OL has a bearing on decision-making, despite the limitations inherent in making inferences in rapidly evolving contexts.

2.5.1 OL paradigms

The account of OL paradigms in this study was influenced by the work of Popova-Nowak & Cseh (2015). The paradigm itinerary presents a shift from generalisable overviews of OL to more nuanced and localized meanings necessary for interpreting the phenomenon in the study context. This conceptualisation was deemed essential because decent work – OL – employee innovative behaviour nexus has been scantly addressed in contemporary literature. Therefore, this study required a clear articulation of OL's ontological and epistemological premises to adequately situate the construct as both an antecedent and a mediator in the investigation.

2.5.1 The Functionalist Paradigm

OL studies have been predominantly driven by the functionalist paradigm, which is based on the ontology of being (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Reality is conceived as an objective phenomenon that is fundamentally real and discrete, a critical assumption in this study (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). The functionalist epistemology seeks to generate knowledge that mirrors

a value-free, reliable, and valid view of reality to explain and predict employees' behaviour in their individual and collective capacity. This paradigm conceptualises an organisation as an entity comprising structures with specific boundaries and attributes that affect how OL manifests to satisfy specifically defined outcomes (Argote et al., 2021).

The functionalist paradigm draws mainly from cognitive and behavioural approaches as well as social action theory (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Inspired by the early work of Argyris and Schön (1978, 1997) and others (see Daft and Weick, 1984), the cognitive approach explains the role of organisations as open information systems that acquire, process, and interpret signals in the environment they are situated in. The organisations possess memories and cognitions. The behavioural approach views OL as an adaptive mechanism, an outcome of the organisation's conscious interaction with its environment (Odor, 2019). The social action theory gravitates toward OL as an open system of predominantly conscious actions related to acquiring, processing, interpreting, disseminating, and storing information (Cousins, 2021).

The three approaches are united in certain aspects related to OL. They focus on building the adaptive capacity of organisations. Furthermore, they view OL as a linear process. The functionalist researchers utilise models developed for individual-level learning to analyse and interpret the collective learning processes, which is a weakness as articulated below. These approaches position OL as a purposive, if the not deliberate, organized activity (Argote et al., 2021), which partially explains why OL was suggested as a valid variable in the study, linking employee behaviour to the survival and adaptive needs of the firm through innovation.

To functionalists, OL is a conscious act to explore new possibilities and exploit old certainties through employees' individual and collective experiences (Argote et al., 2021; Cousins, 2021). The individual, group, and organisational perceptual filters process signals from the external environment (Argote et al., 2021). The interpretive capabilities of the organisation, through its employees, convert the information into knowledge for greater dissemination through formal and informal communication channels (Argote et al., 2021). It follows that the perception filters employees wear determines the knowledge quality.

Building on social exchange theory (SET), the quality or nature of the employee-organisation relationship has a bearing on what and how information is acquired, filtered, and processed into value-adding knowledge that is available, accessible, and utilisable by the organisation and its

constituencies. The submission above emphasises the choice to understand employees' perceptions of their environment and how they engage as objects of analysis in OL efforts.

A critical aspect conceived by the functionalists relates to the concept of organisational memory. Organisational memory is situated within five complementary, mutually reinforcing strata: individuals, culture, transformations, structures, and ecology (Argote et al., 2021). The quality of the interactions culminates in learning of various degrees, i.e., single, double, and triple learning (Armanious & Padgett, 2021). Single-loop learning is the lowest level that fosters adaption to the external environment and improves aspects that support organisational effectiveness (Armanious & Padgett, 2021). This lower-level manifests itself through primary associations between organisational behaviour and results. Double-loop learning occurs when organisations recognise the need to build and develop new capabilities by restructuring their filters, knowledge, and memories (Armanious & Padgett, 2021). Finally, triple-loop learning is viewed as the optimal version of OL that empowers organisations to learn, unlearn, and relearn their unique learning processes to enhance value creation (Armanious & Padgett, 2021). This study argues that the degree of learning influences employee expectations of innovation in the workplace and, by extension, the quality of their innovative behaviour.

In conclusion, individual employees are at the heart of the functionalist paradigm, including their role in the collection, interpretation, dissemination, storage, and retrieval of all valuable information available and accessible to the organisation (garbage in, garbage out; little in, little out). Organisational ecology produces signals and images that influence the individual employee's cognitions and behaviour. Hence, the choice to include decent work as an antecedent to OL and the employee as the unit of observation.

The functionalist paradigm has its weaknesses. The paradigm assumes that the learning that employees experience at the individual level is similar and radiates across the collective. (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). The paradigm shies away from articulating how the learning at the employee level accumulates, in a value-adding fashion, at the group and organisational levels (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). This study lives with these limitations; given that it is anchored on several tenets of the functionalist paradigm.

2.5.2 The Constructionist Paradigm

This paradigm in OL considers reality as emergent and shaped by social interaction (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Employees create reality through experiences shaped by social interactions, internal and external to organisations. To the constructionist, knowledge is socially constructed and embedded in the perceived value systems of the employees who are the creators of such knowledge (Qi & Chau, 2018). Furthermore, this perspective considers organisations as fragmented, heterarchical, evolutionary entities. Organisations are influenced by their employees' individual and collective sense-making and meaning-giving realities (Qi et al., 2019). The internal and external environment influence cognitions and behaviour. Conceived this way, OL is, therefore, a generative practice in the workplace that simultaneously produces social structures within which knowledge exists or is nurtured.

Two main theoretical developments, Giddens' (1982, 1984) the structuration theory and the concept of organisations as specific cultures, shape the constructionist view of OL. First, Giddens (1982) emphasised the role of social actors, situated in their specific contexts, whose practices and actions depict their social life. Second, structuration affects communication patterns that people consciously or subconsciously establish to realise and satisfy particular social purposes (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015*).* Thus, OL could be viewed as an organisational practice, an outcome of the interaction of employees and organisational structures. The actions of employees produce and reproduce these structures with novelty, thus enabling individuals and organisations to learn in a simultaneous, reinforcing fashion. Informal, collective thinking patterns and actions gird this conceptualisation of OL. Scholars have placed OL within the realm of organisational culture. The key element is the choice to use socially constructed language that is contextually embedded in the organisation (Friedman, 2016).

This language, it is argued, mediates the employee's construction of reality (Pfadenhauer & Knoblauch, 2018). Based on the socially constructed language of choice, employees learn intersubjectively by participating in informal community practices in the workplace (Pfadenhauer & Knoblauch, 2018). The degree to which they participate is influenced by their perception of their environment or, broadly, the organisational culture. Contrary to the functionalist paradigm, informal learning at the individual, all the way to the organisational level, occurs through the interplay of explicit and tacit knowledge.

A significant limitation of this paradigm lies in how it underestimates the influence of formal organisational structures on what individual employees can and cannot do (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Furthermore, this paradigm also discounts formal OL processes (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Finally, while acknowledging how significant the environment is for the organisation and OL, constructionists still disregard it as an independent and influential factor (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015).

The other two paradigms, the critical and post-modernist paradigms – are relatively marginal in contemporary literature on OL. The critical paradigm hinges on the ontology of being while adopting the epistemology of dissensus (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). The critical paradigm supports the notion of individual learning and action instead of collective. The ontology of becoming greatly influences the post-modernist paradigm (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015).

The view that OL encompasses creating new or improved knowledge is consistent across all paradigms discussed above. The functionalist perspective views OL as the generation of new or enhanced knowledge related to the changes in individual, group, and organisational cognition and behaviour. The evolutionary posture adopted by the organisation is necessary for adapting to chameleonic environments. In this regard, the functionalist paradigm provides a valuable point for understanding the decent work, OL, and employee innovative behaviour interaction modelled in this study.

From a constructionist perspective, the socialization process augments and broadens the individual knowledge base (Qi & Chau, 2018). Organisations learn from their employees through the interaction of explicit and tacit knowledge. Such learning hinges on the historical and social context and development of the organisation. (Argote et al., 2021). The social activities of employees in their capacities and as groups, anchored in specific work contexts, create, and shape the learning experience, i.e., OL is more of a social process rather than a cognitive one (Argote et al., 2021). Decent work satisfies the need for relatedness (Duffy et al. 2016). In the same vein, the social posture is an important thread of the innovative behaviour construct.

Thus, OL is a social process where individual employees participate in collective practices and discourses that seek to expand and improve organisational knowledge for the betterment of the entity (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). This view of OL acutely acknowledges its social nature, cognitive aspects, and embeddedness in communication patterns manifesting as texts and language (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Furthermore, it emphasises the role of individuals and the

collective within the situational dictates of the organisation. The quality of learning has implications on organisational performance-related outcomes. Some organisations learn greatly and improve; others do not (Levine & Argote, 2020). Failure to learn or sub-optimal learning can have devastating consequences on leadership, stakeholders, and shareholders alike (Argote et al., 2021). Organisations learn through direct experience, observational experience (including from customers, other players in the ecosystem, interactions with institutions of higher learning, etc.), or a combination of both. Learning-based knowledge takes different forms, e.g., tacit vs. explicit or declarative vs. procedural. Processes that drive learning vary from automatic stimulus response associations to deliberate, proactive processing of complex information (Argote & Levine, 2020). Drawing inferences from experiences can be challenging especially when the operational context is significantly distorted e.g., pre and post-COVID-19 pandemic landscapes are substantially different. As such, the accumulation of knowledge may not yield the expected performance impact. This introduces the learning organisation phenomenon.

2.5.3 OL in the Zimbabwean Context: The Known and Unknowns

There are two predominant strands of OL-related research in Zimbabwe. One focuses on the learning organisation phenomenon, while the other studies the impact of learning on an organisation's overall performance. Kayinamura (2012) interrogated the extent to which the organisations in Zimbabwe were learning organisations. This mixed-method study reported a limited understanding of OL in the workplace. The lack of appropriate infrastructure was cited as a constraint to learning. The above result hints at the inherent risks organisations in the country assume, i.e., they do not enjoy the benefits of OL, nor can they create an enabling environment that promotes learning simply because the fundamentals are not in place.

A study by Chinoperekweyi (2018), using a sample drawn from the banking sector, indicated the influence of OL on organisational effectiveness. Earlier, Sibiya et al. (2016) and Sibiya (2017) modelled the influential role of OL on organisational performance using a sample drawn from haulage companies. The study by Sandada (2015) exposed the dual role of organisational learning and innovation in retail business resilience in the country. These referenced multisectoral studies have used different approaches in their investigations, i.e., qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods, a critical necessity given that the field is still in its infancy.

Besides the above-referenced studies, literature on the antecedents of the construct, more so the role of decent work (or conditions of work in general) is scant. Neither does the available literature in Zimbabwe articulate the role of OL in activating innovative behaviour. However, this could, to some extent, be implied from performance measures that rely mainly on macroeconomic, societal-level measures. The limited literature on the manufacturing sector is also concerning given the sector's role in driving the economy and related ecosystems. Ascertaining the level of OL as well as its antecedents and influence on innovative employee behaviour opens a valuable space for leadership teams as they aggressively seek value creation through the innovation efforts of their talent. As a strategic choice, OL could help unlock organisational value in unison with the other constructs in use.

Government statistics show increased enrolment in post-graduate programs at institutions of higher learning which could be an indicator of employee development, an ingredient for organisational learning (Garwe & Thondhlana, 2019). However, there is limited information on how organisational development programs are implemented via university-industry collaborations. In addition, the macroeconomic climate saw several organisations, including parastatals and quasi-government institutions, reduce their investment in staff development to curtail costs. These circumstances could propagate or curtail the quality of organisational learning in the long run.

2.6 SITUATING THE EXPECTED RELATIONSHIPS

2.6.1 Linking Decent Work to Organisational Learning

Decent work appears as an important antecedent to developing the learning orientation, developing learning capabilities, and creating a learning organisation (Alerasoul et al., 2022). Organisational learning is epistemologically situated in specific organisational contexts (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). An organisation's unique characteristics can influence its employees' behaviour and cognitions. This is because the level of learning that employees engage in can vary depending on the context. For constructionists, the specific situations in which the organisational learning is situated significantly affect the quality of learning (Popova-Nowak & Cseh, 2015). Situated learning (see Donaldson et al., 2020) resides in the environment that yields it, thus implying that conceptual representations or learning are subservient to activity and employee perception.

As Qi and Chau (2018) articulated, knowledge is not only socially constructed; it is situated in specific work contexts. Thus, learning is best conceived as a set of behaviour dominant in the workplace. The enculturation is driven by the meanings attached to their contexts and perceptions of the same (Argote et al., 2021). The quality of the organisational context, or broad conditions of work, is linked to the extent it satisfies the various employee needs, such as self-determination, survival, and social connection. The greater the quality of the context, the better the quality of learning that accumulates at an organisational level (Argote et al., 2021; Qi, 2018). By situating organisational learning within organisational contexts and conditions while emphasising the role of employee perceptions on the same, the literature provides a basis to interrogate the decent work - organisational learning nexus using the individual employee perspective.

Organisational learning denotes the quality and extent to which knowledge is generated, promoted, and transformed into new, value-creating ways at the company level (Argote et al., 2021; Sanhokwe et al., 2023). Learning is best conceived as a set of behaviour dominant in the workplace whose enculturation is driven by the meanings attached to their contexts and perceptions of the same (Argote et al., 2021).

Social exchange theory (SET) suggests that the quality and nature of the employee-organisation relationship has a bearing on what and how information is acquired, filtered, and processed into value-adding knowledge that is available, accessible, and utilizable by the organisation and its constituencies (Argote et al., 2021; Sanhokwe et al., 2023). The psychology of working theory (PWT) suggests decent work satisfies employees' self-determination, survival, and social connection needs (Duffy et al., 2016). By satisfying the self-determination, social connection, and survival needs of employees, decent work could promote the effective development, deployment, and utilization of organisational learning capabilities.

Furthermore, RBV suggests that organisational capabilities can arise or expand over time as a firm takes actions that build on its strategic resources, the employees (Barney, 2001; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010). Capabilities are important in part because they are how organisations capture the potential value that resources offer (Barney, 2001; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010). The study submits that by guaranteeing decent work, firms bundle and transform their most valuable resource - the employee - into an organisational learning capability, a key need in the face of a highly demanding and dynamic environment. Such capabilities enable experimentation in search of novel solutions

to address gaps and or exploit opportunities and require support for creativity and tolerance for failure as organisations strive to adapt to dynamic contexts (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017; Sanhokwe et al., 2023).

While the decent work-organisational learning relationship has rarely been examined, evidence suggests that decent work may support learning investments, enhance learner quality, and enrich the learning environment, essential ingredients for fostering effective organisational functioning:

H1: Decent work is positively associated with organisational learning.

2.6.2 The Organisational Learning and Employee Innovative Behaviour Connection

Innovative work behaviour demands that individuals, teams, and the organisation perceive, think, and act differently, enabling them to participate in change processes by knowing how and what to change, and the capability and resilience to implement and reinforce the desired change (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022). Conceived in this way, innovative work behaviour appears as a critical need in today's workplace (AlEssa & Durugbo, 2022; Kahn, 2020), influenced by the quality of the enterprise-wide knowledge base.

The importance of the relationship between organisational learning and innovative work behaviour is underscored when considering that if knowledge and innovative behaviour do not circulate effectively in an organisation, resources will be wasted, and value generation will be severely curtailed (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Inadvertently, the survival of the firm is challenged. Without the knowledge of what is already in place in or outside the organisation, any acts of innovation are merely duplicative, costly efforts (Nicholls, 2006). An organisation either learns and innovates or spends its energy adapting to external changes, a futile attempt in the long run (Argote et al., 2021). Based on RBV, this study positions organisational learning capabilities as a bundle of intangible and tangible capabilities that enable and empower the firm to effectively transform the acquired knowledge into value-creating work behaviour manifesting as new or improved processes, procedures, systems, and other ways of doing business (Urban & Gaffurini, 2017). Conceived in this way, innovative work behaviour appears as a major outcome of the organisational learning causal chain (Alerasoul et al., 2022).

Several studies have examined the link between organisational learning and innovative work behaviour. Abd Awang et al. (2019) used a sample of micro and small-scale enterprises (MSEs)

in Malaysia to model the positive effect of organisational learning on innovative work behaviour. In a study situated in high-performance, knowledge-intensive businesses in Spain, Lafuente et al. (2019) found that organisational learning capabilities (OLCs) positively influenced employee innovation performance (also see Liu, 2017). Similarly, we expect that:

H2: Organisational learning positively relates to innovative work behaviour.

2.6.3 The Organisational Learning, Decent Work, And Employee Innovative Behaviour Pathway

In satisfying employee needs, decent work fosters high-quality forms of engagement for value-adding activities, such as organisational learning; it also promotes behavioural motivation, including innovative work behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2021). Employees are active organisms with an evolutionary affinity to grow, master natural selection challenges, and integrate new experiences into their development (Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2021). The affinity for learning and competence-related development is nurtured or curtailed by the social contexts, including decent work. The study submits that decent work could create healthy environments that promote employee and organisational development, through learning, and effective functioning, through innovative work behaviour. In satisfying employees' psychological and material needs, decent work could build environments where learning is promoted and thrives, and by extension, the development and sustenance of innovative work behaviour.

