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FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

**Challenges and Survival Strategies of Employees under Precarious
Employment within the Agricultural and Hospitality Industries in
Zimbabwe. The case of Border Timbers Limited and Chimanimani Hotel**

BY

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PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT WITHIN THE AGRICULTURAL AND HOSPITALITY
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CHIMANIMANI HOTEL***

This dissertation is submitted by **Christian Sauti Registration Number R134679B** in partial fulfilment of a Master of Science Degree in Human Resource Management.

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DEDICATION

To my family, Joyline, Junior and Clinton

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To Mrs V Chirasha, I am highly elated to express my gratitude for your unceasing commitment in guiding and supporting me throughout the tenure of this research.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate the challenges faced and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH representing the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe respectively. Out of 1666 total population at BTL and 68 employees at CH, the sample size of 20 participants was chosen from each organisation through quota, convenience and purposive sampling. Qualitative research approach and the multiple case study research design was adopted to deconstruct deeply into the research phenomenon. The research was conceptually guided by the Employment Strain Model by Lewchuk, Clark, de Wolff, and King (2003) and it focused on both primary and secondary sources of data. Data was collected through open-ended questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions, and thematic analysis was used in analysing the data. Major inferences from the research revealed that seasonal, fixed term, casual, part-time work, graduate trainee/student attaches, and permanent contracts were prominent forms of work whose conditions punctuates precarious employment in the hospitality and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe. The participants expressed that they suffer heightened employment insecurity, sexual harassment, poor occupational health and safety, limited social protection and limited workplace representation on fundamental rights at work. Sexual harassment has been found most ubiquitous at CH whereas limited access to training and development was more experienced at BTL. From the study, it was identified that moonlighting, fiddling and sabotaging, surviving by God' grace, 'kukiya-kiya', pilferage, drug abuse, farming and gold panning and workplace romance were survival strategies used to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment conditions. However, farming and illegal gold mining, hardworking and drug abuse were dominantly used at BTL while workplace romance was a common coping strategy for workers at CH. It was found that the employers were not adhering to the dictates of Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] and its amendments, SI15 of 2006, NSSA Act, ILO's Decent Work Agenda and its conventions in addressing the challenges faced by employees under precarious working conditions in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The participants stated that there is not any specific legislation to deal with indecent work conditions in Zimbabwe hence the frameworks are considered managerial templates to fuel modern day slavery. From the foregoing, recommendations were made for the industries to develop precarious employment policies to govern the working conditions for the precariates, to adhere to the existing legal frameworks on precarious work and for the HR function to advise workers and management that the precariates should be treated equitably and enjoy workplace representation and protection against unfair labour practices.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BTL	Border Timbers Limited
CH	Chimanimani Hotel
DWA	Decent Work Agenda
ESM	Employment Strain Model
FPW	Fixed Period Worker
GAPWUZ	General Agriculture and Plantation Workers Union of Zimbabwe
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILO	International Labour Organisation
NEC	National Employment Council
PE	Precarious Employment
TU	Trade Union
WC	Worker's Committee
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency

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DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Agriculture industry- means the industry in which employers and employees are associated with the commercial production of crops, including forestry, livestock, poultry, fish and their produce (Collective Bargaining Agreement: Agriculture Industry, 2012).

Contract of Employment- is an agreement entered into between employer and employee when the employee is hired, specifying the terms and conditions of employment, whether such contract is reduced to writing or not (Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] section 12).

Contractor- means “a person who renders to an employer services which are related to or connected with those of the employer’s undertaking” (Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] section 2).

Decent Work- implies the “opportunities for women and men to attain productive employment in dignified working environment” (International Labour Organisation ILO, 1999:4).

Employee- means “any person who performs work or services for another person for remuneration or reward on such terms and conditions as agreed upon by the parties or as provided by this Act,” (Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*]).

Employees’ reactance- is “an individual’s opposing actions, behaviours and emotions in response to changes in the working environment in a bid to restore and re-establish lost freedom, control of the situation and to redefine their fundamental rights” (Spector and Fox, 2002:7).

Non-standard forms of employment- is “an umbrella term for different employment arrangements that deviate from standard employment. They include temporary employment; part-time and on-call work; temporary agency work and other multiparty employment relationships; as well as disguised employment and dependent self-employment” (ILO, 2019).

Precariate- is the new dangerous class of working poor created by the ruthless of neo-liberal assaults on wages, social security, collective identity and working conditions. The precariate consist of people who lack labour market security, employment security, job security, work security, skill reproduction security, income security and representation security (Standing, 2011).

Precarious employment- entails “a variety of forms of employment (e.g., temporary employment, underemployment, quasi self-employment, on-call work) established below the socially accepted normative standards (typically expressed in terms of rights, employment

protection legislation, and of collective protection) in one or more respects (the four dimensions), which results from an unbalanced distribution towards and amongst workers (towards workers vs. employers; and amongst workers), which leads to the segmentation of labour, of the insecurity and risks typically attached to economic life in general and to the labour market in particular” (Duell, 2004:9).

Survival strategies- is “a deliberate economic act by people with the ultimate motivation to satisfy the most elementary human needs. It is a coping mechanism by employees who actively adjust to external stimuli (conflict situation), which equally threatens their livelihood and is done to restore a freedom of control in their situation and to make ends meet” (Sibanda, Mavenga, Maunganidze and Ncube, 2014:3).

Working Conditions- means “working surroundings and prevailing conditions affecting employees at the workplace; working hours, workers’ rights and responsibility organisational culture work load” (Ali, Ali and Adan, 2013:69).

CHAPTER 1-INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Precarious employment has become a social phenomenon, a cankerworm and the dominant feature of employment relationship in the contemporary world as half of all jobs are now considered precarious. Precariousness is the condition that hampers smooth construction of worker identity, it is considered a social determinant and a condition which affect the efficiency and health of workers, families and communities. Precarious employment is the enemy of decent work and as such, the prevailing employment conditions drastically affected the nature of power relations between management and employees. Many scholars like Ncube (2017); Standing (2011); and Kalleberg (2009) regard precarious employment as temporary work, it is that job of low quality which expose workers to risks, low wages, limited social benefits and compromised psychological contract. Workers under precarious employment, the precariates are alienated, discriminated and socially cut off from the decent working conditions. They do not have effective participative forums to defend their workplace rights, the degree of work continuity is a myriad and do not enjoy legal protection of fundamental rights. Rodgers and Rodgers (1989) cited in Ncube (2017) supported this view arguing that precarious employment is the means through which the capitalist shift risks and responsibilities on the precarites which is against international fair labour standards like International Labour Organisation's decent work agenda.

The growth of precarious employment in Zimbabwe is attributed to several contingencies ranging from globalisation, deregulation of the economy, socio-economic crisis, viability challenges and company closures, change in customer demands and flexibilisation of labour (Mkandatsama and Nyanhete, 2017; and Ncube, 2017). Such structural regression accelerated informalisation and deindustrialisation of the economy which posed a serious threat on the efficiency of several industries. The agricultural industry and hospitality industry were not spared, many permanent jobs were made redundant, workers downsized, a lot of key operations outsourced in a bid to contain fixed costs and co-evolve in the chaotic situation. This marked the rise of precarious employment or contingent or atypical work where labour is temporarily engaged, fully exploited and exposed to multiple decent work deficits. Currently, both permanent and temporary workers are prone to precarious working conditions in Zimbabwe. They suffer job insecurity, low wages below poverty datum line and no voice to safeguard their interests and rights at work (Ncube, 2017). This means that all workers are exposed to precarious employment, and in this context, the research deconstructed the challenges faced

and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Precarious employment is not novel in the 21st Century world of work for it has originated in tandem with industrialisation and the beginning of paid labour or exchange employment affair. Kalleberg (2018) is of the view that precarious work came into existence since the 1970s as work was punctuated by uncertainty, complexity and unpredictability with worker insecurities following the Second World War. The classical theorists provides key defining features which forms the origins and understanding of precarious employment and its challenges. Taylor (2004) identified key features such as scientific work study, specialisation and the rule of thumb and performance based pay as means to increase productivity at the expense of the worker. Henri Fayol (1949) echoed an administrative theory which emphasise on workplace rules and procedures as instruments of control and instrumentalism. In the same vein, Max Weber (1922) proposed bureaucracy theory highlighting workplace segregation, discrimination and clear chain of command. An in-depth scrutiny of the aforementioned positivist epistemological perspectives demonstrate that the worker was treated like a commodity motivated by the money motive and vulnerable to instrumentalism for achieving the bottom line. The same sentiments provide key defining characteristics of precarious employment as labour was obtained cheaply, used sparingly and utilised fully for the business' case. This is clear testimony that the notion of precarious employment existed since time immemorial but not investigated, accounted for and deconstructed.

The bureau of Labour Statistics (2004) cited in Kalleberg (2009) estimated that at least thirty million permanent workers were downsized between 1980s and 2004 which resultantly compromised social protection and job security for workers in United States (US). This has marked the beginning of precarious and indecent work in US, in the developed and developing countries. The US Government Accountability Office (2015) found that precarious employment has increased by 50% between 2005 and 2015 and consist of agency, temporary and contract workers. The prevalence of precarious work has also increased by 50% in Canada since the 1990s (Voscko, 2010). Lewchuk (2017); and Campell and Burgess (2001) confirmed that precarious employment exceeded 50% in 12 of the 15 OECD countries like Australia, Spain and France. It is against this background that Oyadiran, Daniel, Aisha and Ademeso (2018:245) suggest that precarious employment has become “a social phenomenon and a cankerworm in labour relations in multiple industries across the world.” The growth of

precarious employment is attributed to the gig economy, socio-cultural, political and technological factors that are contingent in the environment. According to Gwisai (2006), precarious employment is caused by increasing labour market flexibility and has detrimental effects on the lives of workers worldwide. In the world of work, precarious workers suffer job insecurity, have no legal rights, have lost bargaining power and have no secure income. On such basis, Bourdieu (1998) cited in Kalleberg (2009) saw the precariat as the foundation for problematic social issues, risky societies and anomie. To Standing (2011) and Kalleberg (2009), precarious work has contributed to greater economic insecurity, inequality and corrodes worker identity which forms the roots for psychological dissonance, stress and diminished social engagement.

“Precarious work is a worldwide phenomenon” (Kalleberg, 2009:14) and its prevalence in African industries cannot be questioned. In developing African countries Like Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe, precarious employment is the norm and is associated with the informal economy and to whether jobs are paying above the poverty datum line (National Labour and Economic Development Institute, NALEDI, 2006). A study by Mariwo (2008) on the working conditions for private security sector found that precarious work and its challenges existed in Zimbabwe since the colonial era. The precarious nature of employment in Zimbabwe has been supported by Chimbari (2017) who found that many employees in Zimbabwe work under short-time and non-standard jobs, they work for more than legal hours, are underpaid and work in unsafe working conditions. According to ZimStats (2018), 94.5% Zimbabweans are defined as employed despite working in the informal economy but this is far from reality. Informality is a broad term which means paid workers without formal contracts, social protection and workplace rights hence these workers are under precarious employment. ZimStats (2015:59) revealed that 13% of the 6.3 million employment population in Zimbabwe are in precarious employment and their contracts can be terminated on short notice. This is in violation of the Decent Work Agenda (DWA) which aims to promote social protection, social dialogue, dignity and safety at the workplace through achieving decent work (ILO, 2017). Chakanya (2015) and the Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (LFCLS, 2014) found an increasing number of unstable, insecure and dangerous jobs in the Zimbabwean hospitality industry having 34% precariats. They concluded that indecent working conditions are the order of the day in both public and private sector companies in Zimbabwe.

Labour and Economic Development Research Institute of Zimbabwe (LEDRI, 2015)'s study on precarious work in Zimbabwean sectors including the hospitality and agriculture found that there is a 1:15 ratio of permanent to temporary workers at every company. Ncube (2017) studied precarious employment in Zimbabwe and suggest that companies are resorting to precarious work by engaging fixed-term workers, casual, short-time and part-timers. The rise of precarious employment commonly called labour casualization in Zimbabwe is attributed to economic crisis, informalisation of the economy, cash shortages, deregulation, competition and deindustrialisation of the economy (ZimStats, 2018; the African Economic Outlook, 2019; Mkandatsama and Nyanhete, 2017; and Ncube, 2017). In light of this, Majome (2018) states that the agricultural and hospitality industries of Zimbabwe have not been spared, they suffered economic scars hence relied more on casual, seasonal and other forms of labour for survival. Ruziwa (2016) and Kasuso and Manyatera (2015) argues that massive retrenchments following the Zuva judgement in 2015 ushered the room for the rise of precarious employment in Zimbabwe. Many firms in Zimbabwe adopted precarious employment in the form of student attaches and graduate trainees, part-timers and other temporary workers as a survival strategy to co-evolve and cope with the changing demands, regulations and multiple business realities at large.

1.2.1 Overview of the Industries under Study

1.2.1(a) *The Agricultural Industry in Zimbabwe*

The agricultural industry is one of the economic engines in Zimbabwe. According to the Comprehensive Agricultural Policy Framework (CAPF, 2012-2032), the agriculture industry is the cornerstone of the national economy because it contribute 15-18% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), contributes 60% of inputs to agro-industries and more than 40% of national export earnings. It is the economic hub since more than 70% of the Zimbabwean population depends of the agricultural sector for survival. According to the CAPF (2012-2032), the agricultural sector is facing several challenges such as low productivity, high production costs, restrictive regulations, inadequate investment, uncontrolled arsons and lack of suitable financial schemes, high labour supply and unemployment. These challenges motivated agricultural companies to adopt flexible work arrangements and high performance work systems in a bid to avoid liquidation (Sauti, 2017). In support, Makwavarara (2004) cited in Mukwakwami and Uzhenyu (2017) propounded that due to fluctuating labour requirements in the agricultural industry, flexibility and labour casualization has become the norm in

Zimbabwe. During peak of the agricultural season for planting, applying fertilizer, herbicides, weeding and harvesting, temporary workers are employed.

Chisango and Tichakunda (2018) noted several challenges as faced by workers under precarious employment in the agriculture industry in Zimbabwe which includes summary dismissals, underpayment, discrimination and sexual harassment. In the same vein, Chikuse, Katsvanga, Jimu and Mujuru (2012) found a great income variance between permanent and temporary workers, lack of social security, protective clothing, union representation and leave entitlement. It has also been submitted by Chakanya (2015) that precarious employees do not enjoy recreational facilities, accommodation, subsidised meals, medical aid facilities and schooling benefits, it is a myth. Companies like Allied Timbers, Border Timbers Limited and Wattle Company employed precarious employment in the form of temporary work and contracting and sub-contracting so as to sustain their business viability (Ngomani, 2014). A study by Sauti (2017); and Chikuse et al (2012) found that agricultural companies including Border Timbers Limited (BTL) have over 70% temporary workers under multiple contractors who are vulnerable to indecent work practices and conditions. Such dynamics in the agricultural industry in Zimbabwe are clear testimony that precarious employment is prevalent hence the need to investigate the challenges and survival strategies adopted by the precariates.

1.2.1 (b) *The Hospitality Industry in Zimbabwe*

The Hospitality industry in Zimbabwe is fast growing contributing 16.1% GDP in 2016 and employing an estimate of 1.2 million people in Zimbabwe (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, RBZ Quarterly Review, 2016). The industry is made up of several companies like Cresta Hotels, Meikels Hotels, African Sun, Rainbow Tourism Group, Holiday Inn and Chimanimani Hotel. Though the hospitality industry has enormous potential as a catalyst for social and economic development in Zimbabwe, the industry has been grappled with poor country's image, poor competitiveness relative to regional standards, massive competition and decline in human capital caused by brain drain (Mpofu and Chitura, 2015). Aksu and Tarcan (2002) cited in Moyo (2015); and the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, (2009) suggest that the competitiveness of hospitality industry in Zimbabwe has been affected by globalisation, technology, service and process innovation and changes in customer preferences. Poor service delivery and inefficient food production is causing high operational costs hence affecting profitability and causing the rise of labour casualization (Rainbow Tourism Group, 2017). Such challenges justifies the view by Power (2003) that the once breadbasket of Africa deteriorated to become the continent's basket case with many hotel companies closing shop, downsizing, facing high

labour turnover and casualising workers. This marked the genesis of precarious employment in the Hotel Industry with more than 11 295 (34%) workers in insecure jobs and without a living wage (Chakanya, 2016). ZimStats (2014) state that workers in the hospitality industry lack social security which centres on endangering the households, individuals and communities. In a study about precarious work in Africa, Abiodun-Badru (2014) found that precarious work is the norm in Zimbabwe, but has become a culture in the hospitality and agriculture industries.

Competitive edge for the hospitality industry depends on human resources and capabilities (Moyo, 2015) but the challenge is that workers are migrating from one hotel to the other and outside Zimbabwe due to poor working conditions (Ncube, 2017). Ncube, Sibanda and Maunganidze (2013) propounded that the hospitality industry is continuously failing to leverage sustainable competitive edge due to the lack of decent working conditions as precarious employment has mushroomed as a survival strategy. Chakanya (2016) found that the workers in the Hospitality Industry in Zimbabwe are experiencing daily, weekly, monthly contracts, fixed term contracts and they employ students on attachment as form of cheap labour. According to ZimStats (2018) and Zimbabwe Hotel and Catering Workers' Union (2016), the precariates in the Hospitality industry are paid \$152 which is below the poverty datum line thus reducing the workers to the working poor. To worsen the working conditions, precarious workers are paid on commission basis with some getting less than \$100 per month while working at least 15 hours a day. Although the wage is little, workers are going for an average of eight months without wages which is a serious indicator of decent work deficits in the industry. These conditions are very risky to the safety and worker health, family and society at large (Ncube and Jerie, 2012). The dominance of precarious employment is considered the key emerging reality in the hospitality and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe (Ncube, 2017), thus the main thrust of this research is to study the challenges faced and survival strategies used by workers under precarious employment and to explore the effectiveness of the legal frameworks for precarious employment.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Chief among the purposes of Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] is to advance social justice and workplace democracy through the provision of fair labour standards, and giving effect to fundamental worker rights. Ncube (2017); ILO (2016); Standing (2011); and Kalleberg, (2009) studied the nature and effects of precarious employment which has become the norm for 21st

century organisations. There is limited evidence accounting for the real challenges and the survival strategies adopted by workers under precarious employment specifically for the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe to whom indecent work practices are the order of employee working lives. The unpublished results of employee relations survey conducted by Timber Producers Federation (TPF, 2019) testifies the prevalence of indecent work practices, unjust, risky and unsafe working conditions as experienced by workers within the agriculture industry in Zimbabwe who despite facing such anomalies, they continue to report for duty daily. Other conditions mentioned include underpayment of wages below of RTG\$265 CBA gazetted, working more than legal hours per day, unfair dismissals, employment insecurity, deficiency of legal contracts, poor accommodation, and non-provision of safety regalia. Similar precarious experiences have been found as the emerging reality within the hospitality industry in Zimbabwe. Ncube (2017) and LEDRIZ (2014) reinforced that the majority of hospitality workers are precariates who face job insecurity, low wages, sexual harassment and abnormal working hours. These anomalies are the defining features of precarious employment and as opined by Kalleberg (2009), they bring about multifaceted challenges which affects workers, families, communities and the nation physically, emotionally, psychologically and financially. In light of this, the researcher seeks to investigate the challenges faced and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe and to explore the legal frameworks to manage precarious work in Zimbabwe using the two selected organisations, BTL and CH.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Main Objective

To investigate the challenges and survival strategies adopted by employees under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

1. To identify employment contracts associated with precarious employment at BTL and CH
2. To establish the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH
3. To investigate the survival strategies used by employees to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment at BTL and CH

4. To examine employer's adherence to the legal frameworks on precarious employment at BTL and CH

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the different forms of employment contracts associated with precarious employment at BTL and CH?
- What challenges are faced by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH?
- What are the survival strategies adopted by employees to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment at BTL and CH?
- Are the employers adhering to the legal frameworks to manage the challenges of precarious employment at BTL and CH?

1.6 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

It is assumed that;

- The researcher will be authorised to conduct a successful research.
- The respondents will provide objective responses.
- The respondents will cooperate and fill in questionnaires to be returned.
- The researcher will have enough financial and non-financial support to complete the research successfully.
- The research findings will help improve the current working conditions and emancipate workers under precarious employment.

1.7 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The research has come at a time where struggle for achieving decent work, maintaining competitive edge and reducing precarious employment is at its peak worldwide, especially in the Zimbabwean context. The research seeks to help, enlighten and advise various stakeholders on the challenges faced and survival strategies that workers can adopt to handle precarious employment conditions. Literature is replete of evidence for and against precarious employment world-wide. This study however, established that there is limited evidence concerning the challenges faced and survival strategies adopted by the precariates in the Zimbabwe's agricultural and hospitality industries. The findings and recommendations of this research will help deconstruct and expose the debilitating challenges and survival strategies tainted by practical experiences in the two industries which will inspire further studies around

decent work deficits in the agricultural and hospitality industries among other industries in Zimbabwe and the world at large.

To several industries in Zimbabwe, it is hoped that this study shall establish facts about the real challenges faced by precarious workers, the implications of the challenges to the wellbeing of employees and the organisation. It is hoped that the facts will clearly indicate survival strategies used by the atypical workers together with their effects of company performance. These may provide a road map for management thinking in planning, implementing and evaluating decisions to rely of precarious employment initiatives in a turbulent environment.

To HRM Practitioners and employees, it is wished that the study will inform them on the implications associated with precarious work, the challenges incurred by employees and their coping strategies that can harm the company and its stakeholders. It is hoped that the recommendations and conclusions of this research will reveal the strategies and good HRM bundles and policies helpful to address the alarming growth of precarious work and its challenges in the current world of work.

To researchers and students, the research will broaden the literature for future studies on the understanding of challenges, implications and survival strategies by precarious employees on the basis of Zimbabwean experiences.

1.8 LIMITATIONS

Research limitations refers to possible limiting factors with the capacity to hinder smooth flow of the research process (Simon, 2011). The following were the limitations the researcher has faced in conducting this research;

- Financial constrain was limitation in this study. The researcher had faced financial challenges because he had to travel to the study operations which are in Chimanimani. Thus, there was need for money to cater for food, transport costs, and accommodation. However, the researcher avoided accommodation cost by staying at company house in the area under study and he used personal savings to support and spend for the few days of collecting data in order to save the costs.
- Fear of information disclose from the targeted participants had a probability to obstruct this research. However, since the researcher is an employee working in the HRM department at BTL he has been trusted. The researcher negotiated negotiate in good

faith as promised, justifying the significance of this study on academic grounds and assured to preserve confidentiality.

- The other limitation was that the target participants were mainly temporary workers without fixed working time to be found. However, the researcher sought their working schedules from their employers to have convenient access to them.
- The participants were mostly atypical workers with organisational commitments and had limited time to attend to other non-business issues like researches. The researcher made use of break and lunch times to conduct interviews and give them questionnaires to answer over the weekends.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS

Delimitation refers to the characteristics which illustrates the coverage of area under study and these comprise of the research topic, objectives, geographical context and time period (Simon, 2011). The main focus of the research was to investigate the challenges faced and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The research has been restricted to Border Timbers Limited which is under the agricultural industry and Chimanimani Hotel which is in the hospitality industry in Zimbabwe, both companies are geographically located in Chimanimani District, in Manicaland Province.

1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction of the area under study as well as the background of study and the overview of the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The same chapter provides for the statement of the research problem, objectives of study, research questions, research assumptions, justifications of the study, delimitations and limitations faced by the researcher followed by the basic study outline. Chapter 2 dwells on conceptualising precarious employment, discussing its forms and causes, the various theories that explains precarious work, the challenges it brings to workers and also the survival strategies used by the precariates to counteract such challenges. Most significantly, this chapter articulates what literature holds pertaining key issues around precarious employment including the legal frameworks to govern contingent work. Chapter 3 gives the conceptual framework that guides the research. Chapter 4 focuses on research methodology discussing the research approach, research philosophy, research design, sampling methods, sources of data and data collection techniques. It also discussed the ethical considerations to be observed in the study. Chapter 5 provides the research findings, methods of data presentation, interpretation and analysis of the

findings. Chapter 6 it is the final chapter which provides the conclusions of the study and the recommendations as solutions to the research problems.

1.11 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Chapter 1 has managed to give the background of study, overview of the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The statement of the problem, the objectives, research questions and assumptions have been explained in the same chapter together with a sound justification of the study emphasising the significance of deconstructing the challenges faced and survival strategies adopted by employees under precarious working conditions. The delimitations and limitations have been explored in this chapter. The next chapter focuses on the review of literature published by several scholars with regards to precarious employment.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature review is based on the assumption that knowledge accumulates and is learnt from what others have done. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhil (2009), literature review is the cornerstone for research whose main agenda is to provide insight as to what other authors found and concluded on their studies pertaining the same concepts. In short, literature review entails through investigation of information and ideas from previous studies in order to build on existing knowledge and find solutions and gaps in as far as the research problem is concerned. This chapter serves to review various literature from various scholars as a means to have an in-depth understanding of the topic under study. This literature pertaining precarious employment, its forms, challenges faced and survival strategies used by workers under precarious employment is reviewed in this chapter. Over and above, scholarly evidence in relation to the effectiveness of the legal framework for precarious employment has been reviewed.

2.2 DEMYSTIFYING PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT

The challenges faced in the 21st century requires theories and individuals to deconstruct the views of the normative paradigms which postulates the nomothetic science of the universal approach to the understanding of organisational behaviour and work dynamics. Precarious employment is the opposite to standard employment, it is a practice adopted as an organisational orphanage representing flexible work arrangements for enhanced performance outside, while exploiting the internal customers. There are various terms associated with precarious employment like labour casualization, insecure work, casual work and contingent work (Ncube, 2017). Jorgensen (2016) state that the precariat is an amalgam of precarity and proletariat and it was adopted from the French labour activists in the 1980s as a rhetorical and mobilising phrase and also by Spanish social movements and Italian trade unionists in the 1990s and the Global Justice Movement in the early 2000s. According to ILO (2012:29), “there is no agreed official definition of what constitutes precarious employment.” Bobek, Pembroke and Wickham (2018) are of the view that most authors associate precarious work with non-standard employment like temporary work or self-employment and part-time work.

However, the concept of precarious employment was defined by Rossman (2013) as encompassing multiple employment relations which deny employees job security, embody wage and benefits discrimination and deny equal protection enjoyed by permanent workers on

Collective Bargaining Agreements (CBAs). Standing (2011:16) echoed the broader conceptualisation of the precarious employment concept arguing that “to be precarious implies subjective to pressures and experiences which cultivate a precariat existence of living in the presence without a secure identity or sense of development achieved through work and lifestyle.” In the same vein, Kallberg (2009:2) acknowledges that precarious work is “...employment that is uncertain, unpredictable, and risky from the point of view of the worker.” There is limited employment security, poor occupational health and safety standards hence the work is considered risky as it subject an employee to such indecent working conditions. Thus Standing (2011) cited in Ncube (2017) and Xhafa (2015) suggest that the risks ranges from low job and employment security, limited control over terms and conditions of employment, less opportunity for development and career progression and low wages. The term Labour Casualisation has been fully utilised to resemble precarious employment in Zimbabwe. On the focus of this study, precarious employment is understood as a variety of forms of employment established below the socially accepted normative standards in one or more respects, which results from an unbalanced distribution towards and amongst workers of the insecurity and risks typically attached to economic life in general and to the labour market in particular (Duell, 2004).

2.3 WORK CONTRACTS ASSOCIATED WITH PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT

It is highlighted that precarious employment is called labour casualisation in Zimbabwe (Ncube, 2017) and casualisation of labour is the reduction of permanent employment and replacement of such with workers under temporary, fixed, seasonal, casual or short-term contracts. This is clear testimony that precarious employment takes the forms of employment relationships or contracts that involves insecurity, irregular working hours, and absence of standard employment benefits, low wages and poor working conditions. Thus, Xhafa (2015:1) on ILO Issue Brief Number 3 state that precarious work is a “non-standard form of employment which include temporary employment (fixed term and casual work), temporary agency work and other contractual arrangements involving multiple parties (such as labour brokers), ambiguous employment relationships and part-time employment.” In Zimbabwe, these are regulated by the Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] hereinafter called the Act. These forms of employment contracts associated with precarious employment vary and sometimes are the same for different industries.

