

**WORK REORGANISATION AND DECENT WORK IN THE FOOD AND BEVERAGE
INDUSTRY IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA**

BY

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CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Almighty God, The Beneficent and the Merciful, who helped me with the completion of this project and made to be alive. To Him belong all honour, glory and adoration. I would forever be grateful to Almighty Allah always for His mercies over me and my family throughout this programme.

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ABSTRACT

Decent Work (DW) is productive work in which workers' rights, adequate income and social protection are guaranteed. However, competition and diversity in labour market affects DW. Previous studies concentrated on decent work deficits, but few focused on the effects of work reorganisation on DW. This study, therefore, investigated the influence of work reorganisation on decent work in the Food and Beverage industry in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Neo-liberal and Social Action theories provided the framework. Research design was cross-sectional survey. Multi-stage sampling procedure was employed to select the respondents. Four organisations were purposively selected: Nigerian Bottling Company and Cadbury Nigeria Plc, (Food sub-sector) Guinness Plc and Nigerian Breweries Plc (Beverage sub-sector). The organisations were selected based on their business duration and reorganisations that had affected workers over the past three decades. A total of 856 permanent and non-permanent workers were proportionately selected as follows: Food sub-sector (555) and beverage sub-sector (301). A semi-structured questionnaire was used to elicit information on socio-economic characteristics, indices that constituted DW, perception about effects of work reorganisation on workers' benefits, treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers and effects of work reorganisation on workers' access to terminal benefits. A total of 24 In-depth interviews were conducted among management (4), senior (4), junior staff (4), non-permanent workers (4) and eight Trade unions leaders across the sub-sectors. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and multivariate statistics ($P < 0.05$), while qualitative data were content analysed.

Respondents' age was 33.3 ± 4.6 years, 73.7% were males, 59.8% were married and 37.6% had first degree/HND. Indices of DW in both industry indicated protection of workers (95.8%), participation in union activities (79.6%), medical health care for permanent workers' dependents (49.7%) opportunity in employment (91.6%) and productive work processes (86.8%). Reorganisation in both sub-sectors led to casualisation in Nigerian Bottling Company (60.6%) and 51.6% in Guinness, outsourcing in Cadbury (24.6%) and downsizing in Nigerian Breweries (28.3%). Work reorganisation has led to improvement in workers' bonuses (55.8%), allowances (66.6%) and health insurance (47.8%) in the Beverage than the food Industry. Casualisation and outsourcing did not encourage decent treatment of non-permanent workers (54.7%) compared to the permanent staff (85.8%) in both sub-sectors. Casualisation affected workers' right to pension and gratuity benefits of non-permanent workers (65.2%) than permanent workers (31.7%) in both sub-sectors. Casualisation had significantly affected decent work in the food industry ($r^2 = 0.0409$) than the beverage industry ($r^2 = 0.448$). There was significant relationship between work reorganisation ($r^2 = 0.043$) and decent work treatment of non-permanent staff ($r^2 = 0.084$). Work reorganisation led to outsourcing, casualisation, downsizing and repositioning in both sub-sectors and it also weakened the collective bargaining power of trade unions within the industry.

Work reorganisations such as outsourcing, casualisation and downsizing negatively affected Decent Work in the Nigerian Food and Beverage industry. Therefore, stakeholders should put effective monitoring mechanisms in place to enhance decent work in food and beverage industry.

Keywords: Work Reorganisation, Decent work, Job outsourcing, Casualisation, Food and Beverage Industry.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Since the 1980s, there have been remarkable changes in the workplace across the globe. These changes have been associated with rapid developments in information and communication technology, diversity in the labour market, growing international competitions in product markets and corporate financial restructuring in capital markets. All these transformations or reforms in the work environment have been carried out under various names. Such names include: work reorganisation (Osterman, 2000), work restructuring (Berger, 2001), merger and acquisition (Cartwright and Schoenberg, 2006), downsizing (Appelbaum, 1991), contract staffing (Hampton, 1988), flexibility (Kalleberg, 2003) and lean production (Sakakibara, Flynn, Schroeder and Morris, 1997). According to Mushinky (2000), workplace reorganisation is any significance change in an organisation's structure for the purpose of better adapting to its environment. This reorganisation process is the flattening or breaking down of the existing structure to bring about a larger span of control, fewer levels of organisational hierarchy and the potential for job elimination.

