

Hidden Experiences Of Casual Workers At A Multinational Company In Zimbabwe

Wilfred Isioma Ukpere*, Jeremy Mitonga-Monga, and
Nyasha Mapira

Department of Industrial Psychology and People
Management, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg,
South Africa.

Abstract

The study sought to explore the experiences of casual employees at a multinational company in Zimbabwe. An exploratory qualitative research approach was utilised in the study. Data from sixteen participants who had worked for the multinational company in Zimbabwe for at least six months were gathered using semi-structured interviews. The study found that most casual employees at the case multinational company in Zimbabwe have experienced their work negatively. The three main negative lived experiences that most of the research participants identified were job insecurity, income insecurity and occupational health and safety challenges. Only a few casual workers expressed that they experienced casual work positively and attributed this to work flexibility and the ability to acquire job related knowledge. The study's findings made it clear that the lived experiences of casual employees at the case multinational company in Zimbabwe are largely negative. Hence, the current study recommends that the case multinational company in Zimbabwe should follow the provisions of the legal frameworks that govern labour casualisation in Zimbabwe in order to enhance the experiences of casual employees.

Keywords: Casualization of work; casual work; employee; employer; experiences; transnational firm.

Introduction

Labour casualization has generated much debate among researchers and employment relations actors (Fapohunda, 2012; Zindiya, 2015). In fact, some claim that it is a global employment strategy to decrease costs, while others describe it as a strategy to exploit workers. Zimbabwe's strict labour laws, high

unemployment rates and economic instability, have forced the country to formalise casual labour (Chitiyo, 2019; Munyanyi, 2018; & Mutsvairo, 2018). Casual labour is defined by the Zimbabwe Labour Act of 1984 (Chapter 28:01) as employment that lasts for no more than six weeks in any four consecutive months. According to Fapohunda (2012), casual employment can assume different forms, from irregular employment to non-standard working conditions. The Zimbabwean government implemented a series of turnaround measures, including liberalisation of the labour market, to restore the faltering economy. This was done because it was believed that the labour laws were too restrictive and could not keep up with the demands of the economic reforms (Chitiyo, 2014). Through the Zimbabwe Labour Act (Chapter 28:01), Section 12, the Zimbabwean government purposefully formalised informal employment (Munyanyi, 2018; Mutsvairo, 2018). This, therefore, means that the Zimbabwe Labour Act's (Chapter 28:01) Section 12 provisions contributed to the rise of casual employment (Labour Market Outlook, 2018; Mutsvairo, 2018), giving employers the prerogative to hire and fire as they deemed fit (Mutsvairo, 2018). Capitalising on the provisions of the Zimbabwe Labour Act (Chapter 28:01), Section 12, multinational firms started to utilise atypical forms of contracts. It is known that local and transnational firms in Zimbabwe started to replace permanent positions with casual labour (Fisher, 2011; Guma, 2012). Faced with challenges of obtaining employment and high poverty levels, employees in Zimbabwe had no choice but to settle for casual work (Kanyenze, 2017; Labour Force Survey, 2014). Given this dilemma, there is a growing fear that the more dominant casualisation of employment becomes among transnational firms in Zimbabwe, the greater the chance of employee exploitation (Mukwakwami, 2017; Munyanyi, 2018). It was also unclear how casual employment amongst transnational firms in Zimbabwe affected employees who work at these establishments, hence the need for this study.

A number of studies on labour casualisation that have been conducted in developed nations seem to neglect the lived experiences of casual workers in a shrinking economy like Zimbabwe. Previous research on casual employment in Zimbabwe focused much on transnational firms under the Anglo-Saxon models, which is why little is known about transnational firms in Zimbabwe from the global east (Munyanyi, 2018; Mutsvairo, 2018; Mukwakwami, 2017; Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries, 2018). It is against this backdrop that a study should be conducted to explore the experiences of casual employees at a multinational company in Zimbabwe.