2.3.1 Casual work

Ncube (2017); and ZimStats (2015) states that casual work is part of the casualisation of labour. In accordance with section 12(3) of the Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*], casual work refers to the work where the period does not exceed a total of six weeks in four consecutive months with a particular employer. In light of this, O' Donnell (2004) cited in Fapohunda (2012) emphasises that legally, a casual worker means a worker is engaged for a period of less than six months and who is paid on a daily basis and this includes piece workers. A study by Gilfillan (2018) found that, more than 2.5 million employees in Australia are casualised comprising of 43% in the agricultural industry and 79% in the hospitality sector. The Labour Court in the case of *Delta Beverages v P Kwesha and two others LC/H/04/2013* has occasion to comment on casualization when the employer has failed to pay the employees their overtime and has allowed casual workers to work for more than four consecutive months without interruption. It was held unfair labour practice of precarious employment. Thus, Fapohunda (2012:258) propounded that "casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security." Labour casualisation is topical in the hospitality sector in Zimbabwe as found by Ncube (2017); and (Ncube and Jerie, 2012), it constitute grave safety and health risks on contingent workers. The same has been identified by Chikuse et al (2012) in the study of working conditions in the agriculture sector in Zimbabwe who found that casual workers are engaged during the peak of the rain season. This is in sync with ILO (2015) which defines casual workers as those workers who are called for work only as and when needed. Labour casualisation increases the precariousness of worker existence. This is clear testimony that casual work is non-standard employment, it is an emerging culture for the agriculture and hospitality industries worldwide.

2.3.2 Seasonal Work

As indicated in the case of *Simbi Steelmakers (Pvt) Ltd v M Shamu and Others SC 71/2015*, seasonal work means work that is, owing to the nature of the industry, performed only at certain times of the year. A study by Ncube and Jerie (2012) found that seasonal work is the norm for the Hospitality Industry in Zimbabwe as more temporary employees are employed during and terminated after festive season. The same views have been echoed by Mukwakwami and Uzhenyu (2017) in a study about the rife of casualization of labour in Agricultural Sector in Zimbabwe. They found that seasonal workers were needed for short period during the peak of the planting season, applying herbicides, pruning and harvesting. Seasonal workers often work on compressed working week arrangements which is devastating for worker health. Labour

casualization among agricultural industries is driven by seasonal factors which is similar to the hospitality industry where casual part-time workers are required to service peaks in customer demands mainly during festive season (Gilfillan, 2018). Thus, Mills (2004) cited in Mukwakwami and Uzhenyu (2017) suggest that seasonal workers are subjected to appalling working conditions like no guaranteed working hours, underpayment and employment insecurity which reveals the nature of precarious positions and debilitating conditions faced.

2.3.3 Part-time work

Bourhis and Wils (2001) cited in Wandera (2011); and Hirsch (2004) agreed that part time work is work that is contingent, irregular, atypical and non-standard. Bureau of Labour Statistics (2012) states that 17.7% of the world's workers are on part-time work. Part-time is non-permanent employment associated with uncertain income flows, less secure than standard permanent employment in terms of hours of work, non-wage benefits and career advancement (Kalleberg, 2009). In a study on employment casualisation in Nigeria, Fapohunda (2012) found that companies hire several part-time workers to avoid their obligation to provide benefits and to dissuade unionising efforts. International Labour Office (ILO, 2015) states that part-time employment is a form of non-standard employment relied upon in sectors like agriculture and hospitality which are seasonal in nature or to replace temporarily absent labour. Part-time work is part of precarious employment subjecting workers to zero-hours contracts, and on-call systems which highlights a shift of the nature of employment relationship to a commercial relationship.

2.3.4 Fixed-term contract

The act specifically distinguished fixed period contract in section 12(2) (b) as the contract which requires the employer to provide written particulars of the period of time, if limited, for which the employee is engaged. Drawing from the act, fixed period contract is a form of precarious employment because it expires automatically upon the effluxion of its stipulated period. Employment in several sectors like hospitality and agriculture sector in Zimbabwe has shifted from standard permanent employment to casual labour, part-time and fixed-term contracts which brings dirty working environment (Makwavarara, 2004). This implies the deficiency of job security and limited room to plan which entails key defining features of precarious employment. It is in sync with Lewchuk (2017); and Pyoria and Ojala (2016) who argues that the priority in measuring and identifying forms of precarious work is the extent to which it is unstable, uncertain and insecure and fixed period contract is a form of precarious employment.

2.3.5 Graduate Traineeship and Attachment Students

A study by Ncube (2017) identified the employ of students from hotel schools, colleges and universities as a new form of non-standard employment pandemic in the Zimbabwean industries. The hospitality industry in Zimbabwe employ students on voluntary basis who do not get salaries, are not represented at workplace and do not enjoy any social benefit. The employ of students has been supported by Chimbari (2017) as the norm in the security and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe. The scholar further argued that the students are prone to sexual harassment, poor accommodation and other indecent working conditions. Mafumbate, Gondo, and Mutekwe, (2014) found that graduate trainees and attachment students from Zimbabwean universities are employed as cheap labour working more than legal hours in the Fast Food Industry in Zimbabwe which is compromising service quality and competitive edge.

2.3.6 Volunteering

Voluntary labour is being configured in precarious labour markets as part of atypical work. As propounded by Allan (2019), volunteering is increasing construed as a form of hope labour premised on promises that exposure and experience will create chances of employability in the future. Thus, Mukwidzi (2015) define volunteering as unpaid labour providing off their time and energy to assist the company to conduct certain services. In Botswana, volunteering is referred to as *boithaopo* meaning the act of helping others without intent to be remunerated. Volunteers are not uncommon in the hospitality industry as part of a grey area within the discussion of workplace representation, rights and decent working standards do not apply (Brennan, 2018). According to ILO (2014), migrants, women, and internship students are employed as free labour volunteers in the tourism industry and non-governmental organisations world-wide. The study by Allan (2019) found that volunteers' experience is like communism as they live on shared accommodation and meals, no wages but works for the health of the organisation. Volunteers have no employment contracts and can be easily dismissed and replaced by surplus of willing labour hence a form of precarious employment dominant in the hospitality industry.

2.3.7 Labour Brokering

ILO defines labour brokering refers to temporary agency work (Tshoose and Tsweledi (2014). It is a form of subcontracting workers in a triangular employer-employee relationship. In South Africa, a labour broker is “any person who, for reward, procures for or provides to a client other persons- (a) who renders services to, or perform work for, the client; and (b) who are remunerated by the temporary employment service.” (Tshoose and Tsweledi (2014:336). The

labour broker conclude commercial deals with the client and remunerate workers who have no contractual relationship with the client. Labour broking is topical in the Zimbabwe's service industry totally punctuated with diminished job security, dangerous working conditions, no written contracts and exclusion of workers from collective bargaining. According to Biodun-Badru (2014), agency work or labour broking evolves as an evasion used by employers to avoid legal protection associated with terminating permanent workers. In South Africa, Labour brokering is regulated in terms of section 198 of Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995. However, labour brokering is considered a form of exploitative non-standard work which institutionalise labour enslavement. Munakamwe and Jinnah (2014) explored migrant workers in South African agriculture sector and found that migrant labour from countries like Zimbabwe is used as temporary agency cheap labour. In Gambia, labour brokering operate in accordance with section 33 of Labour Act Chapter 56:01.

In Zimbabwe, the legality of labour broking is questionable as there is no clear establishment of who the employer and client is in terms of labour law (Madhuku, 2015). Ruziwa (2016) clearly indicated in the Herald that there is no express provision within the principle Act regulating labour broking in Zimbabwe. Armstrong (2009) considers an employment relationship as a bond between an employer and employee based on social exchange. Having an employee providing labour to the broker's client means a worker has no control or influence towards fundamental rights provided by the client which compromise workplace democracy and social justice. Thus, Mazanhi (2012) indicated in the NewsDay that labour broking or labour hire is a form of human trafficking which reduces contingent workers to commodities which can be traded like vegetables for profit. This is clear testimony that labour broking is a form of non-standard work which falls outside the decent work jurisdiction.

2.3.8 Zero-Hour Contracts

According to ILO (2017), a contract of employment which is silent about minimum and maximum working hours is deemed a zero-hour contract. Section 12(2) of the Act stipulate that an employer should inform employees in writing of the contract duration and working hours, leave entitlement among other particulars. Zero-hour contract contradict the notion of social justice and fair labour standards embedded in the labour legislation such as ILO Convention number 1 of 1919 which outline that legally, an employment contract should stipulate legal eight working hour a day. According to Federation of Food and Allied Workers' Union of Zimbabwe (FFWU), zero-hour contracts is a leading form of labour exploitation in Zimbabwe's hospitality sector. Workers are placed on zero-hour implied contracts without

pension, terminal benefits, medical aid for their families and suffer psychological trauma due to job insecurity and dehumanising conditions dictated by slave masters, the employers (Madhuku, 2015).

2.4 CONDITIONS CAUSING PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT IN ZIMBABWE

Economic crisis and abundance of labour are considered conditions contributing to precarious work in Zimbabwe. Since the rebounding phase in 2009, Zimbabwean economy is on a downturn experiencing structural regression and steady decline from 11.9% growth in 2011 to 1.5% in 2015 (Kanyenze, Chitambara and Tyson, 2017). In a study about precarious work and working conditions in the Zimbabwe's Hospitality industry, Chakanya (2015) found that 11 295 employees who represent the total of 34% were under precarious employment. Services Industrial Professional and Technical Union (SIPTU) (2018) states that economic crisis has caused the spread of precarious, casualised work endemic across Italy, European Union and the world. Migrant workers and young people were identified to be more vulnerable to precarious employment due to the second shift, high socio-economic needs and globalisation. According to RBZ quarterly economic review (2017) and Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU) (2018), economic challenges in Zimbabwe led to 1011 and 945 retrenchments in the first quarter of 2015 and 2016 respectively leaving thousands of Zimbabweans jobless in both the public and private sectors. So, the new normal in Zimbabwe is unprecedented poverty and unemployment. As cited in the NSSA report (2015), economic crunch caused 330 companies to close in Harare and 47 agriculture companies to shut down hence contributing to abundance supply of labour in the market. This leads to the commodification of the worker as easily replaceable, cheap and a disposable liability as postulated by the product market logic.

ZCTU (2018) indicated that the retrenchment board statistics shows that 2830 workers were laid off in 2017 due to viability challenges, lack of capital and financial crisis as the Zimbabwean economy is at the brink of collapse. Thus LEDRIZ (2014) cited in Chakanya (2015) and ZCTU (2018) agrees that unemployment rate is above 94% in Zimbabwe against 6.6% by Zimstats (2018) led to labour casualization. In Zambia, Oyadiran et al (2018) states that an increase in foreign investors and high unemployment rate enhance the employ workers on temporary basis. Companies are downsizing to avoid costs associated with labour laws designed to protect permanent workers hence the employ of contingent workers. LEDRIZ (2018) goes on to state that Universities like Midlands State University are producing thousands of jobless graduates who subsequently join the informal economy due to economic crisis. This coupled with an army of retrenchees reflect over supply of labour in a gig economy

which put employers at a vantage of exploiting labour as machines under indecent working conditions.

Non-standard work is a global concern and Raftopolous (2009) argues that the changing economic conditions punctuated with instability, uncertainty and volatility necessitated the introduction of ambiguous policies which necessitated the use of precarious employment. ILO (2002) cited in Chakanya (2015) found that inappropriate, misguided or badly implemented macroeconomic policies are catalyst of the informal economy and nonstandard work in Zimbabwe. The adoption of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) in 1991 led to the liberalisation of the Zimbabwean economy, demise of domestic industrial sector and massive downsizings, the offshoot being the predominance of casual workers (Sachikonye, 2003; and LEDRIZ, 2018). Sceptics called it the Economic Suffering of African People (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017). Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Protection (1996), indigenisation and SI 64 of 2017 on import ban enhanced the rise of informal sector which means low wages and limited access to social and legal protection to workers. Oyadiran et al (2018); and Standing (2011) reinforces this stating that neoliberal economic policies cause class division, polarisation between winners and losers and precarious risks. Mabika (2018) indicated in the NewsDay that the president of Zimbabwe claims that Zimbabwe is open for business but current economic policies are ambiguous, they shun away investors and are the catalysts for precarious employment in Zimbabwe.

The Universal Declaration of Rights (1948) indicates that ILO was meant to ensure the right to the enjoyment of fair, dignified and favourable conditions of work including fair wages and decent work through labour laws. Gwisai (2006:15) opined that the purpose of Zimbabwe's Labour Amendment Act, 2002 "is to advance social justice and democracy in the workplace." In contrast, the same labour laws provide conducive conditions for indecent, precarious employment as enshrined in Section 12 (1) (3) and 12C of the act. The act stipulate that anyone working for another person in exchange of remuneration is under the contract of employment. This means that part-time, fixed-term and casual workers are under employment contract but the conditions of service like renewal limits of part-timers and fixed contracts are not regulated. This gives employers an advantage over labour as the bearers of power as said by Kahn Freund that labour law give employers the divine right to exploit and subordinate those who are not power bearers. Mutangi, Madhuku, Maja, Stewart and Faltoe (2017); and Kasuso and Manyatera, (2015) argued that the law on retrenchment has led to massive downsizings

following the *Don Nyamande and Anor v Zuva Petroleum judgement SC43/15*. Muccheche, (2017) thus submitted that more than thirty thousand employees were retrenched in 2015 after the Zuva case subscribing to judicial precedence. The same author state that the Amendment Act 5 of 2015 has provided a one size fits all retrenchment package which is very cheap for the employer to retrench without adopting measures to avoid downsizing. Ncube (2017) states that labour laws guarantee fundamental labour rights like safe workplace and job security but takes the same right with the other hand as demonstrated in the Zuva case which demonstrated chronic rights insecurity by the state to safeguard the capitalist agenda. These labour law deficiencies provide excellent conditions for precarious employment.

It is indicated in the Treasury State of the Economy (2014) cited in Mkandatsama and Nyanhete (2017) that Zimbabwean economic crisis led to the closure of companies, massive retrenchments and high unemployment. The same conditions fuelled the deregulation and informalisation of economic activities and also the rise of the many SMEs in Zimbabwe's sectors including the agriculture sector as key contributing conditions to precarious employment in Zimbabwe. According to the Zimbabwe Labour Survey (2014); Economist Intelligence Unit (UIU, 2018) and ZimStats (2018), 94.5% of the 6.3million people are working in the Zimbabwean informal sector with 4.16m people in the agriculture industry. Labour and Economic Development Research Institute of Zimbabwe (LEDRI, 2015:1) state that the Zimbabwean "Informal economy is marked by acute decent work deficits and a disproportionate share of the working poor." The findings of the same study revealed that workers engaged in the informal economy and or SMEs face unprecedented poverty, low wages, long working hours and are exposed to unsafe working conditions. This suggest that high social demands, downsizing and unemployment conditions made people join the informal economy by necessity rather than by choice hence exposed to indecent working practices and conditions like no opportunities for collective bargaining and representation (Abiodun-Badru, 2014). About 62% of construction and informal workers in the South African industries are precarious workers at the mercy of the employers (Oyadiran et al, 2018). Bhebe and Mahapa (2014) reinforces that the informal and SMEs has also become the new norm in Zimbabwe violating labour rights of non-permanent workers hence contributing to the mushrooming of precarious employment in Zimbabwe.

2.5 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION FOR PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT

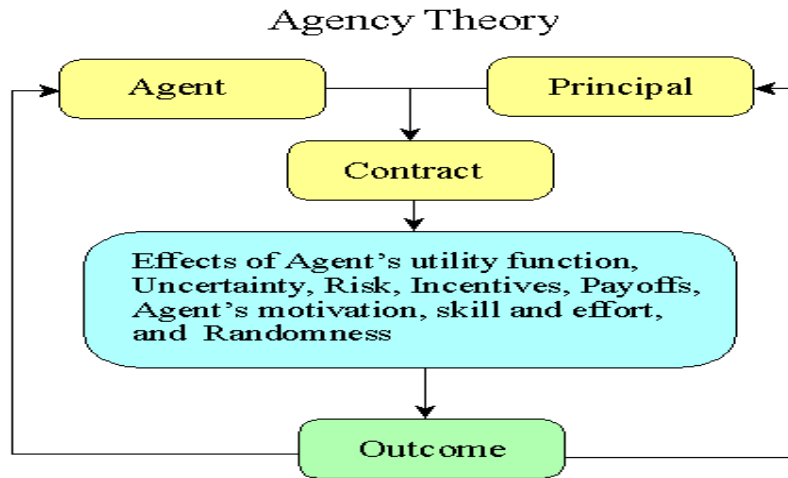
2.5.1 *Dual labour market theory*

Institutionally oriented economists, Piore (1969) and Doeringer and Piore (1971) developed the Dual Labour Market Theory (DLMT) to explain the continuing poverty and unemployment among the proletariats in poorer American slums. Low economic participation of the disadvantaged workers, poor working condition, low wages and economic instability has led to the emergence of dual labour market theory. The Doeringer-Piore formulation postulates the existence of two distinct markets stratified along characteristics of the precariates and jobs. The primary or internal labour market comprise of privileged workers who enjoy stale employment with job security, decent working conditions and fair wages. In contrast, the secondary labour market entails bad work habits, jobs with low wages, patterns of high job insecurity and hazardous working environment. Multiple dangerous contingencies fuel high turnover rate in the secondary labour market as workers suffer a great deal of stress.

According to the dual labour market theory, labour segmentation subject atypical workers into peripheral labour force and bad jobs (Uys and Blaauw, 2006). Post-modernism provides the strand that generally jobs in the secondary sector are unattractive as workers suffer underemployment. The dualists states that there ae more than enough jobs in the external labour market but they are bad jobs punctuated by poverty wages and dead ends. Workers in the secondary labour market are segregated and discriminated on the basis of employment status, and gender hence exhibit higher rates of absenteeism and lateness, more insubordination, theft and pilferage. The dualists posit that lower skilled workers, females, workers with low aptitude and low human capital fill most of secondary jobs and thus Chakanya (2015); Mariwo (2008); and Kalleberg (2011) supported the same notion. These scholars reinforced that the majority of female, students, people with low educational qualifications and experiences form the large percentage of precarious workers. In light of this, the dual labour market theory deconstruct the evils of precarious employment and its implications on workers.

2.5.2 Principle-Agency Theory

Fig1: Principle-Agency Theory

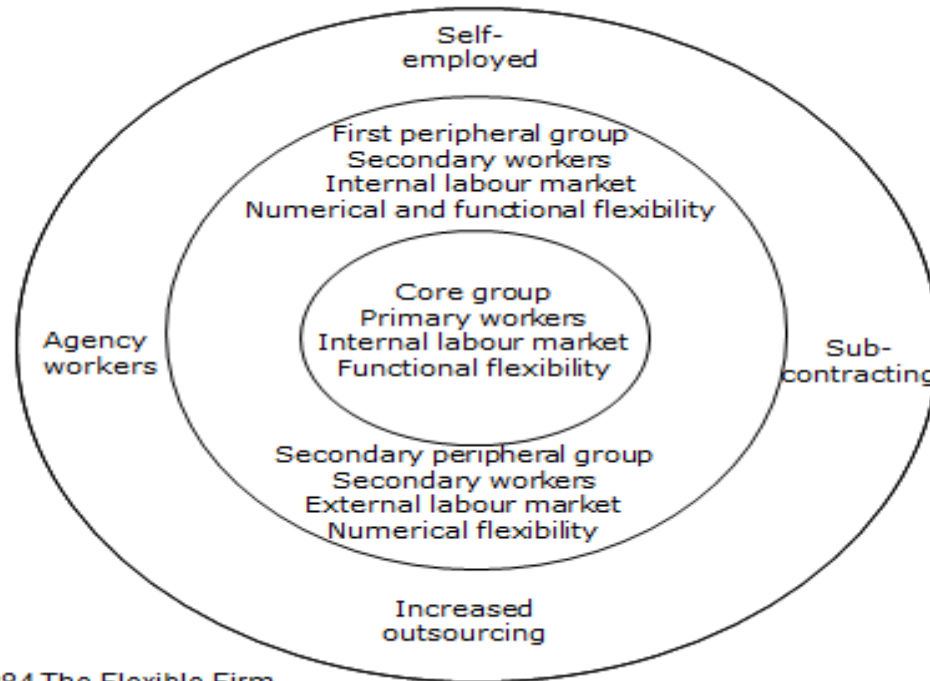


Source: <http://maaw.info/ArticleSummaries/ArtSumTiessenWaterhouse83.htm>

The principle agency theory is an integral part of 21st C microeconomics. Subject to the principle agency theory, or incentive theory, there are two self-interested parties seeking to recognise potential gains from a trade, one (the principle) delegates a physical or mental task to the agent whose actions and behaviours affects the rewards for both parties (Gauld, 2016). The agent may employ temporary agency workers to perform duties for the principle and since the workers do not have a direct contract with the principle, they suffer a moral hazard upon hidden actions of the agent. According to Spector and Fox (2002), the agents can enjoy hefty salaries through exploiting contingent workers who have no chances to understand secret business deals between the principle and agent. Such a triangular relationship can put worker health to risk since they do not have the capacity to directly influence the terms of conditions of employment. This model unmask the nature and forces behind labour brokering also known as temporary agency work. Labour brokering is a triangular employer-employee relationship where the agent or broker conclude commercial deals with the client or principle and remunerate workers who have no direct contractual relationship with the client (Mazani, 2012). The relationship between the workers and the principle is parallel and it leads to hostility and a dead psychological contract.

2.5.3 Flexible Firm Model

Fig2: The Flexible Firm Model



Atkinson 1984 The Flexible Firm

Atkinson (1984) developed the Flexible Firm Model (FFM) in order to deconstruct organisational behaviour under chaotic environment. The FFM model suggest that organisational competitiveness is premised on the ability of firm to cope and adapt to ever-changing realities. For adaptive firms, change create novel combinations of circumstances that requires a port normal thinking and an unstructured non-repetitive response. Having the mind of the strategies can make organisation’s master planners amplify that the value of all strategies, no matter how brilliant, they decay over time. Hence the call for labour flexibilisation as a means for survival. The rapid employ of contingent workers is driven by employers who strategies in *ad hoc* due to unpredictable situations. Sub-contracting, agency workers, self-employed and outsourcing are the key form of precarious employment indicated by the FFM (ILO, 2018). The core group with primary workers emphasise that there are permanent workers who enjoy job security, access to social benefits and their working conditions are relatively stable and decent. In the secondary peripheral group, there are secondary workers or atypical workers like fixed term, casual and seasonal employees. These workers are subject to multiple flexible terms and conditions of services, they are easily terminated depending on the level of demand and supply forces and other changes in the business environment. Third wave organisations adopt the flexible firm model to engage temporary labour to reduce fixed costs associated with workers under contract without time limit. Continuous changes result in labour

fragmentation, loss of identity and low wages as workers are tightly matched with the current needs of the firm defined by market forces.

2.5.5 Contingency Theory

The forces behind the adoption of precarious employment model are multiple and this can be best explained by the contingency theory. Organisational behaviour is informed by environmental contingencies and internal contingencies environment contingencies are factors that affects organisational processes and practices and consider the firm as an open system. The firm does not live in isolation and independent from its wider environment hence issues like politics, legislation, technology and culture have influence in employment relations (Armstrong, 2009). The internal contingencies concern factors like organisational structure, strategy, size and capabilities. The Resource Based View (RBV) model emphasise that internal organisational competencies are key for competitive edge and this is rooted upon internal contingencies. In relation to precarious employment, there are multiple contingencies which motivate companies to adopt precarious employment as the norm. Government regulations like the labour laws, trade unions movement, and the nature of business encourage the growth of atypical work in Zimbabwean industries. A firm cannot operate separately from its context and failure to cope with changing business realities would lead to strategic dissonance. Structural contingency theory reinforces that under unstable environment, organisations would employ contingent workers to minimize strategic collision with changing realities. Thus, in accordance with contingency theory, precarious employment is caused by the need to adapt to changing business environment and for the worker, it is the socio-economic concerns which forces him/her to accept any working conditions available.

2.5.6 The Michigan Model

The Michigan model is also known as the Institute of Social Research (ISR) model or role stress approach. It has been developed in 1962 by French and Kahn to deconstruct and understand the effects of occupational stress and the influence of individual perception of stressors. The framework indicates that there are environmental stressors like role ambiguity, lack of worker participation and involvement, workload and job insecurity. Standing (2011) reiterated that poor workplace safety, low remuneration and limited social protection can cause worker stress. When the worker perceive injustice and that he/she cannot manage work demands, there can be high levels of chronic and acute stress. It is argued that the precariate lives in a risky society, they work in dangerous working environment, they suffer high levels of employment insecurity and their rights at work are prone to violation. This explains that the

workers under precarious work are underprivileged to enjoy their rights like denizens, they face the challenge of high stress levels.

2.6 CHALLENGES FACED BY EMPLOYEES UNDER PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT

2.6.1 *Legal Framework Challenges*

According to the Bureau of Labour and Employment Statistics (2012), more than 78% African workers are under precarious employment facing the challenge of poor workplace representation on fundamental rights. Ncube (2017:71) state that “the general condition of fear and insecurity dissuade workers from joining trade unions, leaving them more vulnerable to precarious work arrangements.” Trade unionism, bargaining and worker representation by ILO is built upon direct and standard employment relationship leaving precarious workers (Rossman, 2013). ILO (2018) states that the rapid spread of precarious work justifies its normalcy as typical but it leaves workers searching for employee voice platforms to advance their interests and rights at work. Temporary employment grant the capitalists legal buffers against their responsibility to engage in collective bargaining which is clear violation of social dialogue (ILO, 2017). It is submitted that precarious work weakens union membership and takes away employee bargaining power for improved terms and conditions of work (Gwisai, 2006). In the case of Colombia 2008/N2556, the committee held that the refusal to register a trade union to represent temporary workers is a violation of fundamental human rights. The employment status of a worker should not affect their right to join and participate in unions or any other workplace representative fora.

In a Nigerian study about casualization and degradation of work, Fapohunda (2012) found that precarious workers are denied of their right to organise and benefit from collective bargaining. Fundamental employee rights are not subject to qualification in the name of seasonality or flexibility, the fact that workers under precarious work are not allowed to get workplace representation is a biggest challenge and a violation of human rights. Atypical workers do not enjoy the right to collective job action. Section 104 of the Act outline an approval by a registered union for workers to go on a lawful strike. Madhuku (2015) stated that, the provisions should be made to cater for situations where workers do not subscribe to a trade union. True workplace democracy manifest where all workers, permanent and temporary exercise their fundamental right to organise and strike without being dismissed or punished. Moyo (2014); and Muccheche (2013) emphasised that the Zimbabwean labour laws are prohibitive and offer repressive rules intended to emasculate precisely the aspects that makes the precariate exercise their right to social justice and workplace democracy. It can be argued

that there is no effective legal framework for precarious employment in Zimbabwe and as propounded by Madhuku (2010), the labour laws in Zimbabwe are not meant to protect workers fundamental rights but they are pro-capitalist. They are drafted by the state to advance cynical expediency an employer's vested interests against the proletariat.

The legal framework challenges faced by the precariat cultivate a consciousness of loss and frustration which leads to national and workplace unrest (Standing, 2011). Ncube (2017) states that lack of right to workplace representation and the freedom for association makes contingent workers feel powerless hence an increase in social unrest worldwide. The massive Zimbabwean stay away in January 2019 were triggered by the plights of precarious workers who are tired of limited social protection, suffering insecure wages and employment and wanted decent working conditions (ZCTU, 2019). Precarious work is multidimensional construct encompassing insecurity dimensions and individual bargaining and powerlessness to exercise legally granted workplace rights. Grimshaw, Johnson, Rubery and Keizer (2016) are of the notion that the legal framework challenges faced by workers under precarious employment have implications not only on the precariat but also on trade unions, state and employers and society. In societies, the challenges enhance inequality and segregation, for employers it gives a negative reputation and brand image and it ultimately portray disorganised national economic status. According to Grimshaw et al (2016:1), challenges like diminished capacity to exercise collective voice and restricted social protections undermines efforts to sustain and develop high road models equipped for today's grand challenges of technical change and global competition. Deprivation from decent work cause chaos and civil unrest from unions and other stakeholder like the society as they are also negatively affected. This is clear testimony that the challenges faced by precariat has negative repercussions on social and national peace.

