Coping Mechanisms To Improve The Lived Experiences Of Casual Workers

Jeremy Mitonga-Monga[1], Nyasha Mapira[2], Wilfred Isioma Ukpere[*3]

[1,2,3]Department of Industrial Psychology and People Management, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Abstract

This study explores the coping mechanisms used by casual employees at a multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe to improve their lived experiences. A purposively chosen sample of sixteen casual workers from a multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe participated in this qualitative study. Information on the coping mechanism used by the research participants to enhance their daily experiences was also gathered through semi-structured interviews. The coping mechanisms used by casual employees at a multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe were categorised into counter-productive work behaviours, organisational citizenship work behaviours and moonlighting. The study also found that some of the coping mechanisms that the casual employees used such as theft and sabotage are gross misconducts, which could amount to immediate dismissal. This study may be a useful tool for understanding the coping mechanisms used by resource casual workers to improve their experiences. The study may also help employment relations specialists to develop safeguards against coping mechanisms that harm the organisation.

Keywords: casualisation of labour, casual worker, coping mechanism, experiences, transnational firm

1. Introduction

Prior to 2000, Zimbabwe was referred to as the breadbasket of Africa because it exported agricultural products to countries all over the world. However, owing to the country's macro-environmental instability of the last 30 years, Zimbabwe's economy has been described as a shrinking economy outside of a war zone (Mawere, 2019). The Zimbabwean economy is characterised by declining real GDP growth rates (African

Development Bank Group, 2022; Chitiyo, 2022), declining capacity utilisation (CZI, 2021), declining foreign direct investment (FDI), and high rates of poverty (72%), unemployment (89%) and inflation (67%) (African Development Bank Group, 2022, ZimStats, 2022). As the nation's macro-economic situation deepened, the Zimbabwean government decided to implement trade liberalisation and labour market flexibility measures (Labour Market Outlook, 2022; Munyanyi, 2022). It is also vital to note that the Zimbabwean government has initiated several campaigns to entice investors to resuscitate the economy. The "look east" and "Zimbabwe is open for business" initiatives had the unanticipated effect of attracting a record number of transnational manufacturing companies (Kanudza, 2022; Zindiya, 2022). However, the economic crisis in Zimbabwe did not spare the transnational manufacturing companies, and they were compelled to consider casualisation of labour as a cost-cutting measure rather than the traditional job for life concept (Labour Market Outlook, 2021; Mukwakwami, 2022). Casualisation of labour is often believed to be a cost-saving and flexible work practise in Zimbabwe (Labour Force Survey, 2019; Labour Market Outlook, 2022). The Zimbabwe Labour Act of 1984 (Chapter 28:01) describes casual labour as employment that lasts for no more than six weeks in any four successive months. Because of Zimbabwe's high unemployment rate, casual workers are compelled to accept this type of employment because they have no other choice, regardless of the poor working conditions. Similarly, Fapohunda (2020) argues that casual workers experience challenges such as a lack of social support, unstable employment, reduced leave benefits and restricted freedom of association and collective bargaining. Nikisi et al. (2022) contend that when confronted with stressful circumstances, employees develop coping mechanisms as they attempt to reclaim their freedom of control.

Extensive research, models and theories of coping mechanisms utilised to enhance the daily experiences of casual employees has been conducted and developed in the Global North (Asli, Dehmordeh & Shojei, 2015; Ezeh & Etodike, 2017; Greenberg 1990, Spector, 1978; Spector & Fox, 2005). Very few studies have been done in the global south. This research gap spurred the researchers to explore the coping strategies employed by casual employees to enhance their daily experiences at a multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. The study's findings are thought to offer a useful resource to learn more about the coping strategies employed by casual employees to enhance their daily experiences. In

addition, the research could be useful for human resource professionals as they devise safeguard measures against coping techniques that harm the organisation.

This manuscript is structured as follows: after the introduction, there is a review of theories that guide the study and coping mechanisms used by casual workers to improve their lived experiences. Following a review of literature, the research methodology is provided. After presenting and discussing the study's findings, this paper concludes with recommendations for the study, suggestions for future research, and study limitations.

2.   Literature Review

This study is guided by Greenberg's Inequity theft model and Spector's Frustration-aggression model.