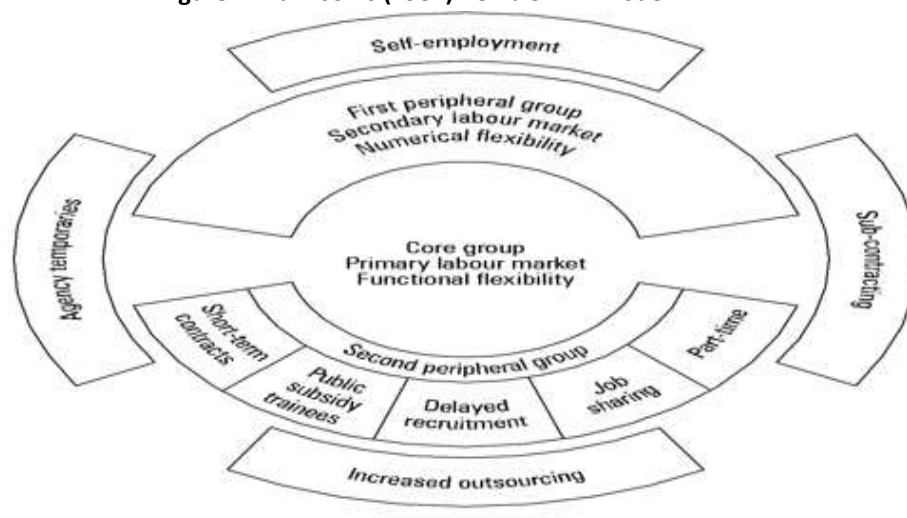
2. Theoretical Foundations

This research was guided by Atkinson's (1984) flexible firm model and Aronsson et al.'s (2000) core-periphery model.

2.1. Atkinson's (1984) flexible firm model

Atkinson's (1984) flexible firm model segments workers into core and peripheral groups, with the aim of achieving flexibility. The flexible firm model allows the organisation the ability to adjust its labour complement in response to environmental changes and variations in product market conditions (Allan, 1999). Atkinson's (1984) flexible firm model assumes that organisations are utilising atypical forms of employment, which allow them to adjust quickly, easily and cheaply to unforeseen changes. The flexible firm model segments workers into core and peripheral groups, as shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Atkinson's (1984) flexible firm model



Source: Atkinson's (1984)

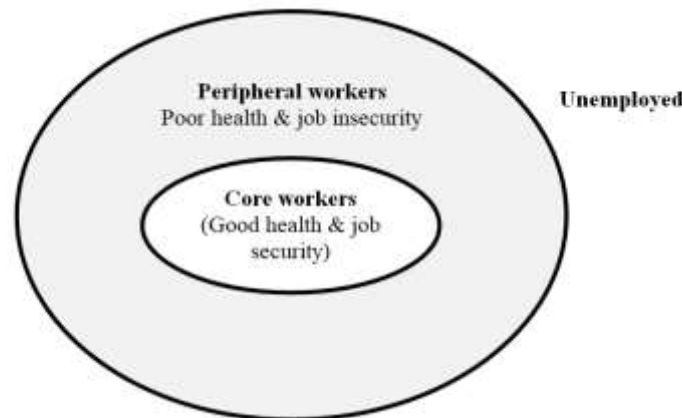
Figure 1 above indicates that the model segments workers into core and periphery categories. For each category organisations employ a different labour deployment strategy. Permanent, well-compensated, skilled personnel with internal career routes comprise the core category (Wood, 2016; Deery & Jago, 2002). Functional adaptability and employment stability define this category (Atkinson, 1984). However, characteristics of the periphery worker include numerical flexibility and employment instability (Atkinson, 1984). According to Atkinson (1984), the use of lone peripheral employees enables a business to adapt its staff to changing demand patterns. Peripheral employees are known for working in unstable, low-paying positions with limited career prospects (Atkinson, 1984). The researchers used Atkinson's flexible firm model because it was suited to unpacking the lived experiences of casual workers.

2.2. Aronsson's (2000) core-periphery model

The flexible firm model developed by Atkinson in 1984 is expanded upon by Aronsson's model. Aronsson's model

investigates the lived experiences of core, jobless, and peripheral employees in terms of health (Aronsson et al., 2000). This model assumes that actual health experiences are determined by employment status. In other words, the workers' lived health experiences are better when they are closer to a permanent position. Aronsson et al.'s (2000) core-periphery paradigm is depicted in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Aronsson et al.'s (2000) core-periphery model



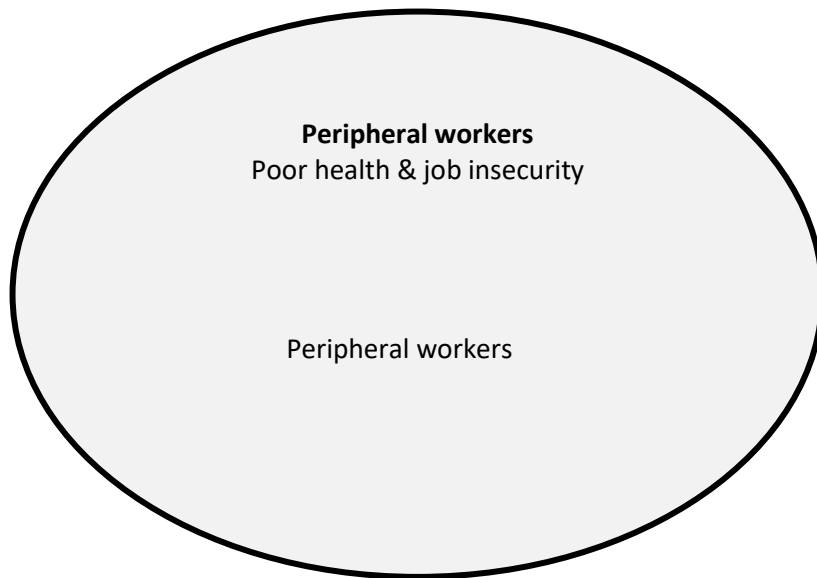
Source: Aronsson et al.'s (2000) core-periphery model