2.6.2 Socio-economic challenges

High insecurity levels at work eloquently reveal the deepest challenges encountered by precarious workers (Lewchuk, Clark, de Wolff, and King, 2008). The workers under precarious employment in Zimbabwe demystified non-standard work as not perfect since they experience high job and employment insecurity challenges (Chakanya, 2015). Studies by Chimbari (2017); Ncube (2017); and Mariwo (2008) found that job insecurity is the permanent characteristic of security guards in Zimbabwe. The same authors echoed that precarious workers remain on fixed-term contracts for more than a year without confirmed permanent. As reinforced by the Employment Strain Model, the predicament of high employment insecurity makes it difficult for workers to strategically plan, start families or attend training courses. Ncube (2017:71) went

on to support that this challenge “has left young generation hard pressed to see a bright future.” In South Africa, the labour laws are based on standard employment relationship and precarious forms on employment fall through the cracks and there is no guaranteed work security. Employees’ jobs are at the mercies of the employers, they live with fear of losing jobs. A research by Wendera (2011) on the effects of short-term contracts at Kenya Forest Service revealed that precarious employment brings high job insecurity which compromise the psychological contract. In a Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Union interview, Moyo (2018) said that workers under precarious employment cannot plan for life even to marry because they can be fired any day, any hour and the right not to be unfairly dismissed as normally associated with standard employment.

Precarious work draws disproportionately on vulnerable groups of workers including the women, migrants and minorities. It deepens insecurity, poverty and undermines equal access to social protection (LEDRIZ, 2014). Social protection is a component of decent work agenda which is concerned with formal protection for workers, invalids, accidents among other work-related uncertainties (Chimbari, 2017). National Social Security Authority (NSSA) Act Chapter 17:04 requires Zimbabwean organisations to register with NSSA to secure social preservation of services like pension and accident compensations for all workers including the precarites. Quoted in the Financial Gazette of 03 May 2018, the ILO country director, opined that workers under precarious employment in Zimbabwe are exposed to decent work deficits and exclusion from sound social protection. Okafor (2012) states that the challenge faced by workers under precarious employment is that they do not enjoy leave, pension, health and life insurance schemes. They do not have social support, no medical aid benefit and have no capacity to save for retirement (Mariwo, 2008 and Chimbari, 2017). Majome (2018) echoed the same in the NewsDay that even the Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] is not protective of workers under precarious work in terms of their rights to enjoy maternity leave, sick leave, vacation leave and terminal benefits. This is in line with Gilfillan (2018:3) who went on to define casual workers as employees without access to leave entitlements.” It has been indicated by National Labour and Economic Development Institute (NALEDI, 2006) that precarious workers by definition are not entitled to get social benefits hence called the working poor. In Zimbabwe, companies prefer temporary workers than permanent employees to avoid their entitlement to leave, medical and pension benefits (Ruziwa, 2018).

The socio-economic challenges brought by precarious employment affect the company, society and paralyse the worker in several ways. The research by Chimbari (2017) found that the challenges faced by the precariat affects both the workers and their families who normally suffer during off season after redundancy. High insecurity, increased work inequality and poverty challenges affects individuals outside the world of work (Sibanda et al, 2014). It is clear testimony that having high employment insecurity the worker and family cannot plan and make decisions for improved life. In light of this, Ncube (2017) suggest that precarious employment affect the society as a whole as supported by thirty casual respondents in the Hospitality Industry in Zimbabwe. Limited social protection mean that the employee is vulnerable to poor life after work hence health deficits

2.6.3 Occupational health and safety challenges

Workers under precarious employment suffer higher risk of poor safety and health conditions (Kalleberg, 2009). The employment strain model emphasis that the precariates lacks workplace support from co-workers, management and community which compromise their safety and healthy wellbeing. In light of this, a study by Ncube (2017) found that precarious workers in the Zimbabwean Hotel Sector experience the challenge of high occupational health and safety concerns. It is submitted that workers under agency contracts, outsourced and non-permanent employment are exposed to stressful psychosocial working conditions, hazardous work environment and increased workload. Chikumbindi (2017) and Ngomani, (2014)'s research about occupational stress in the mining and agriculture industries in Zimbabwe found that casual, seasonal and fixed term workers suffer indecent and hazardous working conditions compared to permanent workers. Thus NALEDI (2006) states that casuals and fixed period workers work for seven continuous days while simultaneously their employers refuse to provide protective clothing. Chakanya (2015) reinforced that the precariate is required to provide their own protective clothing too show their dedication for work. For Gilfillan (2018), the precariate faces irregular and insufficient hour of work and fluctuations in earnings which affect their work-life balance and weaken their ability to address their social concerns. It is accepted that precarious workers in any industry are subject to exploitation as they accept any condition of work regardless of its degrading to humanity, health and wellbeing (Fapohunda, 2012). The challenge of poor occupational safety and health not only affect the work and society but can silently rob organisational sustainability and productivity since workers cannot go an extra mile.

The societal wellbeing and worker health are determined by employment precariousness. Dorre (2006) cited in Ncube (2017) states that the precarious workers are exposed to dangerous working environments and heavy workload hence experience poor physical, emotional and mental health. Interesting is the observation that, as job insecurity escalate and social benefits decrease, workers fall under the employers' mercy and put their health and safety at grave risk (Mariwo, 2008). In support, the Employment Strain Model cited in Benach, Vives, Tarafa, Delclos and Muntaner (2016) outlines that precarious work is associated with poor safe and health conditions which adversely affect societal efficiency and employee wellbeing. The challenges cause stress for workers dealing with insecurity and lacking control over the employment relationship. Precarious work is therefore related to "poor intrinsic job quality which is risky and hazardous to all employment stakeholders and it is a social determinant that affects the health of the workers, families and communities", (Benach, Vives, Amable, Vanroelen, Tarafa and Muntaner, 2014:229).

2.6.4 Empowerment and benefits challenges

Gilfillan (2018) submitted that precarious workers are much less likely than permanent employees to have equal access to developmental humanism and career development. Oyadiran et al (2018) studied casualisation and labour utilisation and found that atypical employees are exposed to bad work conditions like low wages, job insecurity and lack growth opportunities in Nigeria. The proliferation in nonstandard employment relations enhanced discrimination of the precariate as firms desist from imparting skills and knowledge in the temporary workers whom they easily dismiss without notice and without compensation. Sadly, the precarious employment trend mean that workers work for years without promotion, possibilities for career progression and necessary entitlements even for training. A study by Senne and Nkomo (2015) about the influence of labour brokering in South Africa found out that temporary agent workers are excluded from employment equity and equality. They argued that workers under non-standard employment perform too general duties like gardening and cleaning hence they are not afforded opportunities for training and skills development.

The empowerment and benefits challenges faced by precariats adversely affect labour productivity and performance. A study by Sauti (2017) found that when employees perceives employment injustice and vulnerable to decent work deficit they deliberately withdraw their efforts and discretionary behaviours. Working under non-standard work implies that employee morale is compromised hence poor-quality service delivery (LEDRIZ, 2014). Labour productivity is the real output value per labour unit. Chakanya (2015) echoed that workers

under precarious work are not empowered, they suffer high job insecurity and limited rights at work which affect their levels of engagement which ultimately lead to low labour productivity. Thus, the precariat works to kill and sabotage the system by adopting counterproductive behaviours like stealing. According to Pyoria and Ojala (2016), a precarious labour market view indicate a social climate that is less supportive of worker well-being through training and development, recognition, financial and intrinsic rewards. Such a climate demoralise, demotivates and destroys attitudinal worker commitment which consequently compromise achieving competitive edge through people's superior performance.

2.7 SURVIVAL STRATEGIES USED BY THE PRECARIATES

Workers are most likely motivated to develop coping strategies in life threatening situations known as survival strategies in order to restore freedom of control in their dire situation (Manyaya, Bhebhe, Chavunduka and Nikisi, 2016). Limited access to social protection, job and employment insecurity, little workplace representation and low wages leads the precariat to establish mechanisms or survival strategies as the logical and rational patens aimed at overcoming indecent work practices (Tshuma, Karasa and Kaduwo, 2016).

2.7.1 Entrepreneurial activities

The precariat receives low income compared to workers under standard employment and in order to gain financial peace, he or she engages entrepreneurial activities using the company resources for personal gain. According to Mosoetsa (2005) and Van de Westhuizen (2005) such entrepreneurial actions meant to supplement income are called moonlighting. Thus, Sibanda, Mavenga, Maunganidze and Ncube, (2014) used the Shona idiom '*Mbudzi inofurira payakasungirirwa*' meaning a goat's feeding is inclined to its immediate environment in explaining compensatory cash generating projects by precarious employees to enhance their monetary rewards. This has been seconded by Ndlovu, Moyo, Gasva and Chisango (2015) in a study of the survival strategies that unpaid Hwange Colliery Company Limited workers involve themselves in. The study found that even permanent employees suffer precarious working conditions like working without pay and like temporary workers, they offer rental facilities and use free electricity for welding to generate income. In a study at Shabane Mine, Shoniwa, Zirima, Nyanga and Dhomo (2013) concluded that the survival strategies used by precarious workers included renting out their free accommodation to employees of local companies like Mimosa Mine and Midlands State University (MSU) to generate personal income. Thus, Chiripasi (2015) quoted the president of Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU) saying that every year workers complain of poor remuneration, it has become a norm

hence precariously disgruntled workers in any sector have the capacity to engage in intra-preneurial activities for personal financial gain at the expense of the company.

The study by Manyaya et al. (2016) at Chitungwiza Municipality found that workers adopt piece jobs also known as '*Kukiya-kiya*' in Zimbabwe as copying strategies to counter the challenges and effects of precarious work. Accordingly, Jones (2010) researched on the term '*Kukiya-kiya*' economy as a survival strategy in response to economic downturn post 2000 Zimbabwean era. It was established that employees under precarious employment employ '*Kukiya-kiya*' which refers to "multiple forms of making do that Zimbabweans undertook to survive," (Manyaya et al. 2016:6). Under '*Kukiya-kiya*', the precariat do multiple things wherein each piece job gives little income which becomes meaningful when summed up with other small income streams. Ndlovu et al (2015) concluded that piece jobs are a key survival strategy used by workers under precarious employment for survival hence the need to investigate if this strategy forms part of survival strategies used by the precariates in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe.

2.7.2 Counterproductive workplace behaviours

Since the precarious working environment is considered alienating and creating a distinction between the permanent and temporary workers, Blyton, Morrel and Noon (2013) cited in Manyaya et al. (2016) identified sabotaging, escaping, joking and fiddling as survival strategies employed by workers in dealing with precarious working conditions. Chiripasi (2015) states that the majority of Zimbabwean workers have no capacity to protest against indecent working conditions because they are contractors and temporary. Thus, Hungwe (2011) in a study on labour challenges and survival strategies of University workers during economic crisis found that the precariat can sabotage through exhibiting temporal frustration with work processes or work to rule or using unaccepted short-cuts to perform given tasks. Workers under precarious conditions exercise physical escape in the form of absenteeism and turnover and mental escape constituting passive informal behaviours that are counterproductive. These results were also found by Ncube (2017) and Chakanya (2015) in their studies on precarious work in Zimbabwean Hotels. They found fiddling, sabotaging and counterproductive behaviours used as part of survival strategies to mitigate the challenges of indecent work practices. There is however, no evidence supporting the employ of such survival strategies for the agricultural industry in Zimbabwe.

Despite the fact that pilferage is illegal, workers under precarious employment use it as a survival strategy. Manyaya et al. (2016) defines pilferage as involving theft, artificial claims, undeclared work and overstating expense. In the same vein, Hungwe (2011:250) defines fiddling as “theft from the workplace.” Workers under precarious employment are psychologically dissonant, they engage in counterproductive deviant behaviours such as taking stationary for private use or artificially inflating expense claims. This is also evidenced by Sibanda et al (2014) who found that National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) sometimes run out of stationary and spare parts as workers steal company resources for their private businesses. In accordance with the integrated counterproductive workplace behaviour (CWB) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) model by Spector and Fox (2002), workers under precarious employment are motivated to exhibit certain attitudes and behaviours like pilferage as they try to re-establish their threatened freedom and violated fundamental workplace rights. CWBs are reactions intended to harm the firm and its stakeholders and such deviant acts like pilferage are the survival strategy adopted to rebuild justice and restore equity by workers under precarious employment.

2.7.3 Spiritual capital and organisational citizenship behaviours

Spiritual capital can be defined as the skills and experiences that are congruent to one’s religious and cultural beliefs and these includes familiarity with faith, religious or cultural knowledge and companionship with believers (Asli, Dehmordeh and Shojei, 2015). Individuals with spiritual capital have a strong belief that problems they face in life and the differences between human beings are purposeful and can be exploited for mutual benefit among all people in life. Spiritual capital implies that people come to believe that their actions and behaviours, implied or explicit, can have positive or negative effects in their entire lives. As a consequent, they become so responsible and sensitive of their emotions and they tend to display organisational citizenship behaviours which are key for competitive edge. Sibanda et al (2013) propounded that organisational citizenship behaviours are altruistic or helpful acts that have potential to enhance the organisation’s bottom line. The precariates can use spiritual capital to cope with the challenges of precarious employment and this guarantee that they can display functional behaviours.

Under spiritual capital, the precariates can use Surviving by God’s grace as a survival strategies used under economic crisis and employment precarity (Manyaya et al. 2016). Working under precarious conditions means that one is subject to exploitation, voluntary slavery and commodification which requires heavenly mercies for emancipation. Zohar and Marshal

(2004) were of the view that when the precariat fails to find solutions to difficult problems associated with indecent working conditions, he or she resort to prayers as confirmed by 92% of the study respondents. Thus, Manyaya et al. (2016) supported this contention through the findings that the growth of United Family International Church (UFIC) and Yadah Ministries was a result of the ever-growing flock of worshippers compromising of Chitungwiza Municipality and other Zimbabwean workers under dangerous working conditions. From the study at MSU workers, Hungwe (2011) also found that precarious working conditions violates the psychological contract but because employees do not have better alternative they continue to work and devote themselves to the Almighty for survival. According to the organisational citizenship behaviour model by Spector and Fox(2002), surviving by God's grace boost employee morale even in times of crisis, workers motivate themselves, support themselves, reinforce emotional relationship and rebuild faith among atypical workers through prayers and fasting which promote a positive mentality. A positive mental state which is key for employee engagement and to sustain a reciprocal psychological contract punctuated with discretionary behaviours. In relation to the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe, there is lack of evidence justifying the use of spiritual capital also called surviving by God's grace strategy as by the precariates.

2.8 LEGAL FRAMEWORKS ON PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT

2.8.1 *International Frameworks*

2.8.1 (a) ILO Decent Work Agenda

According to ILO (2015), decent work aims to promote sustained work opportunities that are productive and achieve a fair wage, workplace security and social protection. Decent work deficit occurs when workers are not allowed to organise collectively and there in no social dialogue, when basic income security is missing and where there are abuses of workplace rights. The decent work agenda comprise of four pillars which are the promotion of standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, the creation of employment, the enhancement of social protection and the strengthening of social dialogue. One would argue that the ILO's decent work agenda is meant to promote standard employment and eradicate decent work deficits. The challenges of limited workplace representation, lack of access to social protection and limited rights to exercise fundamental workplace rights on part of precarious workers are deemed devastating hence, should be limited through the decent work agenda (Nizami and Prasad, 2017). In Zimbabwe, a study by Chimbari (2017) revealed that the adoption of decent

work is a strategic move towards addressing the challenges on non-standard work and decent work deficits which have been institutionalised and considered the norm.

2.8.1 (b) ILO Conventions

In accordance with Article 4 of Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 (No.175), part-time workers have the right to organise, bargain collectively and have workplace representation. The convention illustrate that part-time workers should receive same protection on occupational health and safety and discrimination like permanent workers. This provision is meant of safeguard workers under precarious employment world-wide. In support, Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (N0. 100) states that workers despite their gender or differences in terms of employment contracts should be equally remunerated when they perform jobs of the same value. Contingent workers are also protected from discrimination by the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention of 1958 (No.111).

2.8.2 Labour Act [Chapter 28:01]

As propounded by Kalleberg (2009), precarious employment is work which is dangerous and risk for the worker, society and the nation. It divorce workers of their fundamental workplace rights which clearly violates the dictates of labour laws particularly in Zimbabwe. As indicated in section 2A of Labour Act [Chapter 28:01], the purpose of the Act is to advance social justice and democracy in the workplace. This can be achieved through securing fundamental worker rights like freedom of association, right to participate in decisions which affect their working lives and not to be discriminated. The Act also indicated in section 6 that is aims to protect employees' right to fair labour standards which include fair rewards, working for lawfully permitted hours and that workers should work in a safe and healthy environment. In light of the challenges faced by precarious workers, Ncube and Jerie (2012) and Sibanda et al (2014) states that employers are concerned about the profit motive engaging atypical workers without respect of their fundamental workplace rights as granted by the labour laws. Madhuku (2015) was convinced to state that labour laws are meant to preserve the interests of capitalism hence exploitation of labour is institutionalised and contingent workers always cry foul. Gwisai (2006) states that the labour laws are meant to protect all workers but in practice, temporary workers are somewhat regulated given room to exercise social justice and democracy with one hand while taken with the other.

In relation to section 12(1) of the Act, a contract of employment is an agreement entered into by two parties, the employer and employees which can be written or not. Then sub-section 2

of section 12 stipulates several particulars which defines a contract of employment such as written details and conditions of service. This brings a discord as to what an implied contract of employment is and employers adopting non-standard forms of employment take advantage of this loophole placing workers on zero-hours contracts while others work without any contract at all. This highlights that Zimbabwean labour laws permits precarious employment, if not, then a contract of employment should fulfil legal demands of being written, lawfulness, possibility of performance and legally binding.

2.8.3 National Social Security Act [NSSA, Chapter 17:09]

The NSSA Act was meant to establish social security schemes for the provision of benefits like pension and accident prevention for the employees. NSSA Act obliges employers to be registers and also register their employees and contribute 3, 5% of basic pay respectively which makes up an employee's retirement pension benefit. The \$1 paid by employers to NSSA is for the Workers Compensation Fund which is a financial buffer to protect workers in cases of accidents at workplace. However, organisation usually register full-time workers with NSSA and leave temporary workers which means that precarious workers have limited access to social protection and suffer poor occupational health and safety at work (Ncube, 2017). This is against the call for a decent work by ILO hence employers are encouraged to register their workers including those on non-standard employment as this will not only promote worker wellbeing but productivity and national peace as-well.

2.9 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

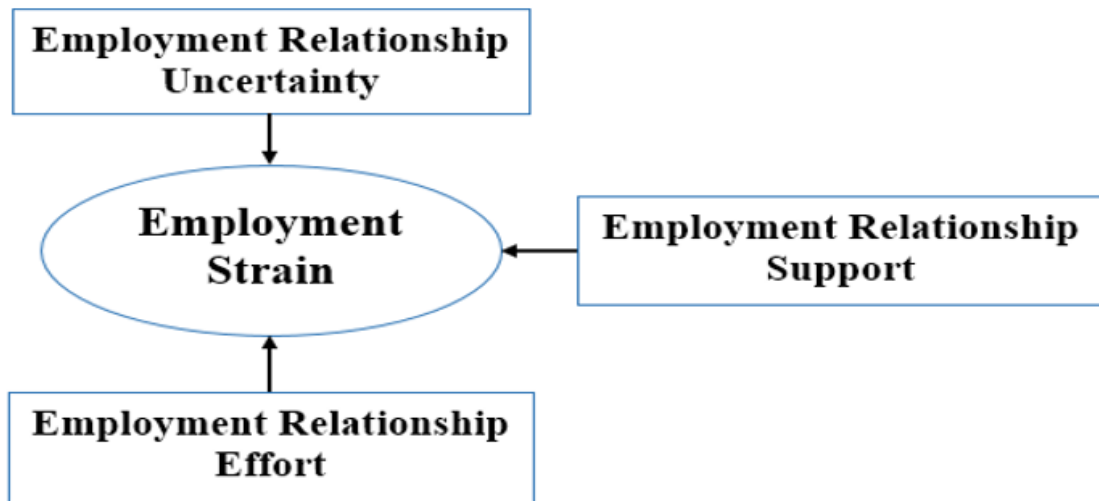
A conceptual framework is a model which demonstrates how one makes logical sense of the inter-relationships among numerous factors that are key to the problem under study (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013). The main purpose of the conceptual framework was to help generate relevant research objectives, research questions and it also inform the selection of an appropriate research methodology. The conceptual framework also aid on validating and interpreting the findings to come up with sound recommendations and conclusions. The employment strain model provided the conceptual framework for this research.

2.9.1 The Employment Strain Model

The research was guided by the Employment Strain Model developed by Lewchuk, Clark, de Wolff, and King (2003) in a study for over four hundred workers under precarious employment. The model was developed to study the association between precarious employment, health and employee well-being. Lewchuk et al (2003:23) introduced the Employment Strain Model (ESM) to capture the nature, and characteristics of precarious employment which is “a

cumulative combination of atypical employment contracts, limited social benefits, poor statutory entitlements, job insecurity, short tenure and low wages.”

Fig3: Employment Strain Model



Source; Lewchuk, Clarke, de Wolff and King (2003:23)

As illustrated in Fig3, the ESM focuses on uncertainties, control and support factors involved in the employment relationship. The employment Strain Model has three core dimensions which are predominantly assessed from a strain perspective, showing the potentially damaging and devastating consequences of indecent and stressful employment experiences. The three component are;

a. Employment relationship uncertainty

This pillar is concerned with uncertainty of the precariat over job security or future employment, as well as over the terms and conditions of employment. This component includes three subcomponents such as employment fragility, employment uncertainty and scheduling uncertainty. Employment fragility is the level of control over future employment and the frequency of renegotiation of employment terms and conditions. It assesses contract length and uncertainty over access to future employment and about whether the employer is going to pay or not. It considers agency workers, seasonal and fixed-term contract workers as atypical group working under precarious employment experiencing high job insecurity and are easily replaceable (Bosmans, Lewchuk, De Cuyper, Hardonk, Van Aerden and Vanroelen, 2017). The second subcomponent is earning uncertainty that is the level of control over future employment earnings. It entails the inability of the precariat to plan income in advance and the deficiency of social-security coverage like pension benefits, and leave entitlements. As reinforced by

Kalleberg and Vallas (2018); and Ncube (2017), temporary workers suffer from income insecurity and receive low wages and are not entitled to pension benefits. The last subcomponent is called scheduling for uncertainty that is control over work schedules. It entails problems faced in work-life balancing and insufficient notice to plan ahead one's work (Lewchuk and Dassinger, 2016). The model reveals that precarious employment make employees work on less regular and more unsocial times than permanent workers

b. Employment relationship effort-

This component explains the effort expended to remain employed, balancing the demands of multiple work locations and employers. It also includes the effort expended in recognition that future employment is based on the employer's constant evaluation of an employee's attitude and performance. The dimension has four subcomponents and the first one is the efforts to keeping employed that is the constant effort associated with the search for new jobs, the effort of maintaining a job, discrimination and in getting employment. This implies that precarious workers suffer high levels of anxiety over threat of arbitrary dismissal, victimisation and discrimination. The other subcomponent is constant evaluation effort and is related to performance measurement for securing employment continuity. It is argued that contingent workers tend to work extra hard in dangerous working environments, skip breaks and work through injuries and illness hoping to secure employment and to be confirmed into permanent status. The third and fourth subcomponents are multiple worksites effort and multiple employer effort which entail demands for the precariat to balance working at multiple locations, and unpaid travel hours. Multiple employers means changing employers frequently and facing conflicting cultures and demands from different employers at the same time (Lewchuk and Dassinger, 2016). The triadic nature of employment relationship renders workers vulnerable to exploitation and indecent working conditions.

c. Employment relationship support-

Employment relationship support concerns various forms of support an employee receives at the workplace from other work colleagues, supervisors, friends and family and also representative organisations like trade unions. The support is meant to deal with complexities, uncertainties and efforts. This dimension had three distinguished subcomponents which include union support. Precariousness limits workers right for workplace representation hence they also lack union coverage as compared to workers in standard employment. The second

subcomponent concerns support received from co-workers, families, friends and the communities surrounding the precariates. The precarious are vulnerable to indecent and unfair labour practices as they are discriminated from permanent workers and considered not real members of the organisation. For temporary workers, the employment relations is problematic hence support from friends and family and co-worker is vital as a coping strategy. As propounded by Lewchuk (2017), this support is lacking for precarious workers. The final subcomponent is household economic support which entails the general economic position of the household. The model states that temporary workers not only face low income and poor social protection challenges but are also inclined to live with together with people and families in such volatile and precarious employment conditions. This makes household economic support very fragile (Lewchuk et al, 2003).

An interaction of the three dimensions of the employment relations leads to employment strain which refers to the combination of high levels of uncertainty and effort (Lewchuk, Clark, de Wolff, and King, 2008). Non-standard employment situations are related to stressful worker experiences which affect the workers, families and communities. The challenges faced by workers under precarious employment like limited social protection and lack of fundamental workplace rights motivate the workers to adopt compensatory strategies. According to Lewchuk et al (2008), the precariate can adopt strategies to restore freedom, commitment and workplace justice to minimise health risks associated with contingent work and have an income to support the family and satisfy basic needs. The analysis by Lewchuk et al (2008) conceptualise employment strain as the combination of high employment uncertainties and high employment relationship effort which is a strong determinant of poor health and employee wellbeing, certainly when accompanied by low workplace support.

2.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The chapter managed to provide an in-depth insight into what literature holds for the challenges faced and survival strategies used by workers under precarious employment worldwide. Previous literature over dwelled more on understanding precarious employment as a concept without going as far as exploring the challenges that the precariate face, the implications of such challenges and nature of coping strategies that the workers adopt to deal with their precariousness within the Zimbabwean context. With the aid of key subheadings, this chapter managed to review vast literature from different schools of thoughts on the conceptualisation and forms work contracts aligned to precarious employment, conditions that fuelled precarious work in Zimbabwe, theoretical orientation for precarious employment, the challenges faced,

implications and the survival strategies used by workers under precarious employment. The next chapter will explain the conceptual framework which guides this study. The chapter also managed to outline the conceptual framework which informs the focus of this study in a bid to answer the research problem. The ESM was relevant in guiding this research since it encompasses several characteristics, forms and challenges of precarious employment. It was key also because it reveals survival strategies adopted by the precariat who is facing high job insecurity levels, inadequate workplace representation and limited social protection. Chapter 3 below provides the research methodology which entails the processes in which this study will be carried out and how the research problem is to be diagnosed.

CHAPTER 3 – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology has been defined by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:44) as “a systematic way of gathering data from a given population so as to understand a phenomenon and to generalise facts obtained from larger population.” In the same vein, Yin (2003) and Kothari (2004) views research methodology as the process or the way in which the research problem is to be diagnosed and systematically solved and it is a science of studying how the research shall be logically and scientifically done. One would define research methodology as a systematic way to solve a problem, it is essentially the procedure through which researchers describe, explain and predict phenomena. This chapter covers several steps adopted to provide logic on the choice of techniques and methods used in this research which includes the research approach, research design, sampling and sampling procedure, sample frame, sources of data and data collection instruments. The method of data presentation and analysis, delimitations and research ethics are also covered in this chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

In carrying out this study, the researcher employed qualitative research method which is an interpretive paradigm. Armstrong (2009:181) coined that, “qualitative research aims to generate insights into situations and behaviour so that the meaning of what is happening can be understood.” This implies that qualitative method is a leeway to have an objective ontology or a true picture of social reality as the phenomena is penetrated and interpreted in its natural setting. Kothari (2004) states that, qualitative research approach aims to discover human feelings, attitudes, perceptions and underlying motives of behaviours and reactions. Qualitative research approach has been used mainly because it affords the researcher flexibility to probe further and gain thick descriptive information pertaining experiences by precarious workers. It was ideal because the facts about challenges faced and survival strategies adopted by workers under precarious employment are deeply imbedded on personal experiences, perceptions, behaviours and feelings of human beings. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) propounded that, qualitative research method investigates things in their natural settings with the goal to make sense and interpret meanings of people to events. The challenges and survival strategies adopted by the precariates are essentially context-bound and the precariates themselves do not act logically hence through qualitative research approach, the interpretivist aims to understand and interpret everyday events, experiences and social structures and the values that people attached to the phenomena (Neuman, 2014).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Kumar (2011:198) defined a research design as “a plan for carrying out a research with the maximum control over the factors that may inhibit the credibility of the research results.” This means that a research design is a blueprint, a masterplan or a preparation of a conducive environment for collecting and analysing research findings in a superb way which deconstruct and chain justice to research problem. For the purpose of this research, the researcher employed the multiple case study design as it sought to establish the challenges faced and survival strategies used by workers under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The two selected organisations namely Border Timbers Limited and Chimanimani Hotel were used to represent the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe respectively. Cresswell (2014:97) states that “a multiple case study design explores a real life, contemporary bounded system or multiple bounded systems over time.” Hcssc-Biber and Leavy (2006) explain the meaning of a multiple case study as an extensive examination of a single issue or phenomenon but based on multiple cases or institutions which gives a contextual analysis of a series of events and their interactions.