The RBV lens suggests that by offering decent work, organisations champion the identification and coordination of their core resources (Barney, 2001) and their effective deployment to develop context-specific organisational learning capabilities and harnessing such capabilities to promote innovative behavior at work. This value-adding pathway is also sustained through reciprocal social exchange relationships, see SET (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965; Masterson et al., 2000). Organisational learning could, therefore, act as a core underlying mechanism through which decent work indirectly and significantly ignites and sustains employees' innovative behaviour.

H3: Organisational learning mediates the decent work and innovative behaviour relationship.

2.6.4 Decent Work and Engagement at Work

Work engagement comprises a behavioural-energetic dimension (vigour), a cognitive component (absorption), and an emotional dimension (dedication), and (Decuypere & Schaufeli, 2020). While

the literature is still evolving, theory suggests that decent work could interact in powerful ways with work engagement. A relationship is expected because decent work satisfies multiple human needs that promote intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Navajas-Romero et al., 2020). According to Ryan et al. (2019), although employees are endowed with intrinsic motivational tendencies, the development and sustenance of this inherent propensity require supportive conditions. Intrinsic motivation is an evolving propensity; Work conditions – as decent work or decent work deficits - could evoke and sustain or constrain and debilitate this innate propensity.

As postulated by Levinson (1965), employment is a transaction between labor, loyalty actual interest, and social rewards. Reciprocity to the parties involved, that is, an employee's experience of decent work will likely culminate in high work engagement. Building on Masterson et al. (2000), an employer who guarantees psychological and physical safety, access to health care, commensurate remuneration, time to rest and recuperate, and aligns employee and organisational values creates a sense of responsibility in employees that can manifest as work engagement. In Eisenberger et al. (1986) words, high levels of perceived organisational support – e.g., through decent work - creates obligations in employees to better serve the organisation. As submitted by Saks (2006), employees who feel obligated to repay their organisation for a great experience do so through their level of engagement.

Basic workplace conditions such as safety (physical, psychological), adequate compensation, access to health care, value congruence, free time, and rest can serve as job resources. Such resources carry motivational and material postures that can promote higher work engagement by activating the motivational and material processes. Decent work provides commensurate job resources to satisfy challenge and hindrance job demands. Decent work remunerates employees according to their capabilities and levels of work. Such environments become aquifers of energy, promote employee resilience to act on personal and work-related challenges, and enable them to concentrate on their jobs, the fundamentals of work engagement (Navajas-Romero et al., 2020; also see Navajas-Romero et al., 19)

Work is characterized by its conflicting role with other dimensions of employee life, including family, societal needs, and time for oneself. Most employees experience long working hours. The plight of workers has been exacerbated by teleworking, which has eliminated the traditional work/non-work divide amid calls to promote the right to disconnect (ILO, 2022a). Such conditions

cause stress and reduce employees' concentration and drive at work. Giving employees free time to rest, including time to disconnect, recuperate, and sleep re-energizes, and freshens them mentally and physically, thus enabling them to remain engaged (Li et al., 2022). This study submits that:

H4: Decent work is positively associated with work engagement.

2.6.5 Linking Work Engagement to Employee Innovative Behaviour

Emotional, cognitive, and physical energies that reside in employees can fuel and sustain innovative work behaviour (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Vigour, dedication, and absorption serve as core ingredients that stimulate the generation of ideas, including their promotion and realisation to generate new sources of organisational value. Cognitive engagement serves as the mental energy for innovative behaviour. Cognitive engagement facilitates innovative work behaviour by challenging individuals and the collective to exploit existing and new knowledge structures and systems, expanding their perceptions of workplace possibilities, and challenging existing combinations by trying non-traditional methods and processes (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Through emotional engagement, employees are empowered by the purpose and meaningfulness of innovative efforts. In their empowered forms, highly engaged employees distill and propagate proactive behaviour – in the form of innovative behaviour - across the breadth and scope of the organisation (Kwon & Kim, 2020; Sari et al., 2021). Innovation is not only strenuous, but it also demands commitment, resilience, and the drive to overcome obstacles before coming to fruition (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Employees' physical engagement is, therefore, also an antecedent to the realisation and sustenance of innovative behaviour.

Employees' self-reinforced appetite to grow and satisfy a bigger cause creates an impetus for highly engaged employees to pursue performance-related behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2019, 2020; Ryan et al., 2019). Driven by such a burning desire, such employees invest in and devote themselves to their work (Khusanova et al., 2021). Engaged employees are psychological owners of the desired behaviour towards their work (Ranihusna et al., 2021). Ranihusna et al. (2021) conducted a comprehensive study that revealed that work engagement could positively influence innovation. A meta-analytic study by Sari et al. (2020) further confirmed the mutual connection

between work engagement and the activation of innovation behaviour (also see Kwon & Kim, 2020). Hinged on the above submissions, the study claims that:

H5: Work engagement positively relates to innovative work behaviour.

2.6.6 The Influence of Work Engagement in The Decent Work-Innovative Behaviour Nexus

A basic need, be it physiological or psychological or otherwise, is an energizing state that if satisfied through the experience of decent work could promote innovative work behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2020; Ryan et al., 2019). Resourced, self-determined motivation, underpinned by decent work, is more likely to energize the mind, body, and soul, and breeds initiative and imagination, i.e., innovative work behaviour. Extant literature suggests that by satisfying employee needs for survival, relatedness, and meaning (Blustein et al., 2022), decent work promotes the cognitive, emotional, and physical engagement of employees and stimulates the generation of new or novel ideas and initiatives. Further, as posited by SET, in their empowered state, highly engaged employees reciprocate and contribute to their organisations through their innovative acts.

As mentioned earlier, this hypothesised pathway has rarely been examined in the extant literature, more so in global south contexts. A pioneering study by Xu et al. (2022) modelled the effect of decent work on IWB through work engagement. In their model, intrinsic motivation and job self-efficacy partially mediated the positive effect of decent work on work engagement. This study positions work engagement as the direct underlying pathway through which exposure to decent work activates innovative behaviour in the study setting, that is:

H6: Work engagement mediates the decent work and innovative behaviour relationship.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has articulated the evolution, theoretical, and empirical underpinnings of the constructs in use, including gaps therein. The review demonstrated the importance of understanding the phenomena under investigation in the study context.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The methodological question dictates how reality should be studied (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). The methodology incorporates the principles and fundamentals that dictate the organisation, planning, designing, and conduct of research, i.e., it is the science and philosophy in pursuit of specific study objectives validly and reliably (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). It follows that the methodology for a study is ultimately judged for rigour and strength.

This chapter builds on the literature synthesized in Chapter Two. The study adopted a positivist vantage point. A quantitative approach influenced the choices related to data collection, processing, derivation of additional research-specific intelligence, and creation of new insights relevant to the study. This chapter details essential aspects of the methodology that influenced the study's ability to report valid and reliable results.

3.2 RESEARCH ONTOLOGY

Ontology is a field of study that focuses on the nature of reality (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). There are two predominant strands of ontology, i.e., the positivist and interpretivist ontological postures. The positivist ontology affirms reality's external, objective, and independent nature and influences this research (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). The interpretivist ontology claims that reality is a subjective, social construct that changes in space (context-relevant) and time (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). Literature also acknowledges the realist and pragmatist ontological postures.

According to the realist ontology, reality is objective but is influenced by the knowledge and beliefs of the subjects of interest (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). The interpretation of such reality is governed by the rules and behaviour inherent in society (socially conditioned realities). The pragmatist ontology submits that reality is not only external but can be understood from multiple vantage points; the thrust is to select the best view for understanding the phenomena of interest (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019).

3.3 RESEARCH EPISTEMOLOGY

Epistemology denotes the forms and nature of knowledge, including the acquisition and communication of such knowledge (Berryman, 2019). The epistemological question shapes a researcher's considerations regarding what is desirable, yet feasible to satisfy the needs of a study (Berryman, 2019). The epistemological question builds on the ontological belief system. The ontological belief systems influence the assumptions made by researchers in the quest for new knowledge (Berryman, 2019).

For instance, expecting a singular verifiable truth demands that the researcher detaches from the subject and object to avoid contaminating the search and interpretation of the desired truth (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). In contrast, belief in multiple socially constructed realities contextualizes meanings, names, and language (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). The former is the positivist/post-positive epistemic posture, while the latter is interpretivism.

3.4 RESEARCH PARADIGM/PHILOSOPHY

A research paradigm is the strategic posture influencing the researcher's choices and practices in conducting research (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). The researcher adopts specific ontological and epistemological views that determine the research's execution. The ontology articulates the nature of reality (objective vs. subjective) and consequently the relationship between the researcher and reality (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). An objective lens assumes that a single reality exists regardless of the investigator's perspective. Thus, the investigator aims to standardise the field of study, make sense of it, and obtain the answer to specific questions to create new knowledge.

Conversely, subjectivism asserts that multiple realities exist, given the different perceptions and experiences of the various objects of study (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Berryman, 2019). Based on the ontological posture, two main epistemic views emerge positivism and interpretivism (Davies & Fisher, 2018; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021).

Interpretivism follows an inductive process in which knowledge emerges as an outcome of discovery (Davies & Fisher, 2018; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021). The focus is on understanding the actions of others and discovering meanings, beliefs, deeper motives, and reasons (Davies & Fisher, 2018; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021; Ryan, 2018). Such a process is helpful for generating theory.

This research adopted the positivist epistemic posture. Positivism entails a structured and controlled approach to research using data on measurable phenomena obtained and analysed using replicable methods (Davies & Fisher, 2018; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021; Ryan, 2018). Furthermore, hypothesis testing confirms or falsifies logical concepts and relationships deduced from existing theories (Davies & Fisher, 2018; Kumatongo & Muzata, 2021; Ryan, 2018). The research investigated malleable drivers of innovative behaviour. Positivism offered a valuable alternative to making context generalizations for the constructs in use in the study setting without delving into the deeper meanings of the same. The researcher and the study respondents remained independent.

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

The crux of research is to generate new knowledge on an identified problem. The design serves as the strategy of choice that incorporates the various study components to satisfy the goals of the research (Akhtar, 2016). The research design articulates the conditions for the inquiry governed by logic, relevance, coherence, and economy. In this regard, the research design anticipates and articulates the choices and logical decisions in planning and conducting the data collection, processing, and analysis (Akhtar, 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The emphasis is on a systematic methodology that generates valid and reliable information with economy, procedure, and sensitivity (Akhtar, 2016).

As part of generating new knowledge, there are instances where there is limited or no preexisting knowledge to predict or explain an outcome or phenomenon (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018; Akhtar, 2016). Under such circumstances, an exploratory design is utilised to gain additional insight and guide future research (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018; Akhtar, 2016). Causal designs, also popular in research, seek to investigate cause-effect relationships using various experimental,

quasi-experimental, and mixed methods (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). Causality is established when the following requirements are satisfied i) empirical association, ii) temporal priority of the independent variable, and iii) non-spuriousness (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). On the other hand, descriptive studies provide information about the naturally occurring characteristics of a phenomenon of interest (Akhtar, 2016). Such studies demonstrate generalisable associations produced through one-time exposure to or interaction with study respondents (a cross-sectional study design) or over a period (a longitudinal or time-lagged one).

Although a cross-sectional design could have situated the hypothesised relationships, its inherent inability to distinguish cause and effect categorically was found constraining (Taris et al., 2021). The four constructs in use are theory-heavy. In such circumstances, theories provide causality. Therefore, the researcher can conduct explanatory modelling based purely on theory-data relationships.

This research sought to predict innovative behaviour. Therefore, to satisfactorily evaluate the proposed predictive model, the research had to show that the causes and the outcome are related based on theoretical arguments, see Chapter 2. Additionally, the study had to show that the changes in causes preceded the results over time. Informed by the above submissions, the research employed a time-lagged design. Data on demographics, decent work (independent variable), work engagement (mediating variable), and organisational learning (mediating variable) were collected during the first wave (t1). The second wave (t2) only collected data on the criterion variable and the demographic data elements of interest. This design reduced the risk of common method bias by separating the observations of the outcomes and antecedents (Kock et al., 2021). The temporal ordering of observations augmented the argument that the observed association could be interpreted as causal, given that the essential design conditions were promoted in the study, coupled with the appropriate statistical analyses (Taris et al., 2021).

The researcher imposed a fundamental boundary condition to situate the study in one large, multinational manufacturing firm. The thrust was four-fold: i) the researcher was interested in pursuing two phases of data collection within the same setting and employee characteristics, ii) the respondents were situated within a very similar internal environment, thus making it conducive to coherently investigate the behaviour of the constructs in use, iii) the organisational setup allowed

employees across the levels of work to participate at random and anonymously so, and iv) the decent work phenomenon is hinged on the paid employment model in the developed world, the so-called Fordist employment regime, which promised stable, accessible, and secure employment with wide-ranging benefits hence the choice to focus on one large manufacturing firm whose conditions closely mirror this conceptualisation.

3.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

There are three research approaches, that is, quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. The qualitative approach is iterative and seeks improved understanding by getting closer to the phenomenon being studied (Aspers & Corte, 2019). The focus of the qualitative approach is not to generalise the findings; instead, the thrust is on developing an in-depth exploration of the phenomenon of interest, including theory development (Aspers & Corte, 2019).

As the term implies, mixed methods integrate the acquisition, handling, and synthesis of quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Hirose, 2019; Harrison et al., 2020). Such an integration enhances the appreciation of the phenomena of interest (Harrison et al., 2020). Alternatively, mixed methods are vital when the quantitative or qualitative approach, on its own, is deemed inadequate to provide a robust appreciation of the phenomenon of interest (Creswell & Hirose, 2019).

This study used the quantitative approach. The quantitative approach is considered by some quarters to be the epitome of scientific inquiry (Quick & Hall, 2015). The quantitative approach facilitates systematic empirical investigation (Park et al., 2020). Numeric data on the observable phenomenon is collected to enable the development and utilisation of mathematical models that unpack the phenomena of interest (Park et al., 2020). A fundamental aspect of the approach is its ability to systematically measure variables and establish quantitative relationships that provide new knowledge.

Quantitative data, collected using closed-ended questionnaires, were exposed to inferential statistical analysis to satisfy the claims made. The study model delimits the variables in use and hypothesised relations between them. The quantitative approach is consistent with positivist epistemology (Park et al., 2020). This is particularly true in this study because all the features of

interest - decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative behaviour - were isolated, conceptualised, and measured using numerical scales.

Walliman (2017) acknowledges that although the quantitative design has its roots in natural sciences, some variables outside that domain can be measured using standard tools, hence the choice to employ the approach in this study. Such empirical studies' findings help refine or strengthen theory and practice (Park et al., 2020). The quantitative approach enables the replication of methodologies and findings in other contexts (Park et al., 2020).

3.7 POPULATION, SAMPLING FRAME, AND SAMPLE

One of the multinational manufacturing firms in the country consented to be part of this investigation on the basis that results would be used exclusively for academic purposes. The manufacturing sector is significant to the economy and society at large (Chinjova & Scott, 2021); it is also innovation sensitive. While the sector's competitiveness has waned significantly over the last two decades, it continues to sustain many related ecosystems. Capacity utilisation in the sector has hovered below 50% in the last two decades while competitiveness continues to plummet (Chinjova & Scott, 2021). As mentioned earlier, competitive, adaptive, and generative advantages can only be enjoyed sustainably through innovations, hence the study's enhanced interest in the sector.

The theoretical perspectives of the constructs-in-use influenced the decision to derive a representative sample from one firm. The academic and contextual literature suggests that employee perceptions of how they interact with their specific environment, particularly the internal one, shape performance-related behaviour. Evaluating the proposed model in a unique setting limited the potential 'noise' that could arise from diverse contexts in space and time. Simply put, the model was measured in a controlled fashion and ascribed causality between the constructs. The assignment of causality calls for manipulation to control extraneous (situational) variables that could emanate from different work contexts. The researcher sought to guarantee internal validity without necessarily infringing on external validity.

The research acknowledges that over 60% of the Zimbabwean population is employed in small businesses, predominantly family-owned or informal. However, the independent variable - decent work – is biased towards formal employment. For example, the DWS collects data on items such as "My employer provides acceptable options for healthcare" and "I (do not) feel I'm paid enough based on my qualifications and experience", conditions that are more available in formal workplace settings in Zimbabwe. In this sense, the study aligns more with formal workplaces within the confines of labour law.

The firm has 800 full-time employees across all levels of work. These constituted the sampling frame for the study. There is an ongoing debate on what constitutes a minimum sample size for a survey that utilises structural equation modelling (SEM) given its underlying features (Wolf et al., 2013). Various rules of thumb have been proposed for estimating the number of observations for SEM: (i) Boomsma (1982, 1985) suggested 100 or 200), (ii) Bentler and Chou (1987) hinted that 5-10 observations per parameter could suffice, and (iii) Nunnally and Bernstein (1967) proposed 10 observations per variable. However, such approaches have been challenged. Extant literature suggests the use of (i) the Satorra and Saris (1985) method, (ii) the MacCallum et al. (1996), and (iii) the Monte Carlo simulation technique (Muthén & Muthén, 2002).