Figure 2 above demonstrates that core employees enjoy good health as a result of their work being permanent, whilst providing several financial and non-financial rewards (Aronsson et al., 2000). Because of the organization's dedication and the time and resources spent on their training and development, core personnel can have a career path (Daller, 2000). It is believed that peripheral employees experience worse health results (Aronsson et al., 2000). The above model also presupposes that jobless people endure the lowest daily health outcomes (Aronsson et al., 2000; Virtanen, 2003).

2.3. Conceptualization of casualization of work

Various and different non-standard work arrangements have emerged as a result of global changes in the form of market flexibility, trade liberalization, and unemployment (Atilola, 2014; Bayo, 2019). In order to control labour expenses in the face of competition, casualization of labour is utilized as an employment strategy (Duru, 2016; Kalejaiye, 2014). According to Mollo (2017), the majority of organizations embraced a casualization of employment strategy in an effort to cut expenses. There are numerous forms of casualization of labour casualization (Ogbe & Osagie, 2019). As a result, the meaning of labour casualization varies on the type of employment that is used (Solaja, 2015). The practice of having employees who work for a company part-time, seasonally, or casually with little to no legal protection is also known as casualization of labour (Solaja, 2015). For the purpose

of this study, casualisation of labour is defined as the practice of hiring people without giving them a permanent contract for a particular job or task (Emuze & Mollo, 2017).



2.4. Drivers of casualization of labour

There are a number of reasons why companies opt to employ casual workers. Demand-side factors are the main cause of casualisation of labour, claims Barker (2007). According to Mitlacher (2008), demand side considerations are what encourage firms to use non-standard employment. Neo-liberal organizational reforms appear to be the main causes of the casualization of work (Smith, 2011). Globalization, technology improvements, a high unemployment rate and the flexibility of labour markets, according to academics, have all been contributing factors to the rise in casual employment around the world (Fapohunda, 2012; Kalejaiye, 2014; Kholosa, 2012; Okafor, 2012). However, it is asserted that the key factors are globalization and the need for flexibility.

2.4.1. Globalisation

Businesses were forced to replace full-time employees with temporary workers as a result of the consequences of globalization and trade liberalization in order to reduce costs and preserve their competitiveness (Bayo, 2019). Standing (2011) asserts that globalization has altered the nature of labour and given rise to new jobs. Globalization's free-market ideals are being used by transnational firms to establish a variety of work arrangements that can reduce the power of unions (Adewumi, 2013). Neo-liberalism and globalization gave rise to a labour regime that emphasizes labour market flexibility and substitute job for life concept with non-standard forms of employment (Webster, 2016, Buhlungu, 2012). Littler (2011) asserts that global work restructuring has enabled the creation of insecure

employment patterns such as casual and part-time work, outsourcing, and the growth of temporary employment agencies and labour brokers. In addition, according to Fapohunda (2012), globalization de-regulates the labour and product markets, which encourage outsourcing as a cost-cutting tactic by letting outsiders handle ancillary tasks while a company concentrates on its core operations. In a similar vein, Kalleberg (2016) claims that in order to save costs and keep up with trade liberalization and globalization, many businesses have turned to atypical forms of employment. The beginning of economic globalization has cleared the way for the widespread adoption of various forms of labour casualization, according to study by Austin-Egole et al. (2020).