Gustafsson (2017) propounded that when a study includes more than one single case, a multiple case study is needed as it seeks to understand the differences and similarities between the cases. Multiple case study enables the researcher to analyse the data both within each situation and across situations and are used to either augur contrasting results for expected results or either augur similar results in research (Yin, 2003). Interpretivists are not interested in predicting human behaviour, but rather interpret human understanding of individual experiences based on multiple realities and truths. Hence the researcher used the multiple case study to gain subjective reality tainted with practical experience to address the study phenomenon across two industries. Thus, multiple case study design enabled the researcher to interpret experiences, feelings and behaviours pertaining the challenges faced and the survival strategies adopted by workers under precarious employment. The evidence created from a multiple case study is deemed strongly reliable but they are discredited of being expensive and time consuming to implement (Baxter and Jack, 2008 cited in Gustafsson, 2017).

3.4 SAMPLING

According to Kumar (2011:193), sampling is “a practice of choosing little units from a larger group of population to become the framework of foretelling the occurrence of unidentified specific evidence, consequence from total population.” It refers to the process of selecting a group of subjects for a study in such a way that the selected individuals represent the larger

group from which they were selected from in order to obtain information regarding the phenomenon of interest (Youndi, 2006).

3.4.1 Sample Frame

A sample frame is the total population where the participants or a sample size is drawn from (Kothari, 2004). It is a list of elements from which a researcher can select a sample of the targeted study population, it helps in identifying the research participants. The sample frame of 1734 employees was used in this research. Of the 1734 sample frame, 1666 were workers from Border Timbers Limited while the remaining 68 were from Chimanimani Hotel. The researcher selected BTL and CH because they are the major players in the hospitality and agricultural industries in Chimanimani area to represent the industries under study.

3.4.2 Sample Size

A sample size is any subcategory of a chosen representative of the entire population, it is a group of subjects where information is obtained (Sounders, Lewis, and Thornhil, 2009). As indicated in Table1 (a) and (b), twenty (20) participants formed the sample size for each organisation, BTL and CH.

Table 1 (a): Target Sample Size for BTL

CATEGORY	SAMPLE FRAME	TARGET SAMPLE SIZE
Management	6	2
Human Resources	5	2
Workers Committee Members	6	2
Non-Managerial employees	1640	10
Trade Unionists	4	2
NEC for Agriculture	5	2
Total	1666	20

Source: BTL HR Report for 2019

The twenty participants consist of two management, two HR employees, two workers committee members, ten non-managerial employees, two trade unionists and two members from National Employment Council for agriculture industry herein called NEC Agriculture. The assumption behind the aforementioned participants was that it would truly represent precarious workers at BTL who were fragmented in different departments and exposed to different working conditions with diverging precarious employment experiences.

Table 1 (b): Target Sample Size for CH

CATEGORY	SAMPLE FRAME	TARGET SAMPLE SIZE
Management	3	2
Human Resources	2	2
Workers Committee Members	3	2
Non-Managerial employees	50	10
Trade Unionists	6	2
NEC for Hospitality	4	2
Total	68	20

Source: Chimanimani Hotel HR Report for 2019

The targeted twenty participants from Chimanimani Hotel consist of two management, two HR employees, two workers committee members, ten non-managerial employees, two trade unionist and two National Employment Council for Hospitality members herein called NEC Hospitality. It is believed that the aforementioned participants was a true representation of precarious workers at Chimanimani Hotel experiencing indecent working conditions.

3.4.3 Sampling Procedure

3.4.3 (a) Quota sampling and Convenience sampling

Quota sampling encompass the selection of several subgroups of the whole population to assemble a sample with accurately acknowledged characteristics which defines the entire population. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy, (2006), quota sampling ensures equal and proportionate representation of the subjects based on several traits like gender, educational qualifications, age and working tenure among others. In this study, the research selected participants with different ages, length of service, marital status, gender, academic qualifications and forms of employment contracts. After placing the participants into different categories based on demographic characteristics, the research used convenience sampling to select the targeted participants. Convenience sampling has been defined by Bryman (2012:201) as a sampling procedure that “gives attention to those participants who will be available to the participant during the time of research.” According to Cresswell (2014); and Kothari (2004), convenience sampling is a technique where population’s key elements are selected and included in the sample due to ease of access. Convenience sampling procedure has been used in this research to collect data from nineteen non-managerial workers from BTL and CH. This sampling procedure was most ideal in this study because precarious workers by their very definition, nature of their work and employment contracts are not permanently secure and not stationed in one workstation or employment. Thus, convenience sampling procedure helped

the researcher access and solicit data from the workers who were currently employed during the study period.

3.4.3(b) Purposive sampling

According to Gresswell and Clark (2011), purposive sampling is a sampling technique which affords the researcher's judgement as to select who can provide the best information based on professional judgement and personal knowledge to answer the problem under study. In support, Bryman (2012) define purposive sampling procedure as a deliberate process through the researcher identifies specific participants possessing rich knowledge, information and understanding to the phenomenon under study. The researcher used purposive sampling to select four management participants, four participants from human resource function and four workers committee members. The four trade union representatives and four NEC members were also purposively selected to provide vital evidence for the research phenomenon. This technique allowed the researcher to select participants with vast institutional memory for they are involved in the formulation, implementation and operations of policies, procedures and business strategy towards precarious employment in the selected organisations representing the agriculture and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe.

3.5 SOURCES OF DATA

Both primary and secondary sources of data were used in collecting data for this research.

3.5.1 Primary sources of data

Primary data is the original first-hand data that gives substantive meaning to the research phenomenon or problem. Kothari (2004) argued that, primary data is directly collected from the original sources and it is very reliable and free of being out dated. The researcher used primary data because it gave him much control to information collection as only relevant and required information will be gathered as compared to secondary sources where already published information restrict interaction with respondents. Primary data was collected directly through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion and questionnaires.

3.5.2 Secondary sources of data

Secondary data has been defined by Creswell and Clark (2011), as the data collected from already published sources such as reports, journals, books, census data, newspapers and other historical informational collected for other purposes other than the original use. Secondary data is key in research because it is easy to obtain and cost effective. The researcher used HRM reports, contractors' reports, safety and health meeting minutes, Works Council minutes, TPF reports among other secondary sources.

3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Cresswell (2014); and Babbie (2007), defines research instruments as the devices and tools designed to gather specific data and information in a bid to find causes and solutions to the research problem. For the purpose of this research, the researcher embraced questionnaires, interviews and the focus group discussion.

3.6.1 Open-ended Questionnaires

A questionnaire refers to a data collection instrument consisting of statements and questions where research participants are asked to respond to (Kothari, 2004). The researcher used the open ended questionnaire because it affords the participants to express their attitudes, feelings and beliefs towards a topic of interest. Kumar (2011) and Cooper and Schindler (2011) argued that an open ended questionnaire is most suitable for case studies and helpful in influencing real responses when answering; it has some degree of flexibility very helpful in finding the real truth. The questionnaire was developed and designed in line with research objectives, and research questions. The researcher administered the questionnaires asking unambiguous questions to the five non-managerial employees, one participant from NEC Agriculture and two management employees from BTL and also, to four non-managerial employees, two NEC participants and two management employees from CH. The instrument warranted anonymity of the participants which enabled the participants to clearly and fully express their objective views and experiences without fear of victimisation.

3.6.2 Semi-structured Interviews

The researcher employed semi-structured interviews to collect primary data pertaining precarious employment. Semi-structured interviews are a flexible data collection method of asking people issues related to their experiences and opinions through face to face interaction (Moriarty (2011). In the same vein, Cresswell (2014) define semi-structured interviews as a meeting between the interviewer (researcher) and the interviewee (participant) where the interviewer does not strictly follow the sequence of the questions, it is unstructured. The use of semi-structured interviews was very useful because they allowed an interaction between interviewer and interviewee and questions were modified to suit the line of enquiry, investigating hidden motives and interesting motives (Moriarty, 2011). The researcher employed semi-structured interviews to dig deeper in gathering information from two Trade Union members, two WC members and two HR employees from BTL. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted to gather information from two TU members, two WC members and two HR participants from CH.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussions

A focus group discussion is a form of qualitative research which involves gathering together people facing similar experiences and challenges to discuss a specific topic on interests. It seeks to ask questions about attitudes, behaviours, feelings, beliefs and opinions about the research phenomenon. According to Cresswell (2014), focus group discussion enables participants to talk and discuss freely with other members. Focus group discussions helps in gaining insights into people's shared understanding of everyday life and real work experiences around precarious work. This means that there is a strong fit between focus group and qualitative research approach employed in this research. The researcher conducted focus group discussion with five non-managerial employees from BTL and the five other non-managerial participants from CH which necessitated the establishment of challenges faced and the survival strategies used by employees to counter the challenges of precarious employment.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Data presentation and analysis is key for the researcher to draw up the findings, present and analysis data collected for the research study. The researcher used the multiple case study design with supplements of tables, texts, graphs and diagrams to present the research findings. The researcher adopted the thematic data analysis approach to analyse raw data collected. According to Braun and Clarke (2006: 79), thematic analysis is a qualitative analytic method for "identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data". It minimally find, organise and describe research data sets in rich detail (Bryman, 2012). Thematic approach was used in identifying themes within collected data and the researcher is also going to utilise the topic and objectives of the study in guiding the presentation of data. This is supported by Namey, Guest, Thairu and Johnson, (2008:138) who state that, "thematic moves beyond counting explicit words or phrases and focuses on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas." Thematic approach was used because it allowed the researcher to compare, compress and prescribe perplexing data in comprehensively so that the meaning and solutions to the research problem could be easily drawn (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Namey et al (2008) defines ethics as concerned with morals and up right behaviour. In research, ethics are concerned with the behaviour that is consistent with norms, principles, standards and values behaviour the research actors expect. It is very unethical to collect data from people and about people without respecting and taking care of some ethical concerns (Kumar, 2011). The following ethical issues were respected and upheld in carrying out this research;

3.8.1 Permission

The research sought written permission to conduct research from BTL and its contractors in order to ensure that it is a legal exercise and also to build confidence and eradicate fear from participants.

3.8.2 Confidentiality and privacy

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), confidentiality refers to handling information concerning participants in a professional and confidential manner to secure privacy and secrecy. The researcher assured that the private company information and names of participants are dealt with in strict confidence as to build trust and prevent victimisation.

3.8.3 Informed consent and voluntary participation

Before carrying out this study, the researcher had clearly informed and explained to the participants the main goals of the study which in this context were purely academic. Namey et al (2008) states that the principle of voluntary participation advocate that participants have freedom and the discretion to take part or withdraw from the study at any time. The researcher preserved the right for voluntary participation without coercion to attain information pertinent in this study.

3.8.4 Honest

The researcher had without bias presented, analysed and interpreted data and research findings without exaggeration.

3.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of Chapter 4 was to furnish a discussion on the justifications for the choice of the methodology used in this research. This study was an exploratory research design employing qualitative orientation with a multiple case study as an appropriate research strategy. Sampling procedure, sources of data, research instruments and the ethical considerations for this study have been highlighted. The next chapter will focus on the presentation and analysis of the research findings.

CHAPTER 4 – DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter offers a substantive explanation of key findings of the research achieved from the participants through semi-structured interviews and semi-structured questionnaires. The demographic characteristics and data gathered has been presented and explained using graphs, texts, descriptive tables and diagrams and the findings have been analysed using thematic analysis method.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION

This section presented the data collected by the researcher from sixteen participants from the BTL (agricultural industry) and fifteen participants from the CH (hospitality industry) pertaining issues around precarious employment.

4.2.1 Response Rate

Table 2 (a): Response Rate Summary for BTL

CATEGORY	Target Responses	Actual Responses	Variance	Response Rate (%)
Management	2	2	0	100%
Human Resources (HR)	2	2	0	100%
Workers Committee Members	2	2	0	100%
Non-Managerial employees	10	10	0	100%
Trade Unionists	2	2	0	100%
NEC for Agriculture	2	1	1	50%
Total	20	19	1	95%

Source: Field Research 2019

Table 2(a) shows that nineteen out of twenty targeted participants from BTL have participated in this study. The researcher managed to interview all the targeted two participants from TU, HR and WC. All the two participants from management, five non-managerial employees and one other participant from NEC managed to answer the questionnaires except for one participant from NEC Agriculture who did not return the questionnaire for she was away on business. Five participants from non-managerial employees managed to participate in the focus group discussion conducted at BTL. As indicated in table 2 (a), there is 95% response rate in the agricultural industry since nineteen participants out of the targeted twenty participants managed to participate in this research.

Table 2 (b): Response Rate Summary for CH

CATEGORY	Target Responses	Actual Responses	Variance	Response Rate (%)
Management	2	2	0	100%
Human Resources (HR)	2	2	0	100%
Workers Committee Members	2	2	0	100%
Non-Managerial employees	10	9	1	90%
Trade Unionists	2	2	0	100%
NEC for Hospitality	2	2	0	100%
Total	20	19	1	95%

Source: Field Research 2019

Initially, the researcher had targeted twenty participants from the CH which represents the hospitality industry. Of the twenty targeted population, the researcher managed to interview all participants HR, WC and trade union. The two management participants, two participants from NEC Hospitality and four non-managerial employees managed to respond to the questionnaires whilst one non-managerial participant did not return the questions due to personal reasons. Five other non-managerial employees managed to participate in the focus group discussion. Thus, nineteen participants out of the targeted twenty participants managed to participate in this study which gives an overall response rate of 95% for the CH as indicated in Table 2 (b).

4.2.2 Demographic Characteristics

Below are several tables illustrating the demographic characteristics of all sixteen participants from BTL and CH. The researcher used gender, age profile, marital status, salary range, length of service, type of contract and academic qualifications as demographic characteristics.

Table 3 (a): Demographic characteristics for BTL

Employee Descriptions	Gender		Age Profile				Marital Status		Salary Range				Length of Service			Type of Contract					Academic Qualifications										
	Male	Female	18-25 years	26-35 years	36-45 years	46-55 years	Over 55 years	Married	Single	\$0-\$200	\$201-\$400	\$401-\$600	\$601-\$800	Over \$800	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	Over 9 years	Fixed Period	Casual Work	Seasonal Work	GT/Attache	Part Time	Others	ZJC	O' Level	A' Level	Certificate/Diploma	Degree	Master's Degree	
Managerial Employees	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Human Resources	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Workers Committee Members	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	
Non-manual Employees	5	5	2	2	2	2	2	5	5	4	5	1	0	0	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	4	2	1	1	2	0	
Trade Unionists	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	
N.E.C for Agriculture	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	
Total	10	9	3	6	4	4	2	11	8	5	7	2	2	3	6	3	5	5	6	3	3	3	1	3	5	4	1	3	5	1	
Grand Total	19		19				19		19				19			19					19										

Table 3 (b): Demographic characteristics for CH

Employee Descriptions	Gender		Age Profile				Marital Status		Salary Range				Length of Service			Type of Contract					Academic Qualifications										
	Male	Female	18-25 years	26-35 years	36-45 years	46-55 years	Over 55 years	Married	Single	\$0-\$200	\$201-\$400	\$401-\$600	\$601-\$800	Over \$800	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	Over 9 years	Fixed Period	Casual Work	Seasonal Work	GT/Attache	Part Time	Others	ZJC	O' Level	A' Level	Certificate/Diploma	Degree	Master's Degree	
Managerial Employees	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Human Resources	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	
Workers Committee Members	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	
Non-manual employees	4	5	2	2	2	1	2	5	4	3	4	2	0	0	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	
Trade Unionists	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	
N.E.C for Hospitality	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	
Total	9	10	3	6	5	3	2	10	9	3	5	6	2	3	5	5	5	4	3	4	5	3	1	3	2	5	4	5	2	1	
Grand Total	19		19				19		19				19			19					19										

Source: Field Research Findings (2019)

4.2.2 (a) Gender

Border Timbers Limited

As indicated in Table 3(a), there were ten male participants and nine female participants from BTL (agricultural industry). Of the ten male participants, one was from management, one from HR, one from WC, five from non-managerial employees, one from trade union and the other one from NEC. Among the nine female participants, one was from management, one from HR, one from WC, five from non-managerial employees and one was from NEC.

Chimanimani Hotel

Nine out of nineteen participants from CH (hospitality industry) were male and the remaining ten were female. The nine male participants was made up of one participant from management, one from HR, one from WC, four from non-managerial employees, one trade union member and one NEC participant. Of the ten female participants, one was from management, one from HR, one from WC, five from non-managerial employees, one from trade union and one from worker's committee.

4.2.2 (b) Age Profile

Border Timbers Limited

In relation to the age profile of BTL participants, the Table 3(a) above shows that from the two management employees who participated in this research, one was between 26-35 years and the other one was aged between 46-55. One HR participant was between the age of 18-25 years and the other one was between 36-345 years of age. For WC members, one was between 26-35 years while the other was aged between 36-45 years. Of the ten non-managerial employees, two were aged 18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and over 55 years respectively. One participant from trade union was aged between 26-35 years and the other participant was aged between 46-55 years. One participant from NEC was aged between 26-35 years.

Chimanimani Hotel

On the management employees, one was between 26-35 years and the other one was in the range of 46-55 years. Of the two human resources participants, one was between 26-35 years and the other one between 36-45 years. One worker's committee member was aged between 26-35 while the other one falls between 46-55 years. On non-managerial employees category, 2 were above 55 years, one falls between 46-5 years, two were between 36-45 years, the other two were between 26-35 years of age and the last two were aged between 18-25 years for CH. Of the two trade union participants, one was aged between 26-35 years and the other was aged

in the range of 36-45 years. One WC participant was aged between 18-25 years while the other was aged between 36-45 years.

4.2.2 (c) Marital Status

Border Timbers Limited

The demographic data in Table 3(a) revealed that there were eleven married and eight single participants from BTL. Of the eleven married participants, one was from management, one from HR, two from WC, five were from non-managerial employees, and two from trade unions. For those who were single, one was from management, one from HR, five from non-managerial employees and one from NEC.

Chimanimani Hotel

As illustrated in Table 3(b) above, ten participants from CH were married whilst seven other participants were single. Of the married employees, one was from management, one from HR, one from WC, five from non-managerial employees, one from trade union and one from NEC. Among the nine single participants, one was from the management, one was from HR, one from WC, four from non-managerial employees, one from trade union and one was from NEC.

4.2.2 (d) Salary Range

Border Timbers Limited

As indicated in Table 3(a) above, one participant from WC, and four non-managerial employees are paid a salary between \$0-\$200 per month. One participant from HR, one from WC, five non-managerial employees are waged between \$201-\$400. One non-managerial participant and the other participant from TU were paid a salary between \$401-\$600. One management participant and one HR participant were paid between \$601-\$800. Out of the nineteen research participants, only three were paid above \$800 and these were one participant from management, one from TU and one from NEC.

Chimanimani Hotel

At CH, one management participant's salary range is \$401-\$600 and the other one is paid over \$800 per-month. One of the two HR participants is paid a salary between \$401-\$600 and the other one is paid between \$601-\$800 per month. One WC member get a salary between \$201-\$400 per month and the other one is paid between \$401-\$600 as monthly salary. Three non-managerial employees receive a monthly salary between \$0-\$200, the other four are paid between \$201-\$400 per month and the other two are paid a salary of ranging between \$401-\$600. One trade union participant was paid between \$601-\$800 and the other one was paid

above \$800 per month. Of the two WC members, one was paid a salary ranging between \$401-\$600 and the other one was paid above \$800.

4.2.2 (e) Length of Service

Border Timbers Limited

Table 3(a) above highlights that one management participant, one HR participant, one WC member, two non-managerial employees and one TU member have worked between 0-3 years. One participant from HR and two non-managerial employees have 4-6 years of service. One participant from management, three other participants from non-managerial employees and one participant from NEC have 7-9 years of working tenure. One WC member three non-managerial employees and one trade union member have worked for more than 9 years.

Chimanimani Hotel

Out of nineteen participants from CH, one HR participant, one WC member, two non-managerial employees and one trade union participant had 0-3 years of service. One managerial employee, one HR participant, two non-managerial employees and one NEC member had 4-6 years of service. One managerial employee, one WC member, two non-managerial employees, and one trade union participant had 7-9 years of service. One participant from HR, two non-managerial employees and one participant from NEC have worked more than 9 years.

4.2.2 (f) Type of Contract

Border Timbers Limited

The nineteen participants from BTL revealed that they have different types of employment contracts. One of the two participants from management indicated that he was a fixed period worker (FPW) and the other was under casual contract. One participant from HR was a FPW while the other one was a graduate trainee (GT)/student attaché. WC members indicated that one of them was under fixed term contract while the other was a seasonal worker. Two non-managerial employees were FPW's, two were casual workers, two were seasonal workers, two were GT/Student attaches, one was a part-timer and the last one indicated the other type of contract. One trade union member indicated and one participant from NEC indicated that they have the other types of contracts.

Chimanimani Hotel

As illustrated in Table 3(b) above, one management participant was under fixed term contract and the other one was under seasonal work contract. One of HR participants was a casual worker while the other indicated the other type of employment contract. One of the two WC members was under casual contract while the other was a seasonal worker. Of the nine non-

managerial employees, one was a fixed period worker, two were casual workers, two were seasonal employees, two were graduate trainees/student attaches, one was part-time worker and the last one indicated the other type of contract. One trade union participant had a Fixed Term contract while the other one had a seasonal contract. One participant from NEC was a GT/Student Attaché and the other one had the other type of employment contract.

4.2.2 (g) Academic Qualifications

Border Timbers Limited

Management participants had one person with a certificate/diploma and one with a degree. One participant from HR had a degree and the other participant had a master's degree. One WC member had Zimbabwe Junior Certificate (ZJC) and the other has completed ordinary (O') level. Among the ten non-managerial employees, four completed ZJC, two finished O' Level, one finished A' Level, one had a certificate/diploma and the last two have degrees. For the two trade union members, one had completed O' Level and the other one had a certificate/diploma. A participant from NEC holds a degree.

Chimanimani Hotel

It is indicated in Table 3(b) above that one of the management participants, one from HR, two from non-managerial employees and one from NEC had certificate/diploma. One other managerial employee and one non-managerial employee have degrees. One WC member, one non-managerial employee, one trade union member and one NEC participant have completed A' Level. One HR participant, one WC member, two non-managerial employees, and one trade unionist have completed O' Level. Two non-managerial employees completed ZJC and one other non-managerial employee had a master's degree.

4.2.3 Demystifying Precarious Employment

Under this theme, the researcher sought to ascertain various meanings of precarious employment as informed by real experiences from the participants in two selected industries.

Border Timbers Limited

The majority of research participants from the agricultural industry managed to define precarious employment as an insecure, dangerous, hazardous and an instrumental form of nonstandard work. Twelve participants from the BTL conceptualised precarious employment as the employ of temporary workers for permanent job positions but denying them access to fundamental employment rights and decent working conditions. One management participant stated that

“Precarious employment refers to temporary labour we employ to replace permanent employees like FPW’s, I can call it hire and fire.”

In the same vein, one non-managerial employee defined precarious employment as

“Employment which stretches to a fixed time frame but however lacks job security, entitlement to benefits and stability.”

Trade unionists from GAPWUZ aptly submitted that precarious employment is work which violates social justice and workplace democracy for employees where labour laws is weak to safeguard worker rights and employers treat labour as slavery.

Chimanimani Hotel

Fifteen participants from the Chimanimani Hotel defined precarious employment as temporary work which lacks social protection and has limited rights for workplace representation and positive OHS standards. One management participant demystified precarious employment as

“The type of employment that is dangerous, hazardous and risky for workers.”

Participants from NEC for Hospitality and Trade Union stated that precarious employment relates to the 3D jobs, the jobs which are dirty, dangerous and demanding which constitute worker suffering, exploitation and high insecurity and stress.

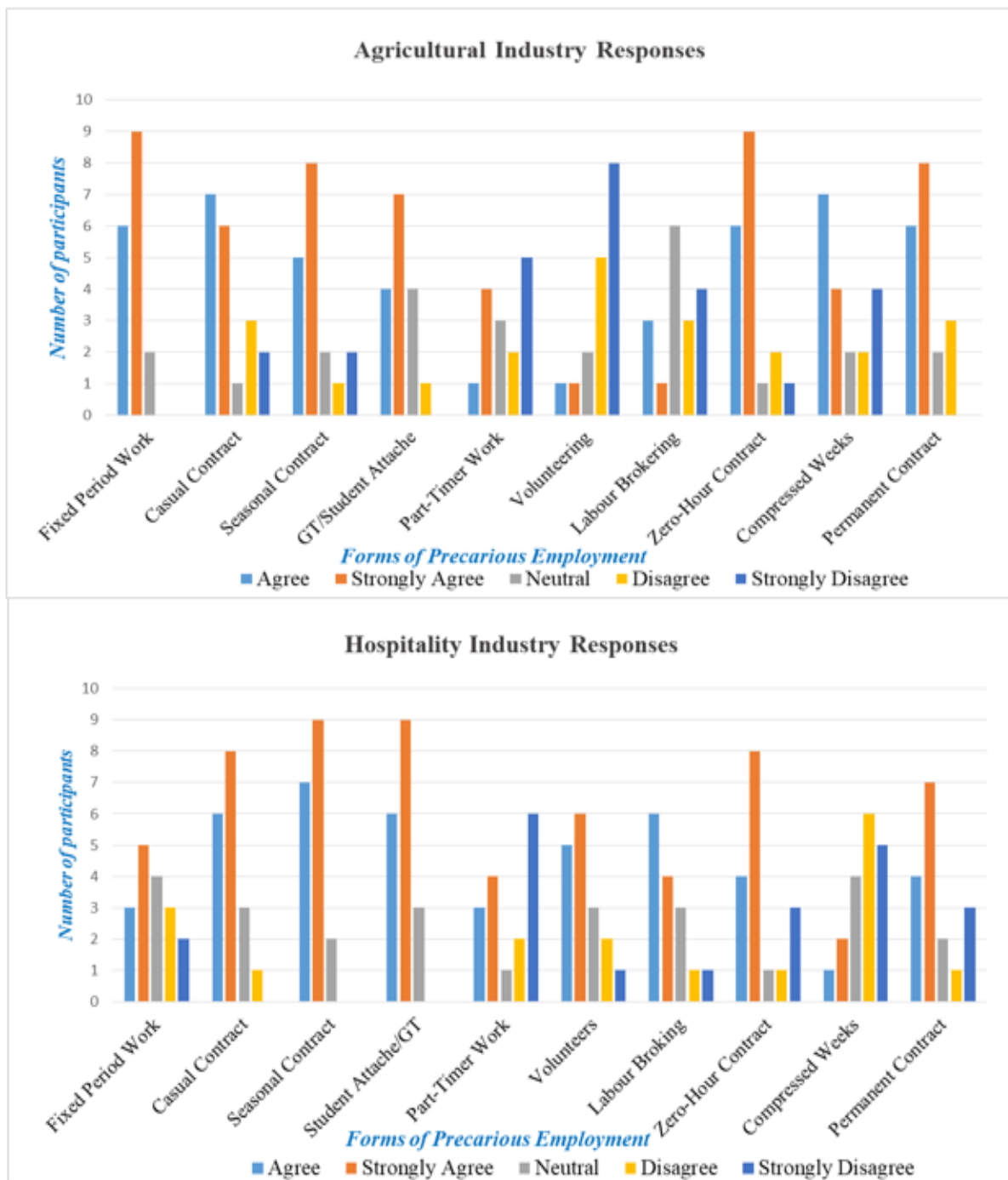
A more interesting definition has been proffered by participants from HR and WC who conceptualised precarious employment broadly to incorporate permanent employees as the most vulnerable typical atypical work. One HR participant from these aptly stated that,

“Precarious employment is indecent work which divorce both permanent and temporary workers right to social justice and workplace democracy. It cultivate stress due to unclear terms and working conditions. It is very low paying and lacks job security. So precarious employment is precarious, it defines itself.”

4.2.4 Forms of Employment Contracts associated with Precarious Employment

The motive of the researcher was to identify the different forms of employment contracts for precarious employment that exist in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe.

Fig4: Employment contracts associated with precarious employment at BTL and CH



Source: Research Findings 2019

4.2.4 (a) Fixed Period Work

Border Timbers Limited

The participants echoed that fixed period workers (FPW) is the prominent form of precarious employment at BTL. As indicated in Fig4 above, nine participants strongly agreed that FPW is a form of precarious work in their organisation. Five of the non-managerial employees agreed

that they are employed on a fixed term basis since 2018. One participant from the HR who strongly agreed stated that,

“We employ many FPWs because it helps in preventing legal consequences associated with casual workers which are regulated by the labour act. Currently, more than 60% of our staff compliment are FPWs with contracts renewable from one month up to one year period. We adopted the FPW model after massive retrenchments since 2015 because all the fixed period workers we have were once permanent employees here.”