Anderson and Gerbing (1984), using the Monte Carlo method, propose 100 as the minimum sample. In the same vein, Wolf (2013) suggests a sample size of 30 to 460. Hair et al. (2019) argued for using the G*power statistical software to derive the sample size for structural equation modelling. The study used G*Power 3.1.9.4 and confirmed that a minimum sample of 74 yielded a power (1-β) of 0.95 for a model with four constructs, 0.05 error probability, and effect size, f^2, of 0.15 (Faul et al., 2009).

One hundred fifty-one (151) out of 800 (19%) employees completed round one of the online surveys. The second round of the survey was 'restricted' to those who participated in round one of the surveys. One hundred and two (102) respondents completed the second wave of the study, see Table 3.1. Therefore, the study was sufficiently powered. The derived samples fit within the ranges Pan et al. (2018) suggested for mediation analysis. Table 3.1 displays the characteristics of the samples.

Table 3. 1: Characteristics of the two samples.

Sample Elements of Interest	Wave 1 (*n* = 151)		Wave 2 (*n* = 102)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Gender				
Male	101	67%	66	65%
Female	50	33%	36	35%
Age				
<40 years	125	83%	86	84%
40+ years	26	17%	16	16%
Level of work				
Junior level	26	17%	84	18%
Middle level	125	83%	18	82%
Level of education				
Secondary	13	9%	5	5%
Tertiary	138	91%	97	95%
Highest qualification				
1 = Certificate	13	9%	3	3%
2 = Diploma	25	16%	17	17%
3 = Degree	113	75%	82	80%
Length of service				
<5 year	110	73%	70	69%
5+ years	41	27%	32	31%

Salary level				
1 = Z$0.00 to Z$120,000.00 (0% Tax)	37	25%	23	23%
2 = Z$120,000.01 to Z$360,000.00 (20% Tax)	26	16%	18	18%
3 = Z$360,000.01 to Z$720,000.00 (25% Tax)	13	9%	8	8%
4 = Z$720,000.01 to Z$1,440,000.00 (30% Tax)	62	41%	41	40%
5 = Z$1,440,000.01 to Z$3,000,000.00 (35% Tax)	13	9%	12	12%

3.8 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

KoBo Toolbox (https://www.kobotoolbox.org/), a user-friendly online platform, was employed for data collection. The online survey meant that the researcher was completely detached from the reality of the firm and its employees, thus enabling him to discover the employee-organisational context realities in the study setting. There has been a surge in online data collection lately (Sah et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2021). Singh, et al. (2021) reported that no significant biases exist between data collected online viz. traditional in-person surveys. Biemer et al. (2021) also observed no significant decline in data quality in a study that transitioned from in-person to online data collection.

Given confidentiality and privacy issues in the workplace, senior management cascaded the survey link to their employees. The research sought to engage all employees in the organisation. Internal channels were used to broadcast the survey link to employees across all levels of work. On receiving the survey link, employees opted in by clicking a 'Yes' button after reading the survey details. The survey landing page provided details about the survey and the scope of the study. Furthermore, the landing page indicated the estimated survey completion time; so were the facts that the study was strictly confidential, voluntary, and anonymous. A WhatsApp number and an email address were also provided in case a respondent required more information about certain

aspects of the survey. The survey dashboard enabled the researcher to track survey completion daily. This offered the researcher an opportunity to provide weekly updates to management.
All employees had the same chance to take part in the survey voluntarily. Furthermore, the platform was structured in such a manner that no single gadget could be used to populate the questionnaire more than once. The questionnaire could only be submitted if all questions had been answered. This could partially explain why only about 19% of the total staff complement completed the first survey. Online data collection enabled employees to complete and submit the entire questionnaire at a convenient time.

There was a one-month lag between first and the second surveys. This could be considered an interval of convenience. However, it was deemed sufficient for this investigation. The survey link was also sent to all employees for the second survey. Complementary information was sent to employees encouraging only those who had participated in the first survey to complete the second one without consequence for those who did not complete the first survey or those from the first survey who chose not to be part of the second wave of the study. As shown in Table 3.1, the two samples were comparable.

3.9 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The study model consists of four constructs: decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative behaviour. The measures for the four constructs were integrated into one close-ended questionnaire. Sections 3.9.1 to 3.9.4 provide brief descriptions of each of the four measures. The survey also collected data on gender, age, the highest level of education, tenure in the organisation, level of work, employment status, and salary level to characterise the two samples.

3.9.1 Decent Work

The study used the 15-item decent work scale (DWS) developed by Duffy et al. (2017). The DWS assesses the five sub-scales of decent work, namely “safe working conditions”, “access to healthcare care”, “adequate compensation”, “free time and rest”, as well as “complementary

values". Employees were asked to rate each item using a seven-point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree (zero), disagree (one), somewhat disagree (two), neutral (neither agree nor disagree (three), somewhat agree (four), agree (five), or strongly agree (six)). Sample items include: "I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work" and "I get good healthcare benefits from my job". Compared to others, a seven-point Likert scale has been shown to exhibit higher accuracy and offers a better evaluation of the behavioural aspects of interest, hence the choice to use it in this study (Taherdoost, 2019).

The scale exhibits robust psychometric properties (see Ferraro, 2020). The DWS is a reflective measure. In reflective cases, the construct causes its indicators, whereas in formative cases, the construct is caused by its indicators. Indicators of a reflective construct should be highly correlated, while indicators of a formative construct do not have to be correlated. Indicators are not the defining characteristic of a reflective construct (Zhang et al., 2021). The changes in an indicator do not change the reflective construct's overall structure. Also, they do not alter the concept's internal consistency. Moreover, removing an indicator does not modify the reflective construct's conceptual domain. The consequences and antecedents of an indicator of a reflective construct are similar. (Zhang et al., 2021).

3.9.2 Organisational Learning

The study referenced the 16-item organisational learning capability (OLC) tool developed by Jerez-Go´mez et al. (2005) to measure this construct. Employees self-rated their perception of organisational learning capability using a seven-item Likert-type scale (totally disagree (0), disagree (one), somewhat disagree (two), neutral (neither agree nor disagree (three), somewhat agree (four), agree (five), or totally agree (six)). Sample items for this scale include: "This firm promotes experimentation and innovation as a way of improving work processes" and "Part of this firm's culture is that employees can express their opinions and make suggestions about the procedures and methods to perform tasks". The scale exhibits robust psychometric properties (Jerez-Go´mez et al., 2005). The OLC is a reflective measure; see Jerez-Go´mez et al. (2005).

3.9.3 Work Engagement

The ultrashort version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-3), developed by Schaufeli et al. (2017), was used to gauge the level of work engagement. Employees self-rated their levels of work engagement (for example, "At my job, I feel bursting with energy") using a seven-item frequency type scale (Never (zero), almost never (one), rarely (two), sometimes (three), often (four), very often (five) or always (six)). A meta-analysis by Mazzetti (2021) showed that although few studies have used UWES-3 (see, Schaufeli, 2019), the results of the ultra-short version were not significantly different from the longer versions of the UWES (UWES-17 and UWES-9). The UWES is a reflective measure. A multi-country study by Schaufeli et al. (2017) reported Cronbach Alpha values in the range of 0.77-0.85.

3.9.4 Innovative Behaviour

The six-factor, 20-item Innovative Behaviour Inventory (IBI) of Lukes and Stephan (2017) was used to evaluate the levels of innovative behaviour. The IBI is also a reflective measure. Employees self-rated their levels of innovative behaviour using a seven-item Likert-type scale (fully disagree (zero), disagree (one), somewhat disagree (two), neutral (neither agree nor disagree (three), somewhat agree (four), agree (five), or fully agree (six)). Sample items include: "I am interested in how things are done elsewhere to use acquired ideas in my work" and "When something does not work well at work, I try to find a new solution". Previous studies (see Wiener and Sedger, 2021) have reported robust psychometric properties for this scale.

It is worth highlighting that the ordering of the measures in the first survey was in such a way that they did not give a psychological clue on the hypothesised relationship between constructs in use.

Control Variables

The study was controlled for age (<40 years and + 40) and gender (one = female, zero = Male).

3.10 PRE-DATA ANALYSIS CONSIDERATIONS AND CHOICES

3.10.1 Missing Values

In most studies that rely on self-reported data, questionnaire completion is suboptimal for a multitude of reasons, including a respondent's inherent choice to select and answer questions they are comfortable with, an ethical consideration of sorts (Mirzaei et al., 2022). In such circumstances, the researcher must employ statistical techniques such as list deletion, pairwise deletion, and data imputation to address the missing values (Mirzaei et al., 2022).

For this survey, the data collection platform was configured so that one could only submit the questionnaire after populating all the fields. If an employee tried to submit the survey without completing the survey, an error message highlighted the incomplete portions. This may have constrained the response rate (also classified as an ethical issue-related limitation). However, given the measures in use, having complete questionnaires was critical. For example, UWES-3 is comprised of three items. If for some reason, information on any of those items was consistently missing, the utility of the measure would be severely compromised. Furthermore, as Mirzaei et al. (2022) claimed, individual items or sub-factors may carry unique information, hence the choice to configure the online platform in the manner it was.

3.11 THE CHOICE OF UNIT OF OBSERVATION AND ANALYSIS

Employees are active agents who interact with their perceived environments (Bandura, 1977; Ryan & Deci, 2020). In so doing, they act on the stimuli in such a manner to (re)create and alter that environment to satisfy their needs and expectations (Ryan et al., 2019).

Further, as submitted by Veldsman and Johnson (2016), employees interpret not only their actions, but that of others, including that of their leaders. Thus, the individual employee can be an important unit of observation. Perceptions form and develop at the individual level before coalescing at the group, team, or organisational levels. As such, workplace-related perceptions are better appreciated at the individual employee level. Hence, the study focused on the individual employee to appreciate the constructs in use.

3.12 COMMON METHOD BIAS: PRE AND POST DATA COLLECTION EFFORTS

Self-reported data carry inherent risks, including common method bias (CMB). Such a bias occurs when observations for the independent and criterion variables occur using the same response method e.g., from the same person using the same technique. While the predictor and criterion variables for this study were collected at different instants (subdues CMB), wave 1 data for the explanatory and mediating variables were collected at the same time from the same individuals using the same method (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, the study carried an inherent risk of CMB. To reduce the risk of CMB during data collection, the study used proximal and psychological separators. Specifically, the measures for the constructs in use were not placed in the order they appear in the model. In addition, the response categories were not the same for all the measures, that is, the survey employed different anchors for the four scales. For each construct, there was an introductory statement that helped transition from the previous set of questions to the next. After data collection, the study used Harman's single factor test to assess the magnitude of CMB in the first wave data. The variance for the first factor as a percent of the total variance explained is used to falsify CMB. The first factor accounted for 36.76%, suggesting that the common method bias was minimal.

3.13 ASSESSING THE MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODELS

3.13.1 Assessing the Measurement Model

All four study constructs are unobserved, i.e., cannot be directly measured. Hence, data on the observed variables, that is, the individual items that constitute each scale are used for evaluating the measurement models.

3.13.1.1 *Assessing Suitability for Structure Detection*

The data for each measure were exposed to factor analysis. Two tests were conducted – the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test that assesses sampling adequacy in complementarity with Bartlett's sphericity test - to ascertain the suitability of the data for structure detection. Cerny and Kaiser (1977) suggest a threshold of 0.60 for the KMO, while values greater than 0.9 are deemed

marvelous. For Bartlett's test, $p < 0.05$ suggests that factor analysis is a plausible alternative (Bartlett, 1954). The results of both tests highlighted that factor analysis was a valuable alternative to synthesising the data (Cerny & Kaiser, 1977).

3.13.1.2 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Confirming the suitability of structure detection paved the way for factor analysis. Most research studies have relied extensively on classical higher-order models. Classical higher-order models may be inconclusive (Rodriguez et al., 2016; Schaaps, 2019). Item response models are complementary alternatives to the traditional methods of analysing the relationship between constructs and variables. A bifactor model satisfies the goal of measuring a single latent trait of interest and therefore corresponds to the theory (Sanhokwe, 2022b). The bifactor model controls for the variance that may arise due to additional common factors and gauges the extent to which items of a measure reflect a common trait and any sub-traits. Bifactor models can directly correlate with the elements of observable behaviour (Rogers et al., 2020). Unlike higher-order models, which constrain the relationship between the individual items and measure, the relationship between the bifactor model g and the individual elements is not affected by the latent factors (Rogers et al., 2020). The bifactor analysis was primarily undertaken to confirm whether each of the measures-in-use – decent work, organisational learning, work engagement, and employee innovative behaviour - could be interpreted as separate sub-scores based on their underpinning theoretical underpinning or as single summative scores.

For data analyses, the researchers used the IBM SPSS v. 26 software and the Bifactor Indices calculator, a Microsoft Excel-based tool that can be used to calculate various indices related to the bifactor model, accessible at http://sites.education.uky.edu/apslab/resources/ (Dueber, 2017). The researchers used the SPSS software to generate the unidimensional and standardised factor loadings, and inputs for bifactor modelling. The Bifactor Indicator calculator then generated three outputs - at the factor, item, and model levels - which were interpreted according to the pre-defined thresholds.

3.13.1.3 Reliability and Validity

Three of the four measures have rarely been referenced in the study context. Such circumstances necessitate the need to assess the reliability and validity of the measures. Internal consistency reliability is the commonly referenced aspect of reliability. The observed differences between individual respondents should emanate from variations in true scores; however, in some instances, such differences are due to measurement errors. The Cronbach Alpha is the predominant measure of internal consistency reliability despite its known limitations. The Cronbach Alpha's assumption of equal sensitivity across all items of a scale is largely unrealistic (Hayes & Coutts, 2020). Given these limitations, this study also referenced the Omega coefficients as they are more aligned to factor models where the items do not contribute equally to the latent variable, or the factor score for each measure. The study also used composite reliabilities (CR) to further assess the internal consistency reliability of each measure. For the Cronbach Alpha and the CR, scores greater than 0.70 are referenced as satisfactory (Purwanto & Sudargini, 2021). Results in Chapter 4 depict the internal consistency reliability of the four measures.

The validity of a scale lies in the degree it captures the breadth of a particular construct (Clark & Watson, 2019). Construct, content and criterion-related validity test results offer insights into the quality of the four measures. Criterion-related validity is embedded in the model being tested. Content validity measures the extent to which the scales used - DWS, UWES-3, OLC, and IBI - measure the content of the constructs as per their underlying theoretical underpinnings. On this basis, the researcher used previously validated, standard tools, despite their limited experience in the study context.

Construct validity manifests as convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity ascertains whether concepts that are theoretically related are indeed related (Shi & Maydeu-Olivares, 2020). The study results in Chapter 4 satisfy Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion for convergent validity, that is, average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.5. The results in Chapter 4 also satisfy Hair et al.'s criteria for convergent validity, that is, AVE > 0.5, standardised factor loading for the observed items > 0.5, and CR > 0.7. Discriminant validity tests ascertain whether unrelated concepts are indeed distinct (Shi & Maydeu-Olivares, 2020). The study acknowledges the traditional approach by Fornell and Larcker (1981). However, given the documented limitations of the approach, this study only reports on the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations proposed by Henseler et al. (2015). Higher HTMT suggests discriminant validity is a

problem (Henseler et al., 2015). A threshold of 0.90 is referenced, that is, values less than 0.90 suggest discriminant validity. The measures were also assessed for invariance using multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The study used the weighted least squares mean and variance estimator to account for the ordered response categories (Nouwen et al., 2021).

A pilot test was carried out with 20 employees drawn from a similar firm. The instrument was also reviewed by the supervisors for input. Reliability and validity aspects need to be ascertained before an instrument is used in an investigation, in addition to the after-the-fact confirmation. Hence, the choice to do a pilot and post-data collection analyses as detailed above.

Once the four measurement models were deemed satisfactory, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to evaluate the study model.

3.13.2 Evaluating the Structural Model: Making a Choice Between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM

Once CFA was completed, the analysis shifted to understanding the relationships among the four constructs using structural equation modelling (SEM) techniques. SEM is a second-generation multivariate approach for analysing structural relationships between latent (i.e., unobservable) constructs and the observed variables, a key focus of this investigation (Cho et al., 2022). SEM captures the nested nature of the data, examines the mediated relationships simultaneously, and yields more precise estimations of the relationships of interest (Cho et al., 2022). In this way, SEM enhances the appreciation of the relationships under investigation.