There have been arguments about the durability of such reorganisation. Some scholars have contested the sincerity of management about such reorganisation and agreed that it is all with the aim of reorganising work in favour of management and for better performance (Cameron, 1994; Robbin and Judge, 2009). As organisations are moving away from secured jobs and economic protection for workers, many employees assume that management is treating them as a means of achieving organisational goals rather than as esteemed members of the organisation (Bluestone and Bluestone, 1992; Harrison, 1994; Oya, 2008; Adewumi, 2009). Haspels, Zaitum, Constance and McCann (2001) and Somavia (2005) note that the prevalence of precarious forms of work is a thoughtful response to the emerging market conditions which have further encouraged a reduction in labour costs and the number of core workers. Globally, jobs in all sectors are being outsourced or subcontracted from employment agencies or labour cooperatives at a rapid rate. Employees are subjected to job instability, lower wages and more dangerous working conditions, as they are denied rights and benefits of regular workers (International Labour Rights Forum, 2001; Jawando, 2013). It is deliberately done to pave the

way for irregular forms of employment, to avoid labour surplus during economic downturn, which negates the decent work practices (Kalleberg, Reskin and Hundson, 2000; Haspels *et al.* 2001).

Decent work has been defined by ILO (1999) as productive work in which workers' rights are protected, and adequate incomes and social protections are guaranteed. It is based on the understanding that work is not only a source of income but also, more importantly, a source of personal fulfilment, family enrichment, peace and stability in the community, and economic growth that provides opportunities for productive jobs and employment (ILO, 2010). It also implies sufficient work, with opportunities for all to have full access to income. It is seen as the direction of economic and social development, a direction in which employment, income and social protection can be achieved without compromising workers' rights and social standards (ILO, 1999). Studies have shown that employers are now engaging more of flexible workers under temporary work situations as alternatives to regular or permanent work status, which breach the fundamental principles and rights at work (Capelli and Neumark, 2004; Okafor, 2007; Adewumi, 2009; Okafor, 2012).

In Nigeria, the problem of non-standard employment is very rampant in the food and beverage, telecommunications, oil and gas, power, banking and education sectors, whether in indigenous, transnational or multinational firms in both the public and private sectors of the economy (Okougbo, 2004; Onyeonuru, 2004; Okafor, 2007; Idowu, 2010; Aduba, 2012). Therefore, it has become increasingly difficult to ensure and guarantee the rights of workers in Nigeria. Adewumi and Adenugba (2010) are of the opinion that this trend is being influenced by the dictate of the emerging capitalist employment relations, a situation which has led to incessant industrial actions, mostly strike (Akanji, 2002). Virtually all sectors of the Nigerian economy are preoccupied with profit maximization and reduction in the labour cost (Adewumi, 1997; Okafor, 2005; Oya, 2008). The manufacturing sector, which is the engine of growth of the Nigerian economy, has been significantly affected, as most companies are operating below capacity and some businesses have closed down (Sangosanya, 2011). In 2009, the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) reported that 820 manufacturing companies have closed down their businesses in the last nine years (between 2000 and 2008) of civilian rule, which rendered thousands of people jobless (Sangosanya, 2011). The food and beverage industry is not contributing to national development through increase in production of goods and services and the provision of

employment opportunities. It has been observed that the industry has a low level of productivity that does not meet global standards for effective competition (Industrial Training Report, 2013). This trend has been attributed mainly to the continued violations of the ethics of work arising from casualisation of labour and the strong condemnation of workers' unions (Otobo, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Adenugba, 2004; Okafor, 2005; Onyeonoru, 2005).