2.4.2. Quest for flexibility

Companies experience fluctuations in demand for their products and services due to seasonality, rapid advances in science and technology, changes in the economic cycle, and competition from other firms for the same markets (Kalleberg, 2011; ILO, 2016). As a result, companies have developed flexible employment policies to avoid overstaffing during periods of low demand (Organization for European Economic Cooperation, 2016). According to Cheadle (2006), an organization gains three different types of flexibility as a result of casualization of labour, including functional, pay, and numerical flexibility. Businesses can manage unpredictable product/service by changing the number of employees they have thanks to numerical flexibility (Bamidele, 2017). Because of seasonal demand and variations in the labour supply, temporary workers are therefore hired (Harrison & Kelley, 1993; Ko, 2013). Doeringer and Piore's (1971) dual labour market model and Atkinson's flexible (1984) business model demonstrate how firms can use atypical and core personnel to strike a balance between numerical and functional flexibility. The flexible company model shows how using temporary staff helps companies become numerically flexible by allowing them to withstand unfavourable macroeconomic situations, adjust to seasonal demand swings, and manage financial constraints. On the other hand, a study by Deloitte Consulting (2015) revealed that benefits related to flexibility of using atypical forms of labour were not always achieved by casual labour. Similar findings were made by Zagelmeyer and Heckmann (2013) in their research conducted in Germany, which showed that companies using casual labour were less resilient to global economic downturns than those using in-house staff. The use of casual labour, according to George and Chattopadhyay (2015), seems to offer a short-term flexibility advantage, demanding a detailed examination to ascertain whether such benefits remain over the long run.

2.4.3. Cost reduction

Companies were compelled to implement flexible and cost-

cutting methods by global and national changes in order to stay competitive (Okafor, 2017; Onyeonuru, 2013). Because of their increased need to save organisational costs, employers are increasingly turning to temporary labour to fill permanent positions (Kalleberg, 2011). Due to meagre pay offered to atypical workers and firm savings on social security and other benefits, casual workers are considered as less expensive (ILO, 2016). Businesses deploy non-standard labour, such as casual, temporary, leased, or remote workers, in an effort to reduce costs, claim George and Chattopadhyay (2015). Non-standard workers frequently earn less than standard workers in countries like the United States (Heneman & Skoglund, 1997) and Japan (Nesheim et al., 2017), and they are not entitled to the benefits given to long-term employees (Osawa et al., 2003). Due to the lower termination costs for ending casual contracts when they expire compared to permanent contracts, which frequently come with severance payments, costs associated with notification procedures, and other compensatory payments, temporary employment is becoming more and more popular in Europe (ILO, 2016). Similar to this, research by an Indian multinational pharmaceutical business showed how production plant costs are managed by deploying temporary workers for non-core tasks (Ramnarayan & Anuradha, 2014). In contrast, a study by Battisti (2013) found that the employment of casual labour is associated with worse business performance, undercutting the benefits of non-standard agreements in terms of cost savings. Additionally, the study demonstrated that concerns with high levels of job anxiety, motivation, and job satisfaction result in lower performance, negating any possible cost savings from lower wages and benefits.

2.4.4. Standardization and technology

Casual workers are engaged in response to demand fluctuations and the use of standardised production models (ILO, 2016). Task simplification offered by technology enables untrained casual workers who need less training to do job, negating the need to engage permanent personnel (ILO, 2016). Businesses utilize unconventional work arrangements as a result of technological developments that make a variety of work arrangements possible (Levesque et al., 2020). Due to technological advancements, tasks may now be accomplished by people with fewer qualifications and employees can now carry out their duties anywhere in the world (Townsend & Bennett, 2003; Kalleberg, 2014). Due to lower costs and improved employee retention, businesses in the IT sector have begun allowing employees to work remotely (George & Chattopadhyay, 2017). Technology fosters job flexibility, making it possible for businesses to hire temporary staff that can work from home (Bloom et al. 2021). Undoubtedly, technology makes some tasks and certain periods for non-standard work arrangements possible, while in other cases, organisations do not

view non-standard work arrangements as performance facilitators despite technical developments (ILO, 2016).

2.4.5. Regulatory laws

Bayo (2019) states that some legislative frameworks that regulate work allow casualisation of labour. The government of Zimbabwe deliberately formalised casualisation of employment through Labour Amendment Act No. 5 of 2015 Section 12 and Section 12 (4a) (d) of the Labour Act (Chapter 28:01) (Munyanyi, 2018 ; Mutsvairo, 2018). These labour law amendments led to the growth of casualisation of labour (Labour market outlook, 2018; Muccheche, 2017; Mutsvairo, 2018). In practice, these labour law amendments gave the employer the prerogative to hire and fire as and when necessary (Muccheche, 2017). Weak enforcement, labour inspections, absence of penalties and limited resources make it easy for employers to escape regulatory nets and violate the provisions of employment laws in relation to casual work (ILO, 2016 & Madhuku, 2015).

2.5. Experiences of casual workers

Some workers have no choice but to involuntarily accept casual work to make ends meet. Casual workers experience their work both positively and negatively, depending on their motives for accepting this type of work. The experiences of casual workers are presented in the section below.