Two predominant strands of SEM are referenced in literature, that is, covariance-based (CB-SEM) and partial least squares-based SEM (PLS-SEM). CB-SEM considers the covariance matrix of the data. In estimating the model parameters, only the common variance is considered (Hair et al., 2019). The estimation of the CB-SEM model demands the multivariate normality of the data which was satisfied in this study. CB-SEM integrates several existing, multivariate techniques, including path analysis, regression analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis (Zhang et al., 2021). CB-SEM simultaneously analyses latent structures and the observed variables, relations among them, and their effect on the criterion variable, innovative behaviour (Zhang et al., 2021). The CB-SEM model considers the measurement error in the outcome and predictor/explanatory variables. This assures a more accurate estimation of the model's effects and parameters (Zhang et al., 2021).

The PLS-SEM considers the total variance when estimating the model effects. As a causal model, it maximizes the variance of the dependent constructs (Sarstedt et al., 2022). PLS-SEM is inappropriate for testing relationships among reflective constructs because it is designed to maximize variance rather than evaluate the measurement model against the model implied by the covariance matrix. Given the above constraints, CB-SEM offered a viable alternative. The study used IBM® SPSS® Amos (Analysis of Moment Structures) to perform CB-SEM. IBM® SPSS® Amos is based on covariance, hence the easy choice. In IBM® SPSS® Amos, the researcher constructed the model of interest. The structural model was executed accordingly, configured at a bias-controlled confidence level of 95% with 1000 bootstraps. The standardised regression weights (for direct and indirect effects) and the probability values were obtained and indicated the significant paths. The standardised estimates were extracted, tabulated, and interpreted based on pre-determined thresholds, see Section 6.13.3.

3.13.3 Assessing Model Fit

Model fit indices express how well the observed data for the four constructs fits a particular probability distribution. Two categories of model fit indices are referenced in the study: absolute and incremental fit measures. Absolute fit indices are predicated on the fit of the covariance matrices. They do not compare with an alternative model; rather, the observed data generates a model (Dash & Paul, 2021). The derived indices show the model that best fits the available data (Dash & Paul, 2021). Relative or incremental fit indices use the null model as a base to evaluate the model's comparative, incremental, or relative fit (Dash & Paul, 2021). The thresholds for the selected fit indices are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2: Types of model fit indices and level of acceptance

Type	Fit indices	**Proposed level of acceptance**
Absolute fit indices	The Chi-square of the estimated model	p-value greater than 0.05
	Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI)	Greater than 0.95
	Adjusted goodness-of-fit Index (AGFI)	Greater than 0.90
	Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)	Less than 0.08
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Less than 0.08
Incremental fit indices	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	Greater than 0.90
	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Greater than 0.95

Note. From *CB-SEM vs PLS-SEM methods for research in social sciences and technology forecasting* by G. Dash & J. Paul, 2021.

3.14 PRESENTING THE FINDINGS: OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Tabulated results of the measurement and structural models are interpreted. Several conclusions are drawn. The discussion section offers recommendations based on the results generated (Dash & Paul, 2021). To add value to the research, there is a need to look beyond the *p* values and effect sizes (Bakker et al., 2019). *P* values offer binary outcomes. Furthermore, quantifying the effect sizes is a necessary but insufficient condition for interpretation. Therefore, the study i) provides confidence intervals where applicable and ii) offers contextually plausible, alternative explanations to the results to improve the understanding of the phenomena under investigation.

3.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Derived from the Greek term ‘ethos’, research ethics is a moral philosophy that guides the conduct of the researcher and the research subjects (Sandu et al., 2018). As a tradition, research ethics continues to evolve toward what is ‘good, beautiful, desirable’ (Sandu et al., 2018). In this vein, research ethics concerns the way of being of those involved in the research. As articulated by

Knottnerus & Tugwell (2018), once a research issue has been identified, the core ethical issue lies in determining the quality of the problem at stake. This will determine whether the perceived issue is important and therefore justifies exposing potential respondents to the intricacies of the research, including the burden and inherent risks embedded therein. Today, ethical issues in research go beyond informed consent, privacy, risk, and harm reduction. They now encompass self-determination, trust, and the right to control research that generates knowledge that has a bearing on the well-being of the research subjects (Sisk & DuBois, 2020).

3.15.1 Voluntary Participation

Voluntary participation was satisfied at the organisation and individual employee levels. Supporting documents, including the entire proposal, were shared to assist the organisation in making an informed decision and protect its right to participate. At the individual employee level, the employees were informed that participation in this study was strictly voluntary. Although the survey link was broadcasted to all employees, employees had the liberty to opt out easily by simply not clicking the survey link, thus not investing in the survey. The survey landing page provided information on the study, including the time to complete the survey. A specific 'consent' button was created on the survey landing page with 'Yes/No' options to proceed with the survey. Employees were highly encouraged to participate. Clicking the 'Yes' button gave the employee access to the following pages of the survey. The employee left the survey page without consequences by clicking 'No'.

Additionally, an employee could choose to start the interview and not complete it without consequence. The downside of the adopted opt-out strategy is that it can culminate in self-selecting bias toward employees interested in the study's issues. The interest – perceived or real – could also have been influenced by the length of the survey, the fact that the study was in English, and other factors related to employee schedules and access to data during off-work hours, among other factors.

3.15.2 Non-maleficence and Beneficence

The researcher created an environment that guaranteed inclusion and safety. The survey did not collect personally identifiable information. Using a secure online platform (plus a password-protected database) assured employees that the research was independent and anonymous. The

company and its employees were guaranteed that the data would be strictly used for academic research purposes only. The employees were free to complete the survey at a convenient time. As mentioned earlier, contact information (email and WhatsApp) was provided to employees to follow up on any specific aspects of the survey. Six employees reached out i) requesting more time to complete the survey and ii) checking when the results would be shared and in what format.

3.15.3 Gaps in The Ethical Approach to The Study

Although due diligence was taken to ensure a responsibly executed research process, the study was not without limitations. The Zimbabwe 2013 *Constitution*, as read with the *Disabled Persons Act* (Chapter 17:01), expressly recognises the rights of people with disabilities. This research may not have been sensitive to employees with disabilities. The research did not seek these important details at the study's beginning, during, and after. Current best practice suggests that researchers make their information and communication technology-related surveys accessible to people with disabilities comparable to the access enjoyed by others. In addition, research should have customized its products to ensure the inclusion of any employees with disabilities. This was a missed opportunity to make a difference and hear the voices of those who are differently abled.

In seeking the firm's participation, the researcher engaged with the leadership, expectedly so since they make day-to-day choices on behalf of the firm. As the study concluded, it dawned on the researcher that maybe establishing a small, multi-level committee to oversee the study from the beginning could have ensured better appreciation of the survey and procedures and guaranteed enhanced ownership and participation.

Although English is the medium of communication in most workplaces in Zimbabwe, it is not an indigenous language. A 19% participation rate for a large firm is not suboptimal; however, more employees could have possibly participated if local languages were used. In this vein, the study missed the opportunity to situate the four measures more definitively within the country's cultural context.

The limitations stated above are not exhaustive but represent 'after-the-fact' reflections by the author on how the research process unfolded until the end. The limitations carry a futuristic perspective to research ethics policy and practice in this regard.

3.16 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Building on the strength of a time-lagged design, this chapter detailed an integrated approach adopted to satisfy the study's objectives reliably and validly. Guided by the ethical tenets of research, this chapter lays a firm foundation for the rest of the study. Situated within the positivist/post-positivist realm, the study employs a quantitative approach to data collection using previously validated measures. In addition, multiple techniques are used before and after data collection to improve the data quality.

Myriad complementary analysis techniques and solutions are used to appreciate the structure of the measures in use. Building on this, appropriate techniques for mediation analysis, using CB-SEM, are used to unpack the relationships among the variables, including the mechanisms and pathways in which they influence each other. No methodology is without gaps. However, this chapter has provided evidence suggesting robustness within the predefined limits of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: STUDY RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Embedded in Chapter Four are results that directly address the core objectives of the study. The section refreshes the reader by providing a high-level summary of the quality of the four measurement models, together. This gives way to a presentation of the structural models and hypotheses The potential confounding roles of gender, age, and seniority in the mediated relationship between decent work and employee innovative behaviour are tabulated and interpreted. The results of the Stone–Geisser's (Q^2) test of predictive relevance are also presented. A summary and conclusion wrap up the Chapter.

4.2 OVERALL SUMMARY OF THE QUALITY OF THE MEASUREMENT MODELS

The Cronbach Alpha and composite reliability scores for the four measures exceeded the 0.70 threshold (Alarcón et al., 2015), thus confirming the internal consistency reliability of the measures, see Table 4.1. The average variance extracted (AVE) scores (decent work = 0.687; work engagement = 0.875; innovative behaviour = 0.544; and organisational learning = 0.619) exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.50 ((Alarcón et al., 2015), see Table 4.1, thus confirming construct validity.

Table 4. 1: Construct reliability and validity.

Latent Variable	Mean	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Explained
Decent Work	5.308	0.784	0.805	0.687
Innovative Behaviour	5.6436	0.916	0.932	0.544
Organisational Learning	4.924	0.860	0.878	0.619
Work Engagement	3.8476	0.928	0.954	0.875

The means for the four scales are depicted in Table 4.1; the correlations among the latent variables are detailed in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Latent variable correlations.

Latent variable	Decent Work	Innovative Behaviour	Organisational Learning	Work Engagement
Decent Work	1.000	0.583	0.630	0.365
Innovative Behaviour	0.583	1.000	0.424	0.686
Organisational Learning	0.630	0.424	1.000	0.620
Work Engagement	0.365	0.686	0.620	1.000

This study used the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) of correlations to further ascertain the discriminant validity of the measures in use (Henseller et al., 2015). As shown in Table 4.3, all HTMT values were below 0.85 (Henseller et al., 2015), thus confirming the discriminant validity of the measures in use.

Table 4. 3: HTMT results.

	Decent Work	Innovative Behaviour	Organisational Learning	Work Engagement
Decent Work				
Innovative Behaviour	0.680			
Organisational Learning	0.730	0.782		
Work Engagement	0.512	0.826	0.481	

4.3 STRUCTURAL MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

4.3.1 Tests for direct effects

The path coefficients explain the relationship between variables in the study model; see Table 4.4. The path coefficient from decent work to organisational learning was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.63$, $p = 0.000$). The finding supports Hypothesis 1. As expected, organisational learning was positively linked to innovative behaviour, $\beta = 0.424$, $p = 0.001$, see Hypothesis 2. The results provide support for Hypothesis 4 as decent work was positively and significantly associated with work engagement ($\beta = 0.365$, $p = 0.001$). Work engagement positively and significantly correlated with innovative behaviour ($\beta = 0.686$, $p = 0.000$), thus confirming Hypothesis 5.

Table 4. 4: A path analysis.

Relationship	Estimate	S.E.	CR	*p*
Work engagement ← Decent work	0.365	0.098	3.704	***
Organisational learning ← Decent work	0.63	0.081	7.782	***
Innovative behaviour ← Organisational learning	0.424	0.045	9.436	***
Innovative behaviour ← Work Engagement	0.686	0.037	18.554	***

Note. SE = standard error; C.R = critical ratio; *p* = *p-value*; ***p < 0.001.

4.3.2 Model fit indices for the CB-SEM path analysis

Through a structural model, the path analysis was performed. Almost all the goodness-of-fit measures for this model met the threshold levels set by previous scholars, that is, GFI = 0.979, AGFI = 0.905, TLI = 0.950, CFI = 0.988, SRMR = 0.061, and RMSEA = 0.060 (Dash & Paul, 2021). In unison, the fit indices suggest the adequacy and suitability of the model.

4.3.3 Test for indirect effects

The mediating effects of organisational learning and work engagement on innovative behaviour are presented in Table 4.5. Organisational learning significantly mediated the relationship between decent work and innovative work behaviour (H5: β = 0.267, p = 0.001). Similarly, work engagement positively and significantly meditated the relationship between decent work and innovative work behaviour *(*H6: β = 0.250, p = 0.005). The confidence intervals for both paths did not include zero thus confirming the significance of the relationships. The results indicate that organisational learning and work engagement act as underlying pathways through which decent work transforms into innovative behaviour.

Table 4. 5: Evaluating the indirect effects of organisational learning and work engagement.

Parameter	Standardised indirect effect	95% CI		*p*
		LL	UL	
IWB←OL←DW	0.267	0.206	0.343	0.001
IWB←WE←DW	0.250	0.078	0.448	0.005

Control variables	*β*	*T*	*p*
Gender → Innovative behaviour	0.203	4.029	0.001
Age → Innovative behaviour	0.017	0.3437	0.732
Level of work → Innovative behaviour	-0.001	-0.023	0.982

Based on extensive reviews of contemporary literature, Hayes and Rockwood (2017) opine that categorizing mediation effects into partial or full mediation does not necessarily add value to theory and practice. Instead, they claim that all that is important is to evaluate the presence of mediation or the lack thereof, hence the study does not report on that.

The design did not allow the study to establish causation between the independent variable and the mediators. Thus, the hypothesised model was compared with an alternative, reverse model in which the two mediators acted as independent variables that indirectly predicted innovative work behaviour via decent work. The organisational learning→ decent work → innovative work behaviour path was insignificant (β = 0.023, p = 0.061*)*. Similarly, the work engagement → decent work → innovative work behaviour path was insignificant (β = 0.003, p = 0.462*)*.

For the control variables, gender was positively linked to innovative behaviour (β = 0.203, p < 0.001). Level of work (β = -0.001, p = 0.982) and age (β = 0.017, p = 0.732) were not significantly

related to innovative behaviour. Hence, the need to assess the potential confounding effects of the control variables.

4.4 ACCOUNTING FOR CONFOUNDERS

The quality of research of this nature lies in the extent to which it controls for confounders, a failure of which can result in suboptimal (e.g., incorrect) inferences. Based on the literature, the study predefined potential confounders – age and sex – as being causally associated with decent work and innovative work behaviour, but not necessarily with the intermediate variables.

Table 4. 6: Controlling for gender, age, and seniority.

Parameter controlled for gender	Estimate	95% CI		*p*
		LL	UL	
IWB←OL←DW	0.126	0.099	0.16	0.001
IWB←WE←DW	0.167	0.098	0.259	0.001
Parameter controlled for age				
IWB←OL←DW	0.268	0.203	0.45	0.000
IWB←WE←DW	0.293	0.053	0.597	0.001
Parameter controlled for seniority				
IWB←OL←DW	0.268	0.208	0.341	0.001
IWB←WE←DW	0.252	0.077	0.448	0.005

Note: DW – decent work; OL – organisational learning; IWB – innovative work behaviour; WE – work engagement

When a confounder is added to the model, it changes the estimate(s) of the association by 10% or more (Harris-Adamson et al., 2016). When gender was added to the decent work → organisational

learning → innovative work model, it reduced the estimate of the association by 53%. Similarly, gender reduced the estimate of decent work → work engagement → innovative work by 33%. On the other hand, age substantially increased the decent work → work engagement → innovative work estimates by 17%, thus suggesting its moderating role in this relationship. The estimate of decent work → organisational learning → innovative work changed marginally by 0.38% when the age variable was added to the model, thus suggesting insignificance. Seniority, which was added based on reviewer comments, did not significantly change the standardised effect sizes.

4.5 ASCERTAINING THE PREDICTIVE RELEVANCE OF THE MODEL

To assure rigor, the investigation utilised the predictive relevance sample reuse technique, the Stone–Geisser's (Q^2) test of predictive validity (Geisser, 1975; Stone, 1974). The study employed the blindfolding technique. This method utilises the estimates of both the structural and measurement models in predicting the data. The importance of the predictive relevance of a model is acknowledged in the literature as it shows how well the proposed model can reproduce the observed values.

Table 4. 7: Predictive relevance of the proposed model.

Variable	Predictive relevance
Organisational learning	0.361
Work engagement	0.385
Employee innovative behaviour	0.423

Note: SmartPLS was used to run this output. The limitation of variance-based structural equation modelling is acknowledged.

As shown in Table 4.7, organisational learning, work engagement, and employee innovative behaviour had Q^2 values greater than zero. This implies that observed values for the three variables are well reconstructed.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, path analyses helped explain the relations between decent work, work engagement, organisational learning, and innovative behaviour. Decent work had a strong, positive relationship with organisational learning. Exposure to organisational learning promoted innovative behaviour in the workplace. The experience of decent work fostered engagement at work. Work engagement promoted employees' innovative behaviour. The results of the mediation analyses suggest that organisational learning and work engagement act as the underlying pathways through which decent work nurtures and sustains innovative behaviour in the workplace. Gender confounded these relationships and was accounted for. Age had a moderating effect on the relationship between decent work and employee innovative behaviour. The study model exhibited predictive relevance.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE, AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter articulates the study's contributions with a focus on suggestions that challenge, elaborate on, and support prior research and theory to advance disciplinary understandings. Similarities and differences with extant research and theory are complemented by alternative plausible explanations (APE). The discussion also carries a conscious bias towards how best the findings can be used across the boundary-less employee-organisational divide. The overarching thrust is to advance disciplinary understandings.