Workers who work under this arrangement in the food and beverage industry have limited, if any, social security in the form of wage protection, employment protection, health or pension benefits, which increase their vulnerability and, in some cases, make their situation very precarious, with obvious links to poverty (ILO, 1998; Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000; Jawando and Adenugba, 2014). This situation has further jeopardized the well-being of workers in the food and beverage industry (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014). These changes in work environments have been enormous, leading to decrease in job security and encouraging job mobility (Mills, Blossfeld, Buchholz, Hofacker, Bernandi and Hofmeister, 2008). Based on the above, the inference that could be drawn is that decent work practices in Nigeria are still far from being realized, especially in the food and beverage industry. Therefore, the following question is germane: Are the decent work deficits observable in the food and beverage industry a result of work reorganisation? This is particularly so as there exists a dearth of literature in explaining the possible influence of work reorganisation on workers (such as repositioning, reshuffling, contract staffing, casualisation, outsourcing, downsizing, merger and acquisition, and temporary employment) could have on decent work (such as economic benefit, decent treatment of men and women, access to sustainable pension benefits and effective bargaining power of workers).

1.2 Statement of the problem

In spite of the effort of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to promote social justice and recognition of human and labour rights, decent working conditions have continued to elude workers in developing countries (ILO, 2007). As noble and commendable as the objectives of the Decent Work Agenda (such as social protection of workers, labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, employment opportunities and social dialogue) are, its adoption by organisations remains a source of concern. The neo-liberal agenda has placed the profit motive as the hallmark of economic activities by compromising acceptable minimum standards of work and employment (Adewumi, Ushie and Adenugba, 2015). It is evident that

sub-Saharan Africa is not keeping pace with other countries of the world as regards the implementation of Decent Work Agenda (World Bank, 1997; Alayande and Soyibo, 2002; Standing, 2004; Nyambari, 2005; ILO, 2005; Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). Work reorganisation has gone hand in hand with the proliferation of non-standard work contracts in developing economies, such as temporary work, and part-time employment (Kallerberg *et al.*, 2000; International Institute for Labour Studies, 2008).

Nigeria has experienced significant changes in its manufacturing sector in the past three decades as a result of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) (Adewuyi, 2003). It is estimated that approximately 4.2 million job losses were recorded in the entire sector between 1983 and January 2006 (*MAN Newsletter*, 2010). In particular, the food and beverage sector recorded a decline in growth rate from 8.43 percent in 2008 to 8.36 percent in 2009 (*Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employers Report*, 2009). The average sector contribution to the nation's gross domestic product in the past few years has not gone beyond 5 percent. As a result of this downward trend, workers joining the labour market find it easier to secure casual employment without a proper contract or access to social security (such as pensions, health care, occupational accident insurance and unemployment benefits) and remain more vulnerable to constant changes in market conditions. They have to endure severe cuts in their wages when there are growth and success in the organisation and they are less likely to be selected for training (Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000; Bacchetta, 2009). Specifically, the food and beverage industry has experienced decent work deficits, which are in the form of underemployment, unemployment, unproductive jobs and poor quality jobs, insecure income, unsafe work, denied rights, gender inequality, exploited migrant workers, lack of representation and voice, insufficient protection and solidarity in the face of disease, disability and old age (ILO, 2007; Onyeonoru, 2008; Okafor, 2011). Thus, organisations are increasingly becoming flexible and porous boundaries for contingency work forces, downsizing and outsourcing (Rifkin, 1995). Apart from job losses, most workers are not adequately protected, as most organisations have continued to defy labour laws that abolish exploitation of workers in any form (World Bank, 1997; Adewumi, 2009) and violation of the fundamental human rights of workers at work, as established in the Labour Act of 2004. All these have brought to question the ILO dimensions or agenda on decent work, which emphasises the social protection of workers, labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, employment opportunities and social dialogue (ILO, 2008).