2.5.1. Job insecurity

Casual workers lack the job security that permanent employees enjoy owing to the nature of their work and the ease with which they can be replaced (Kumwenda, 2016). Similarly, Jong (2011) contends that because their contracts are subject to quick termination, atypical workers are uncertain about future employment. This implies that the core of employment instability is the possibility of losing a job that provides an income. According to Quinlan et al. (2001), depression, minor mental disorders, and morbidity have all been associated with employment insecurity. An Australia University and College Union study from 2019 supports the above views by arguing that casual workers experience stress and anxiety owing to working under an insecure contract. Similarly, a European working conditions survey (2016) showed that casual workers in southern Europe experienced psycho-social challenges owing to the nature of their contracts. On the other hand, Krausz (2000) posits that some casual workers consider atypical forms of work as a vital means to gain marketable skills and job-related training and as such job security is secondary to them. Extant literatures which oppose the study's findings also come from a study by Oliver (2013). The study showed that young casual workers who have fewer responsibilities are not affected by employment insecurity and consider atypical forms of work as less dangerous.

2.5.2. Income insecurity

Working irregular hours and receiving an income that is below the living wage are causes of earning insecurity (ACTU, 2016). Casual workers experience earning instability because of the nature of their contracts, which makes it difficult to predict future compensation (ILO, 2016). According to a study by Bayo (2019), the majority of casual workers experience income instability as a result of the precarious nature of their jobs. The study also found that because casual workers receive a low income, they often struggle to pay their rent, utilities, and children's tuition. Similarly, Kumwenda's (2016) research revealed that temporary workers struggle to provide for their family owing to financial limitations. Contrary, a survey by Waenerlund (2011) showed that the association between atypical forms of contract and income security depends on the pay rate and disposable income. This means that, a higher wage rate for a certain atypical form of work lead to a higher disposable income, hence income security. Supporting the above sentiments is Virtanen (2011), who states that some atypical workers are entitled to casual loading and are more likely to earn more than permanent staff making income insecurity impossible. Additionally, Australian Council of Trade Unions (2015) reported that casual workers are not financially vulnerable because casual loading enables them to earn a higher pay rate per hour than permanent workers.

2.5.3. OHS insecurity

Workers face occupational health and safety difficulties when they work long and irregular hours, are exposed to illnesses and accidents at work, and have inadequate occupational safety (ILO, 2016). Olasunkanmi (2015) states that the lengthy hours and continuous work without rest that define temporary jobs provide health and safety issues. He further says that some temporary workers are compelled to work without safety gear, which exposes them to accidents and injuries at work. Similarly, the French Directorate for Research, Studies, and Statistics (2017) found that inadequate occupational health and safety training is to blame for more than 13.3% of work-related incidents involving casual workers. According to the ILO (2015), temporary employees face OHS insecurity as a result of their exposure to risky working conditions.

2.5.4. Working time insecurity

Casual workers experience working time insecurity in the form of few, long and ever-changing working hours (ACTU, 2016; ILO, 2016). Working time insecurity can lead to financial instability, work-life imbalances, and mental health challenges (ILO, 2016). A study by Kumwenda (2016) among casual miners in Zambia showed that casual miners work long unpaid hours, exposing them to burnout, fatigue, and exhaustion.

2.5.5. Flexibility and work-related experience

Casual work is known for its flexibility. Working mothers accept atypical forms of work because it allows them to strike a balance between work and family duties (Kumwenda, 2016). Cousins (2012) also states that work flexibility, which accompanies casual work, is considered good by those who want to pursue work and studies concurrently. Tucker and Turner (2013) concur, arguing that learners prefer atypical forms of work because they can balance work and schooling time. Freese and Kroon (2013) claim that young workers accept atypical forms of work to gain marketable skills and work-related experience. Contrarily, a study by Virtanen et al. (2013) found that because of their irregular schedules, temporary workers struggle to strike a balance between their work and social obligations. Similarly, Aletraris (2013) contends that informal workers cannot reconcile work and life because of their unsocial working hours.

3. Research methodology

This section discusses the research methodology of this study delineating the research approach, sampling, data collection method, and data analysis. Each of the constructs in relation to the study are explained in the sub-sections that follow.

3.1. Research approach

Creswell (2014) defines a qualitative research approach as an investigation that uses the words and in-depth accounts of informants in a natural setting to explore social and human problems. Using a qualitative study approach allowed the researchers to better understand the daily experiences of casual employees at the case multinational company in Zimbabwe.