In this regard, one informant from non-management revealed that,

“Since the adoption of outsourcing in 2015 my contract continues to be renewed as a FPW. They retrenched me and later on employed me not as a permanent worker claiming that it is costly to the company.”

One participant from NEC Agriculture said that,

“The timber industry has more than 80% temporary workers and some of them are on fixed period contracts and this is exacerbated by the lack of legal terms to regulate such contracts. But this is attributed to the nature of our business for employers cannot survive in this economic crisis with fixed labour costs.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Fig4 above illustrates that FPW is a form of precarious also experienced in the hospitality industry. Five participants strongly agree and one participant from TU agreed, that FPW is a form of precarious employment at CH. Participants from NEC indicated that FPW is not a prominent form of employment in the hospitality industry as it constitutes less than 20% of the industry’s workforce. One non-managerial employee with a fixed term period contract indicated that,

“I was first employed as a seasonal worker in December 2017, then my contract was changed to FPW in February 2018 and since then it is being renewed on three months basis.”

One management participant submitted that,

“I am employed as a fixed period worker and this is my fifth year. They always promise to change my employment status to permanent but I do not think it is possible.”

4.2.4 (b) Casual Work

Border Timbers Limited

Research findings indicated that casual workers are employed at BTL and as shown in Fig4, seven participants agreed while the other six participants strongly concurred that workers are also employed on casual basis. An informant from HR stated that,

“Due to the dynamics in the agriculture industry you can’t do away without labour casualization, we employ and renew contracts for years because they perform more than permanent workers.”

One participant from the management aptly underscored that he worked as a casual worker since 2016. The same respondent strongly said that,

“I was employed in February 2016 on casual basis and my contract has not been terminated to date, handizive kuti nei vakuru vasingandiitewo (I do not know why they do not want to make me) permanent.”

One participant from TU submitted that,

“As worker representatives, we have been challenging employers to do away with labour casualization which takes away employees’ rights, including the right to freedom of association, right to strike and right to fair labour standards for it is against workplace democracy and human dignity. But our efforts are failing because employers in the industry like BTL have no capacity to secure superb workplace standards due to liquidity crunch.”

Chimanimani Hotel

As indicated in Fig4 above, eight participants strongly agreed and six other participants agreed that casual work is a form of precarious employment in the hospitality industry. Four participants with casual contracts highlighted that their casual contracts are renewed continuously since March 2018. One participant from WC stated that,

“Many workers are employed as casuals and we have raised concerns at the joint works council meeting of June 2019 that we need our contracts to be changed to permanent status so that we enjoy the rights and benefits like other workers.”

A participant from HR propounded that,

“My contract keeps on renewed despite the law requirements that I should be confirmed permanent after six weeks in four consecutive months of working. I have tried to advise my employer but to no avail and now I am afraid to go to NEC and report because I might be fired.”

4.2.4 (c) Seasonal Work

Border Timbers Limited

eight participants strongly agreed while the other five agreed that the employ of workers on seasonal contracts is the norm in the agricultural industry in Zimbabwe. A participant from NEC Agriculture and trade union members argued that it is inevitable not to employ seasonal workers in the agriculture industry as this is necessitated by the industrial context and business. One participant from the HR said that,

“It is inevitable to employ seasonal workers due to the nature of our business, we do planting of trees, pruning, thinning, weeding, harvesting and sawmilling and this is cyclical so our HRP is flexible to accommodate labour fluctuations based on seasonal requirements in terms of manpower.”

This has been confirmed by two of the non-managerial employees who indicated that they are seasonal employees employed in December 2018 up to March 2019 for planting during the rainy season and they were re-engaged in April 2019 up to November 2019 for clearing fireguards. One of them echoed that,

“I was first given a four months contract only to plant seedlings of pine acquired from outside the country and I was given another contract for clearing fireguards in April 2019 ending November 2019 to prevent fire outbreaks.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Research indicated that seasonal work is one of the most prevalent forms of precarious work contracts in the hospitality industry as seven participants agreed and the other nine participants strongly agreed to the dominance of seasonal work at Chimanimani hotel. One participant from management who is a seasonal worker advocated that,

“I am a seasonal worker but as a company, we cannot do without seasonal workers due to the nature of our industry, we face high service demands during festive season like on Xmas so we employ seasonal workers to meet enhanced demand and dispose

the labour soon after the festive period. This is fair on the business case and I do not blame my employer for making me a seasonal worker.”

Two seasonal workers responded that they only get employed during festive seasons when there are many tourists flocking to Chimanimani resorts in areas like Bridal Veil, Outward Bound and also the visual effects of Cyclone Idai. This is in sync with the views from two trade unionists and two members from NEC for hospitality industry who added that seasonal work is a permanent feature of the tourism and hospitality sector. During the peak of festive season, the employers like CH engage seasonal workers to meet the increase in product demand as more tourists will be flocking to Zimbabwe.

4.2.4 (d) Graduate Traineeship and Student Attaches

Border Timbers Limited

Two of the non-managerial participants and one other participant from the HR indicated that they were employed as graduate trainees/student attaches. The three participants submitted that they started working at BTL in January 2019 in the maintenance and human resources department and their contracts will be terminated in December 2019 as they return to Mutare Polytechnic and Midlands State University. One respondent from the HR highlighted that,

“I am a student in the HR department currently pursuing my honours degree with MSU. It is a requirement from school that I should go for a one year work related learning to acquire practical experience and bridge the gap between theory and practice. This has more value and weight on my program.

One respondent from management emphasised that,

“The company used to employ student attachés only from universities like MSU and polytechnics but in May this year we have advertised looking for GTs to complement our teams with technical people.”

Members from TU and NEC Agriculture however concurred that the employ of students for work-related learning is not a bad idea, but the extent to which agricultural industry is employing students is an issue of concern because the students are discriminated, not represented and some are working on voluntary basis.

Chimanimani Hotel

The employ of graduate trainees and student attachés has been pointed out by nine participants who strongly agreed and six other participants who agreed that it is a form of employment

relationship aligned to precarious work at Chimanimani Hotel. Two participants from non-managerial employees indicated that they are GTs/student attachés with one year contract. One of the participants reiterated that,

“I am a student from Chinhoyi University, I was employed in January 2019 with a special contract as an attaché in the restaurant and my contract is ending in December this year.”

One other non-managerial participant stated that,

“I finished my degree program in Tourism and Hospitality at MSU in December 2015. I tried to look for a decent job but could not find one. At one point I started to sell potatoes and avocados but the return was too little. I then applied for a job at this hotel and was employed in October 2016 as a graduate trainee for two years but after the first two years the same contract was extended with another two years.”

One participant from NEC for Hospitality industry stated that,

“In every company in the hospitality industry, it is rare not to find a graduate trainee or students on attachment. Currently we have an average of 15 GT’s and attachés in every company in our industry and these students are employed as voluntary or cheap labour but they occupy permanent positions capacities.”

4.2.4 (e) Part-Time Work

Border Timbers Limited

One participant from non-management, two other participants from HR and two participants from management confirmed that BTL employs part-timers to do specific tasks. One participant from non-management stated that,

“I am a part time worker in this company, they always employ me to produce trollies and bogies for timber transfer and they pay me a fixed fee after negotiations and completion of those bogies.”

But five respondents from non-management strongly disputed the employ of part-time workers. In this regard, one respondent from the HR stated that usually part-timers are employed as specialist labour just for hours. The same respondent went on to state that,

“When the company purchased new finger-jointing and moulding machines we hired part-timers from South Africa to install the machines and train our staff but they don’t form part of our payroll.”

Chimanimani Hotel

four participants from the hospitality industry who strongly agreed and three other participants who agreed indicated that part-timers are employed as a form of precarious employment in hospitality industry. Of the seven participants, one confirmed that she is a part-time worker employed to train cooks and other workers for good public relations and quality service delivery. Two management participants highlighted that they also employ part-time workers to do hotel repairs and one of these participants stated that,

“Sometimes, our permanent workers with special skills in carpentry are employed as carpenters on part-time basis offering their services during lunch and their free time.”

4.2.4 (f) Volunteering

Border Timbers Limited

Eight respondents strongly disagreed that Border Timbers Limited employs volunteers. Respondents from HR reinforced that it is an unfair labour practice to employ volunteers without paying them any benefit. One of the HR participants said that,

“Our HR policy on recruitment and selection prohibit the employ of voluntary labour, it is deemed unjust. I think it is unethical and morally wrong to just employ someone, generate production but fail to remunerate that person especially under our Zimbabwean economic crisis.”

The same sentiments have been shared by one management participant who said that,

“As a company we are not a charity entity or an NGO so we don’t want volunteers we employ people that we pay something because also our jobs are very dangerous, anorwadza (are painful).”

Chimanimani Hotel

Evidence from the hospitality industry suggested that volunteering is a considered form of employment contract associated with precarious employment. Five participants agreed while six other participants strongly agreed that volunteering is part of precarious employment at Chimanimani Hotel. One non-managerial employee indicated that he has been employed as a volunteer due to the quest for working experience. The same participant indicated that,

“After finishing my degree in Tourism and Hospitality, I tried to find a job but I did not manage hence applied for voluntary employment so that I gain work experience with the hope that soon will get a job somewhere. The situation is painful and stressful because I do not get any reward or even transport allowance for my traveling to and from work.”

Members from NEC and TU reinforced that the hospitality industry employ voluntary labour and the majority of which comes from children who have just finished Ordinary Level or A level who await to go to universities. One trade unionist opined that,

“Many companies in our industry employ voluntary workers especially the disadvantaged children who have finished form four or sometimes those who finished tertiary education but failed to secure any employment. In my opinion, this is against humanity and even God and our ancestors are not happy about our culture of stinginess to share the little that we have with the need.”

4.2.4 (g) Labour Brokering

Border Timbers Limited

Three participants from the agricultural industry agreed and the other one strongly agreed that labour broking or temporary agency work does exist as a form atypical work at BTL. One non-managerial respondent highlighted that,

“I have an employment contract with Peace Security Company but I was deployed to offer security services here at Border Timbers. I am an employee of Peace Security and my conduct is governed by both the Peace Security and BTL code but my wage is paid by Peace Security.”

One participant from HR stated that,

“We adopt temporary agency work strategy in our HRM issues especially those related to labour disputes. We get legal services from Maunga Maanda and Honey & Blanckenberg on labour law and other corporate issues.”

One of the participants a non-managerial employee argued that she works under Masanga Timbers which is an agent providing sawmilling and forestry services to Border Timbers Limited. The same participant stated that,

“Personally do not have a contract with BTL, I work at a contractor who is paid lump-sum and deduct his revenue from my salary. It is very unfair because after deductions, I receive peanuts. I wish to join Border Timbers so that I access better working conditions.”

Chimanimani Hotel

In the hospitality industry, six participants agreed and the other four participants strongly agreed that at CH, labour broking is a prominent form of precarious work contract. One participant from the HR highlighted that they use HR consultants and labour brokers for recruitment and selection and for low-level workers like gardeners, and cleaners as supplied by independent contractors in Chimanimani.

One non-managerial employee stated that,

“I was recruited through labour broker and I am vulnerable to multiple exploitation. I do not enjoy same rights as enjoyed by workers of Chimanimani Hotel, I have low job security and have limited access to training. Over and above my duties, I work extra hours and during weekends for no overtime payment but I do not complain because I fear to lose my current job.”

One other participant from management propounded that,

“When there is high services demand we hire temporary agencies like Servicor Private Limited to provide food and catering services to our valued customers.”

4.2.4 (h) Zero-Hour Contracts

Border Timbers Limited

As illustrated in Fig4, six participants agreed and nine other participants strongly agreed that zero-hour contract in the new form of precarious employment in the agricultural industry. The participants indicated that many workers employed do not even know the exact working hours they should work per day and per month. One of the participants from non-management stated that, *“I was employed on 04 March 2019 and up to now I never signed the contract of employment, I do not even know my contractual working hours but my supervisor told me that I should be at work at 0630hrs.”*

NEC and TU participants indicated that many employees in agriculture industry are Working without employment contracts hence the violation of a legal prerequisite in section 12 of Labour

Act which requires employers to provide in writing the terms and conditions of employment including the working hours.

Chimanimani Hotel

Participants from the hospitality industry revealed that zero-hour contract exist as a form of non-standard work in their industry. Four participants agreed while the other eight participants strongly agreed that they do not know their legal working hour or any working hours agreed upon or stipulated in the employment contracts. One participant from HR stated that,

“The issue of zero-hour contracts is tropical, in this organisation even fixed workers, seasonal, casual and the permanent employees do not have clear starting time and work ending time. The working time is not indicated, if indicated by mistake like in my contract I work from 0700hrs to 1200hrs but I always work till 2200hrs on a daily basis.”

4.2.4 (i) Compressed Working Weeks

Border Timbers Limited

Seven agreed while two WC members and two HR participants strongly agreed that compressed working weeks is a form of non-standard employment in the agricultural industry. The participants indicated that during month-end they usually work at least 47.5 hours within three days so that they will be released to go to Mutare for shopping and to access banking services. One participant from WC stated that,

“According to our CBA, we are supposed to work 9.5 hours per day which means we should work 47.5 hours from Monday to Friday. But we usually negotiate with management to work more than 47.5 hours during day and nights from Monday to Wednesday so that we go to Mutare and rest a bit. Sometimes we are not allowed to leave even if we reach the weekly target within three or four days.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Four participants from non-management remained neutral while five other non-managerial participants and one participants from HR disagreed, the other two workers’ committee members, one HR participant and two management participants strongly disagreed that compressed working weeks is another form of marginal employment at Chimanimani Hotel. The employees argued that they work on busy schedules and the nature of their business prevent them from going for compressed working weeks. One management participant highlighted that,

“As we operate in the service sector, our business products and services are offered on a daily basis and we cannot store prepared food. We serve our customers with fresh and tasty meals so it is impossible to make employees compress their work week to fewer than normal working days.”

4.2.4 (j) Permanent Work

Border Timbers Limited

Two respondents from WC, one from NEC and two from TU agreed while six non-managerial employees, one participant from HR and one from management strongly agreed that permanent contract is part of precarious employment at BTL. One participant from management stated that, *“There is no difference between a casual worker and a permanent employee because the terms and conditions of work are just on paper but they all get low wages, we can fire them anytime through same processes.”*

One participant from HR provided ample testimony that,

“I was one employed as a permanent employee, when I was retrenched in 2015 through the Zuva case ndakaona kuti zvadirwa jecha (I realised that it has been poured sand), after serving a group of around 400 workers with notice letters I was last to be served. So permanent job is the most insecure and stressful status in this company.”

In the same vein, participants from TU and NEC argued that, in fact, workers under temporary contracts are more secure than those with a permanent status because it takes only three months' notice period and two weeks' salary to terminate and compensate permanent staff. They strongly agreed that all contracts in Zimbabwean industries are temporary contracts punctuated with insecurity, low wages and unclear terms and conditions of work and there is no more permanent work.

Chimanimani Hotel

Two participants from workers committee, one from TU and the other participant from NEC for hospitality industry agreed and aptly stated that temporary workers are better off than permanent employees, they are under higher level precarious employment. One of the WC members cited the song by Dr Oliver Mtukudzi stating that,

“Hakuna chisikwa chirinani kupinda chimwe (meaning there is no animal which is better than the other)’. I think as temporary workers we are now better off because we

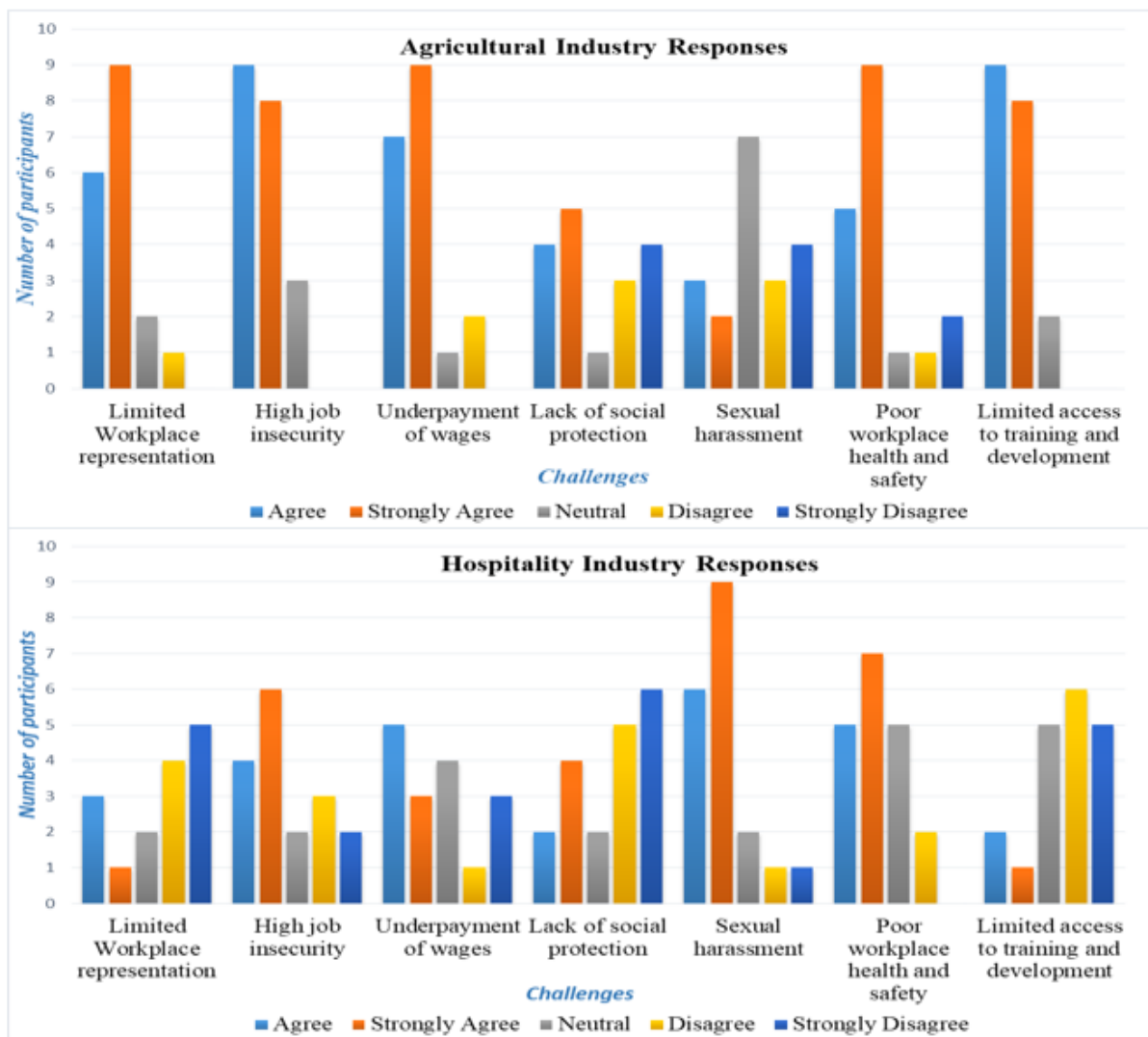
have accepted our situation and adopted several ways of living but for those in permanent employment their situation is very dangerous and stressing.”

In support, two management participants, three non-managerial employees and two HR participants strongly agreed and reiterated that there is no work for life in the current Zimbabwean crisis, permanent workers are considered a cost hence are in a precarious situation because they fear retrenchment. Participants from HR highlighted that permanent employees suffer from poor safety and health at workplace and are considered loyal as they sympathise with the company at the expense of their fundamental rights.

4.2.5 Challenges faced by Employees under Precarious Employment

The researcher wanted to establish the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH representing the two selected industries as presented in Fig5.

Fig5: Challenges faced by the precariates at BTL and CH



Source: Field Research Findings 2019

4.2.5 (a) Legal Framework Challenges

4.2.5 (a)(i) Limited Workplace Representation

Border Timbers Limited

Nine participants from non-management strongly agreed that they face limited representation at workplace. These participants argued that they work like slaves from Monday to Friday without being paid overtime and they are prohibited to go for vacation leave. One of the participants said that,

“I am not allowed to go for vacation leave they only allow me to go for unpaid leave so that they deduct short-time from my wage. Only permanent workers go to leave. I work like a slave. I have tried to get help from WC and trade union but things never changed since 2017.”

The same participants emphasised that they do not even know the role of WC. The two respondents from WC stated that employees prefer electing permanent workers to be workers committee members. One of these members with ZJC said that she has been elected as a WC representative but due to fear of her job, she witnesses abuse of employee right by management but remain silent. The same respondent went on to say that,

“I have a family to be looked after and I know of many who lost jobs for representing workers, this WC thing does not bring me food but only stress so anyone with a concern should go direct to HR.”

A trade unionist submitted that,

“Our union density has declined to below 20% in the agriculture industry because the majority of workers are temporary labour who do not want to join unions because they do not want to pay dues from their little income. These workers have no representation and we have facilitated the workers committee elections at BTL in February 2019 but no one was willing to elect a casual worker. So, workers in the industry are just free riders but they do not have any meaningful and sound representation in advancing their interests and protect their rights at work.”

Chimanimani Hotel

For the hospitality industry, five respondents strongly agreed and four other respondents agreed that they are well represented in terms of worker rights at the workplace. Five participants from non-management indicated that they have been involved in the WC elections and one of the

workers committee members is a seasonal worker. One workers committee respondent stated that their management gives them the opportunity to participate on workplace decisions which affect the terms and conditions of work like working hours, allowances and PPE. The same respondent revealed that,

“Our management tries to cover the gap between temporary and permanent workers so they have recently convened a works council meeting with us pertaining issues around including thirty dollars on workers’ wages for medical aid and hampers.”

Two participants from TU and two from NEC agreed that both employers and employees in the hospitality industry are against trade unions and at CH there is less than four employees subscribing to trade unions. They indicated that CH is just subscribing to the NEC because it is mandatory.

4.2.5 (a)(ii) High job insecurity levels

Border Timbers Limited

Research findings showed that high job insecurity is the greatest challenge faced in the agricultural industry. As illustrated in Fig5, eight of the participants strongly indicated and the other nine agreed that the fear for job termination is the cankerworm for their employment. Four other participants agreed they face high levels of job insecurity embedded in the nature of their atypical employment contracts. One fixed worker from non-managerial employees with ZJC gave her explanation as follows;

“I was employed for one month in March 2019 but my contract was terminated when Cyclone Idai disaster happened. Permanent employees were given off days and vacation leave but my contract was terminated instantly. I was latter employed in July 2019 and if anything happen again, I will be fired so I do not enjoy any job security because my contract requires a one day’s notice to terminate.”

Participants from HR, TU and NEC concurred that both temporary workers and permanent employees experience high job insecurity levels at BTL. The participant from TC stated that,

“Both permanent and temporary workers are under precarious employment suffering from heightened job insecurity in Zimbabwe, you can only pay two weeks’ salary to terminate permanent staff so workers are all equally unsecure. Job insecurity is the order of the day, at work and at home.”

Chimanimani Hotel

The findings from Chimanimani Hotel indicated that job insecurity is a challenge faced by the precariates as well. Six participants strongly agreed, and four other respondents agreed that as precariates they face high job insecurity levels. One non-managerial respondent with a diploma stated that,

“Of course I fear to lose my job because I do not have something else to do for a living. I have my education but I cannot find a job elsewhere if they fire me. I am doing Rese-Rese (any job) despite my academic qualifications because I do not have any option. I work extra hard to secure my job because my boss always threaten to fire me.”

A participant from WC with 0-3 years of service propounded that,

“The greatest challenge we are facing is job insecurity. I know that I am a temporary worker but my job insecurity level is high because I only left school at ZJC and I do not think that I will be employed somewhere if I lose my current job. I always work 24/7 without any reward only to safeguard my job.”

4.2.5 (a)(iii) Underpayment of wages

Border Timbers Limited

Seven participants agreed and nine other participants strongly agreed that workers under precarious employment are underpaid below the legally agreed remuneration. These participants argued that they are paid wages below those prescribed at the NEC or those stated in the CBA. One of the participants from WC indicated that,

“I joined this company in 2017 as A1 when the minimum wage for Forestry industry was \$150 but I was paid \$100, and now there is the new minimum wage of RTGS265 but I am receiving less than RTGS200 per month. My overtime is not being paid and when they pay it they calculate basing on their own wage. The employer have no mercy at all because when I do a B2 job, I receive the same wage.”

One participant from NEC and the other participants TU concurred that workers in the agricultural industry are underpaid despite working beyond eight hours per day. One TU member stated that,

“Employees are paid below the poverty datum line, we have tried to revise the wages from the minimum of \$150 to \$220 and now we are at \$265 but, more often, workers

are paid lower than that, both permanent and temporary which is very unfair in this turbulent times.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Eight participants from CH strongly disagreed that they are being underpaid by their employer while the other four participants disagreed to the fact that they are lower than the legally prescribed wages. One of the participants from non-managerial employees confirmed that, despite being a general worker, she receives 50% cost of living allowance on top of her monthly wage which is above the NEC gazetted wage. A participant from HR strongly stated that,

“Despite operating in the challenging economy, this company is paying fair and agreed wages timeously more than the wages agreed at collective bargaining agreement.”

4.2.5 (b) Socio-economic Challenges

4.2.5 (b)(i) Lack of Social Protection

Border Timbers Limited

Four participants agreed and five other participants strongly agreed that they lack social protection and this is one of the grave challenges they face as the precariates in the agricultural industry. Three non-managerial workers stated that they are not covered by medical aid which covers permanent employees. The same views have been reiterated by one management participant who revealed the following;

“There is very discriminatory limited social protection in this company, all permanent employees in management are covered by Steward Health Fund but I am not because I am a fixed period worker.”

A participant from HR stated that many permanent employees are covered by NSSA in terms of pension and accident because it is mandatory. But part-time workers and GT/Student attaches are not even registered with NSSA or company’s medical aid scheme.

Interesting to note was that four participants strongly disagreed and the other three disagreed that they face the challenge of lacking social protection. The notion from one non-managerial employees who strongly disagreed that lack of social protection has been expressed in the following explanation;

“I think the company is doing justice in terms of social protection because they provide free medical treatment at their clinic to all workers and there is a medical doctor who visit and help us, the company provide coffins for mahara (free) in death cases for the

workers and communities and they even provide us with free transport for funerals and to the hospital in cases on accidents.”

Chimanimani Hotel

In relation to the hospitality industry, six participants strongly demystified that they lack social protection. This has been reinforced by one other respondent from non-managerial employees who agreed that temporary workers enjoy social protection. The same participants indicated that they are registered with NSSA and the company has arranged to also include seasonal and casual workers in a private medical aid scheme.

A management participant who strongly agreed that the precariates in the hospitality industry also lack social protection however highlighted that,

“Due to limited workforce, we have employed temporary labour to manage our leave liability, so they do not go to leave during their stay at this hotel. We do not have our company clinic but we sometimes offer loans to treat workers not registered with NSSA. So temporary workers especially students and part-time workers are a disadvantaged group in terms of welfare benefits and social protection.”

4.2.5 (b)(ii) Sexual harassment

Border Timbers Limited

Four participants from BTL strongly disagreed while the other three participants disagreed that sexual harassment is part of the challenges faced by workers under precarious employment. In a joke, one management participant with 7-9 years of service laughed and said that,

“I have worked for many years in this company but I never had of any case or attempt of sexual harassment of any sort. I think this industry employs ugly people both male and women so that they do not feel or develop any sexual feeling for one another. When I look at organisations like Chimanimani Hotel I think they use beauty as part of their recruitment criteria which differs from us who use ugliness.”

However, three participants agreed and the other two participants strongly agreed including a participant from NEC and the two other participants from TU highlighted that workers under precarious employment at BTL and the entire industry are sexually abused and harassed by supervisors, HR staff and managers. This is caused by their prayer to secure their work and the cases are rarely reported because the workers do not know their workplace rights and their fear to lose their atypical jobs.

Chimanimani Hotel

Seven non-managerial employees and two workers committee members from CH strongly agreed and the other six participants submitted that the precariates are facing the challenge of sexual harassment in the hospitality industry from their supervisors, management and clients. One male participant opined that,

“I cannot disclose names but in June 2019 my boss forced me to have sex in her office so that I secure my contract, and I did not report that incident to anyone.”

One female respondent who is a GT/Student Attaché revealed that she is always subjected to unwelcome sexual abuse by her work supervisor who threaten to fail her if she refuses or expose the deviant acts to anyone.