Building on the above, the study's implications for policy and practice are articulated with the simplicity necessary for such considerations. Per contemporary research standards and expectations, the strengths and limitations are highlighted to ensure scholars and interested parties can interpret and use the research correctly, including across contexts. Given the limits established for the study, opportunities for further research are highlighted and offer an opportunity to advance the phenomena referenced in this study. Given the breadth of the study, the report slices this chapter into various sections to enhance flow and comprehension.

5.2 EVALUATION OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

The study developed and tested a conditional model to explain the activation of innovative work behaviour. The study results suggest that decent work facilitates organisational learning. This may be the first study to model the positive effect of decent work on organizational learning, see Sanhokwe & Takawira (2022). The results further suggest that decent work fosters work engagement. As mentioned earlier, studies linking decent work to work engagement have produced mixed and, at times, conflicting results (see Ferraro et al., 2020; Graça et al., 2021; Kashyap et al., 2022). This study's results are consistent with the findings by Graça et al. (2021) who relied on a sample of Brazilian and Portuguese higher education teachers and researchers.

In the other vein, the results suggest that organisational learning and work engagement bolster innovative work behaviour. Several studies have reported a positive relationship between organisational learning and innovative work behaviour. For instance, Abd Awang et al. (2019) used a sample of micro and small-scale enterprises (MSEs) in Malaysia to model the positive effect of organisational learning on innovative work behaviour. In a study situated in high-performance, knowledge-intensive businesses in Spain, Lafuente et al. (2019) found that organisational learning capabilities (OLCs) positively influenced employee innovation performance (also see Liu, 2017). There is consistency in the reported results across contexts and samples. Similarly, the study results provide complementary evidence linking work engagement to innovative work behaviour, albeit the different effect sizes in different contexts (Kwon & Kim, 2020; Sari et al., 2021).

Furthermore, the study results suggest that decent work promotes innovative work behaviour through enhancing organisational learning and work engagement. The decent work-organisational learning-innovative work behaviour pathway has been rarely examined in the literature, a challenge to further expose the pathway in other settings or contexts. This study's results confirm earlier findings from a pioneering study by Xu et al. (2022) who modelled the effect of decent work on IWB through work engagement. In their model, intrinsic motivation and job self-efficacy partially mediated the positive effect of decent work on work engagement.

5.3 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The study extends and creates spaces for decent work in RBV. Empirical support for the decent work – organisational learning – innovative work behaviour pathway positions decent work as a premise for resource maximization, capability development, and deployment to promote innovative behavior at work. This pathway, to an extent, shifts the conversation from the 'sustained competitive advantage' posture that dominates RBV research (Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010) to the '(sustained) generation of new sources of organisational value'. As Zenger (2013) put it, in today's business world, it is no longer about competitive advantage; rather it is now about the sustained generation of new sources of value to satisfy stakeholder and shareholder delight. This may be among the first studies to test and report a favorable mediated relationship between decent work and innovative work behaviour through organisational learning. With most organisations, more so

in Sub-Saharan Africa, struggling to sustainably generate new sources of value, organisational learning capabilities, anchored on decent work, offer an opportunity to transform workplaces. This finding extends earlier work by Sanhokwe et al. (2023) and Urban & Gaffurini (2017) (also see Chinoperekweyi, 2018; Kayinamura, 2012; Sandada, 2015; Sibiya, 2017; Sibiya et al., 2016) by positioning decent work as a base for stimulating organisational learning capabilities and fostering innovative behaviour at work. This study also expands the psychology of working theory (PWT, see Duffy et al., 2016) on which the decent work construct is anchored, by emphasizing the role of decent work in transforming organisational resources into value-creating capabilities such as organisational learning.

In the complementary vein, the study creates space for decent work in SET by testing and confirming the mutually beneficial and reciprocal benefit of employees' experience of decent work on work engagement and innovative behavior. Most studies investigating the decent work causal pathway have relied on the psychology of working theory (Autin et al., 2022; Duffy et al., 2016; Koekemoer & Masenge, 2023; Smith et al., 2023). Only a few studies have used SET when explaining their conceptual ideas. This is despite the fact that decent work depicts the fundamental rights and conditions that all employees are entitled to or get rewarded for in exchange for their talent. Hence, decent work is central to the activation of reciprocal organisation-employee exchange cycles within the work (and non-work) domain(s).

While a meta-analytic study by Sari et al. (2021), drawing on studies predominantly from Asia and Europe, reported a moderate effect, this study identifies work engagement as a strong antecedent to innovative behavior. This is an important result in the study context. As mentioned earlier, previous studies (Maleka et al., 2019; Mpundu, 2016; Shoko & Zinyemba, 2014; Sibanda et al., 2014) reported very low levels of work engagement in Zimbabwe, hence, confirmation of a positive relationship linking decent work to innovative behaviour through work engagement is vital. The decent work-work engagement-innovative work behaviour pathway suggests that although employees are endowed with intrinsic motivational tendencies characteristic of work engagement and innovative behaviour, the development and sustenance of these inherent propensities require supportive conditions (Ryan & Deci, 2020). Work engagement (plus organisational learning) and innovative behaviour are evolving propensities; the experience of

decent work or otherwise may evoke and sustain or constrain and debilitate these innate propensities (see self-determination theory, Ryan & Deci, 2020). Conceived in this way, decent work is an important quality for organisations to pursue.

5.4 PRACTICAL/MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The results contribute to scholarly and corporate discussions on the integrated influence levers that shape innovative work behaviour. First, our results position organisational learning and work engagement as critical mediators. As submitted by Sanhokwe (2022c), work engagement (and organisational learning) expends personal resources (also see Hobfoll et al., 2018; Sanhokwe & Chinyamurindi, 2023). When employees experience decent work deficits, this can create an impoverishing cycle whose ramifications straddle beyond the employee (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Sanhokwe, 2022b). Hence, offering decent work may be critical for replenishing employee resources to avoid resource stalemates. This way, employees will likely remain highly engaged, collectively learning, and innovative, that is, they may remain highly invested in mutually shared goals at work.

Decent work comprises mutually reinforcing dimensions including psychological and physical safety at work, access to health care, commensurate remuneration, time to rest and recuperate, and aligning employee and organisational values. All the dimensions, in their uniqueness, constitute an integrated package that all employees are entitled to. The results suggest that in guaranteeing decent work, organisations satisfy employees' needs and reduce their vulnerability, much to the reciprocal benefit of the firm.

The decent work construct challenges organisations to extend remuneration strategies beyond the pay element if organisations are to effectively promote innovative work behaviour. The onus is on organisational leadership (management and leadership teams, boards, and shareholders) to use good judgment in creating a fit-for-purpose remuneration theory that fosters innovative work behaviour and other desirable value-creating outcomes at work. Such a context-fit framework should be routinely stress-tested and adjusted based on emerging best practices and explorative insights. Organisational routines, including human resource practices, must reflect the tenets of decent work.

Work intensification and extensification have become synonymous with today's workplace (Sanhokwe, 2022a). Under such circumstances, decent work implies promoting the right to disconnect. Furthermore, insecurity manifests in different forms at work, including, but not limited to, the constrained space for employees to participate in decisions that affect them, unequal and inequitable treatment, and general exposure to psychologically unsafe environments (Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). The study results suggest that by perpetuating such acts, shareholders and organisational leaders may be complicit in any observed mal-innovative behaviour at work.

At the policy level, the study reignited the dialogue on creating decent workplaces as part of the global agenda for decent work and satisfying the SDGs (specifically SDGs 3 and 8). Unfair, unethical, or generally decent work deficits are prevalent in most businesses (Sanhokwe & Takawira, 2022). There is a disconnect between the norms espoused under the Decent Work Agenda and the realities in most firms, more so in the developing world. The ineffective implementation of the various ILO and country-specific guidelines on decent work negates the activation and sustenance of positive, value-creating behaviours at work. Governments should develop, implement, and monitor legally binding regulatory instruments, as well as advocate for a discourse of 'social dialogue' (Rai et al., 2019). There is a need for a strong ethical climate for the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of these guidelines and instruments. Organisations should satisfy the established minimum standards for all forms of work and provide basic protections for all employees across all levels of work. There is a need for adequate labour administration to enforce the guidelines on decent work in both the formal and informal sectors. A dedicated leadership excellence agenda must embed periodic, ethically sound, improvement-oriented decent work audits to foster innovativeness at work.

5.5 METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Beyond the model-related aspects of the study discussed above, its novelty lies in its methodological attributes. First, the study showed the utility of structural equation modelling in assessing direct and indirect effects (or broadly the relationships) among the four latent variables. SEM is a second-generation analytical approach that facilitates deeper introspection of non-linear relationships, including local effect sizes.

According to the American Psychological Association (APA, 2022), quantitative studies should report effect sizes, actual *p*-values, confidence intervals, and related contextual information to add value to contemporary research. The study combined the use of traditional null hypotheses with local effect sizes and the inclusion of confidence intervals where they were applicable. The conventional hypothesis tests lead to binary outcomes, i.e., to reject or not reject the null hypothesis based on a *p*-value. As shown in Chapter 11, the confidence intervals provided a range of values for the effect sizes. The confidence intervals were generally narrow and provided a high level of certainty about the study's effects. This provides a basis for similar future studies. As Cohen (2016) posited, "I have learned and taught that the primary product of a research inquiry is one or more measures of effect size, not *p* values". Effect sizes will also help future researchers calculate sample sizes and compare results across contexts.

In general, by measuring power, local effect sizes, and predictive relevance, the study embedded critical methodological attributes that enhance predictive analysis and understanding of human behaviour in the workplace. Such capabilities will influence future organisational and academic research. Last, by using a time-lagged study design while exploiting the predictive capabilities of CB-SEM, this research strategically deviated from the traditional cross-sectional approach to data collection and explanation of relationships that dominate similar research. A time-lagged design offers a strong methodological base for future studies that seek to deepen the understanding of complex behaviour in the workplace.

5.6 LIMITATIONS

The study variables were measured through self-reports and not manipulated. As such, there are potentially many omitted variables, at several levels of analysis that could correlate with the independent variables and outcome, including but not limited to the company culture. Future studies should undertake corrective procedures to eliminate any possible endogeneity threats through highly controlled designs. The use of only one multinational corporation in the sample is limiting. In the same vein, the study was situated in one sector, further constraining generalizability. The study sample was very highly educated and skewed towards males and may, therefore, not be generalizable to other work contexts. Hence, future studies should expose the model in different work contexts.

The continued erosion of formal employment in most developing countries has seen the rise of formal and informal small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), mostly family-owned. In Zimbabwe, for instance, decades of economic malaise have seen the proliferation of informal SMEs comprised of previously employed persons-cum-entrepreneurs with diverse backgrounds. These entrepreneurs play a dual role as employers and employees. Under these circumstances, the phenomenon of decent work is more likely to carry different meanings and implications. Future studies, with a bias toward qualitative or mixed-method approaches, should seek to understand what decent work entails in such settings. This may have significant policy and practical implications.

The study did not translate the instruments into local languages, expectedly as English is a communication medium in the study setting. However, comprehension differs across levels of work and individuals. This could have constrained the uptake of the survey and interpretation of the survey. Further, there was a one-month lag between the first and the second survey. This could be considered an interval of convenience. However, it was deemed sufficient for this investigation.

By exploring the mechanisms linking the organisation and the employee, the study answered the dual call for methodological and theoretical dynamism in investigating complex workplace behaviour. Future studies should do more by investigating, in an integrative manner, perceptions and outcomes of decent work at the group and organisational levels (can utilise specific dyads as reference/data points). Furthermore, future studies should facilitate cross-level, integrative research to appreciate how innovative behaviour aggregates at the team and organisational levels. Such studies should utilise multi-sector samples to examine potential differences.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This timely study examined the subtle ways through which material and motivational resources may be transmitted between the organisation and the employee to promote innovative work behaviour. The results suggest that decent work ignites a reciprocally beneficial exchange between the organisation and the employee. Thus, innovative work behaviour may significantly arise due to the stable experience of decent work. The results further suggest that the organisation may not

act independently to activate innovative work behaviour; neither is the individual employee in complete control of how this behaviour is triggered. By offering decent work, the employer may jointly claim ownership in the activation and sustenance of innovative work behaviour. In the other vein, employees are psychological owners of work engagement and organisational learning. As such, neither the conditions of work, manifesting as decent work nor what employees across the levels of work (i.e., work engagement and learning qualities) possess should be taken for granted when organisations pursue efforts to strengthen innovative work behaviour. Organisations that develop and promote enterprise-wide, healthy workplaces anchored on the tenets of decent work may significantly enhance innovative work behaviour. The modelled capabilities are learnable and hence developable.

REFERENCES

Abd Awang, H., Mohd Sapie, N., Yusof Hussain, M., Ishak, S., & Md Yusof, R. (2019). Nurturing innovative employees: effects of organisational learning and work environment. *Economic research-Ekonomska istraživanja*, *32*(1), 1152-1168. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2019.1592007

Abutabenjeh, S., & Jaradat, R. (2018). Clarification of research design, research methods, and research methodology: A guide for public administration researchers and practitioners. *Teaching Public Administration*, *36*(3), 237-258. https://doi.org/10.1177/0144739418775787

Afsar, B., & Masood, M. (2018). Transformational leadership, creative self-efficacy, trust in supervisor, uncertainty avoidance, and innovative work behaviour of nurses. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, *54*(1), 36-61. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886317711891

Agapiou, A. (2010). Labour Conditions for Construction: Decent Work, Building Cities and the Role of Local Authorities. https://doi.org/10.1080/01446193.2010.492839

Alarcón, D., Sánchez, J. A., & De Olavide, U. (2015). Assessing convergent and discriminant validity in the ADHD-R IV rating scale: User-written commands for Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliability (CR), and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT). In Spanish STATA meeting (Vol. 39, pp. 1-39).

Al-edenat, M. (2018). Reinforcing innovation through transformational leadership: mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-05-2017-0181

Alerasoul, S. A., Afeltra, G., Hakala, H., Minelli, E., & Strozzi, F. (2022). Organisational learning, learning organisation, and learning orientation: An integrative review and framework. *Human Resource Management Review*, *32*(3), 100854. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2021.100854

Akhtar, D. M. I. (2016). Research design. *Research Design*. https://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2862445

Al-Ababneh, M. M. (2020). Linking ontology, epistemology, and research methodology. *Science & Philosophy*, *8*(1), 75-91. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3708935

AlEssa, H. S., & Durugbo, C. M. (2022). Systematic review of innovative work behaviour concepts and contributions. *Management Review Quarterly*, *72*(4), 1171-1208. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11301-021-00224-x

American Psychological Association. (2022). Publication manual of the American psychological association. In *American Psychological Association (Washington, District of Columbia)*, (No. 1, pp. 1-xxii). American Psychological Association.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1984). The effect of sampling error on convergence, improper solutions, and goodness-of-fit indices for maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, *49*(2), 155-173. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02294170

Argote, L., Lee, S., & Park, J. (2021). Organisational learning processes and outcomes: Major findings and future research directions. *Management Science*, *67*(9), 5399-5429. https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.2020.3693

Argote, L., & Levine, J. M. (Eds.). (2020). *The Oxford handbook of group and organisational learning*. Oxford University Press.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1978). Organisational learning: A theory of action perspective. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, 15*(4), 542-548.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. A. (1997). Organisational learning: A theory of action perspective. *Reis*, (77/78), 345-348. https://doi.org/10.2307/40183951

Armanious, M., & Padgett, J. D. (2021). Agile learning strategies to compete in an uncertain business environment. *Journal of Workplace Learning*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JWL-11-2020-0181

Aspers, P., & Corte, U. (2019). What is qualitative in qualitative research. *Qualitative sociology*, *42*(2), 139-160. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11133-019-9413-7

Atitsogbe, K. A., Kossi, E. Y., Pari, P., & Rossier, J. (2021). Decent work in Sub-Saharan Africa: An application of psychology of working theory in a sample of Togolese primary school teachers. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *29*(1), 36-53. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072720928255

Autin, K. L., Herdt, M. E., Allan, B. A., Zhu, L., Abdullah, M., & Garcia, R. G. (2022). Decent work among women workers: An intersectional approach. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *69*(6), 775. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/cou0000634

Axtell, C. M., Holman, D. J., Unsworth, K. L., Wall, T. D., Waterson, P. E., & Harrington, E. (2000). Shopfloor innovation: Facilitating the suggestion and implementation of ideas. *Journal of occupational and organisational psychology*, *73*(3), 265-285. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317900167029

Badoiu, G. A., Segarra-Ciprés, M., & Escrig-Tena, A. B. (2020). Understanding employees' intrapreneurial behaviour: a case study. *Personnel Review*. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2019-0201

Bagorogoza, J.K., & Moya, M. (2017). Knowledge management and high performance in Uganda's financial institutions. *Makerere Business Journal*. https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12282/4630

Bagorogoza, J. K., & Nakasule, I. (2022). The mediating effect of knowledge management on talent management and firm performance in small and medium enterprise in Uganda. *Journal of Management Development*, (ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-10-2021-0290

Bakker, A. B., & Albrecht, S. (2018). Work engagement: current trends. *Career development international*, *23*(1), 4-11. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-11-2017-0207