3.2. Sampling

According to Harland (2014), case study sample sizes range typically from 1 to 25. After 16 interviews, the researchers reached data saturation. Thus, a total of sixteen participants were purposively chosen by the researchers. Key informants comprised managerial staff at the case organization and union leaders.

3.3. Data collection method

Because semi-structured interviews give participants latitude and flexibility to explore the phenomena, they were chosen as the data gathering method. Probing questions were used when clarification was required so that participants could either elaborate on or explain their responses. Similar open-ended questions were presented to each participant, and they were all urged to speak freely and provide honest responses. Next subsection present data analysis.

3.4. Data analysis

Braun and Clarke (2006) define data analysis as the process of identifying, interpreting, and reporting data patterns. The researchers were guided by Braun and Clarke's (2006) six stages of thematic analysis, namely becoming acquainted with the data, initializing code generation, theme search, theme review, defining and labelling themes and producing a report. NVivo qualitative data analysis system was also used by researchers during thematic data analysis process. Key words generated by the Nvivo system are shown in the table below

Table 1: Key words appearance and frequency

Word	Length	Count/Appearance
Job insecurity	13	475
Income insecurity	16	417
Health and safety issues	21	401
Flexibility	11	387
Experiences	11	340
Work-life balance	15	287
Work experience	14	201
Training	8	128
Occupational challenges	22	117

Source: fieldwork

3.5. Ensuring research quality and rigor

Research rigor, according to Allen (2017), is the degree to which study procedures are strictly and accurately followed. By using the four components of research rigor, namely reliability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability, the researchers were able to guarantee the quality and thoroughness of their study. Credibility was ensured through prolonged engagement with the participants and peer participant debriefing. Transferability was maintained by providing thick descriptions of the interviews and member checks. To ensure confirmability, the findings were interpreted objectively, while dependability was observed by keeping an audit trail of the research process.

3.6. Ethical consideration

Research ethics are crucial because they establish a respectful, mutually beneficial connection that makes participants eager to engage in the study (Walliman, 2010). The researchers ensured that participants were completely aware of the study's purpose and goals for them to decide whether or not to participate in it. Hence, there was no coercion involved in the participation. The researchers also informed the participants that any information that they provided would be kept private and confidential. To protect the participants' identities, the researcher used pseudonyms. This was done to reduce participant harm and victimisation in the event that confidentiality was breached.

3.7. Research participants' profiles

Sixteen participants were purposefully chosen from the

multinational company in Zimbabwe. Participants in the study included managerial staff, union officials, and casual employees from a transnational firm in Zimbabwe. Ten casual employees, four managerial employees, and two union officials were all interviewed by the researchers. 'CW' was used as pseudonyms for casual employees, whereas 'MS' and 'UL' were used as pseudonyms for the managerial staff and union leaders, respectively. Table 2 below summarises age, gender, employment history, and educational background of the participants.

Table 2: Research participants' profiles and interview duration

No.	Pseudonyms	Age	Gender	Work experience	Qualification	Interview time
1	CW1	18	M	8 months	Diploma	44 Mins
2	CW2	20	F	1 year	O level certificate	30Mins
3	CW3	19	M	8 months	A-level certificate	32 Mins
4	CW4	27	M	10 months	Bachelor's degree	46 Mins
5	CW5	30	M	6 months	Bachelor's degree	52 Mins
6	CW6	24	M	1 year	Diploma	34 Mins
7	CW7	22	F	8 months	Diploma	56 Mins
8	CW8	34	M	11 months	Bachelor's degree	51 Mins
9	CW9	33	M	2 years	Bachelor's degree	41 Mins
10	CW10	22	M	7 months	Diploma	33 Mins
11	MS1	27	M	1 year	Diploma	35 Mins
12	MS2	30	M	1 years	Bachelor's degree	29 Mins
13	MS3	32	F	4 years	Bachelor's degree	54 Mins
14	MS4	38	M	3 years	Bachelor's degree	43 Mins
15	UL1	40	M	6 years	Master's degree	32 Mins
16	UL2	46	M	5 years	Master's degree	36 Mins

Source: Author's fieldwork

The participants who had worked for the case multinational firm in Zimbabwe for at least six months were interviewed by the researchers, as shown in Table 2 above. The average job tenure

for the sixteen participants was one year and nine months. Seven of the research participants had bachelor's degrees, according to their academic profiles. The least qualified casual worker at the case multinational firm in Zimbabwe had an O-level certificate. The longest interview lasted for fifty-six minutes on average. Interviews range between thirty to fifty-six minutes.