Today's workplace has become a lonely place where social protection, in relation to job security, international best practices and international labour standards, is no longer guaranteed (McBride and Williams, 2001; Beck, 2002). It is important to note that most empirical works that have been done in Africa as a whole on decent work have been mainly on work process, collective bargaining, gender, union restructuring, informalisation, migration, export processing zone and globalisation (Sachikonye, 2007). Similarly, the little research that has been conducted in Nigeria has concentrated on the single dimension of decent work and work deficit by looking at workers' rights and international standards in the oil and gas, telecommunications and banking sectors in Nigeria and the decent work deficits in Nigeria. Such studies include Adewumi and Adenugba (2010), Solidarity Center (2010), Fajana (2010), and Yousouph (2014). There is a dearth of studies on the visible influence of work reorganisation on workers' rights and social protection in the food and beverage industry as contained in the Decent Work agenda of ILO. It is against this backdrop that this study empirically investigated the influence of Work reorganisation on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector in Lagos State, Nigeria.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the above statement of the problem, this study addressed the following questions:

- 1 What indices constitute decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors?
- 2 What are the trends in work reorganisation on workers' economic benefits in the food and beverage sub-sectors?
- 3 How has work reorganisation affected decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector?
- 4 To what extent does work reorganisation affect workers' power relations in the food and beverage sub-sectors?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to investigate the influence of work reorganisation on decent work practices in the food and beverage sub-sectors. In achieving this, the study specifically tried to:

- 1 ascertain the indices that constitute decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors;
- 2 assess the trend of work reorganisation on workers' benefits in the food and beverage sub-sectors;

- 3 determine the nature and pattern of work reorganisation effects on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors;
- 4 examine how work reorganisation affects treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors;
- 5 examine the effects of work reorganisation on workers' access to terminal benefits in the food and beverage sub-sectors; and
- 6 examine the effects of work reorganisation on the power relations in the food and beverage sub-sectors.

1.5 Justification for the study

It is clear that a lot of transformations have taken place in the work environment, especially within the last three decades. These changes cut across all sectors of the economy. Some of these transformations have received academic and empirical attentions, such as in the banking and oil and gas sectors. However, little has been done on the area of reorganisation of the manufacturing sector. This study is an attempt to contribute to knowledge in the area of work reorganisation or restructuring in the 21st century and its effects on decent work agenda in the globalised world.

Understanding the different forms of work reorganisation that have taken place in the food and beverage industry and those forms of reorganisation that have negatively affected decent work agenda will help managements and policy makers to implement the best approach that will bring about industrial harmony in a globalised work environment. This understanding could lead to better treatment of workers and reduce the unethical practices in the work environment.

This study will highlight the differential treatment given to all categories of workers in the manufacturing sector, especially in the food and beverage sector, where such practices exist from time. Also, it will identify those benefits that workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors enjoy as part of creating decent working environment to all categories of staff in the industry.

Similarly, it will help to establish the extent to which the pension schemes are being implemented in the food and beverage industry. It is hoped that this empirical perspective will provide the potential to enhance knowledge on the influence of work reorganisation on decent work, particularly as it relates to the four dimensions of the decent work agenda of ILO.

This study will provide useful data for the development of further research on decent work agenda. Also, it will contribute to the existing works in the field by filling the lacuna left by previous studies.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study examined the influence of work reorganisation on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in Lagos State, Nigeria. Lagos State was chosen because it is the economic nerve-centre of Nigeria with most of the viable industries located in the state (Balogun, Odumosu and Ojo, 1999; Obono, 2007). There is greater concentration of the food and beverage industry in Lagos State than other states in Nigeria. Furthermore, the study was delimited to cover four organisations in the food and beverage industry. Two organisations were specifically chosen in the food sector (Cadbury Nigeria Plc and Nigerian Bottling Company Plc) and two in the beverage industry (Guinness Nigeria Plc and Nigerian Breweries Plc) based on their long existence in doing business in Nigeria, their staff strength and various forms of reorganisation that have taken place in these organisations.

The criteria for choosing the respondents for in-depth interview include: those who are members of the executives of the two recognised unions in the sector, namely Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB-SSA) and the National Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE); and those that have worked in the industry for the past five years either as permanent and non-permanent workers and have witnessed at least one reorganisation process in terms of repositioning, restructuring, reshuffling, downsizing, outsourcing, merger and acquisition in their organisation. The study focused on both senior and junior workers working as permanent and non-permanent staff.