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2018). Multiple levels in job demands-resources theory: Implicationsfor employee well-being and performance. In E. Diener, S. Oishi, & L. Tay (Eds.), *Handbook of wellbeing*. Salt Lake City, UT: DEF Publishers. nobascholar.com.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2017). Job demands–resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *22*(3), 273. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/ocp0000056

Bakker, A. B., & de Vries, J. D. (2021). Job Demands–Resources theory and self-regulation: new explanations and remedies for job burnout. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping*, *34*(1), 1-21. https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2020.1797695

Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2022). Daily transformational leadership: A source of inspiration for follower performance? *European Management Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2022.04.004

Bakker, A. B., & van Wingerden, J. (2021). Do personal resources and strengths use increase work engagement? The effects of a training intervention. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *26*(1), 20. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/ocp0000266

Bakker, A., Cai, J., English, L., Kaiser, G., Mesa, V., & Van Dooren, W. (2019). Beyond small, medium, or large: Points of consideration when interpreting effect sizes. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, *102*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10649-019-09908-4

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological review*, *84*(2), 191. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Banihani, M., Lewis, P., & Syed, J. (2013). Is work engagement gendered? *Gender in Management: An International Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1108/GM-01-2013-0005

Barney, J. (1991a). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of management*, *17*(1), 99-120. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700108

Barney, J. (1991b). Special theory forum the resource-based model of the firm: origins, implications, and prospects. *Journal of management*, *17*(1), 97-98. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700107

Barney, J. B. (2001). Is the resource-based "view" a useful perspective for strategic management research? Yes. *Academy of management review*, *26*(1), 41-56. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4011938

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *51*(6), 1173. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various χ 2 approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)*, 296-298. https://www.jstor.org/stable/2984057

Basten, D., & Haamann, T. (2018). Approaches for organisational learning: A literature review. *Sage Open*, *8*(3), 2158244018794224. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018794224

Bentler, P. M., & Chou, C. P. (1987). Practical issues in structural modeling. *Sociological methods & research*, *16*(1), 78-117. https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124187016001004

Berryman, D. R. (2019). Ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods: Information for librarian researchers. *Medical reference services quarterly*, *38*(3), 271-279. https://doi.org/10.1080/02763869.2019.1623

Bhebhe, M. (2020). Employee disengagement from the perspective of frontline employees: a hotel case study in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Management & Administration*, *2020*(1), 73-100. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1da01d2591

Bhebhe, M., & Takaindisa, P. (2020). A works council's response to decent work deficits facing agricultural employees in Zimbabwe. *IJSS*, *9*(04), 219-227. https://doi.org/10.30954/2249-6637.04.2020.2

Biemer, P. P., Harris, K. M., Burke, B. J., Liao, D., & Halpern, C. T. (2021). Transitioning a panel survey from in-person to predominantly web data collection: Results and lessons learned. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*. https://doi.org/10.1111/rssa.12750

Blanka, C. (2019). An individual-level perspective on intrapreneurship: a review and ways forward. *Review of Managerial Science*, *13*(5), 919-961. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-018-0277-0

Blustein, D. L., Lysova, E. I., & Duffy, R. D. (2022). Understanding Decent Work and Meaningful Work. *Annual Review of Organisational Psychology and Organisational Behaviour*, *10*. http://www.annualreviews.org/page/journal/pubdates

Blustein, D. L., Kenny, M. E., Autin, K., & Duffy, R. (2019). The psychology of working in practice: A theory of change for a new era. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *67*(3), 236-254. https://doi.org/10.1002/cdq.12193

Blustein, D. L., Kenny, M. E., Di Fabio, A., & Guichard, J. (2019). Expanding the impact of the psychology of working: Engaging psychology in the struggle for decent work and human rights. *Journal of Career Assessment* 27(1), 3-28. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072718774002

Boomsma, A. (1982). The robustness of LISREL against small sample sizes in factor analysis models. *Systems under indirect observation: Causality, structure, prediction*, 149-173.

Boomsma, A. (1985). Nonconvergence, improper solutions, and starting values in LISREL maximum likelihood estimation. *Psychometrika*, *50*(2), 229-242. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02294248

Bos-Nehles, A., Bondarouk, T., & Nijenhuis, K. (2017). Innovative work behaviour in knowledge-intensive public sector organisations: the case of supervisors in the Netherlands fire

services. *The International Journal of human resource management*, *28*(2), 379-398. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244894

Botha, L., & Steyn, R. (2022). Employee voice and innovative work behaviour: empirical evidence from South Africa. *Cogent Psychology*, *9*(1), 2080323. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2022.2080323

Buyukgoze-Kavas, A., & Autin, K. L. (2019). Decent work in Turkey: Context, conceptualization, and assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *112*, 64-76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.01.006

Carroll, C., & Olegario, R. (2020). Pathways to corporate accountability: Corporate reputation and its alternatives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *163*(2), 173-181. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04228-2

Cerny, B. A., & Kaiser, H. F. (1977). A study of a measure of sampling adequacy for factor-analytic correlation matrices. *Multivariate behavioural research*, *12*(1), 43-47. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr1201_3

Chinjova, F., & Scott, B. (2021). Impact of „Buy Zimbabwe" Campaign on Capacity Utilisation for Manufacturing Companies in Zimbabwe. *Sch Int J Anat Physiol*, *4*(4), 50-58. https://doi.org/10.36348/sijap.2021.v04i04.002

Chinoperekweyi, J. (2018). Internal corporate governance principles and practices of indigenous banks in Zimbabwe and their impact on organisational effectiveness. *IJAR*, *4*(12), 398-415.

Chinyamurindi, W. T., & Tsvangirai, F. P. (2019). The moderating effect of employee motivation on workplace surveillance and employee engagement amongst employees at the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *17*(1), 1-8. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-15b12e52d0

Chipaike, R., & Marufu, E. (2020). Chinese construction companies and the question of labour rights in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, *55*(8), 1163-1175. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021909620912777

Chipunza, L. T., & Naong, M. N. (2021). Demographic variables as drivers of innovation in small accommodation businesses: A case of South Africa and Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Science, Technology, Innovation and Development*, *13*(4), 415-423.

Chitauro, T., & Khumalo, R. (2020). Factors Affecting the Export Performance of the Food and Beverage Manufacturing Firms in Zimbabwe. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, *24*(1), 1-20.

Chitongo, L., Chikunya, P., & Marango, T. (2020). Do economic blueprints work? Evaluating the prospects and challenges of Zimbabwe's Transitional Stabilisation Programme. *African Journal of Governance and Development*, *9*(1), 7-20. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1ef237d9bb

Cho, G., Kim, S., Lee, J., Hwang, H., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2022). A comparative study of the predictive power of component-based approaches to structural equation modeling. *European Journal of Marketing*. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-07-2020-0542

Cho, Y. J., & Song, H. J. (2021). How to facilitate innovative behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour: evidence from public employees in Korea. *Public Personnel Management*, *50*(4), 509-537. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026020977571

Choi, S. Y., Chung, G. H., & Choi, J. N. (2019). Why are we having this innovation? Employee attributions of innovation and implementation behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *47*(7), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.8124

Clark, T. R. (2020). *The 4 stages of psychological safety: Defining the path to inclusion and innovation*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Clark, L. A., & Watson, D. (2019). Constructing validity: New developments in creating objective measuring instruments. *Psychological Assessment*, *31*(12), 1412–1427. https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000626

Cohen, J. (2016). Things I have learned (so far). In A. E. Kazdin (Ed.), *Methodological issues and strategies in clinical research* (pp. 265–276). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/14805-017

Cousins, J. B. (2021). Intellectual Roots of Organisational Learning 1. In *Organisational learning in schools* (pp. 219-235). Taylor & Francis.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Hirose, M. (2019). Mixed methods and survey research in family medicine and community health. *Family Medicine and Community Health*, *7*(2). https://doi.org/10.1136%2Ffmch-2018-000086

Daft, R. L., & Weick, K. E. (1984). Toward a model of organisations as interpretation systems. *Academy of management review*, *9*(2), 284-295. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1984.4277657

Dash, G., & Paul, J. (2021). CB-SEM vs PLS-SEM methods for research in social sciences and technology forecasting. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *173*, 121092. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2021.12109

Davies, C., & Fisher, M. (2018). Understanding research paradigms. *Journal of the Australasian Rehabilitation Nurses Association*, *21*(3), 21-25. https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.160174725752074

De Bruin, G., & Steyn, R. (2019). The structural validity of the innovative work behaviour questionnaire: Comparing competing factorial models. *The Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, *11*(1), 1-11. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1fa3da6806

Decuypere, A., & Schaufeli, W. (2020). Leadership and work engagement: Exploring explanatory mechanisms. *German Journal of Human Resource Management*, *34*(1), 69-95. https://doi.org/10.1177/2397002219892197

De Jong, J., & Den Hartog, D. (2010). Measuring innovative work behaviour. *Creativity and innovation management*, *19*(1), 23-36. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2010.00547.x

Di Fabio, A., & Kenny, M. E. (2019). Decent work in Italy: Context, conceptualization, and assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *110*, 131-143. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.10.014

Dobrzański, P., Bobowski, S., Chrysostome, E., Velinov, E., & Strouhal, J. (2021). Toward innovation-driven competitiveness across African countries: an analysis of efficiency of R&D expenditures. *Journal of Competitiveness*, *13*(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.7441/joc.2021.01.01

Dogru, A., & Peyrefitte, J. (2022). Investigation of innovation in wine industry via meta-analysis. *Wine Business Journal*, 31627. https://doi.org/10.26813/001c.31627

Donaldson, T., Fore, G. A., Filippelli, G. M., & Hess, J. L. (2020). A systematic review of the literature on situated learning in the geosciences: beyond the classroom. *International Journal of Science Education*, *42*(5), 722-743. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2020.1727060

Dueber, D. M. (2017). Bifactor Indices Calculator: A Microsoft Excel-based tool to calculate various indices relevant to bifactor CFA models. https://doi.org/10.13023/edp.tool.01

Duffy, R. D., Allan, B. A., England, J. W., Blustein, D. L., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P., ... & Santos, E. J. (2017). The development and initial validation of the Decent Work Scale. *Journal of counseling psychology*, *64*(2), 206. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/cou0000191

Duffy, R. D., Blustein, D. L., Allan, B. A., Diemer, M. A., & Cinamon, R. G. (2020). Introduction to the special issue: A cross-cultural exploration of decent work. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *116*, 103351. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.103351

Duffy, R. D., Blustein, D. L., Diemer, M. A., & Autin, K. L. (2016). The psychology of working theory. *Journal of counseling psychology*, *63*(2), 127. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/cou0000140

Duffy, R. D., Kim, H. J., Allan, B. A., & Prieto, C. G. (2020). Predictors of decent work across time: Testing propositions from Psychology of Working Theory. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *123*, 103507. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103507

Duradoni, M., & Di Fabio, A. (2019). Intrapreneurial self-capital and sustainable innovative behaviour within organisations. *Sustainability*, *11*(2), 322. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11020322

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied psychology*, *71*(3), 500. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500

Errighi, L., Khatiwada, S., & Bodwell, C. (2016). Business process outsourcing in the Philippines: Challenges for decent work. *ILO Asia-Pacific Working Paper Series*.

Evers, A., Ewert, B., & Brandsen, T. (2014). Social innovations for social cohesion: Transnational patters and approaches from 20 European cities. https://hdl.handle.net/2066/127760

Farr, J. L., & Ford, C. M. (1990). Individual innovation. In M. A. West & J. L. Farr (Eds.), *Innovation and creativity at work: Psychological and organisational strategies* (pp. 63–80). John Wiley & Sons.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G* Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behaviour research methods*, *41*(4), 1149-1160. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Fay, D., & Frese, M. (2001). The concept of personal initiative: An overview of validity studies. *Human performance*, *14*(1), 97-124. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1401_06

Ferraro, T., dos Santos, N. R., Moreira, J. M., & Pais, L. (2020). Decent work, work motivation, work engagement and burnout in physicians. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, *5*(1), 13-35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-019-00024-5

Ferreira, J. A., Haase, R. F., Santos, E. R., Rabaça, J. A., Figueiredo, L., Hemami, H. G., & Almeida, L. M. (2019). Decent work in Portugal: Context, conceptualization, and assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *112*, 77-91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.01.009

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research*, *18*(1), 39-50. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800313

Fredrickson, B. L. (2013). Positive emotions broaden and build. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 47, pp. 1-53). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-407236-7.00001-2

Friedman, A. M. (2016). Perceptual construction: Rereading the social construction of reality through the sociology of the senses. *Cultural Sociology*, *10*(1), 77-92. https://doi.org/10.1177/1749975515615149

Gallup. (2023). State of the Global Workplace: 2023 Report Accessed at https://www.gallup.com/workplace/349484/state-of-the-global-workplace.aspx.

Garwe, E. C., & Thondhlana, J. (2019). Higher education systems and institutions, Zimbabwe. *Encyclopedia of international higher education systems and institutions. Dordrecht: Springer*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9553-1_479-1

Geisser, S. (1975). The predictive sample reuse method with applications. *Journal of the American statistical Association*, *70*(350), 320-328. https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1975.10479865

Giddens, A. (1982). Power, the Dialectic of Control and Class Structuration. In: *Profiles and Critiques in Social Theory. Contemporary Social Theory*. Palgrave, London. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-86056-2_14

Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Univ of California Press.

Gilhus, I. S. (2021). Hermeneutics. In *The Routledge handbook of research methods in the study of religion* (pp. 314-323). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003222491

Godin, B., & Vinck, D. (2017). Introduction: innovation–from the forbidden to a cliché. In *Critical Studies of Innovation* (pp. 1-14). Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781785367229.00007

Goffman, E. (1961). *Encounters: Two studies in the sociology of interaction*. Ravenio Books.

Graça, M., Pais, L., Mónico, L., Santos, N. R. D., Ferraro, T., & Berger, R. (2021). Decent work and work engagement: A profile study with academic personnel. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *16*(3), 917-939. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-019-09780-7

Griffith, D. A. (2021). Reconsidering our focus on innovation: What are the effects of innovation on well-being? *Italian Journal of Marketing*, *2021*(3), 159-163. https://doi.org/10.1007/s43039-021-00038-5

Gürbüz, S., & Bayik, M. E. (2021). A new approach for mediation analysis: Is Baron and Kenny's method still valid? *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, *37*(88), 15-19. https://doi.org/10.31828/tpd1300443320191125m000031

Hadebe, S. (2019). Trapped in uncertainty: the existential challenges of the trade union movement in Zimbabwe after 2000. *Transformation: Critical Perspectives on Southern Africa*, *99*(1), 113-128. https://doi.org/10.1353/trn.2019.0013

Hair, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European business review*, *31*(1), 2-24. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2018-0203

Hakanen, J. J., Perhoniemi, R., & Toppinen-Tanner, S. (2008). Positive gain spirals at work: From job resources to work engagement, personal initiative and work-unit innovativeness. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *73*(1), 78-91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.01.003

Hamel, G. (2009). Moon shots for management. *Harvard business review*, *87*(2), 91-98. Accessed at https://www.getyourbigon.com/pdf/Moonshots.pdf

Hammad, A. (2020). Reviewing Employee Innovative Behaviour. In *International Student Conference in Tourism Research* (pp. 10-22).

Harrison, R. L., Reilly, T. M., & Creswell, J. W. (2020). Methodological rigor in mixed methods: An application in management studies. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *14*(4), 473-495. https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689819900585

Harris-Adamson, C., Eisen, E. A., Neophytou, A., Kapellusch, J., Garg, A., Hegmann, K. T., ... & Rempel, D. (2016). Biomechanical and psychosocial exposures are independent risk factors for carpal tunnel syndrome: assessment of confounding using causal diagrams. *Occupational and environmental medicine*, *73*(11), 727-734. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/oemed-2016-103634

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(2), 268. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.268

Hayes, A. F., & Coutts, J. J. (2020). Use omega rather than Cronbach's alpha for estimating reliability. But…. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *14*(1), 1-24. https://doi.org/10.1080/19312458.2020.1718629

Hayes, A. F., & Rockwood, N. J. (2017). Regression-based statistical mediation and moderation analysis in clinical research: Observations, recommendations, and implementation. *Behaviour research and therapy*, *98*, 39-57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2016.11.001

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, *43*(1), 115-135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Hoang, G., Luu, T. T., Nguyen, T. T., Du, T., & Le, L. P. (2022). Examining the effect of entrepreneurial leadership on employees' innovative behaviour in SME hotels: A mediated moderation model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *102*, 103142. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2022.103142

Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J. P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organisational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual review of organisational psychology and organisational behaviour*, *5*, 103-128. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Hoogendoorn, B., Pennings, E., & Thurik, R. (2010). What do we know about social entrepreneurship: An analysis of empirical research. *ERIM Report Series Reference No. ERS-2009-044-ORG*.