4. Findings and discussion

The researchers posed the question: What are the lived experiences of casual workers? The subthemes that emerged from the study are job insecurity, income insecurity, occupational health and safety implications, flexibility, work related experience and training. The subthemes were group into two themes, namely negative and positive experiences. The themes and sub-themes are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
Negative experiences	-Job insecurity -Income insecurity -OHS challenges
Positive experiences	-Flexibility -Work-related experience

Source: fieldwork

4.1. Data frequency

Table 4 below illustrates the research participants' response rate.

Table 4: Data frequency

Sub-themes	Frequency
Job insecurity	4
Income insecurity	5
OHS challenges	3
Flexibility	2
Work-related experience	2

Source: fieldwork

4.2. Job insecurity

The research findings show that a majority of casual employees at the multinational company in Zimbabwe experienced casual work negatively. Job insecurity was one of the reasons that they cited for the negativity. In this regard, CW4 said:

"Vanokudzinga basa pavadira uye haukwansi kuronga maringe nebasa rako (They can fire you any time. No job security with this

type of work.”

Similarly, CW6 stated:

‘You cannot make long term career plans because you can lose the job anytime’.

UL2 aligned his sentiments with that of CW6’s by saying:

“Job insecurity experiences are common among atypical workers.”

In light with the above quotes, Standing (2011) argues that atypical forms of work are accompanied by job instability. Atkinson's (1984) Flexible Firm Model, which also posits that peripheral workers experience job insecurity since they are engaged temporarily, shares this viewpoint. UL2’s quote is also in tandem with a study carried out by Kumwenda (2016) among casual miners at the Mopani Copper mine in Zambia. The study’s findings showed that casual workers experience job insecurity owing to the precarious nature of their job. Similarly, ILO (2016) reported that casual workers experience job insecurity because their contracts can be terminated anytime. Contrary, Krausz (2000) posits that some casual workers consider atypical forms of work as a vital means to gain marketable skills and job related training and as such job security is secondary to them. Literatures which contradict the study’s findings also come from a study by Oliver (2013). The study showed that young casual workers who have fewer responsibilities are not affected by employment insecurity and consider atypical forms of work as less dangerous.

4.3. Income insecurity

Income insecurity emerged from the study as another negative experience held by casual workers. Extant literature indicates that atypical forms of employment are precarious, characterised by irregular working hours and compensation that leave casual workers financially vulnerable (Williams, 2016). Lewchuk et al. (2013) concur, stating that temporary workers cannot make long term financial plans owing to income insecurity. In addition, a study by Kumwenda (2016) revealed that casual miners find it difficult to support their families because of budget constraints. The following participant responses support the above literature on income insecurity experiences.

“It’s difficult for a casual worker to (afford) simple things like rentals and school fees. I cannot afford basic goods my brother because I earn peanuts” (UL1, Transcript, p. 1).

“Being a casual worker is a curse to be honest. Let me simply say I earn pocket money kkkkkkkk (laughs) (CW8, Transcript, p.1).

“Mari dzatinotambira pano hapana chaunotenga nayo (You buy very few items with my pay)” (CW9, Transcript, p.2)

“Havabhadhari vanhu ava, tikungoshanda nokuti hapana kumwe

kunebasa (We earn meagre salaries here, I am working because I don't have another option)' (CW10, Transcript, p.2).

Contrary, to the above research participants' quotes, a survey by Waenerlund (2011) showed that the association between atypical forms of contract and income security depends on the pay rate and disposable income. This means that, a higher wage rate for a certain atypical form of work lead to a higher disposable income, hence income security. Supporting the above sentiments is Virtanen (2011), who states that some atypical workers are entitled to casual loading and are more likely to experience income security. Additionally, Australian Council of Trade Unions (2015) reported that casual workers earn a higher pay rate per hour than permanent workers because of casual loading.

4.4. Occupational health and safety challenges

The last sub-theme on negative experiences that emerged from the study was occupational, health and safety implications. Presented below are the quotes from research participants:

"Tikungoshanda hatipihwi mbatya dzekuti tipfeke kudzivivirira zvirwere nekukuvara pabasa, (No protective clothing my brother. I am exposed to diseases and injuries."(CW3, Transcript, p.1).

"They do not give use protective clothing, look i work with cement and I do not have a face mask."(CW2, Transcript, p.1).

"Occupational health and safety issues are not taken seriously here. Buying protective clothing for casual workers???Protective clothing is your own issue; if you can't buy it for yourself then you work without it.' (MS4, Transcript, p1).

"They do not conduct OHS induction training; you are exposed to accidents and injuries here" (MS1, Transcript, p.1).