4.2.5 (c) Occupational Health and Safety Challenges

4.2.5 (c)(i) High risk of poor workplace health and safety

Border Timbers Limited

As indicated in Fig 5, nine participants from the agricultural industry strongly confirmed that poor occupational health and safety is one of the major challenges they face as contingent workers. Four non-managerial participants concurred that they were asked to bring their own protective personal clothing to work and this is part of the recruitment pre-requisite for temporary labour. One of these participants narrated that,

“The HR asked us to bring our own work suits, safety shoes and hard hats and those who did not have were not employed.”

The nine participants strongly agreed and three other participants agreed that they suffer high risk of poor occupational health and safety exposed that they work in noisy environments, dusty areas and thorny thick forests without sufficient protective clothing. One participant from GT/Student Attaches category supported this notion saying that,

“The company bought new PPE for permanent employees only. As students we were told to ask from the school. But the schools do not provide so I am working without helmet and safety shoes and I don't have money to buy. Above all, I work from 0630hrs to 1900hrs which is too much.”

Participant from the HR highlighted that the company is crippled financially so they prioritise PPE for permanent workers but this has caused an increase of occupational accidents among temporary employees. The same views have been reiterated in the occupational health and

safety report of September 2019 for BTL which indicated that the only precariates were involved in the 12 recorded accidents.

Chimanimani Hotel

Poor occupational health and safety has been indicated by seven participants who strongly agreed and five other employees who agreed as one of the challenges faced by the precariates at CH. Minutes of works council meeting at CH showed more complaints from the precariates working more than eight hours per day hence suffer chronic stress. All participants who strongly agreed indicated that they get uniforms once per year but due to multiple hazards, the uniforms do not last long due to the job nature. One participant from the WC said that,

“We do not have a safety committee or a safety department to help us understand risks and hazards at work. There is no policy for OHS and we just work without any safety induction. When I get injured, I just take myself to the hospital at my personal cost.”

One participant who is a volunteer stated that,

“As a volunteer, it has been stated in my contract that I will provide my own PPE including even gloves. I always get injured but I use salt to treat my wounds because I cannot afford to visit the clinic. I am always stressed but I will continue to suffer from both ends because I do not have any other better option.”

4.2.5 (d) Empowerment and Benefits Challenges

4.2.5 (d)(i) Limited access to training and development

Border Timbers Limited

Research found out that precarious workers in the agricultural industry have limited access to training and developmental humanism. Eight participants strongly agreed while nine participants agreed that workers under non-standard employment have limited access to training and development in the agricultural industry. Eight of these participants argued that they never attended any training because their roles are considered too general. They indicated that they even lack on-the-job training hence cannot master their jobs due to ever-changing workstations. One of the ten participants stated that,

“I am a general hand so I just have knowledge on pulling logs at greenchain. This company favours permanent workers because they train them to be operators and restrict us on too general duties which does not require any sort of thinking and innovation.”

Chimanimani Hotel

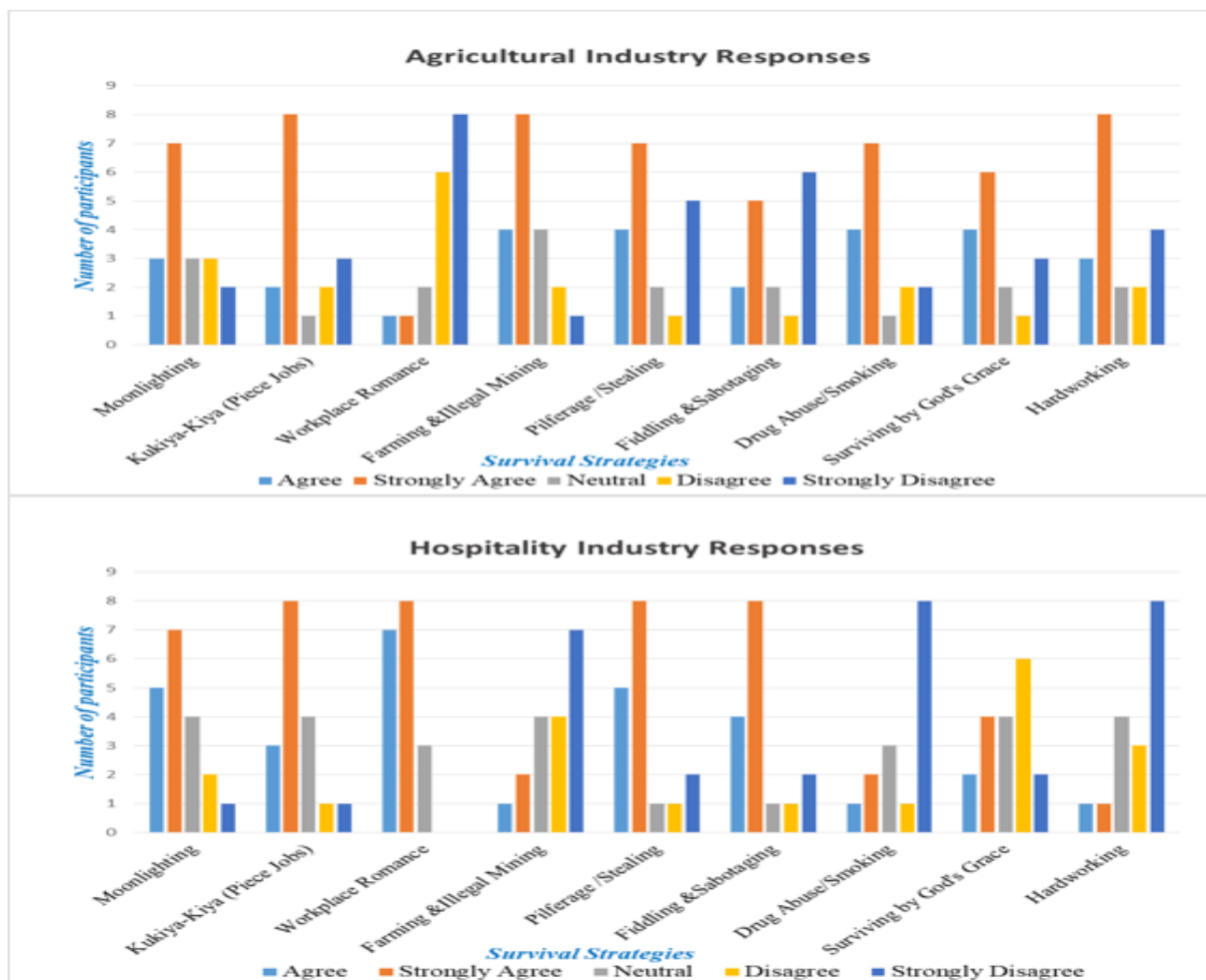
From CH, five non-managerial employees strongly indicated that they have access to training and development as cashiers, cooks and gardeners. Two management participants supported this suggestion arguing that all workers, permanent and temporary have access to training because of the need to achieve quality service delivery and gain a leverage. One participant from the HR submitted the notion that,

“Our competitive edge depends on the quality of services and products we offer which simply means that the workers who produce such superior services are the critical assets. So we train and develop all workers especially cooks and cleaners so that they deliver excellent services which helps in customer retention and productivity.”

4.2.6 Survival Strategies used by Precarious Employees

Under this theme, the researcher sought to investigate the survival strategies used by workers to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment in the two selected industries.

Fig6: Survival strategies used by precarious employees at BTL and CH



Source: Field Research Findings 2019

4.2.6 (a) Entrepreneurial Activities

4.2.6 (a)(i) Moonlighting

Border Timbers Limited

As indicated in Fig6, three participants agreed and seven other participants from BTL strongly agreed that they engage in moonlighting as a survival strategy amid the challenges of precarious employment. Six non-managerial participants confirmed that they keep chicken in company houses to earn a living. One of them stated that,

“I keep chicken in the company house and I rent out one room to my work colleague at RTGS20 per month so that I get extra income.”

A participant from the HR argued that temporary workers illegally connect and share free electricity in company houses despite the fact that they receive RTGS\$15 light allowance. The same participant pointed out that casual workers even charge electricity and rentals for their workmates.

Chimanimani Hotel

The above findings in Fig6 are similar to the experiences at Chimanimani Hotel as five participants agreed and the other seven strongly agreed that the precariates use moonlighting as a means for survival. Nine participants from non-management indicated that they sometimes put extra charges on meals to get money and they also sell perfumes and chickens during normal working hours. One participant from non-management testified that,

“I receive my low wage after every two months so I end up selling chickens, perfumes and airtime at work. Sometimes I put extra charges on meals and keep changes from clients to cushion my economic problems.”

4.2.6 (a)(ii) ‘Kukiya-Kiya’ (Piece Jobs)

Border Timbers Limited

Ten participants from BTL indicated that workers engage in piece jobs to debilitate the challenges of precarious employment. Two participants agreed whilst eight other participants from the agricultural industry strongly agreed that ‘kukiya-kiya’ is their survival strategy to counter the financial, social and other economic problems they face. One non-managerial participant argued that,

“During my free time I do maricho in weeding management farms and I sometimes wash clothing for cash.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Eight participants from CH strongly agreed and the other three submitted that *'kukiya-kiya'* is the norm for survival under non-standard employment. One participant from HR highlighted that the precariates receive low wages so, during weekends the hotel offers them piece jobs such as supplying and cutting firewood so that they gain extra income. The same participant indicated that,

"We have many workers with skills in carpentry welding and painting whom we give employ during their free time for extra rewards rather than hiring from outside."

4.2.6 (a)(iii) Farming and illegal mining

Border Timbers Limited

Facing the challenges of income insecurity, the precariate in the agricultural industry concurred that they do illegal mining and subsistence farming within the company estates. Eight participants strongly agreed and four employees agreed that they grow maize, beans and other crops so that they get enough food for they cannot afford to buy sufficient food to support their dependence due to the low wages they get. One participant from non-management explicitly stated that,

"I grow maize, beans and potatoes at the small portion in the compound, I usually sell potatoes to get more money. This saves me a lot because I only use my hardly earned wage for school fees and to buy few items for the family. Sometimes I even go to Mai Musanditere for gold mining."

The same views have been supported by one participant from management who indicated that the company acknowledges that precarious workers get low wages so the company has allocated land for ploughing to all workers and *ceteris paribus*, the company used to provide farming inputs for workers.

Chimanimani Hotel

However, only one of the participants from CH agreed and two other participant strongly agreed that they use farming as a survival strategy amid the challenges of precarious work in the hospitality industry. One participant from management reiterated that,

"Our workers are confined here, they work for more than 10 hours per day so they do not have any free time to do farming or gold panning. Some workers have absconded"

and started farming and mining but in relation to our current staff, none of them has time for that.”

4.2.6 (a)(iv) Workplace Romance

Border Timbers Limited

Research indicated that workplace romance is not dominant in the agricultural industry. Eight participants from non-managerial employees strongly disagreed, six other participants disagreed while the other two participants remained neutral to the view that as precariate they use workplace romance as a survival strategy.

One participant from NEC and one management participant indicated that workers under non-standard employment do not necessarily resort to workplace romance in the industry because there is an estimated 40% HIV affected workers hence the employees are afraid.

Chimanimani Hotel

Workplace romance has been found as a unique survival strategy used by precarious employees in the hospitality industry. Eight participants strongly agreed and seven other participants agreed that as atypical workers they engage in workplace relationships with sexual orientation. Four participants from non-management justifies that they exercise workplace romance to secure their jobs and enjoy favourable working conditions like permanent employees. One female student attaché/GT's revealed that,

“I engage in workplace romance to get extra income and to secure my internship with the hope to get employment in the future after completing my current studies.”

One participant from NEC stated that they have conducted an HIV/AIDS survey for the industry in 2019 and established that more than 35% of hotel employees are infected by the pandemic which is spreading rapidly due to workplace romance. The same respondent highlighted that three married couples out of ten families are terminated on a yearly basis as partners engage in the other secret workplace relationships with fellow employees, supervisors and managers as a means to secure employment.

4.2.6 (b) Counterproductive Workplace Behaviours

4.2.6 (b)(i) Pilferage and stealing

Border Timbers Limited

Research findings indicated that pilferage and stealing is a common survival strategy employed by the precariates in the agricultural industry to cope with the challenges brought by precarious working deficits. two management participants agreed in line with seven other participants who

strongly agreed that pilferage is used as a survival strategy by temporary workers to support their financial crisis and for the improvement of their living standards. One non-managerial participant suggested that,

“I receive RTGS\$265 per-month which is too little to sustain my two wives so given an opportunity I can steal to support my family needs.”

The same sentiments were supported by the BTL Loss Control report for February 2019 which indicated that five theft cases recorded for the month were aligned with temporary workers. Cited in the police report at Chimanimani ZRP, one casual worker once arrested narrated that;

“I always stole the nails from carpentry shop and sell to friends in town to get extra money and some I use to repair my cabin which has not been maintained by the company for years.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Fig6, indicated that eight participants strongly agreed while five other participants agreed that pilferage and stealing is prominently used as a survival strategy by atypical workers in the hospitality industry. Eight non-managerial employees indicated that they steal spices, utensils and other ingredients so that they provide food for their families. The WC participants indicated that the workers do not have ample time to engage in other cash generating activities like farming so they steal what is within the hotel to make ends meet. She went on to state that,

“We work here 24/7 so we do not have spare time to do farming or do other projects. So, the only option we have is stealing.”

One participant from TU remarked that,

“The hotel industry is not remunerating well so workers have no option than stealing from the employers so that the capitalists learn. At one point I was invited to represent a worker at CH for a theft misconduct, yes it was clear that the worker has committed an offense but the employer was to blame because the worker was trying to make ends meet. The wages are low, they are working like donkeys so obviously they steal, and this is a compensatory behaviour.”

4.2.6 (b)(ii) Fiddling and Sabotaging

Border Timbers Limited

Responses in Fig6 indicated that two participants agreed, five strongly agreed, one disagreed while the other six strongly disagreed that sabotaging and fiddling is the form of survival strategy used by the precariates at BTL. Five participants who strongly agreed opined the fact that poor working conditions and employment injustice motivate them into deliberate counterproductive behaviours like sabotaging and fiddling in the form of producing sub-standard goods and create machine breakdowns to enhance production downtime. One participant from management indicated that the employees tolerated everything management dictated and they do not even care of the consequences thereafter. The same participant revealed that,

“We are tired of customer complaints from big clients like Halsteds Timbers and from Botswana related to poor quality and this is caused by temporary workers.”

However, three respondents who strongly disagreed argued that their work is tightly monitored and they do not have opportunities to sabotage and fiddle. One of the respondents from WC stated that,

“Surely with employment crisis in Zimbabwe, as workers we are working so hard to secure our jobs, if you sabotage you will be disciplined and dismissed and it is the worker who lose out not the company.”

Chimanimani Hotel

Making reference to the hospitality industry, four participants agreed while the other eight strongly agreed that sabotaging, fiddling and escaping is one of the survival strategies they use to counter the effects and challenges of precarious work. Three participants who agreed indicated that they sometime serve unfinished food to clients hence a lot of complaints and poor service delivery. The eight participants who strongly agreed concurred that they also adopt escaping in the form of absenteeism and loafing to counter the challenges of indecent work practices at CH.

4.2.6 (b)(iii) Drug abuse and smoking

Border Timbers Limited

Research findings revealed that drug abuse and smoking is a common survival strategy used by the precariates in the agricultural industry in Zimbabwe. Faced with multiple challenges ranging from economic, financial and social spheres, seven participants strongly from BTL

agreed and the other four participants agreed that as the precariates, they engage in drug abuse and excessive smoking. One of the non-managerial employees who strongly agreed stated that,

“The work we do is very tiresome and dangerous, we are forced to work at dusty areas without proper PPE so to reduce stress I end up taking mbanje so that I do not think too much and I usually sleep in the beerhall Majembere drinking beer because I do not have my own accommodation.”

Chimanimani Hotel

In contrast, eight responses from non-managerial employees from CH strongly disagreed that they use drug abuse and smoking as a survival strategy to cope with the challenges of precarious working conditions in the hospitality industry. One participant from the HR highlighted that there are rare cases where they find people working under the influence of alcohol or any drug, that behaviour is not tolerated, it is a dismissible offense at CH.

4.2.6 (c) Spiritual Capital and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

4.2.6 (c)(i) Surviving by God’s Grace

Border Timbers Limited

Ten participants from the BTL indicated that the mushrooming of churches like Zimbabwe Assemblies of God Africa, Zion Christian Church, Seventh Day Adventist Church, Mugodhi among others at BTL is clear testimony that workers under precarious employment use the surviving by God’s grace strategy as a survival strategy. One non-managerial participant who claimed to be a prophet stated that,

“The large number of the congregants at my church are fixed term and casual workers who seek heavenly revelation and protection to secure their jobs. Dangerous jobs are a blessing in disguise they make people repent and seek Christ.”

Participants from management and HR highlighted that the challenges of precarious employment coupled with economic turmoil in Zimbabwe requires divine intervention. Atypical workers go to churches to reduce stress and get emotional support.

Chimanimani Hotel

The study findings for the hospitality industry in Fig6 suggested that surviving by God’s grace is not the widely used strategy to cope with the challenges of precarious employment. Six participants disagreed and the two participants from non-management strongly disagreed that going to church would solve their problems as the working poor. One of the participant opined that,

“I have tried to go to church with the hope that my situation would change but in response there was cyclone which swept away my property in Ngangu where I was renting a room. Instead of answering my problems as a precarious worker, my challenges have been worsened so I don’t believe in surviving by God’s grace anymore.”

Two management participants in the hospitality industry however strongly agreed that surviving by God’s grace is used to manage the challenges of precarious employment. The participants argued that they pray and believe that God is the solution to rescue them from their dangerous situation the same way He did to the Israelites from Egyptian bondage.

4.2.6 (c)(ii) Hardworking

Border Timbers Limited

Eight participants from the agricultural industry strongly concurred that workers under precarious employment tend to work extra hard to manage the challenges of non-standard work. One respondent from WC indicated that temporary workers tend to work extra hard than permanent because they want to secure their jobs. In the same vein, one management participant explicitly stated that,

“The precariate work very hard, they put extra effort to justify their relevance so that their contracts keep renewed.”

Chimanimani Hotel

In contrast, three non-managerial participants and eight other participants from WC, HR, TU, NEC and management argued that workers under precarious conditions are disengaged, they are low motivated and have low commitment hence they do not work extra hard because they are a disgruntled class. One participant from HR submitted that,

“Based on personal experiences and performance evaluations, the temporary workers are low performers. They do not go an extra mile but they adjust their efforts just to remain employed and not for productive purposes.”

4.2.7 Legal Frameworks on Precarious Employment in Zimbabwe

One of the researcher’s objectives was to examine the effectiveness of legal frameworks for precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe.

4.2.7 (a) Labour Act Chapter 28:01 and amendments

Border Timbers Limited

Six non-managerial participants, two participants from HR and one from management from BTL pointed out that the labour act and its amendments is a legal framework for precarious employment in Zimbabwe but employers are not adhering to its dictates. The employees indicated that the act is meant to advance social justice and democracy at workplace through preventing discrimination, allowing workers to form workers committees and participate in decisions that affect their working lives. One workers committee representative said that,

“As workers we have important rights enshrined in the labour act and it is clear that as workers we should be treated equally. But the employers usually deviate from the labour act, they threaten temporary workers to join trade unions and we do not even subscribe to any union. We are not allowed to strike and advance our rights and interests so the labour act is just like a toilet paper in my view.”

One participant from TU submitted that,

“The amendment of section 12C of the Act made all jobs precarious in Zimbabwe. The Amendment Act 15/2015 made employers the biggest winners because it is now easy and cheap to terminate employment on notice through retrenchment and pay peanuts or even not to pay anything if exempted. So, employers are adhering to these provisions but they are detrimental to decent work environment at BTL in particular. The company has retrenched more than 1500 employees from 2015 after Zuva judgement so there is need to revisit the Act.”

Participants from the HR and NEC highlighted that labour act provides the basis for fair labour standards, it seeks to ensure that all employees, including casual, seasonal and permanent employees are treated with integrity. These participants emphasised that the Act grant every worker freedom of association, right to strike and good faith negotiation in collective bargaining for improved working conditions but in most instances, this is a mirage under precarious work.

One participant from TU and the other from NEC stated that, the Act is a vital instrument to protect workers against precarious working conditions. The participants said that the minimum wage for the timber industry is RTGS265 and BTL is adhering to the CBA gazetted wage and

as a compliment, the company is paying 27% on top of the minimum wage to all its employees to cushion the cost of living in this precarious economy.

Chimanimani Hotel

One participant from HR stated that the labour act is the most vital instrument to regulate precarious employment in Zimbabwe but in application, there is limited compliance and it is ineffective in the hospitality industry. The same participant went on to state that,

“Our labour act was developed in 1985 soon after independence so as to promote democracy in the employment relationship. It has been amended many times in 1992, 2002, and 2005 and in 2015 as a way to promote decent work, protect fundamental employee rights and to regulate precarious employment. It is my belief that, without this act, we could have been witnessing workplace colonisation, brutal treatment and forced labour in the employment relationship so the labour act is a vital framework. But the problem is that many of the provisions in the act are just prescriptions which are not applied in practice. Like working 8 hours, provision of PPE to all workers and paying a reasonable wage is not being adhered to in this company.”

Five participants from non-managerial employees and two management employees reinforced the fact that the labour act has been developed with the capitalist agenda of promoting smooth exploitation of the precariates. These participants emphasised that labour act is more reactive because after the Zuva judgement in 2015 it has been revised but the revisions in Amendment number 5 of 2015 fuel termination and suffering of temporary labour and more importantly it has created permanent work a form of precarious work in Zimbabwe.

4.2.7 (b) Employment Codes of Conduct

Border Timbers Limited

Fourteen participants from the agricultural industry strongly disagreed that the BTL code of conduct is an instrument to manage the implications of precarious. But rather it is a legal framework to promote the suffering of many. A participant from HR stated that the code of conduct is meant to foster positive behaviour at the workplace and prevent the rise of deviant behaviour especially by workers under precarious employment. One participant from WC indicated that,

“We use the BTL Code of conduct of 2000 in handling disciplinary cases and grievances but temporary workers are dismissed willy-nilly even for petty cases. Everyone is afraid because our code is actually the riot act.”

Participants from TU argued that the motive behind the employment codes including the BTL code of conduct is to advance discipline and democracy at the workplace but the problem is on the application and administration of the code. In many cases, the code is applied discriminatorily between managerial employees and non-managerial workers and sometimes it is used to punish instead of correcting human behaviours. At the end of the day, the majority of workers under precarious employment are dismissed without equal protection by the same code.

Chimanimani Hotel

Evidence from the hospitality industry indicated that Chimanimani Hotel has no company code so they apply the model code for precarious employment. A participant from HR stated that they use the SI15 of 2006 to manage workplace conflicts through disciplinary cases but all misconducts are dismissible offenses. One WC representative highlighted that,

“Our disciplinary hearings are handled through the national code of conduct but when temporary workers commit misconducts, they are forced to resign without a proper hearing and if one of us is lucky to go for the hearing, there is no proper notification and they do not allow us to have any form of representation. I think the code is not even effective in protecting our rights as temporary workers.”

4.2.7 (c) National Social Security Authority Act

Border Timbers Limited

NSSA is a statutory corporation constituted and established in terms of the NSSA Act of 1989, Chapter 17:04 to provide social security to workers in Zimbabwe. It institute public policy measures intended to protect workers from workplace accidents, injuries, unemployment and retirement benefits. In relation to the research findings, all part-timers, students and seasonal workers from the agricultural industry indicated that they are not registered with NSSA hence they do not make contributions. One participant from non-managerial employees stated that,

“I work on part-time basis and I sometimes work one week a month so I receive my fixed money without any deduction, it is contractual. I just heard about NSSA but I do not really know its function.”

Chimanimani Hotel

One non-managerial participant who is a GT/Student Attaché from the hospitality industry reiterated that as students they receive monthly allowances and they do not make any statutory contributions to NSSA. Four non-managerial respondents indicated that they work under poor

working conditions, the get injured and work without proper PPE but NSSA is not even active to address their plights. One of the participant stated that,

“I don’t receive a payslip so in May 2019 I got injured. I thought I was registered with NSSA but when I went there to get assistance they refuse to help me because I am not registered. I asked them to liaise with my employer so that I get medication attention but they just ignored and left me stranded.”

4.2.7 (d) ILO Provisions

Border Timbers Limited

In relation to the standards and provisions of International Labour Organisation, eleven participants within the agricultural industry concurred that that they do not know what ILO is and what it is meant for. These participants explicitly indicated that they never heard about ILO conventions and the decent work agenda. Two participants from HR however indicated they partly know ILO in terms of health and safety provisions but there is no alignment of its provisions with the concerns and challenges faced by the precariates in the agriculture industry.

One of the management participants reiterated that,

“I know there are ILO international standards that govern the employment relations but our challenge is that we can’t talk of ILO before talking of our own labour laws. It is impossible to claim that those international standards and policies are applicable and effective in this industry. There is a disjunction between already existing templates and the ILO and what is on the ground.”

A participant from NEC reinforced that they have not fully implemented the provisions for decent work and fair labour standards prescribed in the ILO conventions and articles in the industry policies and CBA due to limited resources, financial crisis and compromised social dialogue among actors in the industry.

Chimanimani Hotel

Out of nineteen participants from the hospitality industry, only two participants from HR, two from TU and two from NEC indicated that they know that there are international standards and provisions provided by ILO to govern decent work in the world. However, they all disputed that the decent work agenda and other ILO conventions are effective in addressing the concerns and challenges faced by workers under precarious employment in the hospitality industry in Zimbabwe.

One respondent from HR submitted that,

“I don’t think ILO provisions are relevant, because they are usually only templates which lacks enforcement. Publications by ILO are just theories which lacks practical experience and our workers don’t have access to internet so they don’t even know the role or nature of ILO.”

4.3 DATA ANALYSIS

This section provide an analysis of the key findings of the research presented above. The data has been analysed using thematic analysis method in accordance with the outline of themes and research objectives.

4.3.1 Response Rate

The researcher conducted interviews with HR participants, WC members and trade union representatives, and distributed the questionnaires to managerial employees and to members from the NECs. The focus group discussions were used to gather information from non-managerial employees. The response rate of 95% from BTL and 95% from CH reflects how interested the targeted participants were to deconstruct issues around the legal frameworks, challenges faced and survival strategies used by the precariates in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. Morton, Bandara, Robinson and Atatoa Carr (2012) state that studies with response rate lower than 54% are less accurate than those with higher response rate. Miniwatts Marketing Group (2016) and Bryman (2012) asserted that any response rate above 50% can bring valid and reliable data in a qualitative study hence the response rate in this study was most appropriate.

4.3.2 Demographic Characteristics

New Mexico Department of Health (2019) defines demographics as classified characteristics of a given population and these characteristics include age, gender, race, educational attainment, marital status and income level. This is in line with Salkind (2010) who postulated that the term demographics implies certain characteristics that distinguishes a particular population and the work is derived from the Greek words *demos* (for people) and *graphy* (description). Demographic information provides ample data concerning the participants which helps to determine whether the targeted sample size is a true representation of the entire sample frame for generalisations reasons. According to Salkind (2010), demographics are independent variables which cannot be manipulated.

4.3.2 (a) Gender

The findings indicated that the researcher targeted to achieve gender balance among the participants though one female participant from BTL who was away on business and the other female participant from CH could not make it due to personal reasons. This has been emphasised by Musara (2018) who stated that a gender balance is a powerful strategy to gather vast information, deconstruct and see new things. Voscko (2010) explored the relationship between gender and temporary work, poor working conditions in order to establish how and why precarious work has become so highly feminised. The research therefore incorporated multiple gender responses, views and opinions tainted by practical experiences with the feminine and masculine flavour on issues around precarious employment. This has also been supported by Kalleberg and Vallas (2018) who stated that the experiences and exposure of precarious work is itself gendered, in that the powerless position of workers under non-standard work takes a toll on women, rendering them especially vulnerable to sexual harassment and other forms of deregulating treatment.

4.3.2 (b) Age Profile

There is worker diversity in the agricultural and hospitality industries hence the researcher purposively selected participants from different age groups as a true reflection of experiences concerning the challenges and survival strategies by workers under precarious employment. Kalleberg and Vallas (2018:16) stated that age “is an important demographic characteristic that is correlated with precarious work.” Selecting participants by age helped the researcher in obtaining objective truth and various responses from all age groups and how they perceive indecent work in line with the descriptive research design.