Huang, S. Y., Huang, C. H., & Chang, T. W. (2022). A new concept of work engagement theory in cognitive engagement, emotional engagement, and physical engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 663440. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.663440

International Labour Organisation. 2013. Launch of the Decent Work Country Programme for (DWCP) Zimbabwe and the Skills Flagship programme. Accessed on 8 August 2022, at https://www.ilo.org/africa/media-centre/WCMS_204843/lang--en/index.htm

International Labour Organisation. 2022a. Advancing social justice, promoting decent work. Accessed on 8 August 2022, at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm

International Labour Organisation. 2022b. Decent work country programs. Accessed on 8 August 2022, at: https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/how-the-ilo-works/departments-and-offices/program/dwcp/WCMS_560734/lang--en/index.htm

Janssen, O. (2000). Job demands, perceptions of effort-reward fairness and innovative work behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and organisational psychology*, *73*(3), 287-302. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317900167038

Jerez-Go´mez, P., Céspedes-Lorente, J., & Valle-Cabrera, R. (2005). Organisational learning capability: a proposal of measurement. *Journal of business research*, *58*(6), 715-725. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2003.11.002

Kahn, K. B. (2018). Understanding innovation. *Business Horizons*, *61*(3), 453-460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2018.01.011

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of management journal*, *33*(4), 692-724. https://doi.org/10.5465/256287

Kanter, R. M. (1988). Three tiers for innovation research. *Communication Research*, *15*(5), 509-523. https://doi.org/10.1177/009365088015005001

Kashyap, V., Nakra, N., & Arora, R. (2021). Do "decent work" dimensions lead to work engagement? Empirical evidence from higher education institutions in India. *European Journal of Training and Development*. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-08-2020-0127

Kayinamura, L. F. (2012). The extent to which organisations in Zimbabwe are learning organisations: a case of BancABC. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/6119

Khan, S. (2021). Exploring the firm's influential determinants pertinent to workplace innovation. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, *19*(1), 272-280. https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.19(1).2021.23

Khusanova, R., Kang, S. W., & Choi, S. B. (2021). Work engagement among public employees: antecedents and consequences. *Frontiers in psychology*, *12*, 684495. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.684495

Kim, M., & Beehr, T. A. (2018). Challenge and hindrance demands lead to employees' health and behaviour through intrinsic motivation. *Stress and Health*, *34*(3), 367-378. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2796

Kim, T., Autin, K. L., & Allan, B. A. (2022). An examination of psychology of working theory with immigrant workers in the United States. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 10690727221105023. https://doi.org/10.1177/10690727221105023

Kleysen, R. F., & Street, C. T. (2001). Toward a multi-dimensional measure of individual innovative behaviour. *Journal of intellectual Capital*. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005660

Kock, F., Berbekova, A., & Assaf, A. G. (2021). Understanding and managing the threat of common method bias: Detection, prevention and control. *Tourism Management*, *86*, 104330. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2021.104330

Koekemoer, E., & Masenge, A. (2023). Outcomes of Decent Work Among Blue-Collar Workers in South Africa: The Role of Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 10690727231187639. https://doi.org/10.1177/10690727231187639

Knottnerus, J. A., & Tugwell, P. (2018). Ethics of research methodology requires a methodology of research ethics. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, *100*, v-vi. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2018.07.001

Kraaijenbrink, J., Spender, J. C., & Groen, A. J. (2010). The resource-based view: A review and assessment of its critiques. *Journal of management*, *36*(1), 349-372. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309350775

Kumatongo, B., & Muzata, K. K. (2021). Research paradigms and designs with their application in education. *Journal of Lexicography and Terminology (Online ISSN 2664-0899. Print*

ISSN 2517-9306)., 5(1), 16-32. https://medicine.unza.zm/index.php/jlt/article/view/551/482

Kwon, K., & Kim, T. (2020). An integrative literature review of employee engagement and innovative behaviour: Revisiting the JD-R model. *Human Resource Management Review*, *30*(2), 100704. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2019.100704

Lafuente, E., Solano, A., Leiva, J. C., & Mora-Esquivel, R. (2019). Determinants of innovation performance: Exploring the role of organisational learning capability in knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS) firms. *Academia Revista Latinoamericana de Administracion*, *32*(1), 40-62. https://doi.org/10.1108/ARLA-10-2017-0309

Lema, R., Kraemer-Mbula, E., & Rakas, M. (2021). Innovation in developing countries: examining two decades of research. *Innovation and Development*, *11*(2-3), 189-210. https://doi.org/10.1080/2157930X.2021.1989647

Lenart-Gansiniec, R. (2019). Organisational learning in industry 4.0. *Problemy Zarządzania*, *17*(2 (82)), 96-108. https://doi.org/10.7172/1644-9584.82.4

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 9*, 370–390.

Li, B., Wang, S., Cui, X., & Tang, Z. (2022). Roles of Indulgence versus Restraint Culture and Ability to Savor the Moment in the Link between Income and Subjective Well-Being. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(12), 6995. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19126995

Li, H., Sajjad, N., Wang, Q., Muhammad Ali, A., Khaqan, Z., & Amina, S. (2019). Influence of transformational leadership on employees' innovative work behaviour in sustainable organisations: Test of mediation and moderation processes. *Sustainability*, *11*(6), 1594. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11061594

Li, W. H., Zhou, Y., Su, J. X., Ma, H. Y., Zhang, J., & Tang, H. Y. (2022). Engage your work and enjoy your evening: How daily work engagement promotes non-work mastery and control experiences. *Current Psychology*, 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-03100-3

Liu, C. H. (2017). Creating competitive advantage: Linking perspectives of organisation learning, innovation behavior and intellectual capital. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *66*, 13-23. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.06.013

Lips-Wiersma, M., Haar, J., & Wright, S. (2020). The effect of fairness, responsible leadership, and worthy work on multiple dimensions of meaningful work. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *161*(1), 35-52. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3967-2

Loewenson, R. (2021). Rethinking the Paradigm and Practice of Occupational Health in a World Without Decent Work: A Perspective from East and Southern Africa. *NEW SOLUTIONS: A Journal of Environmental and Occupational Health Policy*, *31*(2), 107-112. https://doi.org/10.1177/10482911211017106

Lukes, M., & Stephan, U. (2017). Measuring innovative: A review of existing scales and the development of the innovative behaviour and innovation support inventories across cultures. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, *23*(1), 136-158. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEBR-11-2015-0262

Lysova, E. I., Allan, B. A., Dik, B. J., Duffy, R. D., & Steger, M. F. (2019). Fostering meaningful work in organisations: A multi-level review and integration. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *110*, 374-389. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.07.004

MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological methods*, *1*(2), 130. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/1082-989X.1.2.130

Madrid, H. P., Patterson, M. G., Birdi, K. S., Leiva, P. I., & Kausel, E. E. (2014). The role of weekly high-activated positive mood, context, and personality in innovative work behavior: A multilevel and interactional model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(2), 234-256. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1867

Magaisa, G. M., & Musundire, A. (2022). Factors Affecting Employee Retention in Zimbabwean Companies. *International Journal of Applied Management Theory and Research (IJAMTR)*, *4*(1), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJAMTR.288507

Mahembe, B., Engelbrecht, A., & Wakelin, Z. (2017). A study to assess the reliability and construct validity of the Abbreviated Self-Leadership Questionnaire: A South African study. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *47*(3), 356-366. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-a40090408

Mäkikangas, A., Leiter, M. P., Kinnunen, U., & Feldt, T. (2021). Profiling development of burnout over eight years: Relation with job demands and resources. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, *30*(5), 720-731.

Maleka, M., Mpofu, M., Hlatywayo, C. K., Meyer, I., Carr, S., & Parker, J. (2019). Employee engagement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction in Namibia, South Africa, and Zimbabwe: An exploratory study. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *29*(4), 393-400.

Maphiri, M., Matasane, M. A., & Mudimu, G. (2021). Challenges to the Effective Implementation of SDG 8 in Creating Decent Work and Economic Growth in the Southern African Hemisphere: Perspectives from South Africa, Lesotho and Zimbabwe. In *Global Challenges to CSR and Sustainable Development* (pp. 39-63). Springer, Cham.

Martela, F., Gómez, M., Unanue, W., Araya, S., Bravo, D., & Espejo, A. (2021). What makes work meaningful? Longitudinal evidence for the importance of autonomy and beneficence for meaningful work. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *131*, 103631. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2021.103631

Masdonati, J., Schreiber, M., Marcionetti, J., & Rossier, J. (2019). Decent work in Switzerland: Context, conceptualization, and assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *110*, 12-27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.11.004

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management journal*, *43*(4), 738-748. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556364

Matekenya, W., & Moyo, C. (2023). Foreign divestment, economic growth and development in South Africa: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Chinese Economic and Foreign Trade Studies*, *16*(1), 4-21. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCEFTS-01-2022-0006

Masvaure, P., & Buitendach, J. H. (2019). Validation of the work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, and organisational citizenship measures in a mining sector setting in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *29*(3), 223-229. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1622322

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of occupational and organisational psychology*, *77*(1), 11-37. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892

Maydeu-Olivares, A., Shi, D., & Rosseel, Y. (2018). Assessing fit in structural equation models: A Monte-Carlo evaluation of RMSEA versus SRMR confidence intervals and tests of close

fit. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *25*(3), 389-402. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2017.1389611

Mazzetti, G., Robledo, E., Vignoli, M., Topa, G., Guglielmi, D., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2021). Work engagement: A meta-analysis using the job demands-resources model. *Psychological Reports*, 00332941211051988.

Mbiba, B., & Ndubiwa, M. (2006). Decent work in construction and the role of local authorities the case of Bulawayo city, Zimbabwe. http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/id/eprint/3015

Mirzaei, A., Carter, S. R., Patanwala, A. E., & Schneider, C. R. (2022). Missing data in surveys: Key concepts, approaches, and applications. *Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy*, *18*(2), 2308-2316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sapharm.2021.03.009

Mitchell, C., & Larry, S. (2021). Learning about organisational learning. In *Organisational learning in schools* (pp. 177-199). Taylor & Francis.

Mkungunugwa, T., Owili, P. O., Muula, A. S., & Kuo, H. W. (2022). Implementation Determinants of Zimbabwe National Occupational Safety and Health Policy in Willowvale Industrial Area, Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(3), 1424. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031424

Moghadamzadeh, A., Ebrahimi, P., Radfard, S., Salamzadeh, A., & Khajeheian, D. (2020). Investigating the role of customer co-creation behaviour on social media platforms in rendering innovative services. *Sustainability*, *12*(17), 6926. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12176926

Mpundu, P. (2016). An Evaluation of Employee Engagement Levels and Their Impact on Perceived Performance at Workplace. A Case Study of the Zimbabwe Prisons and Correctional Services (ZPCS) at Bulawayo Metropolitan Province (*Doctoral dissertation, Lupane State University*). http://hdl.handle.net/123456789/199

Mujeyi, K., & Sadomba, W. Z. (2019). Unemployment and informal entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe: Implications for regional integration. *Innovation, Regional Integration, and Development in Africa: Rethinking Theories, Institutions, and Policies*, 251-266. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-92180-8_17

Musuka, G., Dzinamarira, T., Cuadros, D., Chingombe, I., Murewanhema, G., & Mapingure, M. (2021). Access to Health Insurance in Zimbabwe and associated factors: Insights from data

from the Zimbabwe Demographic Health survey, 2015. https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-333800/v1

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2002). How to use a Monte Carlo study to decide on sample size and determine power? *Structural equation modeling*, *9*(4), 599-620. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0904_8

Muzurura, J. (2019). Causes, dissemination channels, and consequences of corruption in Zimbabwe: Searching for a Kryptonite solution. *Humanities*, *7*(2), 105-122. https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.73.2019.72.105.122

Muzurura, J. (2019). The dynamics of firm-level investment behaviour of private firms in Zimbabwe under uncertainty, corruption and high taxation regime. *Global Journal of Social Sciences Studies*, *5*(1), 28-45. https://ideas.repec.org/a/onl/gjosss/v5y2019i1p28-45id521.html

Navajas-Romero, V., Ariza-Montes, A., & Hernández-Perlines, F. (2020). Analyzing the job demands-control-support model in work-life balance: A study among nurses in the European context. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, *17*(8), 2847. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17082847

Navajas-Romero, V., Díaz-Carrión, R., & Ariza-Montes, A. (2019). Decent work as determinant of work engagement on dependent self-employed. *Sustainability*, *11*(9), 2512. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11092512

Ncube, F., & Oni, O. (2020). Developments and changes adversely affecting trade unions in the hospitality industry of Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(3), 199-214. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-13

Ndebele, Z. (2018). *An Investigation into the Impact of the Zimbabwe Special Permit on Migrant Zimbabwean Workers' Access to Decent Work in South Africa* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg (South Africa)). https://ujdigispace.uj.ac.za/

Ndengu, T., & Leka, S. (2022). Work-Related Well-Being in the Zimbabwean Banking Sector: A Job Demands-Resources Perspective. *Safety and Health at Work*, *13*(2), 220-226. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2022.03.007

Ngwenya, B., & Pelser, T. (2020). Impact of psychological capital on employee engagement, job satisfaction and employee performance in the manufacturing sector in Zimbabwe. *SA*

Journal of Industrial Psychology, *46*(1), 1-12. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1f4b106733

Nkala, B., Mudimu, C., & Mbengwa, A. M. (2021). Human resources for health talent management contribution: A case for health systems strengthening in the public health sector. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, *9*(2), 192-201.

Nouwen, A., Deschênes, S. S., Balkhiyarova, Z., Albertorio-Díaz, J. R., Prokopenko, I., & Schmitz, N. (2021). Measurement invariance testing of the patient health questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) across people with and without diabetes mellitus from the NHANES, EMHS and UK Biobank datasets. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, *292*, 311-318.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1967). McGraw-Hill series in psychology. Psychometric theory. New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.

Niykahadzoi, L. (2022). Assessing the scope and nature of corporate social responsibility within the Zimbabwe gold mining sector (*Doctoral dissertation, North-West University (South Africa*). orcid.org/ 0000000243673788

Odor, H. O. (2019). A literature review on organisational learning and learning organisations. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, *11*(3), 281-295. https://doi.org/10.4172/2162-6359.1000494

OECD. (2005). Oslo Manual. 3rd Edition.

Pan, H., Liu, S., Miao, D., & Yuan, Y. (2018). Sample size determination for mediation analysis of longitudinal data. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, *18*(1), 1-11.

Pandey, A., Gupta, V., & Gupta, R. K. (2019). Spirituality and innovative behaviour in teams: Examining the mediating role of team learning. *IIMB Management Review*, *31*(2), 116-126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iimb.2019.03.013

Pandey, P., & Pandey, M. M. (2021). Research methodology tools and techniques. *Bridge Center*. http://euacademic.org/BookUpload/9.pdf

Petyuh, V. M., Schetinina, L. V., & Zinchenko, O. M. (2017). The professional personnel development provision as a component of the decent work concept. *Економіка промисловості*. doi.org/10.15407/econindustry2017.04.097

Park, Y. S., Konge, L., & Artino, A. R. (2020). The positivism paradigm of research. *Academic Medicine*, *95*(5), 690-694. https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000003093

Pfadenhauer, M., & Knoblauch, H. (Eds.). (2018). *Social constructivism as paradigm? The legacy of the social construction of reality*. Routledge.

Phillips, J. B. (2021). *Change Happens: Practitioner Use of Change Management Strategies* (Doctoral dissertation, The Florida State University).