Greenberg's (1990) Inequity theft model

Social interchange and the impression of unfairness at work serve as the foundation for the Inequity theft model. According to the Inequity theft model, a person's sense of unfairness enhanced their likelihood of committing theft. Frustration causes theft to turn into an emotive reaction, prompting a direct attempt to correct the unfairness in the system (Greenberg, 1990). Adams (2018) argues that when employees perceive injustice in the distribution of incentives, they adopt unproductive behaviours such as theft and sabotage. Stealing is a type of retribution and retaliation that Scott (2019) view as an effort to restore distributive fairness.

Spector's (1978) Frustration-aggression model

The Frustration-aggression model developed by Spector (1978) is another model that is tailored to counter-productive work behaviour. According to Spector (1978), frustration is the impediment to achieving or maintaining goals. The Frustration-aggression model also assumes that feeling frustrated might make an individual angry. Linked to work, the Frustration-aggression model highlights that the emotional state of workers might cause retreat from the circumstance or aggression towards another entity. The above means that employees may retreat from the situation (absenteeism, turnover), or they may act aggressively towards management or the company (personal attack, property destruction) (Spector, 1978). The Frustration-aggression model was pertinent because it helped the study to unpack the counter-productive strategies used by casual employees to enhance their situations at work.

Coping mechanisms

Coping mechanisms used by non-standard workers help them to handle stressful situations. Dewe (2011) define coping as an active or passive attempt made in response to a dangerous circumstance to lessen the danger or discomfort. Nikisi et al. (2016) argue that workers create coping or survival mechanisms in life-threatening situations to regain their freedom of control. The main coping mechanisms used by workers to improve the situations are presented below.

Counter-productive work behaviour (CWB)

There are many definitions of counter-productive work behaviours. Spector and Fox (2005) define counter-productive work behaviour as actions that employees engage in with the intent to hurt other employees or the organisation. Similarly, Sackett et al. (2013) describe counter-productive behaviour as employee action that goes against a firm's objectives and, which has the potential to harm the organisation and its stakeholders. For Sackett (2013), any deliberate, inappropriate behaviour at work that could have a detrimental effect on an organisation's employees is considered to be counter-productive work behaviour. The operational definitions of CWBs and their accompanying meanings indicate actions that are meant to hurt the organisation. Spencer et al.'s (2006) came up with five dimensions of CWBs namely mistreatment, production deviance, sabotage, stealing, and withdrawal. Yu (2014) cites a variety of factors, ranging from organisational issues like unjust incentive distribution and the work environment to individual characteristics like personality as reasons for counter-productive work behaviours. Corruption, unequal rewards, and exploitation are among other reasons that cause counter-productive work behaviours, according to Ezeh and Etodike (2017). The stressor-emotion model shown below is helpful in explaining the causes of counter-productive work behaviours.

Figure 1: Spector and Fox's (2005) Stressor-emotion model

Source: Spector and Fox's (2005)

According to Spector and Fox (2005), counter-productive work

behaviours result from both individual traits and organisational pressures. The stressor-emotion model also shows that a person's personality and a workplace stressor, for example, an unjust reward system, may increase the risk of them engaging in counter-productive work behaviours. Similarly, Jensen, Opland and Ryan (2010) contend that counter-productive work behaviours are caused by work systems, psychological contract violations, unjust incentive distribution and poor performance evaluations.

Organisational citizenship work behaviour (OCB)

OCB is a positive conduct and a readiness to aspire towards a firm's success (Dorothea, 2013). According to Organ (2018), OCB refers to individual discretionary behaviour that supports the efficient operations of the organisation. Kim (2013) claims that organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) results from an organisation's members' freewill, inner urge to improve. The Rational choice theory assumes that employees who experience job insecurity may exhibit extra-role behaviour in addition to in-role behaviour to show loyalty. Klotz et al. (2018) established five key elements of OCB, namely civility, diligence, benevolence, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Work ethic and meeting organisational goals are examples of conscientious behaviour (Jnaneswar, 2020). The term "benevolence" refers to deft actions that people take to avoid disagreement at work or to make their co-workers feel uncomfortable (Klotz et al., 2018). Sportsmanship is the tendency for some people to tolerate problems at work and maintain their cool even in stressful situations (Organ, 2000; Klotz et al., 2018). Civic virtues are the optional actions that define one's workplace persona (Klotz et al., 2018; Organ, 2000). Miller (2002) posits that one who engages in OCB may experience pleasant emotions and recognition, as well as a higher possibility of repeating the OCB.