4.2.2 (c) Marital Status

It has been suggested by Lewchuk et al (2003) in the ESM that the challenges of precarious work and survival strategies used to cope differs with marital status. For single people, they may fail to marry and plan for the future due to the strains caused by atypical work. For the married couples, the social demands force them to work under precarious conditions and high life demands would define the forms of survival strategies they use. Thus, Evans, Wills, Datta, Herbert, McIlwaine and May (2006) indicated that young people, women and single workers are more likely to take low paid temporary jobs in the service sector and manufacturing sector through agencies to avoid unemployment. So, the use of marital status was vital in this study.

4.3.2 (d) *Salary Range*

The study results showed that the researcher used various participants with different salaries, this according to Spector and Fox (2002) help one to get in-depth views on how issues around income insecurity can shape the reaction of the precariate and help deconstruct issues around segregation and wage discrimination on precarious work. Ncube (2017); Lewchuk (2017); and Vosko (2010), emphasised that the precariates are subject to discriminatory low wages hence the researcher used the salary range to gather pertinent information as far as income insecurity is concerned. Inequality in social status and income is at its peak not only between countries but also within countries and their organisations.

4.3.2 (e) *Length of Service*

Research findings provides that workers of different working tenure from both the agricultural and hospitality industries participated in this research in order to expose real challenges they face as informed by practical experiences over time. This was key to explain concerns of the precariates in relation to job and employment insecurity and subjection to poor workplace democracy and employment justice. Kalleberg (2009) highlighted that most of atypical workers serve for few years in one company, they are highly mobile and easily disposed. LEDRIZ (2014) then indicated that in Zimbabwean companies, the pecariates worked for years under exploitative conditions without being confirmed into permanent status.

4.3.2 (f) *Type of contract*

As indicated in Table 4 (a) and (b), participants from multiple case studies have different forms of employment contracts. This use of various forms of precarious work has been supported by Xhafa (2015) who indicated that there are several forms of precarious employment such as seasonal work, fixed-term, part-time and temporary agency work which should be known to better explain the issues around non-standard work. The researcher targeted participants with different contracts in order to capture the feelings, emotions, behaviours and experiences of all forms of precarious employment.

4.3.2 (g) *Academic Qualifications*

The employment strain model indicated that the effects of decent work deficits affect atypical workers differently depending on the level of education. Thus, the researcher approached participants with multiple academic qualifications to investigate the challenges and survival strategies they use amidst precarious employment. ILO (2018) indicated that people with low educational qualifications are more vulnerable to discrimination, exploitation and other decent work deficits. In another hand, Ncube (2017) suggested that in the 21st Century, precarious

employment has extended to include highly educated people who work in dirty, dangerous and demeaning (3D) jobs due to high unemployment rate, unprecedented inflation and high socio-economic demands.

4.3.3 Demystifying Precarious Employment

The definitions given by 90% of the participants from the agricultural and hospitality industries reflected that they understand the meaning of precarious employment concept. The participants commonly demystified precarious employment as non-standard employment which is dangerous and deviates from decent working standards embedded upon the achievement of social justice and workplace democracy. The notions are in sync with the Ncube (2017); Standing (2011); Kalleberg (2009); and Duell (2004) who defined precarious employment as a variety of forms of employment established below socially accepted normative standards which generates labour segregation, and job insecurity. In the same vein, ILO (2012) stated that there is no universal definition of precarious employment but the concept implies multiple employment relations which deny employees social protection and representation for workplace rights. The precariat differs from a denizen, because they lack employment identity and security. This suggests that precarious employment is the real norm of capitalism implying the working arrangement which is insecure, uncertain, risky and dangerous for both temporary and permanent employees. It is an employment relationship which is far below socially preferred norms that violate fundamental worker rights, offers low wages and deviates from the principles of natural or social justice.

4.3.4 Forms of Employment Contracts associated with Precarious Employment

4.3.4 (a) Fixed Period Work

The research findings indicated that FPW is a universal form of precarious employment for the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The majority of respondents from both industries argued that they were employed as fixed period workers and this has been supported by Ncube (2017) who studied about precarious employment in the hospitality industry. He established that FPWs are employed to supplement permanent staff to increase productivity. Makwavarara (2004) reinforced the research findings with the evidence that the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe have shifted from standard employment to part-time and fixed-term contracts which brings dirty working conditions. In the case of *Tobacco Processors Zimbabwe v Mutasa and others LH/H/242/2019* it was held that fixed-term working is a form of precarious employment which lacks job security but workers should be subject to fair labour standards. As indicated in section 12(2) (b) of the principle Act, one can argue that

FPW is a form of precarious employment which expires automatically upon effluxion of stipulated period and an employer can renew the contract as many time as possible for it is not specifically regulated by any of the labour laws in Zimbabwe.

4.3.4 (b) *Casual Work*

It can be drawn from the research findings that labour casualization forms a critical component of precarious employment for both the hospitality and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe. The above evidence indicated that the contracts of casual workers are continuously renewed for years which is clear deviation from country's labour laws and fair labour standards. ILO (2016) stated that in Zimbabwe, one of three employees is a casual worker. In accordance with section 12(3) it is stated that, "Provided that a casual worker shall be deemed to have become an employee on a contract of employment without limit of time on the day that his period of engagement with a particular employer exceeds a total of six weeks in any four consecutive months." Gwisai, Matsikidze, Ushewekunze and Musoni (2009) were of the view that labour casualization is prominent in many Zimbabwean industries but it is illegal that most employers renew casual contracts for more than legally accepted. In relation to casual employment, Ncube (2017) and Chikuse et al (2012) went on to argue that labour casualization is another term for precarious employment. This is ample testimony that casual workers is a form of precarious employment which defines the two industries in question. In reality, casual workers are subject to manipulation and discrimination since they work under the mercy of the employers.

4.3.4 (c) *Seasonal Work*

According to the research findings, the nature of the business for agricultural and hospitality industries are a clear reflection that seasonal work is inevitable. It has been submitted that during planting, weeding and harvesting seasons the agricultural industry engages more seasonal workers and for the hospitality industry, seasonal workers are most welcome during the festive seasons as also supported by 8% hotel occupancy rate at CH during Christmas period. These findings are in coronary with how seasonal work has been defined in the case of *Simbi Steelmakers (Pvt) Ltd v M Shamu and Others SC 71/2015*. The learned judge defined seasonal work as employment performed only at a certain time of the year depending on the nature of the industry. Thus, Ncube (2017) supported that seasonal workers punctuates the nature of workforce within the hospitality industry in Zimbabwe. Evidence by Mukwakwami and Uzhenyu (2017) seconded the dominance of seasonal employment in the Zimbabwean agricultural sector during the rainy season but the workers are subjected to appalling working conditions like underpayment and high job insecurity. In relation to the above subject matter,

one would not hesitate to indicate that seasonal work is a form of atypical employment influenced by multiple business realities and contingencies. Contingency model states that business processes are tainted by practical experiences from the environment they are situated and the nature of agricultural and hospitality businesses is critically premised on the dynamics in the wider socio-economic context. Thus they engage seasonal labour to reduce fixed costs associated with retaining permanent employees in times of low product demands hence season work is the norm.

4.3.4 (d) Graduate Traineeship and Student Attaches

Deconstruction of the research findings testifies that graduate traineeship and student attachés is another form of non-standard employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. Three participants from agricultural and two other participants from the hospitality industry indicated that they were graduate trainees/student attaches. A study by Chimbari (2017) and Mafumbate et al (2014) provided sufficient evidence that the employ of graduate trainees and student attachés from various universities, and colleges is the new form of indecent work practice in almost all Zimbabwean industries. Ncube (2017) was alive to the fact that students are employed on voluntary basis thus they work without pay, no protective clothing nor have access to any social benefits at the workplace. It is quite sad that organisations in Zimbabwe are employing cheap or free labour taking advantage of the prevailing precarious economic and employment conditions. Graduate trainees and student attachés are subject to zero pay, they work above legal hours and are vulnerable to sexual harassment during their short-term internship period. Though the employment of GT/attachés has become pandemic in the agricultural and hospitality industries, there is need to revisit the notions of moral justice and treat them as other permanent who need social protection, right to worker rights and safe working conditions.

4.3.4 (e) Part-Time Work

According to research findings, many participants from both BTL and CH indicated that part-time workers who possess special skills are employed to perform certain tasks which cannot be done in-house. They further submitted that part-timers are do not belong to any trade union and they are not registered with NSSA hence the lack social protection and representation on fundamental rights at work. There is common evidence from literature, Hirsch (2004); and ILO (2012) suggest that part-time working is part of contingent, irregular and non-standard form of employment in both the agricultural and hospitality industries. Bureau of Labour Statistics (2012) states that more than 17% of world's workers are part-timers and this is in line with the

research findings in the current study. It is therefore argued that part-time workers are the norm. However, they are divorced from statutory remittances like NSSA run through payroll and they are employed on an on-call system hence lacks job security, union representation and do not enjoy career advancement opportunities.

4.3.4 (f) Volunteering

From the research findings it is actually evident that volunteering is not prevalent in the agricultural industry but most common in the hospitality industry. It is unfair to employ people for zero-pay or workplace benefits and the BTL is considerate of this. However, evidence from the hospitality industry made it apparent that two of the participants were volunteers one of them being a GT/student attaché. The same perspective has been reflected by ILO (2014) who submitted that internship, women and migrants are employed as free labour in the hotel and catering industry world-wide without intent of being rewarded. Volunteerism in the hospitality industry is agitated by high unemployment rate in Zimbabwe which is above 95 % (ZCTU, 2019). It can be deduced that volunteering has been institutionalised as a form of smart-slavery and like communism it subject the proletariat to diminished social identity, limited workplace representation and poor occupational health and safety standards. In Zimbabwe, volunteering is not novel because there is '*Zunde raMambo*', an exercise which allows villagers for the chief for a day for free. Hospitality organisations are socially constructing and reproducing '*Zunde raMambo*' in their systems and sub-structures. In accordance with our African culture of Ubuntu, organisations must learn to share the little they have with the volunteers considering the high social needs and economic turmoil currently experienced in Zimbabwe.

4.3.4 (g) Labour Brokering

In light of the above submissions, temporary agency work is a form of work associated with precarious employment exercised in the agricultural and hospitality industries. This has been supported by Munakamwe and Jinnah (2014) in their study about migrant labour in South Africa. The authors found that labour broking is part of sub-contracting prevailing in the agricultural and hospitality industries and it ensures that agency workers suffer from sub-contracting stealth meant to erode their entitlement to leave and decent working conditions. In the same vein, the Principle-Agent theory suggest that there is a triangular relationship between labour, their employer and the service provider which shift the employment relationship to a commercial deal only concerned with the profit orientation against worker health, security, a decent workplace and well-being. It is crystal clear that labour broking or temporary agency

work is a form of contingent work which lacks respect to morally and legally acceptable terms and conditions of standard employment.

4.3.4 (h) Zero-Hour Contracts

Zero-hour contracts was identified as a form of precarious employment in the agricultural and hospitality industry punctuation with none provision of minimum working hours. Under zero-hour contract, the precariate is obliged to be always available for work as and when required so that there is no specified working hours. In the case of *Autoclenz Ltd v Belcher 2011 UKSC*, where the security guard was entitled to a stable working pattern. The written terms and conditions were deemed invalid because it is the duty of employer to provide work for employees who are willing and able to work. In 2011, 48% workforce in the hospitality industry and 36% workers in the agricultural industry in United Kingdom worked under zero-hour contracts. Working without guaranteed minimum hours is a form of contingent work. It denies workers right to leave provisions and job security. According to section 6 (b) and section 12 of Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*], an employer must stipulate in writing the hours of work and any employment contract which deviate from this dictate is deemed void. On such basis, zero-hour contracts existing in the agricultural and hospitality industry are against the legally and socially accepted principles of natural justice and fair labour standards.

4.3.4 (i) Compressed Working Weeks

From the research findings, it can be deduced that compressed working weeks is a form of precarious employment dominant in the agricultural industry as has been supported by eleven participants. The workers indicated that compressed work weeks grant them the leverage to perform their social activities and management indicated that compressed weeks improves productivity. This has been supported by Tucker (2006) who defined compressed workweeks as the working time arrangements in which a set number of hours is compressed into fewer but longer shifts. The same author suggested that compressed workweeks result in high productivity and they also result in consecutive off days between shift cycles which also promote a fit between personal life and work. It is crystal clear that compressed workweeks is a flexible working arrangement which promote work life balance as the precariate have flexi time to do their personal activities outside the workplace provided they achieved set targets over specified normal hours in fewer working days. From the hospitality industry, responses revealed that compressed working weeks is not practical due to the nature of the business. Ncube (2017) and Chakanya (2015) reinforced that the hotel sector cannot resort to compressed working arrangements because they offer fresh quality services on a daily basis which are

perishable. ILO (2017) postulate that compressed working is a dangerous form of employment that have negative effects on the safety, health and well-being of employees. Tucker (2006) also reinforced that has greater risk to worker's health and safety which leads to absenteeism and turnover. It can noted that compressed workweeks is a form of non-standard employment which results in heightened fatigue, and chronic health effects.

4.3.4 (j) Permanent Work

The above findings implies that the flexibility of Zimbabwean labour laws is the catalyst for precarious employment for permanent employees. Participants agreed that workers under permanent employment are the most vulnerable group as they suffer high job insecurity, poor working conditions and low salary. Manyatera and Kasuso (2015) and Madhuku (2015) shared the argument that the amendment of the principle Act by Amendment Act 5 of 2015 made it easy and cheap for employers to terminate permanent employment contracts by only giving one month's salary as severance pay for two years of service. This is sufficient evidence that permanent employees are part of precarious employment and like FPWs or seasonal workers, they experience high levels of job insecurity, are paid low wages and are subject to hazardous working conditions in both the hospitality and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe. *Ceteris Paribus*, permanent employees should enjoy employment security and social benefits but in Zimbabwe, they only receive an estimate of \$80 from NSSA as retirement benefit which does not sustain their future life. It is therefore propounded that permanent employment is a new form of permanent precarious employment in Zimbabwean industries.

4.3.5 Challenges faced by Employees under Precarious Employment

4.3.5 (a) Legal Framework Challenges

4.3.5 (a)(i) Limited Workplace Representation

Evidence from research showed that the precariates are not fully represented in terms of worker's rights and decent working conditions at workplace despite the existence of worker voice platforms like workers' committees, trade unions and National Employment Councils in their organisations. This goes in line with Ncube (2017); and Kanyenze (2004) who stated that the general condition of fear and job insecurity dissuade the precariates to join unions and be elected in workers committees, it leaves them more subject to indecent work practices. Even ILO (2018) confirmed that the nature of precarious work leaves atypical workers searching for effective employee voice platforms to advance their workplace rights and interests. Study by Bhebe and Mahapa (2014) on trade unions density in Zimbabwe established that trade unions density is dropping and it is far below 20% in Zimbabwe because unions are failing to mobilise

workers in non-standard employment and it is because of oligarchy. This vividly mean that the precariates are left without protection and representatives to safeguard their rights and aspirations. Limited workplace representation will encourage workers to reduce discretionary effort as indicated by the employment strain model (Lewchuk et al, 2003). But a study by Maunganidze (2014) indicated that precarious workers need to represent themselves because representative fora have a vested interest to sustain managerial prerogative sacrificing worker grievances and challenges. Thus, there is an *aporias* on what trade unions and workers committees seek to achieve and what they actually deliver. Deconstruction of such a disjunction from a post-modernist perspective implies that though the precariate is socially cut off, is discriminated and treated as a commodity, the solution for the challenges requires individual representation in a bid to achieve the ends of workplace justice.

4.3.5 (a)(ii) High job insecurity levels

According to the research findings, high levels of job insecurity has been found a permanent challenge faced by the precariates within agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The ESM shared a lot in common with the above findings. The model provided the employment relationship uncertainty component which suggest that the precariate experience employment fragility, uncertainty and scheduling uncertainty. The ESM indicates that temporary workers lacks control of workplace events and could not plan for their future life due to job and income insecurity. Thus Lewchuk et al (2008); and Rodgers (2007); confirmed that the challenge of heightened employment insecurity strongly compromise workers to plan for life and the young generation cannot manage to marry. ILO (2011:14) stated that “precarious work deprives people of the stability required to take long-term decisions and plan their lives.” Atypical workers find themselves unable to plan for marriage, have children and purchase homes because of job insecurity and low wages. Employees with higher educational qualifications seem to experience low levels of job insecurity compared to the majority in the agricultural industry with ZJC and low educational level who fear to lose their current jobs because of the difficulties faced in finding alternative employment. It is apparent that the precariate suffers great deal of job insecurity which translate in low labour productivity, low motivation and they sometimes engage in counterproductive behaviours like fiddling and moonlighting to restore their lost freedom and security at the workplace as supported by the integrated counterproductive and citizenship worker behaviours by Spector and Fox (2007). Precarious work has left workers especially the young generation hard pressed to view a bright future.

4.3.5 (a)(iii) Underpayment of wages

Research findings provided primary evidence that workers in the agricultural industry are being underpaid when compared to those in the hospitality industry. Sixteen employees from BTL submitted that they are paid below the NEC agreed wages and some who occupy higher grades like a B2 are being paid below the A1 minimum wage of RTGS265. This is a clear indication that the precariates are subject to underpayment of wages which is a clear violation of fundamental rights of workers to fair and reasonable wages as dictated in the Labour Act [Chapter 28:01]. CBA for the Timber Sector of August 2019 stated that employers like BTL should pay above RTGS265 and paying below that is deemed an unfair labour practice. The findings are in sync with Chakanya (2015) who found that precarious workers in the agricultural industry are paid wages lower than those prescribed in the legislation hence they are considered the working poor. Underpayment of wages is contrary to DWA and the achievement of workplace dignity. In relation to the ESM, underpayment of employees leads to severe stress, mental problems and emotional instability which affects the employee and they rob the company in terms of productivity. In support, the reactance theory stressed that underpayment of the precariates motivate employees to engage in entrepreneurship activities and counterproductive behaviours like stealing as a means to generate extra income and cushion the wage gap against high social and economic demands. It is crystal clear that the precariates are being underpaid and treated as objects in the agriculture industry which is against the principles of natural justice and fair labour standards in the world of work.

4.3.5 (b) Socio-economic Challenges

4.3.5 (b)(i) Lack of Social Protection

The submissions from the research indicated that atypical labour lack social protection, they face deepened exploitation and manufactured social insecurity. LEDRIZ (2014); Chimbari (2017) and Chakanya (2015) propounded the same views that employees under precarious employment do not have equal access to social protection. Part-timers and students stated that they were not registered with NSSA hence do not enjoy social benefits like pension and accident cover. The respondents indicated that they are not entitled to leave provisions. Such evidence is plenty enough to reflect the views by Voscko (2010); Mariwo (2008) and NALEDI (2006) who indicated that precarious employees do not enjoy right to leave, better salaries, terminal benefits and are not entitled to social benefits hence remain the working poor. It can be argued that precarious workers have limited social protection and the challenge of diminished social support cause stress, poor living standards and low engagement to display discretionary citizenship behaviour at workplace.

4.3.5 (b)(ii) Sexual harassment

There were general allegations among workers facing precarious working conditions within the hospitality industry that they are sexually harassed by their superiors at work more than those in the agriculture industry. Evidence from the research showed that precariates are workers without rights at the workplace, they lack representation and they are at the mercy of the employers hence sexual harassment is unavoidable. However, section 8(h) of Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] displays unfair labour practices by employer and sexual harassment is deemed unfair labour practice. The section reflected that when an employer engages in unwelcome sexually determined behaviour towards an employee, whether verbal or otherwise it is a violation of decent working conditions. A study by Ncube (2017) and Vettori (2017) concurred that emotional labour is prone to sexual harassment in the hospitality sector because they are trained to suppress their feelings, emotions and attitudes towards clients and the employer and in the process, they become victims. The precarious position of the precariate makes him/her a victim of circumstances. Management take advantage of the challenges of temporary labour such as high job insecurity levels, and low wages and unemployment in the labour market to force workers into sexual actions.

4.3.5 (c) Occupational Health and Safety Challenges

4.3.5 (c)(i) High risk of poor workplace health and safety

The precariates in agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe are plagued by occupational health and safety challenges as given in the explanations above. The precarious workers opined that they are discriminated from PPE and safe working conditions and the net effect of this was high accidents rates resulting in low employee morale, low engagement and low performance. Ironically, one participant indicated that HR use PPE as a recruitment and selection method which is contrary to the strategic function as propounded by Ulrich (2001) that HR is the custodian of people so should ensure protection of workers from capitalist domination. ILO (2011) supported that precarious working arrangement are associated with poor health conditions, they expose workers to hazardous, and stressful work environments. That the precariates are vulnerable to the risk of poor occupational health and safety conditions has been reinforced by NALEDI (2016); Chakanya (2015); and Ngomani (2014). The authors concurred that employers who employ temporary labour refuse to provide free PPE to their workers and workers work more than legal hours. This is clear violation of the dictates of fair labour standards outlined in section 6 of the Act that no employer shall require an employee to work more than the maximum hours permissible by law or force the worker to work on conditions below those prescribed by law. The plights of the precarious employees implies that

they experience poor occupational health and safety conditions which lead to more accidents (Visser and Ferrer, 2015). The net effect of these accidents is that they affect their families, the workers and can even rob the company's production and resources. The ESM support that contingent workers have increased exposure to occupational health and safety hazards which destroys the psychological contract which reduces worker effort and attitudinal commitment for the healthy bottom line. Therefore, the precarious nature of the employment relationship itself is catalyst for poor emotional and mental health.

4.3.5 (d) Empowerment and Benefits Challenges

4.3.5 (d)(i) Limited access to training and development

Findings from the agricultural industry showed that precarious workers have limited access to training and development because their employers lack security and faith in temporary workers. It also suggests that jobs within the agricultural industry are too general hence they recruit more of ZJC as part of labour force without hope to train them. Limited access to training subjected employees into slavery like working conditions as supported by Ncube (2017) and Benach et al (2014) who argued that general workers have no opportunities for training so they lack the capacity to question and challenge management's right to exploit and manipulate them. The employment strain model concludes that there is limited employment relationship support. Section 5 of the principle Act highlights that discrimination of any worker in relation to training, advancement and apprenticeship is illegal. HRM philosophy considers this as utilitarian instrumentalism where contingent workers are treated as means to an end, utilised to achieve the business case. For the hospitality industry, of-course the case differs because atypical workers are trained but deconstruction of management responses praxis implies that training and development is meant to enhance shareholder value and not worker well-being. This kills employee morale, satisfaction and motivation which motivate workers into counterproductive survival strategies to make ends meet. Therefore, all employees are willing to go an extra mile where developmental humanism preside over tenets of mistrust and scientific manipulation of their sacrifices to the employer. To the worker, the organisation is the first family hence the need to feel empowered and developed as rare and the irreplaceable key for competitive edge. Resource based view of the firm highlights that internal resources that are well developed can make a firm somewhat idiosyncratic. Thus atypical workers should be treated as ends unto themselves, they must enjoy equal opportunity for training and development like permanent employees so that they defend corporate reputation.

4.3.6 Survival Strategies used by Precarious Employees

4.3.6 (a) Entrepreneurial Activities

4.3.6 (a)(i) Moonlighting

The above findings are similar to the experiences in the hospitality industry as the majority (9 participants) agreed that the precariates use moonlighting as a means for survival. The nine participants indicated that they sometimes put extra charges on meals to get money and they also sell perfumes and chickens during normal working hours. This is supported by the profile of a Zimbabwean Employee Survey of 858 workers which revealed that six of ten employees depend on one or more income streams to supplement their salary (Zimbabwe Labour Market Assessment, 2014). According to Mosoetsa (2005), moonlighting refers to entrepreneurial activities by workers for personal gain through company resources. Ndlovu et al (2015); and Shoniwa et al (2013) also reinforced that temporary workers working without pay and PPE offer rental facilities to co-workers, they use company electricity and material for welding to generate income. The same entrepreneurial behaviours are exhibited by the precariates in the hospitality and agricultural industries and it is beyond reasonable doubt that precariously disgruntled workers who are economic cut-off can use moonlighting as their survival strategy.

4.3.6 (a)(ii) ‘Kukiya-Kiya’ (Piece Jobs)

Research revealed that most participants in the agricultural industry resort to *‘kukiya-kiya’* than those in the hospitality industry. This is consistent with the employment strain model and co-evolution theory, workers facing unfavourable economic conditions and unjust working conditions engages in cash generating activities like piece jobs to try and adapt to the demands of multiple contingencies situated in their environment. Jones (2010) and Manyaya et al. (2016) confirmed that in many Zimbabwean firms, the precariates do piece jobs as a survival technique. The same author offers the Shona term *‘Kukiya-Kiya’* referring to multiple forms of making do that the precariates do to earn a living. In relation to *‘kukiya-kiya’*, the precariate can do multiple jobs that when combined would produce a better income. One would argue that *‘kukiya-kiya’* is a circumstance driven act meant to generate extra income to counter financial challenges encountered by the precarious workers. Since the workers are facing income insecurity, they cannot afford decent food, accommodation, better clothing and career advancement hence forced by the whip of hunger into *‘kukiya-kiya’* mode.

4.3.6 (a)(iii) Farming and illegal gold panning

In light of the study findings, farming and gold panning is a survival strategy used by precariates to manage the effects of challenges caused indecent work practices in the

agricultural industry. Research participants from BTL argued that due they develop rational survival strategies like farming and gold panning to counter the effects of challenges brought by precarious employment like income insecurity and poor living standards. Farming is meant for cash generation and to supplement food which the precariates cannot afford with a wage which is below market rate. Income insecurity triggers workers into illegal mining and farming which according to Chikuse et al (2012) and Chakanya (2015) is one of the key survival means by workers at BTL. Works minutes of December 2018 indicated that workers were bargaining for more land to plough so that they get bumper harvest to supplement their wages which are far below poverty datum line.

4.3.6 (a)(iv) Workplace romance

The findings of this study suggest that workplace romance is a unique survival strategy by the precariates within the hospitality industry in Zimbabwe. Further evidence from the study emphasised that, devastating working conditions, underpayment of wages and poor living standards make precarious workers engage in workplace romance with the hope that they will have extra income and security at work which is in sync with the ESM. Bhebhe and Hove (2016) defined workplace romance as an intimate affair between two employees who consciously express their romantic feelings in the form of dating or other intimate association because their attraction is reciprocal. Based on an African perspective, workplace activities are informed by a systems of division of labour based on sex and this has been socially constructed. Structuration implies that organisation structures create sub-structures which differentiate atypical workers from permanent staff and it ultimately position the precariates under precarious conditions such that romance becomes the survival strategy. Deconstruction of the above implies that workplace romance result in sexual harassment which affect the dignity of women and men at work especially those under precarious working conditions. It is quite sad that the precariates is forced to be a sexual object by the weak chaotic position he/she hold. The hospitality industry has become the breeding ground for sexual attraction and romantic relationships and this is not morally upright as it subject atypical labour to sexual objects and it affect corporate reputation at large.

4.3.6 (b) Counterproductive Workplace Behaviours

4.3.6 (b)(i) Pilferage and stealing

Participants from BTL and CH submitted that the construction of different types of discourses built in language of occupational crime draws management and workers into acts such as stealing and fiddling that serve to facilitate occupational crime as part of organisational culture.

Maunganidze (2013) indicated that pilferage, and fiddling are terms used to describe predatory behaviour, corruption and stealing conditioned by structures, rules and policies within an entity. When the precariate perceive injustice and iniquity, they engage in deviant and crimogenic behaviours. Deviance satisfies covert interests and pilferage is accepted as a workplace subculture which bind teams together. Ncube (2017) and Shoniwa et al (2013) indicated that the precariates engage in to compensatory behaviours like pilferage and stealing to generate extra income and improve their living conditions. At this juncture, Sibanda et al 2014) stated that '*Mbudzi inofurira payakasungirirwa*' which implies that the precarious workers have no option than stealing from their employers for a survival. It is argued that pilferage and stealing is one of the major survival strategies used by the precariates in both industries in a bid to restore threatened freedom and make ends meet. Poor working conditions, low wages, job insecurity motivate workers into counterproductive behaviours which in turn affect business efficiency. Decent work promote worker wellbeing, ensure social protection and protection of workers on fundament rights. If atypical workers enjoy equal benefits of decent work, cases of pilferage and stealing would have been minimum.