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of applied psychology*, *88*(5), 879. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Popova-Nowak, I. V., & Cseh, M. (2015). The meaning of organisational learning: A meta-paradigm perspective. *Human Resource Development Review*, *14*(3), 299-331. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484315596856

Purwanto, A., & Sudargini, Y. (2021). Partial least squares structural squation modeling (PLS-SEM) analysis for social and management research: a literature review. *Journal of Industrial Engineering & Management Research*, *2*(4), 114-123. https://doi.org/10.7777/jiemar.v2i4.168

Qi, C., & Chau, P. Y. K. (2018). Will enterprise social networking systems promote knowledge management and organisational learning? An empirical study. *Journal of Organisational Computing and Electronic Commerce*, *28*(1), 31-57. https://doi.org/10.1080/10919392.2018.1407081

Qi, L., Liu, B., Wei, X., & Hu, Y. (2019). Impact of inclusive leadership on employee innovative behaviour: Perceived organisational support as a mediator. *PloS one*, *14*(2), e0212091. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0212091

Quick, J., & Hall, S. (2015). Part three: The quantitative approach. *Journal of perioperative Practice*, *25*(10), 192-196. https://doi.org/10.1177/175045891502501002

Radic, A., Arjona-Fuentes, J. M., Ariza-Montes, A., Han, H., & Law, R. (2020). Job demands–job resources (JD-R) model, work engagement, and well-being of cruise ship employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *88*, 102518. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102518

Rai, S. M., Brown, B. D., & Ruwanpura, K. N. (2019). SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth–A gendered analysis. *World Development*, *113*, 368-380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2018.09.006

Ranihusna, D., Nugroho, A. S., Ridloah, S., Putri, V. W., & Wulansari, N. A. (2021). A model for enhancing innovative work behaviour. In *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* (Vol. 747, No. 1, p. 012039). IOP Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/747/1/012039

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Wang, M., Roldan, J. L., & Kunasekaran, P. (2021). Are we in right path for mediation analysis? Reviewing the literature and proposing robust guidelines. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 48, 395-405. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.07.013

Rehman, A. A., & Alharthi, K. (2016). An introduction to research paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, *3*(8), 51-59. http://www.ijeionline.com/attachments/article/57/IJEI.Vol.3.No.8.05.pdf

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of management journal*, *53*(3), 617-635. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.51468988

Rodriguez, A., Reise, S. P., & Haviland, M. G. (2016). Evaluating bifactor models: Calculating and interpreting statistical indices. *Psychological methods*, *21*(2), 137. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/met0000045

Rodriguez-Gomez, S., Arco-Castro, M. L., Lopez-Perez, M. V., & Rodríguez-Ariza, L. (2020). Where does CSR come from and where does it go? A review of the state of the art. *Administrative Sciences*, *10*(3), 60. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci10030060

Roets, L., Mangundu, M., & Janse van Rensberg, E. (2020). Accessibility of healthcare in rural Zimbabwe: The perspective of nurses and healthcare users. *African Journal of Primary Health Care and Family Medicine*, *12*(1), 1-7. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1eadd78b4a

Rogers, T. A., Bardeen, J. R., Fergus, T. A., & Benfer, N. (2020). Factor structure and incremental utility of the Distress Tolerance Scale: A bifactor analysis. *Assessment*, *27*(2), 297-308. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191118789496

Roszkowska-Menkes, M. T. (2018). Integrating strategic CSR and open innovation. Towards a conceptual framework. *Social Responsibility Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1108/SRJ-07-2017-0127

Ruggie, J. G. (2020). The social construction of the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights. In *Research handbook on human rights and business* (pp. 63-86). Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781786436405.00009

Ryan, G. (2018). Introduction to positivism, interpretivism and critical theory. *Nurse researcher*, *25*(4), 41-49. https://doi.org/10.7748/nr.2018.e1466

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2019). Brick by brick: The origins, development, and future of self-determination theory. In *Advances in motivation science* (Vol. 6, pp. 111-156). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.adms.2019.01.001

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2020). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective: Definitions, theory, practices, and future directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, *61*, 101860. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101860

Ryan, R. M., Ryan, W. S., Di Domenico, S. I., & Deci, E. L. (2019). The nature and the conditions of human autonomy and flourishing: Self-determination theory and basic psychological needs. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (pp. 89–110). Oxford University Press.

Sah, L. K., Singh, D. R., & Sah, R. K. (2020). Conducting qualitative interviews using virtual communication tools amid COVID-19 pandemic: A learning opportunity for future research. *JNMA: Journal of the Nepal Medical Association*, *58*(232), 1103. https://doi.org/10.31729%2Fjnma.5738

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of managerial psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169

Salanova, M., Schaufeli, W. B., Xanthopoulou, D., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). The gain spiral of resources and work engagement: Sustaining a positive worklife. *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research*, 118-131.

Sandada, M. (2015). What determines the resilience of retail business in an unstable business environment? Evidence from Harare Province. http://hdl.handle.net/10646/2727

Sandu, A., Frunza, A., & Unguru, E. (Eds.). (2018). *Ethics in research practice and innovation*. IGI Global.

Sanhokwe, H. (2022a). Evaluating a desire to telework model: The role of perceived quality of life, workload, telework experience and organisational telework support. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *20*, 7. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v20i0.1848

Sanhokwe, H. (2022b). The dimensionality of the UWES-17 and UWES-9: Testing second-order and bifactor models. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *32*(2), 115-122. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2022.2027616

Sanhokwe, H. (2022c). The influence of nonwork resources, nonwork demands and external support on work engagement and productivity: A moderated mediation model. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *48*(1), 1-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v48i0.1957

Sanhokwe, H., & Chinyamurindi, W. (2023). Work engagement and resilience at work: The moderating role of political skill. SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, *49*(1), 1-9. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v49i0.2017

Sanhokwe, H., Chinyamurindi, W., & Muzurura, J. (2023). Evaluating the quality of the organisational learning capability measurement model. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *35*(5), 401-416. https://doi.org/10.1108/JWL-08-2022-0102

Sanhokwe, H., & Takawira, S. (2022b). Evaluating the Decent Work Scale Measurement Model in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Career Development*, *50*(3), 727-742. https://doi.org/10.1177/08948453221120961

Sari, D. K., Sinambela, F. C., & Yudiarso, A. (2021). Work Engagement and Innovative Work Behaviour: Meta-Analysis Study. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Psychological Studies (ICPSYCHE 2020)*, *530*(53), 359-366. Atlantis Press. https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210423.053

Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Hair, J. F. (2021). Partial least squares structural equation modeling. In *Handbook of market research* (pp. 587-632). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-57413-4_15

Satorra, A., & Saris, W. E. (1985). Power of the likelihood ratio test in covariance structure analysis. *Psychometrika*, *50*(1), 83-90. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02294150

Schaaps, P. (2019). Explicating the South African Psychological Ownership Questionnaire's confirmatory factor analysis model fit: A Bayesian structural equation modelling approach. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *45*(1), 1-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v45i0.1643

Schaufeli, W. (2021). Engaging Leadership: How to Promote Work Engagement? *Frontiers in psychology*, *12*. https://doi.org/10.3389%2Ffpsyg.2021.754556

Schaufeli, W. B. (2017). Applying the job demands-resources model. *Organisational Dynamics*, *2*(46), 120-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2017.04.008

Schaufeli, W. B. (2018). Work engagement in Europe: Relations with national economy, governance, and culture. *Organisational Dynamics*, *47*(2), 99-106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2018.01.003

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. Journal of Happiness studies, 3, 71-92. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015630930326

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness studies*, *3*(1), 71-92. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015630930326

Schaufeli, W. B., Shimazu, A., Hakanen, J., Salanova, M., & De Witte, H. (2017). An ultra-short measure for work engagement. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*. https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000430

Schumpeter, J.A. (1934). The theory of Economic Development, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Schumpeter, J.A(1942). Capitalism, socialism e democracy. Harper and Row. New York.

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behaviour: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of management journal*, *37*(3), 580-607. https://doi.org/10.5465/256701

Sebele-Mpofu, F. Y. (2020). Governance quality and tax morale and compliance in Zimbabwe's informal sector. *Cogent Business & Management*, *7*(1), 1794662. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1794662

Senge, P. M. (2017). The leaders' new work: Building learning organisations. In *Leadership perspectives* (pp. 51-67). Routledge.

Shapiro, J. R., Klein, S. L., & Morgan, R. (2021). Stop 'controlling'for sex and gender in global health research. *BMJ Global Health*, *6*(4), e005714. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-005714

Shi, D., & Maydeu-Olivares, A. (2020). The effect of estimation methods on SEM fit indices. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *80*(3), 421-445. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164419885164

Shoko, M., & Zinyemba, A. Z. (2014). Impact of employee engagement on organisational commitment in national institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, *3*(9), 255-268.

Sibanda, P., Muchena, T., & Ncube, F. (2014). Employee engagement and organisational performance in a public sector organisation in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, *4*(1), 89-99. https://archive.aessweb.com/index.php/5007/article/view/2607

Sibanda, S. (2019). *Promoting decent work in the rural economy lessons from Zimbabwe (2008–2018)* (No. 995041592002676). International Labour Organisation. https://ilo.userservices.exlibrisgroup.com/view/delivery/41ILO_INST/1262489000002676

Sibiya, K. (2017). *Establishing the Effects of Organisational Learning on Company Performance in the Road Haulage Business in Zimbabwe*. GRIN Verlag.

Sibiya, K., Sandada, M., & Mago, M. (2016). The influence of organisational learning dimensions on the performance of haulage companies in Harare province, Zimbabwe. http://hdl.handle.net/10646/3236

Simbrisio, C., Mutongi, C., & Thabani, N. (2021). Zimbabwe Rising Public Debt: How to Avoid a Stern Crisis? *International Research Journal of Innovations in Engineering and Technology*, *5*(3), 514. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.46.6.1273

Simonton, D. K. (1984). Artistic creativity and interpersonal relationships across and within generations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *46*(6), 1273. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.46.6.1273

Singh, C., Patil, S., Poonacha, P., Koduganti, M., & Sharma, S. (2021). When the "Field" Moves Online: Reflections on Virtual Data Collection during COVID-19. *Ecology, Economy and Society–the INSEE Journal*, *4*(2), 149-157. https://doi.org/10.37773/ees.v4i2.414

Sisk, B. A., & DuBois, J. (2020). Research ethics during a pandemic: a call for normative and empirical analysis. *The American Journal of Bioethics*, *20*(7), 82-84. https://doi.org/10.1080/15265161.2020.1779868

Siwela, G., & Njaya, T. (2021). Opportunities and challenges for digital financial inclusion of females in the informal sector through mobile phone technology: evidence from Zimbabwe. https://doi.org/lis.zou.ac.zw:8080/dspace /handle/0/607

Smith, C. M., Allan, B. A., & Blustein, D. L. (2023). Decent Work and Self Determination Needs: Exploring Relational Workplace Civility as a Moderator. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 10690727231186768. https://doi.org/10.1177/10690727231186768

Sönmez, B., Yıldız Keskin, A., İspir Demir, Ö., Emiralioğlu, R., & Güngör, S. (2023). Decent work in nursing: Relationship between nursing work environment, job satisfaction, and physical and mental health. *International Nursing Review*, *70*(1), 78-88. https://doi.org/10.1111/inr.12771

Stone, M. (1974). Cross-validatory choice and assessment of statistical predictions. *Journal of the royal statistical society: Series B (Methodological)*, *36*(2), 111-133. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2517-6161.1974.tb00994.x

Taherdoost, H. (2019). What is the best response scale for survey and questionnaire design; review of different lengths of rating scale/attitude scale/Likert scale. *Hamed Taherdoost*, 1-10. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3588604

Taris, T. W., Kessler, S. R., & Kelloway, E. K. (2021). Strategies addressing the limitations of cross-sectional designs in occupational health psychology: What they are good for (and what not). *Work & Stress*, *35*(1), 1-5. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2021.1888561

Taylor, S. P. (2017). What is innovation? A study of the definitions, academic models and applicability of innovation to an example of social housing in England. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(11), 128-146. https://doi.org/10.4236/jss.2017.511010

Theofanidis, D., & Fountouki, A. (2018). Limitations and delimitations in the research process. *Perioperative Nursing-Quarterly scientific, online official journal of GORNA*, *7*(3 September-December 2018), 155-163. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2552022

Tshuma, N. (2022). The impact of job engagement on employee performance within the medical sector in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Applied Management Sciences and Engineering (IJAMSE)*, *9*(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJAMSE.286180

Urban, B., & Gaffurini, E. (2017). Organisational learning capabilities as determinants of social innovation: An empirical study in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *15*(1), 1-10. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-74a5a7b7d

Uzhenyu, D. (2019). Remuneration challenge: An obstacle to conducive employment relations and a trigger for poor service delivery in a Local authority in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Management, IT and Engineering*, *7*(11), 310-317.

Veldsman, T. H., & Johnson, A. J. (2016). Leadership: Perspectives from the front line.

Vertigans, S., Idowu, S., Maphiri, M., Matasane, M., & Mudimu, G. (2020). Challenges to the Effective Implementation of SDG 8 in Creating Decent Work and Economic Growth in the Southern African Hemisphere: Perspectives from South Africa, Lesotho, and Zimbabwe. *Global Challenges to CSR and Sustainable Development Root Causes and Evidence from Case Studies*, 39-63.

Walliman, N. (2017). Research theory. In Research Methods (pp. 16-30). Routledge.

Werna, E., & Lawrence, R. (2009). *Labour Conditions for Construction: Building Cities, Decent Work and the Role of Local Authorities*. John Wiley & Sons.

Wiener, K., & Sedger, A. K. M. (2021). Is Meaningful Work a Stronger Predictor of Innovation Than Transformational Leadership? *World Journal of Business and Management*, *7*(2), 1-17. https://doi.org/10.5296/wjbm.v7i2

Winmore, K., Melanie, N., & Simphiwe, N. I. (2021, October). Implications of the Urban Water and Food Systems Governance Nexus for Household Food Security in the City of Gweru, Zimbabwe. In *Urban Forum* (pp. 1-20). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12132-021-09447-3

World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) (2022). Global Innovation Index 2022: What is the future of innovation-driven growth? Geneva: WIPO. https://doi.org/10.34667/tind.46596

Wolf, E. J., Harrington, K. M., Clark, S. L., & Miller, M. W. (2013). Sample size requirements for structural equation models: An evaluation of power, bias, and solution propriety. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *73*(6), 913-934. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164413495237

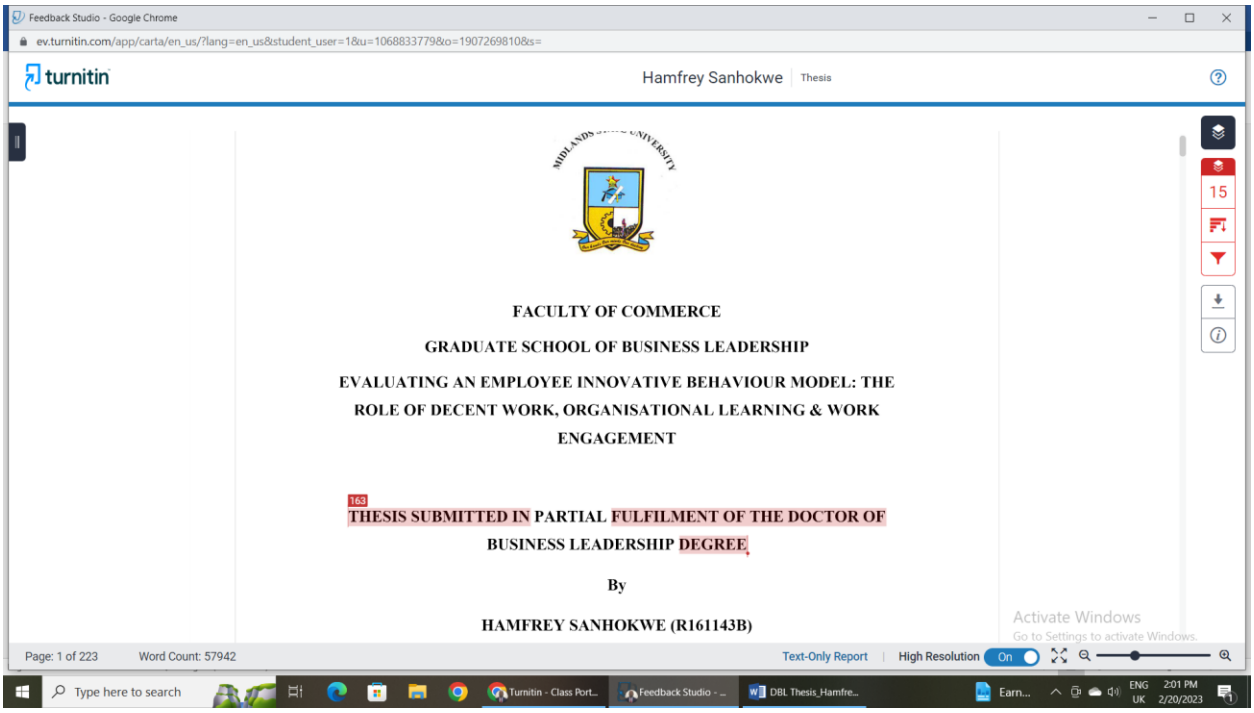
Xu, Y., Liu, D., & Tang, D. S. (2022). Decent work and innovative work behaviour: Mediating roles of work engagement, intrinsic motivation, and job self-efficacy. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, *31*(1), 49-63. https://doi.org/10.1111/caim.12480

Zenger, T. (2013). What is the theory of your firm. *Harvard business review*, *91*(6), 72-78.

Zhang, M. F., Dawson, J. F., & Kline, R. B. (2021). Evaluating the use of covariance-based structural equation modelling with reflective measurement in organisational and management research: A review and recommendations for best practice. *British Journal of Management*, *32*(2), 257-272. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12415

Zhou, J., Ma, Y., Cheng, W., & Xia, B. (2014). Mediating role of employee emotions in the relationship between authentic leadership and employee innovation. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *42*(8), 1267-1278. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.8.1267

ANNEX 1: TURNITIN REPORT



ANNEX 2: PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

Proof of editing pdf HS.pdf

ANNEX 3: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

_Evaluating%20an%
20Innovative%20Bel

ANNEX 4: RESEARCH CLEARANCE LETTER

Ethics Letter - Sanhokwe 2023 Chair.

Ethics Letter - Sanhokwe - Director.p

ANNEX 5: COMPLEMENTARY ANALYTICAL OUTPUTS

Complementary
SmartPLS (PLS-SEM) A