Moonlighting / enterprising

According to Boyd et al. (2016), moonlighting is the practise of holding down a primary job while also engaging in supplementary or side jobs, either full- or part-time. Moonlighting, according to Araand Akba (2016), is the practise of having a second job outside of regular business hours. Perrella (2019) defines a moonlighter as a self-employed individual who simultaneously holds wage and salary jobs. Rose (2004) argues that there is a connection between employees' entrepreneurial skills and moonlighting. Neo-classical frameworks that lower rates of moonlighting are associated with higher pay at the primary job.

229

Spiritual capital

Spiritual capital is the accumulation of knowledge and experiences that are consistent with one's culture and religion. (Asli, Dehmordeh & Shojei, 2015). Religious coping mechanisms, according to Folkman and Moskowitz (2004), are a crucial source of support for people who experience stressful times because they provide people with the required courage to persevere through adversity. Perez (2011) divided religious coping strategies into positive and negative categories. In contrast to negative religious coping tactics, which are associated with the sense of being abandoned by or angry with God, positive religious coping techniques involve and the financial incentive model both help to explain why people moonlight. According to the neo-classical model, people act as optimising agents and choose their primary and secondary employment based on behaviours that maximise utility. Dickey et al. (2015) argues that workers moonlight to help them to navigate their financial difficulties and increase their income levels. A study by Hamel and Guthrie from 1967 and 1969 discovered that a worker's income determines whether they might work a second job. Similarly, Krishnan (1990) asserts seeking spiritual assistance, practising forgiveness, and participating in spiritual community (Pargament, Smith, Koenig, & Perez, 2001). Studies by Ano and Vasconcelles's (2004) revealed that employing constructive religious coping mechanisms improved employees' stress management and mental health.

Research Methodology

Research philosophy and approach

This study used the interpretivist research paradigm. The interpretivist paradigm was chosen by the researchers because it shares the same philosophical foundation as the qualitative approach used in this research. Furthermore, interpretivist philosophy was used because the researchers wanted to comprehend and investigate the coping strategies utilised by casual employees at the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe to enhance their experiences. This study adopted a qualitative research approach because it enabled the researcher to understand and explore the coping mechanism used by casual workers at the case transnational manufacturing firm in Zimbabwe to improve their experiences.

Research setting and Sampling

The researcher selected a total of sixteen participants, using purposive sampling methods. Key informants were identified from among the managerial staff and union officials. The purposive sample technique was used to choose the casual workers who were thought to be most suitable, available to take part in this research, and had worked for the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe for at least six months. Purposive sampling was utilized in this research because it assisted the researchers to identify participants who had relevant experience with the topic at hand. According to Denscomber (2010), the guiding premise of purposeful sampling is that the researchers gain the much needed information by purposively selecting participants based on their known features. The researchers selected the key informants for the interviews using his judgment. The researchers chose key informants who could offer firsthand accounts of the coping mechanisms used by casual employees at the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe to improve their lived experiences. These individuals needed to be well-positioned in terms of knowledge and exposure.

Data collection
The researchers used semi-structured interviews to obtain data, as these allow participants the freedom and flexibility to explore the phenomenon under study. Probing questions were used to allow participants to either elaborate on or explain their responses. Semi-structured interviews allow for probing to find meanings (Fontana; 2010). An identical series of open-ended questions were posed to each participant, while the researcher urged them to speak freely and offer honest responses.

Data analysis
Data analysis involves organising, classifying and analysing data by using analytical and logical reasoning (Saunders et al., 2018). To support and strengthen thematic analysis process, the researchers used NVivo system. The researcher followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six phases for thematic data analysis namely familiarising oneself with the data, creating initial codes, searching for themes, examining themes, defining, and labelling themes, and producing a report.

Strategies to ensure data quality
As outlined by Guba and Lincoln (1988), the researcher used the metrics for trustworthiness of transferability, credibility, confirmability and dependability. The researchers ensured credibility by using the following strategies: prolonged

involvement, reflexivity, continuing observation, and member checks. The researchers thoroughly described the study's methodology and carried out a member verification process to assure transferability. The researchers kept a record of the study process and provided a thorough description of the research technique to ensure dependability. To ensure confirmability, an audit trail of the research process was maintained.