Supporting the above quotes is Olasunkanmi (2015), who contends that casual workers are subject to occupational health and safety risks since they are not provided with protective clothing. Atypical worker experiences, according to Rousseau and Libuser (2012), affect the safety culture and impact workers' health and safety. MS1's sentiments are seconded by Youth Action and Policy Association (2013), which reported that poor OHS induction training among new casual workers exposes them to workplace accidents, diseases and injuries. Similarly, Olasunkanmi (2015) posits that organisations sometimes refuse to provide protective clothing and uniforms, which expose casual employees to health and safety dangers.

4.5. Flexibility and work-related experience

A few participants seemed to have experienced casual work positively. The following quotes represent the views of the

minority:

“Casual work allows me to balance social and work activities.”(CW5, Transcript, p.1).

“Basa iri rakanakira kuti ndokwanisa kuita zvechikoro uye ndichishanda zvekare,(I can pursue my studies at the same time working as a casual worker)’ (CW1, Transcript, p.1).

“I am gaining the much-needed work related experience here.”(CW7, Transcript, p.1).

“They consider casual work as a stepping stone to permanent positions after they acquired job related training and experience here” (MS2, Transcript, p.1).

(Working mothers usually go for casual work because it affords them job flexibility. They can balance their work and their family responsibilities” (MS3, Transcript, p.1)

The above participants’ responses support Bayo and Lekara (2019), who argue that casual work allows workers to balance their social and work responsibilities. Sharing the same sentiments is George and Chattopadhyay (2017), who postulate that casual work allows workers to manage their respective family and work roles. For Kroon (2013), casual work allows workers to learn marketable abilities and gain professional work-related experience, which improves their prospects of getting a permanent position with the same employer or elsewhere. Similarly, Mathews et al. (2015) argue that young casual workers desire work-related experience and skills acquisition, which they gain from short-term casual work. The study’s findings cited above contradict Virtanen *et al.*’s (2013) findings, which showed that atypical forms of work are characterised by work-life imbalance. Similarly, Aletraris (2013) states that casual workers have more unsocial and fluctuating working times determined by labour demand.

5. Contribution of the study

This study has added to the body of knowledge and the field of business management in methodological, theoretical, and practical ways. The experiences of casual workers have been the subject of extensive research in developed countries (Aronsson, 2000; Atkinson, 1984; Collins & Hussey, 2013; Lewchuk et al. 2016; McDonald, 2017). Aronsson’s (2000) core-periphery model and Atkinson’s (1984) flexible model, two established theories and models of the casualisation of labour, were also created in the industrialized world. However, this study provides new insights into the realities faced by temporary workers in Zimbabwe, a developing country. Using quantitative approaches, it appears that in-depth research on the casualisation of

employment has been done throughout the global north. This study's qualitative research methodology, which has an interpretivist lens, contributes methodologically by offering fresh perspectives and a different way of comprehending as well as interpreting the lived experiences of casual workers in the developing world. This study's rich qualitative data serves as a base for developing potential future research of a similar kind. In addition, the study's effective application of perspectives, theories, and models from the global north will help other academics carry out similar research, thereby bolstering research transferability. The study would also benefit many organizations, HR professionals, and business management actors from a practical perspective. This study will would make employers aware of the realities of working as a casual employee and enable them to develop support systems to enhance those realities. Additionally, it is believed that the information gleaned from this study would contribute significantly to our understanding of Zimbabwe's employment relations and labour casualization. Consequently, the research will help human resource professionals understand how to use and manage casual workers. Through the appropriate authorities, this study may also help the Zimbabwean government examine employment relations procedures and develop better policies and useful support systems to enhance the experiences of casual workers.

6. Limitations and direction for future studies

This research had certain limitations. The main objective of this study was to explore the lived experiences of casual employees at a single multinational company in Zimbabwe. As a result, the study's findings cannot be generalized to all multinational companies in Zimbabwe. The study's use of qualitative research methodology was not without its own limitations. Additional information regarding the study's findings may have been obtained by using a mixed-methods research design. The sixteen participants in the sample size do not represent the total population. A greater sample size might have provided more details and may have led to different findings.

7. Conclusion

The research's findings show that most casual employees at the case multinational company in Zimbabwe experienced casual work negatively. The three main negative lived experiences that most of the research participants identified were job insecurity, income insecurity and occupational health and safety challenges. Only a few casual workers expressed that they experienced casual work positively and attributed this to the work flexibility and ability to acquire work-related experience. Thus, it can be said that the daily experiences of many casual employees at the case multinational company in Zimbabwe were largely negative. Hence, the case multinational company in Zimbabwe should, therefore, implement necessary changes to enhance the lived

experiences of its casual employees.

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10. Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest.

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