4.3.6 (b)(ii) Fiddling and Sabotaging

In accordance with the research findings, sabotage and fiddling have been found as supreme survival strategy used by workers under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The integrated CWB and OCB model by Spector and Fox (2002) reflect that when workers feel that their freedom is threatened and that their fundamental workplace rights are violated, they exhibit reactions, emotions, and behaviours intended to harm the organisation and its stakeholders. As part of survival strategies, the precariate engage in deviant acts like sabotaging shown by many complaints and pilferage which according to Maunganidze (2013); and Hungwe (2011) means theft from the workplace. Precariates as psychologically dissonant, they are less engaged and have no mutual commitment to deliver positive results for organisational efficiency. The challenges such as low wages and unsafe risky working environment motivates them into sabotaging and pilferage in a bit to cope and co-evolve under injustice and discriminatory workplace. In the same vein, Maunganidze (2013) justifies why the workers engages in sabotaging and fiddling. The scholar reiterated that overt actions like collective job action are not ideal to solve grievances and challenges of the preariates because the systems easily detect and ruthlessly punish strikers hence fiddling remains the only available social control mechanism. It is undoubtable that sabotaging and pilferage is a common survival strategy used by employees under precarious employment.

4.3.6 (b)(iii) Drug abuse and smoking

The findings of the research indicated that drug abuse and smoking is the survival strategy used by the precariates in the agricultural industry to counter the challenges they experience. The employment strain model depicts that working under precarious conditions leads to strain, stress and can weaken worker's ability to perform beyond expectation (Lewchuk et al, 2003). In a study at Hwange Colliery Company, Chikumbindi (2017) went on to suggest that unfair labour practices and poor working conditions left workers without option than drug abuse and excessive smoking to manage high stress levels. The same views have been supported by Ngomani (2014) who studied the issues around occupational stress in BTL. The research found out that above 90% of temporary workers who face poor occupational health and safety, poor remuneration and limited access to social benefits used drug abuse and smoking to manage stress. It is vivid that the challenges brought by precarious employment motivates one into drug abuse and smoking in order to survive.

4.3.6 (c) Spiritual Capital and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

4.3.6 (c)(i) Surviving by God's Grace

Research evidence indicated that surviving by God's grace is a survival strategy used by the precariates in both the agricultural and hospitality industries. In the same vein Zohar and Marshal (2004) suggested that when the precariate fails to get solutions to the challenges associated with indecent work, he/she resort to praying as the last resort. Even Manyaya et al. (2016) supported that the growth of many churches like ZAOGA and UFIC is a result of precarious workers seeking for answers to their workplace concerns. In turbulent times, precarious employees seek help from the Almighty as the Messiah to liberate them from the capitalist manipulations. When faced with drastic situation, the precariates can commit suicide so spiritual capital is most ideal in handling the challenges of atypical work. In relation to the ESM, precarious employment has become a pandemic in most sectors in the world and its challenges are real hence heavenly intervention would be the paramount solution to manage stress, get emotional support and build comfort and confidence not to despair. Indication from the hospitality industry showed that surviving by God's grace is not widely used by the precariates to cope with debilitating challenges of precarious working conditions. This indicated that natural disasters, like Cyclone Idai have worsened the precariousness of workers in the hospitality and agricultural industries in terms of working and living conditions hence they no longer believe that God is the solution for their challenges. Discourse analysis of the texts above showed that people are still stressed as their indecent working conditions have been coupled by the effects of Cyclone Idai hence the need for counselling to prevent suicide and

rebuild commitment, engagement and faith that with God their situation is not permanent. Thus Hungwe (2011) after an investigation of survival strategies by university workers during economic crisis reinforced that precarious working condition paralyse the psychological contract and to rebuild harmonious employment relations employees have to devote to the Almighty for survival.

4.3.6 (c)(ii) Hardworking

Research indicated that workers under precarious employment in the agricultural industry tend to work extra hard to manage the effects of challenges they face whilst those in the hospitality industry were low productive and presented counterproductive behaviours. A study by Sauti (2017) in about survivor syndrome and labour productivity in the agricultural industry found out that workers under the fear of job insecurity tend to put more effort and exhibit citizenship behaviours remain employed. It can be explicitly stated that the precariates can display positive behaviours amid the challenges related to job security, low wages and poor occupational health and safety due to fear of consequences associated with losing a job under an environment punctuated with unprecedented inflation and high unemployment. In Shona they say '*Rinonyenga rinohwarara*' meaning the man who proposes portrays a luring image which is an illusion of what he really mean.

4.3.7 Legal Frameworks on Precarious Employment in Zimbabwe

4.3.7 (a) Labour Act Chapter 28:01 and amendments

The findings above suggest that there are certain provisions within the Act which seeks to manage the challenges faced by workers under precarious employment but employers are not adhering. In section 2A, the Act's main purpose is to advance workplace democracy and social justice through securing fundamental worker rights and interests at workplace. Under section 6 of the Labour Act, atypical workers should be protected from unfair labour standards, which is they should work legal hours, should not be discriminated and should receive fair wages as they work in safe working environment. Workers are granted the right to strike in section 104 of the same Act in order to safeguard their fundamental rights but deconstruction of the Labour Act indicate that the suffering of precariates is fuelled by the dictates of the same Act. In relation to the right to strike, the process is very cumbersome and restrictive for the employer's benefit to such an extent that workers suffer silently and resort to other illegal survival strategies like fiddling, moonlighting and pilferage. Moyo (2014) thus emphasised that the right to strike in Zimbabwe's labour laws is a liability or a trap at the worst. The labour laws are developed with the capitalist agenda hence the protection of the plights of precarious

employees is a mirage. The Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] has caused the rise of precarious employment in Zimbabwe specifically from 2015 after the Zuva Case judgement where more than thirty thousand employees were terminated on notice without packages. Therefore, to say the principle Act is an instrument for preserving the rights and interests of the precariates is debatable. Post-modern deconstruction thesis implies that labour laws are meant to preserve the interests of the capitalists and atypical workers are always at the mercy of the employers, they have no voice.

4.3.7 (b) *Employment Codes of Conduct*

Findings from the study reflected that the employment code of conduct are not effective tools to regulate and combat the challenges of precarious employment for both the agricultural and hospitality industries but rather management's logics of control. Deconstruction of the *aporias* of employee codes of conduct (Maunganidze, 2014) indicated that codes of conduct are not meant to deliver justice and liberate the precariates from tyrant indecent working conditions. There is similar evidence from research and the argument by Maunganidze (2014) that the Zimbabwean codes of conduct provide narrow restriction of employee discipline procedures to management of termination of employment and being silent on industrial relations issues to do with real worker grievances. The codes of conduct lays misconducts which warrant dismissal hence the codes are blind to moderate offenses that may corrective action rather than punitive measures. Therefore, codes of conducts purely serve as management templates to suppress internal tensions over distribution of power and they are meant to ensure that management prerogatives are not untrammelled. In the multiple cases studies, it has been reflected that codes of conduct are part of technologies that reinforce power and control of the bearers of power over the precariates so that the later more effectively serve the needs and interests of the former. Deconstruction thesis by Derrida views the function of employment codes of conduct as irrational but a discursive domination. Therefore, codes of conducts are reified and in practice they worsen the position of workers under precarious working conditions which is why one of the participants consider them the riot acts.

4.3.7 (c) *National Social Security Authority Act*

Students from the agricultural and hospitality industries reiterated that they receive monthly allowances but they do not make any statutory contributions to NSSA. The same views have been propounded by Ncube (2017) who argued that, organisations employ students for work related learning as a way to avoid costs associated with statutory remittances and the payment of social benefits. It is apparent that precarious workers lack social protection and are exposed

to poor safety and health at workplace. It is an unfair labour practice that employers fail to register all workers with NSSA as indicated in NSSA Act Chapter 17:04. Contingent workers are involved in accidents and lack assistance from the state and since they do not remit to NSSA they do not enjoy pension benefits in the future. But, the aim of NSSA is to ensure that the precariates are well safeguarded from hazards which will promote the decent work agenda. Compliance with NSSA can improve working conditions for the precariates.

4.3.7 (d) ILO Provisions

In light of the research findings it is crystal clear that there is lack of employer adherence to international legal frameworks to deal with grave effects of the challenges faced by workers under precarious work in the hospitality and agricultural industries. Many participants argued that they do not know the functions and relevance of ILO and the decent work agenda in regulating non-standard employment in Zimbabwe because their employers never instituted any international provisions to advance their workplace rights and social justice. Ncube (2017) and ILO (2017) suggested that there is lack of current clear provisions and legal frameworks to deal with precarious employment. In Zimbabwe, there is need to develop labour legislation to specifically focus on contingent workers in terms of advancing their plights and concerns with regards to workplace justice and democracy and respect of their fundamental rights and interests. The principles of Decent Work Agenda should be incorporated into labour legislation for precarious employment. Decent Work Agenda (DWA) seeks to achieve employment security, social protection and worker democracy through social dialogue. Challenges faced by the precariates like limited access to social protection and lack of workplace representation can be address through effective application of ILO provisions around several Conventions.

4.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Chapter 4 focused on presenting and analysing the research findings in answering the research problem in order to proffer recommendations and conclusions. The research findings were presented under the themes derived from objectives of this study. The presentation has been done substantively with the aid of diagrams, tables and charts. It has been presented that there was 95% response rate from BTL and also a response rate of 95% for CH. Forms of contracts associated with precarious employment, the challenges faced, survival strategies and the adherence of employers to the legal frameworks for precarious employment were presented and analysed above. The data which was presented was then analysed to bridge the gap between literature and research findings and to inform the establishment of recommendations and conclusion for the study in Chapter 5 following.

CHAPTER 5 –SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to blend the major research findings in relation with the objectives of this study in a bid to draw out recommendations and conclusions that probe for further studies and improvements. Recommendations and conclusions have been drawn from the analysis of research findings in Chapter 4.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This research sought to investigate the challenges faced and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH representing the two selected industries, the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. Out of 1666 total population at BTL and 68 employees at CH, a sample size of 20 participants was chosen from each organisation. Nineteen out of twenty targeted participants per each organisation, BTL and CH managed to participate in this research giving the response rate of 95% for each case study. Qualitative research approach and multiple case study research design was adopted to deconstruct deeply into the research phenomenon.

The first research objective was to identify the forms of employment contracts associated with precarious employment. The research identified that seasonal contracts, fixed term contracts, casual contracts, part-time work, graduate trainee/student attaches, zero-hour contracts and permanent contracts as the forms of work whose conditions leads to precarious employment in the hospitality and agricultural industries in Zimbabwe. FPW and compressed working weeks were more prevalent at BTL while graduate trainee/student attaches and volunteering were the norm at CH. The second objective was to establish the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment at BTL and CH. With the use of employment strain model, the precariates experienced a mirage of challenges. The participants expressed that they suffer heightened employment insecurity, sexual harassment, poor occupational health and safety, limited social protection and limited workplace representation on fundamental rights at work. Post-modernist thinking deconstructing the concerns of the precariates indicated that workers under precarious employment conditions are socially cut off, they are stressed, they are victims of sexual harassment and experience poor living standards because they are the disadvantaged group.

The third objective of this study was to investigate the survival strategies used by employees to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment at BTL and CH. From the study, it was identified that moonlighting, fiddling and sabotaging, surviving by God' grace, 'kukiya-kiya', pilferage or stealing, drug abuse and smoking, hardworking, farming and gold panning and workplace romance are survival strategies used to mitigate the challenges of precarious employment conditions. However, farming and illegal gold mining, hardworking and drug abuse were dominantly used at BTL while workplace romance was a common coping strategy for workers at CH.

The fourth objective was concerned about examining the legal frameworks on precarious employment at BTL and CH. It was found out that the Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] and its amendments, SI15 of 2006, NSSA Act, International Labour Organisation's Decent Work Agenda and its conventions are not effective in addressing the challenges faced by employees under precarious working conditions in the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe as employers are not adhering to the dictates for natural justice as provided for. The participants stated that there is no any specific legal provision to deal with indecent work conditions and precarious employment in Zimbabwe. The frameworks are considered managerial templates to fuel modern day slavery and exploitation of workers at the workplace instead of truly advancing social justice and workplace among all participants in the employment relationship.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

To manage the challenges faced by workers under precarious employment, the researcher recommends the following:

5.3.1 Recommendations to the two selected industries

- ***Agricultural Industry***

- ✓ Participants from the TU and NEC recommended that the industry must develop the precarious employment policy to govern the employ, termination and other decent working conditions for the workers under non-standard employment.
- ✓ There is need to educate management and employees through training and development programs so as to manage stress, improve employee welfare and mitigate the implications of challenges faced by the precariates. Education will also provide rational and objective ways to manage the atypical work challenges.

- ✓ The industry must develop the framework on occupational health and safety which ensure non-discrimination on the provision of PPE, stress management and the registration of all workers with NSSA.
- ✓ The HR function need to advise employers and workers that the atypical workers should participate in workers committee and trade union activities to advance and safeguard their fundamental rights at work.
- ***Hospitality Industry***
 - ✓ There is need to develop sexual harassment policy to foster good conduct at the workplace.
 - ✓ The organisation should introduce recreational activities to enhance socialisation which accommodate the precariates to feel loved as part and parcel of the organisations and help manage stress.
 - ✓ The HR department must ensure compliance for labour law dictates on issues around worker rights for representation, freedom of association, right to collective job action and fair wages. This will help prevent discrimination and segregation of the precariates on the grounds of wages, and other fair labour standards.
 - ✓ The industry need to introduce a code of ethics to manage deviant behaviours and unethical survival strategies by the precariates. The precariates indicated that pilferage and stealing is one of the most used coping strategies amid challenges brought by precarious work hence an ethical code of conduct will help foster moral discipline and citizenship behaviours.

5.3.2 Recommendations to the Precariates

- ✓ Employees need to accept that precarious employment is the norm but they should work together with WC, NEC and trade unions to improve their devastating workplace situation. Workers should be part of the WC and be involved in works council meetings which enables them to influence decisions that affects their precarious working lives.
- ✓ The precariates should empower themselves and seek knowledge on fundamental workplace rights related to discrimination, social justice, workplace democracy, fare wages and legal working hours among others. This can be achieved through continuous learning and reading various pieces of labour law legislations like Labour Act and ILO provisions on decent work and

precarious work. This will help to destroy fear among the precariates to defend their rights at work and enjoy equal treatment like permanent employees.

5.3.3 Recommendations to the State

- ✓ Research findings mainly from NECs and Trade Unions established that there is insufficient if not any labour legislation designed to deal with precarious employment despite its prevalence in almost all industries in Zimbabwe. Therefore, one would suggest that Zimbabwe should enact a legal framework specifically for governing precarious employment. The framework should be aligned with the principle act and international labour law standards focusing on decent work, social protection and fair working conditions for all workers.
- ✓ Through NSSA, the state should monitor the registering of contingent workers and that the precariates are working in free hazardous and safe working environment to avoid risk of injuries and accidents.
- ✓ The study exposed that the principle Act is fuelling the exploitation and suffering of the precariates. Thus, drawing from the trade unionists views, the researcher would recommend for revisiting Labour Act [*Chapter 28:01*] in terms of contracts management and termination of employment. The Act must not only govern contracts without time limit but also include other forms of precarious employment such as seasonal work, part-time work and graduate trainees or student attachés. The Act must promote social dialogue and good faith bargaining in the employment relationship to prevent an atmosphere of injustice and discrimination against the marginal workers.
- ✓ Through the NECs and TUs, the state should introduce training programs to conscientise employment actors on the benefits of protecting fundamental rights of employees and the ways through which workplace democracy and social justice can be achieved by aligning company specific policies with national labour laws.

5.4 CONCLUSION

As the operating environment becomes more competitive and unpredictable businesses are increasingly adopting flexible resourcing packages hence precarious employment has been found chief among the 21st C business models. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the challenges faced and survival strategies used by employees under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe. The study observed that workers

at BTL and CH are subject to unfair labour practices such as working illegal hours, working in unsafe conditions because they survive under the mercy of the capitalist. They are subject to modern day slavery hence considered the working poor or the lumpen proletariats. The research also highlighted that the angers brought by indecent work practices on the precariates motivate the workers to engage in a mixture of citizenship behaviours and at most counterproductive deviant acts as a remedy to emancipate themselves. The research demonstrated that in the two selected industries, workers use surviving by God's grace strategy, '*Kukiya-kiya*' (piece jobs), pilferage and stealing, drug-abuse and smoking, hardworking and workplace romance as strategies to survive under precarious employment. The precariates adopt such strategies as a means to restore freedom, manage stress and at most support their socio-economic demands to make ends meet as their employers are ignorant to adhere to the legal frameworks on precarious employment. Recommendations were proffered to various stakeholders including the industries in Zimbabwe, the state and the precariates that there is need to develop specific legislation to address indecent work deficits and regulate precarious employment in Zimbabwe.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HR, WC AND TU

Section A: Personal Details

Sex:	Female		Male			
Marital Status	Married		Single			
Salary Range	\$	-100	-200	-400	-600	800+
Working Tenure	Years	-2	-6	-15	-30	Others(Specify)
Your Age:	Below 18	18-26	27-35	36-44	45-52	Others(Specify)
Type of Contract	Permanent	Fixed Term	Casual	Seasonal	Attachee/GT	Others(Specify)
Academic Qualifications	ZJC	O' Level	Diploma	Degree	Masters	Others(Specify)

Section B: Challenges and Survival Strategies

1. What do you understand by precarious employment?
2. What do you consider to be forms of employment contracts associated with precarious employment in your organisation?
3. In your view, what are the causes of precarious employment in your organisation?
4. What are the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment in your organisation?
5. Based on your experiences, are the challenges similar for all workers?
6. What are the implications of the challenges faced by you and workers under precarious employment in your organisation?
7. Can you outline the survival strategies adopted by employees to manage the challenges of precarious employment?
8. What are the legal frameworks used to manage the challenges faced by precarious employees in your organisation?
9. Is your employer adhering to the legal frameworks for mitigating challenges faced by workers under precarious employment at your enterprise?
10. What recommendations do you suggest for managing the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment in your organisation?

APPENDIX 2. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR NON-MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES

Section A: Personal Details

Sex:	Female		Male				
Marital Status	Married		Single				
Salary Range	\$	-100	-200	-400	-600	800+	
Working Tenure	Years	-2	-6	-15	-30	Others(Specify)	
Your Age:	Below 18	18-26	27-35	36-44	45-52	Others(Specify)	
Type of Contract	Permanent	Fixed Term	Casual	Seasonal	Attachee/GT	Others(Specify)	
Academic Qualifications	ZJC	O' Level	Diploma	Degree	Masters	Others(Specify)	

Section B: Challenges and Survival Strategies

1. What do you understand by precarious employment?
2. What do you consider to be forms of work contracts associated with precarious employment in your organisation?
3. In your view, what are the causes of precarious employment in your organisation?
4. What are the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment in your organisation?
5. Based on your experiences, are the challenges similar for all workers?
6. What are the implications of the challenges faced by you and workers under precarious employment in your organisation?
7. Can you outline the survival strategies adopted by employees to manage the implications of the challenges of precarious employment?
8. What are the legal frameworks used to manage the challenges faced by precarious employees in your organisation?
9. Is the employer adhering to the legal frameworks designed to mitigate the challenges caused by precarious employment at your enterprise?
10. What recommendations do you suggest for managing the challenges faced by employees under precarious employment in your organisation?

APPENDIX 3. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MANAGEMENT, NON-MANAGEMENT AND NEC

The researcher Sauti Christian is a level 1.2 Student at Midlands State University undertaking a Master of Science Degree in Human Resource Management. The research is being carried out in partial fulfilment of the master’s degree programme. My research is based on the topic **Challenges and survival strategies adopted by employees under precarious employment within the agricultural and hospitality industries in Zimbabwe**. I assure you that the information you provide will be preserved with strict confidentiality. Thank you in advance for your time and cooperation.

Instructions

Please place a tick in the appropriate box and try to answer all questions in spaces provided without mentioning your name.

Section A: Personal Details

Sex:	<input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			
Marital Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Single	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>			
Salary Range	<input type="checkbox"/> \$	<input type="checkbox"/> -100	<input type="checkbox"/> -200	<input type="checkbox"/> -400	<input type="checkbox"/> -600	<input type="checkbox"/> 800+	<input type="checkbox"/>
Working Tenure	Years	<input type="checkbox"/> -2	<input type="checkbox"/> -6	<input type="checkbox"/> -15	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> -30	<input type="checkbox"/> Others(Specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Your Age:	<input type="checkbox"/> Below 18	<input type="checkbox"/> 18-26	<input type="checkbox"/> 27-35	<input type="checkbox"/> 36-44	<input type="checkbox"/> 45-52	<input type="checkbox"/> Others(Specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Type of Contract	<input type="checkbox"/> Permanent	<input type="checkbox"/> Fixed Term	<input type="checkbox"/> Casual	<input type="checkbox"/> Seasonal	<input type="checkbox"/> Attachee/GT	<input type="checkbox"/> Others(Specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Academic Qualifications	<input type="checkbox"/> ZJC	<input type="checkbox"/> O' Level	<input type="checkbox"/> Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/> Degree	<input type="checkbox"/> Masters	<input type="checkbox"/> Others(Specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: Challenges and Survival Strategies

1. What do you understand by non-standard employment?

.....

2. What do you consider to be forms (types) of employment contracts in your organisation?

Form of Employment Contracts	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a)Fixed Term Contract Workers					
b)Casual Workers					
c)Part Timers					
d)Attachés and Graduate Trainees					
e)Labour Broking					
f)Outsourced Workers					
g)Volunteering					

h)Zero-Hour Contract Workers					
------------------------------	--	--	--	--	--

i) Others (specify).....

3. In your view, what are the conditions causing temporary work in your organisation?

Causes of Precarious Work	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a)Flexible labour laws					
b)Economic crisis					
c)Restructuring, retrenchments, and outsourcing					
d)Need to save cost					
f)Growth of high performance work systems and labour flexibilisation					
g)Unemployment challenges in the labour market					
h)Globalisation					

i) Others (specify).....

Give reason(s).....

4. What are the challenges faced by employees under non-standard employment in your organisation?

Challenges	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) Limited workplace representation					
b) Lack of social protection					
c) High job insecurity					
d) Higher risk of poor workplace safety and health conditions					
e) Limited access to training and career development					

f) Other (Specify)

5. How many hours do you work per day?

1-4	5-8	9-12	13-16	16-20	21-24

6. How many times do you visit the medical doctor or clinic within a month?

0	1-4	5-8	9-12	13-16	16-20	21 and above
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--	--	--	--	--	--	--

7. How many meals do you eat per day?

0	1	2	3	4	5 and above

8. Did you attend any training program for the past two years? Yes [] No []

9. Based on your experiences, are the challenges similar for all workers? Yes [] No []

Explain your answer:.....

10. What are the effects of the challenges faced by workers under precarious employment in your organisation?

Description	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) Heightened Stress Levels					
b) Enhanced company performance					
c) Low labour productivity					
d) Poor social status					
e) Poor family living standards					
f) Collective job action					
g) Negative brand image and perceptions					
h) High turnover					

i) Others (Specify).....
 Give reason(s).....

11. Can you outline the survival strategies adopted by employees to manage the implications of challenges of non-standard employment?

Survival Strategies	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) Sabotaging and fiddling					
b) Surviving by God's grace					
c) 'Kukiya Kiya'					
d) Pilferage and stealing					
e) Moonlighting					
f) Hardworking					

g) Others (specify).....

12. What are the legal frameworks used to manage the challenges faced by precarious employees in your organisation?

Description	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) Labour Act (Chapter 28:01) & Amendments					
b) Collective Bargaining Agreements					
c) NSSA Act					
d) ILO Conventions					
e) None					

f) Others (Specify).....

Give reason(s).....

13. Is the employer adhering to the legal frameworks in mitigating the implications of challenges faced by workers under non-standard employment at your enterprise?

Adherence to Legal Frameworks	Tick
Effective	
Strongly effective	
Not sure	
Not effective	
Strongly ineffective	

Explain if the legal framework (s) is effective

14. What recommendations do you suggest for managing the challenges faced by employees under non-standard employment in your organisation?.

Please indicate the response that best suit your suggestion in the table below

Recommendations	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a)There is need to develop legislation to govern precarious work					
b)Precarious workers should be educated to understand their fundamental rights					
c)Labour institutions should facilitate workplace and social dialogue to enhance decent work					

d)Workers committees and trade unions must advance the rights and interests of all workers					
e)ILO provisions and Decent work agenda must be effectively adopted in Zimbabwe					

Others (outline).....
.....
.....
.....

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX 4. MSU REQUEST LETTER



MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY
P. Bag 9055
Gweru
Telephone: (263) 54 260568/260596 Ext 2158
Fax: (263) 54 260311/260388
Website www.msu.ac.zw

**DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT**

Date 8-03-19

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH AT
YOUR ORGANISATION.**

This letter serves to inform you that MR Christian Sauti
Registration number R134679B is a bonafide student in the Human
Resource Management Department. She/he is carrying out an academic
research on CHALLENGES AND SURVIVAL
STRATEGIES BY EMPLOYEES UNDER PRECARIOUS
EMPLOYMENT WITHIN THE AGRICULTURAL AND
HOSPITALITY INDUSTRIES IN ZIMBABWE

Please assist him/~~her~~ by allowing him/~~her~~ access to your organisation so
that he/~~she~~ can use it as a case study. The research is for academic
purposes only and findings will not be published anywhere. Your privacy
and confidentiality is guaranteed.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

PP
Dr M. Mahapa
CHAIRPERSON

MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY
DEPT. OF HUMAN RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT
05 MAR 2019
CHAIRPERSON
PRIVATE BAG 9055 GWERU
TEL: 054 260417/260430/260476

GENERAL MANAGER
CHIMANIMANI HOTEL
P.O. BOX 5
CHIMANIMANI

APPENDIX 5. CHIMANIMANI HOTEL APPROVAL

The General Manager

Chimanimani Hotel

180 Memorial Street

Chimanimani

02 April 2019

The Chairperson

HRM Department

Midlands State University

Gweru

Dear Sir/Madam

Ref: Permission for Mr C. Sauti R134679B to carry out research at Chimanimani Hotel

This letter serves to confirm that Mr C Sauti Reg# R134679B has been approved to conduct his research at Chimanimani Hotel on the topic "*Challenges and Survival Strategies of Employees under Precarious Employment within the Agricultural and Hospitality Industries in Zimbabwe. The case of Border Timbers Limited and Chimanimani Hotel.*"

Yours faithfully



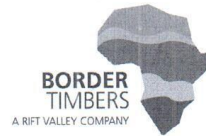
M. Mataure

General Manager

GENERAL MANAGER
CHIMANIMANI HOTEL
P.O. BOX 5
CHIMANIMANI

APPENDIX 6. BORDER TIMBERS LTD APPROVAL

HEAD OFFICE
1 Aberdeen Road
P O Box 458
MUTARE
Telephone : 020-64224
Cell: 0772100710-11
Fax : 020-64142
www.riftvalley.com



13 March 2019

Mr Christian Sauti
Midlands State University
Gweru

Dear Christian

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT BTL

On behalf of Border Timbers Limited, we have pleasure in approving your request to carry out your research on precarious employment and we kindly expect that you provide us with a copy of your findings.

Wish you the best in your study.

Yours faithfully
For and on behalf of Border Timbers Limited


K. Pisirai
HR Director



Directors: E. Hwenga(Chairman); E Kuhn (Managing Director); W. Mutizwa (Finance);
D Lapp; H B A J von Pezold; R von Pezold; R W J Strong; E Mlambo; S Mattinson.
Passionate about developing resources in Africa

APPENDIX 8. SUPERVISION FORM










DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Name of Student SANTI CHRISTIAN Reg No. R134679B

Title of Dissertation CHALLENGES AND SURVIVAL STRATEGIES OF EMPLOYEES UNDER PRECARIOUS EMPLOYMENT WITHIN THE AGRICULTURAL AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRIES. THE CASE OF BTL & CH

Supervisor's Name MRS. V. CHRASHA

MHRM802 Dissertation Supervision Schedule

DATE	SUPERVISOR'S COMMENTS	STUDENTS SIGNATURE	SUPERVISOR'S SIGNATURE
20/1/19	Rephrase topic, remove old sources - Every chapter to have intro & conclusion		VC
22/1/19	Make smart objectives and be clear on your methodology		VC
31/1/19	Develop instruments as you make corrections - sample size to be 30-45		VC
19/2/19	- Remain qualitative but use diagrams on presentation		VC
23/2/19	Do comparison of two industries in your literature review, amend your instruments		VC
27/2/19	Revise legal instruments, data collection tools and proceed to data collection		VC
29/2/19	On data presentation you should separate presentation and analysis.		VC
24/3/19	Be specific on topic and presentation - BTL & CH		VC
4/10/19	Have abstract and upload to turnitin		VC
4/10/19	Polish up and print the document so that I sign necessary forms		VC