Ethical considerations

The researchers ensured that all the participants were made aware of the research's goals, allowing them to decide whether to participate in the study. By utilising pseudonyms to conceal their identities, the researcher gave participants the assurance that their information would be anonymous and confidential. This was done to decrease the likelihood that participants would be harmed, should confidentiality be compromised.

Research participants' profiles

Sixteen research participants were purposefully chosen from the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. Managerial staff, union representatives, and casual employees took part in this study. 'C' was used as the pseudonyms for casual employees, whereas 'UL' and 'M' were utilised as pseudonyms for the union officials and managerial staff, respectively. The research participants' profiles, including details on the length of the interviews and demographic information, are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Research participants' profiles and work experience

No.	Pseudonyms	Age(Years)	Sex	Work experience	Academic Qualification	Interview Duration
1	C1	20	M	8 months	A level certificate	41mins
2	C2	19	M	2 year	O level certificate	34mins
3	C3	19	F	9 months	A level certificate	32mins
4	C4	25	F	7 months	Diploma	40mins
5	C5	30	M	6 months	Bachelor's degree	53mins
6	C6	22	F	9 months	Diploma	37Mins
7	C7	21	M	6 months	O level certificate	56Mins

8	C8	32	F	8 months	Bachelor's degree	52mins
9	C9	31	F	1 years	Diploma	43mins
10	C10	21	M	8 months	Diploma	37mins
11	M1	29	F	1 year	Diploma	35mins
12	M2	30	M	1 years	Bachelor's degree	33mins
13	M3	32	M	4 years	Bachelor's degree	55mins
14	M4	36	M	3 years	Master's degree	47mins
15	UL1	42	F	3 years	Bachelor's degree	37mins
16	UL2	44	M	4 years	Master's degree	35mins

Source: Researchers' fieldwork

Table 1 above depicts that interviews were conducted by the researchers with research participants who had spent at least six months working for the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. Work experience of the participants range from six months to four years. Gender classification shows that there were nine male participants and seven female participants. Six of the research participants held bachelor's degrees and only the two had master's degree. The longest interview lasted for fifty-six minutes.

Findings and Discussion

Based on the responses from the research participants, the following sub-themes emerged in respect of their coping mechanisms to improve their daily experiences: stealing from the company, sabotaging, work to rule, side business, praying, working hard to impress supervisors, and selling products at work. The above mentioned subthemes were categorised into three themes, namely counter-productive work behaviours, organisational citizenship behaviours and moonlighting. Table 2 below presents themes and sub-themes derived from data analysis.

Table 2: Themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
Counterproductive work behaviours	-Stealing -Sabotaging

	-Work to rule
Organisational citizenship behaviours	-Hard working -Praying
Moonlighting	-Side business

Source: Researchers' fieldwork

Table 2 above shows subthemes that emerged from the research, namely stealing, work to rule, praying, sabotaging, hard working and side businesses. The above mentioned subthemes were categorised into three themes, namely counter-productive work behaviours, organisational citizenship behaviours and moonlighting.

Data frequency

The findings showed that some of the research participants adopted counter-productive work behaviours, namely stealing, work to rule and sabotaging to improve their lived experiences as casual workers. Some other participants at the case multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe revealed that they work hard and pray to Almighty God to improve their daily experiences as casual employees. Only a few of the participants indicated that they have side businesses to supplement their incomes and improve the lived experiences. Table 3 below illustrates the research participants' response rate.

Table 3: Sub-themes that emerged from data analysis and frequency

Sub-themes	Frequency
Counterproductive work behaviours	9
Organisational citizenship behaviours	4
Moonlighting	3

Source: Researchers' fieldwork

In accordance with Table 3 above, nine of the sixteen research participants adopted counterproductive work behaviours. On the other hand, four research participants utilised organisational citizenship behaviours as coping mechanisms to improve their lived experiences. Only three of the sixteen participants indicated that they moonlight to improve their daily experiences. Each of the themes is discussed below.

Presentation of findings

This section presents findings that relate to the study's research questions: How do employees at the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe deal with the economic and social implications of casualisation of labour?

Counter-productive work behaviours

To cope with their social and economic circumstances, nine research participants said that they adopted counter-productive work behaviours. The study's participants cited theft, sabotage, and work to rule as their aberrant coping mechanisms to improve their daily experiences as casual workers. In this regard, C1 said:

"I get RTGS$18000 per-month equivalent to $100 US dollars. The amount is too little for my family upkeep. Sometimes we connive with truck drivers and security personnel to load tile boxes more than the number of boxes on the invoice. We then sell the extra tile boxes and share the proceeds."

This view was equally expressed by C4, who submitted that:

"Mbudzi inodya payakasungirirwa (We steal from the company). Sometimes we drain diesel from that old delivery truck and sell it on the black market. Every day it's my prayer that we get a long-distance delivery so that we have an opportunity to drain diesel from the truck."

Similarly, M1, a managerial participant, noted:

"The organisation is having serious challenges of theft cases. As a counter measure the company was forced to install suivallence cameras in all strategic points around the premises. We also need to rigorously vet and do background check of our potential workers before offering them work here because theft cases are on a rise."

In the same vein, UL1, a union leader remarked:

"Casual workers are forced to steal anything at their disposal because of financial insecurity. They earn meagre salaries and are forced to steal to make ends meet."

M3, a managerial staff member, indicated that casual workers can sabotage in any form to express their frustrations. He stated:

"Sabotaging cannot be ruled out here. Breakages are increasing daily, and I suspect that our workers are showing their frustration through sabotaging."

In this regard, C5 lamented:

"Conditions which come with casual work can cause work related mental health problems. You also need to understand that mental health challenges can manifest through sabotaging. I once used a screwdriver to punch fuel tank of the truck parked

close to the main entrance to show that I am not happy here."

This view was equally expressed by C9, who mentioned that:

"Water tapes are left open here, and you cannot identify who is responsible for that. All are signs of sabotage."

C6 identified work to rule as a coping strategy to deal with her experiences as a casual worker. She remarked:

"I follow religiously my job description."

This trend continued with M4, who submitted:

"Work to rule is the order of the day with casual worker."

Organisational citizenship work behaviours

When the same question was posed to other participants, they identified hard working and prayers as their coping strategies to deal with the social and economic results of casualisation of work. The following quotes attest to that:

"Things are not good without a job. Having a casual job in Zimbabwe is a miracle and I keep on praying for contract renewal." (C3, Transcript, p.2).

"You need to thank the Almighty Lord for having this kind of job. I pray for heavenly mercies to overcome the challenges associated with this kind of job my brother." (C7, Transcript, p.2).

"Your performance determines contract renewal. I work very hard to meet my targets and impress my supervisors. Usually, they renew contracts of best performers." (C10, Transcript, p.2).

"Casual workers work hard, and, in most cases, they meet their performance targets. The organisation considers best performers first when renewing contracts." (M2, Transcript, p.2).

Moonlighting

Of the sixteen participants, C2, C8 and UL2 indicated that they adopted moonlighting as their coping strategy to deal with the economic and social consequences of labour casualisation. In this regard, C2 mentioned:

"I do have a secondary job to supplement my income."

Similarly, C8 stated:

"Casual work comes with financial insecurity my brother. To counter income instability, I also keep broilers at home."

This trend continued with UL2, who stated:

"Casual workers have side businesses to supplement their salaries."

Discussion of the findings

236

The study's main objective was to investigate the coping strategies employed by casual employees at the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe to enhance their daily experiences. The participants' responses revealed three themes, namely counterproductive work behaviours, organisational citizenship behaviours, and moonlighting. Counterproductive work behaviours in the form of theft, work to rule and sabotaging was the frequently mentioned theme. On the other hand, moonlighting was the least mentioned theme.

Counter-productive work behaviours
Under the theme of counter-productive work behaviours, research participants cited subthemes namely theft, sabotage, and work to rule as their aberrant coping mechanisms to improve their daily experiences as casual workers. In this regard, C4 submitted that:

"Mbudzi inodya payakasungirirwa (We steal from the company). Sometimes we drain diesel from that old delivery truck and sell it on the black market. Every day it's my prayer that we get a long-distance delivery so that we have an opportunity to drain diesel from the truck." C4's quotes support the Inequity theft model, which assumes that a worker's sense of unfairness enhances the likelihood of committing theft. The above study finding is also supported by Greenberg (1990), who argues that frustration caused by the nature of casual workers' contracts force them to adopt unproductive behaviours such as theft and sabotage. In addition, Scott (2019) posits that stealing is a type of retribution and retaliation to restore distributive fairness. The stressor-emotion model also supports C4's quotes and argues that workplace stressor, for example, an unjust reward system, may increase the risk of engaging in counterproductive workplace behaviours. Similarly, a study by Jensen, Opland and Ryan (2010) revealed that counter-productive behaviours such as production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal are caused by work systems, psychological contract violations, unjust incentive distribution, poor working conditions and poor performance evaluations.

Organisational citizenship work behaviours
Some participants indicated that they work hard and pray for the growth of the organisation. Organisational growth means that their contracts will be continuously renewed. The following quotes attest to that:

"Things are not good without a job. Having a casual job in Zimbabwe is a miracle and I keep on praying for contract renewal." (C3, Transcript, p.2).

"Casual workers work hard and, in most cases, they meet their performance targets. The organisation considers best performers first when renewing contracts." (M2, Transcript, p.2).

The remarks of C3 support the rational choice theory, which assumes that employees who experience job insecurity may participate in extra-role behaviours in addition to their in-role behaviours to demonstrate their loyalty to the organisation. In addition, Folkman, and Moskowitz (2004) opine that religious coping mechanisms are an essential source of support for people who are stressed because they provide people with self-assurance to persevere through difficulties. Supporting the above sentiments is a study by Ano and Vasconcelles (2004), which showed that that utilising constructive religious coping mechanisms improve employees' mental health.

Moonlighting

The study's findings show that moonlighting is a coping mechanism used by few casual employees at the multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe to improve their lived experiences. C2 mentioned that: "I do have a secondary job to supplement my income." The afore-mentioned remarks are reinforced by Hamel and Guthrie (2011), who discovered that a worker's income determines their likelihood of moonlighting. Similarly, the neo-classical model assumes that workers are optimising agents and choose their primary and secondary employment based on behaviours that improve their situations and maximise utility. In addition, Dickey et al. (2015) argues that temporary workers moonlight to reduce their financial difficulties and increase their income levels.

Contribution of the study

This research could provide a valuable resource to learn more about coping strategies that casual employees use to enhance their daily experiences. In addition, this research could be useful for human resource professionals as they devise safeguard measures against coping techniques that harm the organisation. The study also yields a wealth of qualitative information that can be used by other researchers.

Limitations and direction for future studies

This research had certain limitations. The study's main objective was to explore the coping strategies employed by casual employees at one multinational manufacturing organisation in Zimbabwe to enhance their daily experiences. The research's

results cannot be applied universally to all multinational manufacturing companies in Zimbabwe. In this qualitative study, face-to-face interviews, which have their own research limitations, were used. The use of quantitative methods might have helped to clarify the study's conclusions. The researchers' sample size was small and did not include every casual worker at the transnational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. If the sample size had been bigger, the outcomes might have been different.

Conclusion

The study concluded that casual workers adopt counter-productive work behaviours, organisational citizenship work behaviours and moonlighting mechanisms to improve their daily experiences at the case multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe. The study also concluded that some of the counter-productive work behaviours utilised by casual workers, such as sabotage and theft, are considered serious misconducts and result in immediate dismissal. In line with the conclusions made, it is essential that the case multinational manufacturing company in Zimbabwe undertake intervention programmes to enhance the lived experiences of casual employees because some of their coping mechanisms could be detrimental to the organisation. The study also recommends that employment relations specialists should develop safeguards against coping mechanisms that harm the organization.

Acknowledgement

I acknowledge the study's participants.

Informed Consent Statement

Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Data Availability Statement

The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to restrictions.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

African Development Bank Group. (2022). An Overview of Women's Work and Employment. Tunis: African Development Bank.

Akbari, M., Araand, M., & Dorri, B. (2013). Scheduling part-time and

mixed-skilled workers to maximize employee satisfaction. The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology, 64(5), 1017-1027.

Adams, C. (2018). Work intensification: A lacuna in the labour utilisation literature. Current Research in Industrial Relations, 11-18. https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2019.1593376

Australian University and College Union. (2019). Job insecurities in universities, the scale of the problem. London: Carlow Street.

Bayo, P. (2019). The negative effects of labour casualization in Nigeria. International Journal of Innovative Social Science and Humanities Research, 7(2), 69-82.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). What can "thematic analysis" offer health and wellbeing researchers? International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being, 9(1), 26152. https://doi.org/10.3402/qhw.v9.26152

Buetow, S. (2010). Thematic analysis and its reconceptualization as 'saliency analysis'. Journal of Health Services Research &Policy, 15(2), 123-125.

https://doi.org/10.1258/jhsrp.2009.009081

Chakanya, N. (2017). Precarious Work and Working Conditions in the Hotel and Catering Industry of Zimbabwe. Harare: LEDRIZ.

Chitiyo, K., Dengu, C., Mbae, D., & Vandome, C. (2022). Forging Inclusive Economic Growth in Zimbabwe. Harare: LEDRIZ.

Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries. (2022). Manufacturing Sector Survey Report. Zimbabwe: Harare.

Denscombe, M., Greenwood, J., Hart, M., & Robins, L. (1993). Local Leadership Potential in Britain and Poland Compared: A Note. Teaching Public Administration, 13(1), 40-45. https://doi.org/10.1177/014473949301300107

Dewe, C., & Chipumho, E. (2011). Response of the manufacturing sector to the Zimbabwe economic crisis. Economic Management in a Hyperinflationary Environment: The Political Economy of Zimbabwe, 1980–2008.

Dickey, H., Watson, V., & Zangelidis, A. (2015). Is it all about money? An examination of the motives behind moonlighting. Applied Economics, 43(26), 3767-3774.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00036841003724403

Dorothea, J., Doob, L.W., Miller, N.E., Mowrer, O.H., & Sears, R. (2013). Frustration and Aggression.New Haven: Yale University Press. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315008172

Dube, N., & Mukwakwami, N. (2022). Chinese Investments in Zimbabwe. Chinese Investments in Africa: A Labour Perspective, 238.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.exis.2016.08.006

Fapohunda, T.M. (2020). Employment casualization and degradation of work in Nigeria. International Journal of Business and

Social Science, 3(9), 257–267.

Folkman, S., & Moskowitz, J.T. (2004). Coping: Pitfalls and promise. Annual. Review of. Psychology, 55, 745-774. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.141456

Fontana, J.S. (2004). A methodology for critical science in nursing. Advances in Nursing Science, 27(2), 93-101.

George, E., & Chattopadhyay, P. (2015). Non-standard work and workers: Organisational implications. Geneva, Switzerland: ILO.

Greenberg, J., & Scott, M. (1990). Stealing in the name of justice: Informational and interpersonal moderators of theft reactions to underpayment inequity. Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 54, 81-103. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1993.1004

Gruys, M.L., & Sackett, P.R. (2006). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behaviour. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11(1), 30-42. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00224

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1988). Do inquiry paradigms imply inquiry methodologies. Qualitative approaches to evaluation in education, 1(1), 89-115.

Guthrie, H.W, Dickey, H. (2011). Who Moonlights and Why. Illinois Business Review, 6-8.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00036841003724403

Jensen, J., Opland, R., & Ryan, A. (2010). Psychological contracts and counterproductive work behaviors: Employee responses to transactional and relational breach. Journal of Business and Psychology, 25(4), 555-568. doi:10.1007/s10869-009-9148-7

Jnaneswar, A. W., & Padavic, I. (2020). Hours, scheduling, and flexibility for women in the US low-wage labour force. Gender, Work & Organization, 22(1), 67-86.

https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12069

Kanudza, G. (2022). Giving Voice to the Unprotected Workers in the Informal Economy in Africa: The Case of Zimbabwe; ILO Discussion Paper No. 22. Harare: ILO.

Kanyenze, G. (2011). Beyond the Enclave: Towards a Pro-poor and Inclusive Development Strategy for Zimbabwe. Harare: Weaver Press.

Klotz, B., & Freese, C. (2013). Can HR practices retain flex workers with their agency. International Journal of Manpower, 34(8), 899-917.

Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2017). Methodological paper. European Journal of General Practice, 24(1), 120-124.

https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375093

Labour Act (Chapter 28:01), Government Printers, Harare, Zimbabwe.

Labour Amendment Number. (2015). Zimbabwe Government Gazette.

Labour Amendment Act of 2005 (Chapter 28:01). Harare: Government printers.

Labour Economic Development Research Institute Zimbabwe. (2018). The Decent Work Agenda: The Heart of Socio-Economic Progress. Harare: Ledriz.

Labour Market outlook report. (2021). Zimbabwe macro- economic situation. Zimbabwe. Harare.

Labour Market Outlook Report. (2022). Zimbabwe macro- economic situation. Zimbabwe. Harare.

Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (2004). Stress, Appraisal, and Coping. New York: Springer Publications.

Majid, N. (2021). The working poor in developing countries, International Labour Review, 8 (1), 156-176.

Munyanyi, C. (2022). Chinese Investments in Zimbabwe and Namibia. A Comparative Legal Analysis. Centre for Chinese Studies, University of Stellenbosch.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(4), 647-660.

https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.647

Mawere, M. (2019). "The business of business is business?" The myth of amoral business and business practices in Zimbabwe. Journal of Social Development in Africa, 25(1), 85.

Miller, W.R., & Thoresen, C.E. (2002). Spirituality, religion, and health. American Psychologist, 58(1), 24-35.

https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.58.1.24

Organ, D.W., Podsakoff, P.M., & Mackenzie, S.B. (2011). Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: Its Nature,

Antecedents, and Consequences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/12170-010

Perrella, L., Zarbo, R., & Patrizi, P. (2019). Courage as Mediator between Positive Resources and General/Domain-Specific Well-Being Indices. European Journal of Investigation in Health, Psychology and Education, 12(8), 1067-

1081.https://doi.org/10.3390/ejihpe12080076

Perez, C.R., Kim, Y.H., Lee, E.A., & Minnick, M.R. (2011). Is expressive suppression always associated with poorer psychological functioning? A cross-cultural comparison between European Americans and Hong Kong Chinese. Emotion, 11(6), 1450.

https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0023340

Raab, J., Klein, G., & Müller, R. (2017). Mixed-methods research for Project management Journal®. Project Management Journal, 53(3), 215-218. https://doi.org/10.1177/87569728221088107

Rayner, C. (1997). The incidence of workplace bullying. Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 7, 199-208. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1298

Rotberg, R.I. (2015). Christian missionaries and the creation of Northern Rhodesia 1880-1924. Princeton University Press.

Rose, N. (2004). Psychology as a 'social'science. In Deconstructing social psychology (pp. 115-128). Psychology Press.

Salgado, J.F. (2002). The big five dimensions and counterproductive behaviours. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10(1/2), 117-125.

https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00198

Salvador, M., & Grieu, S. (2012). Methodology for the design of energy production and storage systems in buildings: Minimization of the energy impact on the electricity grid. Energy and Buildings, 47, 659-673.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2012.01.006

Shishko, R., & Rostker, B. (1976). The economics of multiple job holding. The American Economic Review, 66(3), 298-308.

Saunders, R., & Caramento, A. (2018). An extractive developmental state in Southern Africa? The cases of Zambia and Zimbabwe. Third World Quarterly, 39(6), 1166-1190. https://doi.org/10.1080/01436597.2017.1409072

Spector, P.E., & Fox, S. (2005). The stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), Counterproductive work behaviour: Investigations of actors and targets (pp. 151-174). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.

https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/10893-007

Spector, P.E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2019). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviours created equal? . Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68(3), 446-460.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.10.005

Stevens, R.G., 2010. Political philosophy: an introduction. Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, N., Little, H., & McCrostie, K. (2004). Means of Survival: A Study of Off-Farm Employment in New Zealand. Taylor Baines and Associates, Christchurch.

Yu, C. (2014). The reality of counterproductive work behaviours: The University of Auckland.

Zagelmeyer, S., & Heckmann, M. (2013). Flexibility and crisis resistance: Quantitative evidence for German establishments. International Journal of Manpower.68 (3), 444-458. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-04-2013-0082

Zimbabwe Labour Force Survey. (2014). Harare: Zimbabwe

ZimStats. (2022). Labour Force Survey. Harare: Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency.

Zindiye, S. (2022). Zimbabwe's Economic Engagement with China: Policy, Scope and Influence, Harare: ZIMPAPERS.