1.7 Operational definitions of terms

Basic Workers' Rights: These are categories of legal rights and claimed human rights in industrial relations between workers and their employers entrenched in the employment law. They include safe-working conditions and right to unionise.

Casualisation: refers to bad conditions of work, such as employment insecurity, irregular hours, intermittent employment, low wages and absence of standard employment benefits.

Contract Staffing: is the condition in which an employee works under contract for an employer for a specific job and a specific rate of pay. A contract employee is not a regular staff and is not considered a permanent employee.

Decent Work: This refers to the availability of employment in conditions of freedom, equity, human security and dignity, in which workers' rights are protected and adequate remuneration paid and protection guaranteed. These are the economic, social, health and industrial rights of the workers.

Downsizing: often takes place as part of a larger restructuring programme in an organisation. It is a strategy which an organisation adopts to become smaller and stronger. Downsizing can also be the result of an organisation's merger, acquisition, and takeover.

Merger and acquisition: These are strategies adopted by organisations' managements to combine with (merge), or purchase (acquire) different companies as well as other assets. Merger and acquisition involve the bringing together of separate companies to form larger ones.

Outsourcing: are tasks, operations, jobs or processes that could be performed by employees within an organisation, but are contracted to a third party or another company for a significant period of time.

Reshuffle: In this, the jobs of people who work in an organisation are changed around for better performance.

Social Dialogue: refers to the means of communication involving the social partners intended to influence the arrangement and development of work-related issues.

Social Protection: relates to a social insurance programme that provides social security against socially recognised conditions, such as poverty, old age, disability, and unemployment. It can also refer to social insurance, income maintenance, service and basic security, like food, clothing, shelter, education and medical care.

Work Reorganisation: This refers to significant changes in the organisation's structure for the purpose of better adapting to the environment. This reorganisation process is done by flattening or breaking down of the existing structure of the organisation to bring about the larger span of control, fewer levels of organisational hierarchy and potential for job eliminations. In this study, it the aspect of the potential for job elimination that affects the workers, that will be emphasised more as against changes that increase performance and growth in the organisation. For this study

reorganisation is used to refer to the various changes that have taken place in the organisations sampled, such as casualisation, downsizing, outsourcing, contract staffing, merger and acquisition, repositioning and reshuffling, that have affected the workers either positively or negatively.

Workers' Right: This refers to those ideas of social justice regarding personal rights, namely: the right of association and freedom of speech and social rights, such as the right to work, the right to social security and health care requiring positive action by the state.

1.8 The study organisations

The study area was Lagos State. Lagos is Nigeria's most prosperous city and much of the nation's wealth is concentrated in Lagos (Ekundayo, 2013). The commercial, financial and business centre of Lagos and Nigeria remains the business district of Lagos (NBS, 2013). More than half of Nigeria's industrial capacity is located in Lagos. Lagos was the capital of Nigeria up till December 1991, when the capital was moved to Abuja by the Federal Government (NBS, 2013). A wide range of manufacturing industries are located in Lagos State and manufactured goods are produced in the city, including processed food, beverages, machinery, motor vehicles, electronic equipment, chemicals, beer and textiles (*Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employer Annual Report, 2008*). The Lagos Port is Nigeria's leading port and one of the largest in Africa. It is administered by the Nigerian Port Authority and is split into three main sections: Lagos Port, in the main channel next to Lagos Island; as well as Apapa Port and Tin Can Island Port both located in Badagry Creek, which flows into Lagos Harbour from the west. The ports handle import of consumer goods, foodstuffs, motor vehicles, machinery and industrial raw materials. Its export trade in timber and agricultural products, such as cocoa and groundnut, has declined since the early 1970s, although the port has seen growing amounts of oil exported, with export figures rising between 1997 and 2000. Oil and petroleum products provide 20 percent of the GDP and 95 percent of the foreign exchange earnings in Nigeria as a whole (World Bank, 1995)

The study focused on selected organisations in the food and beverage sub-sectors located in Lagos State and examined the influence of work reorganisation on decent work. The choice of the selected organisations was based on the fact that, in recent years, the sector has experienced one form of changes in the form of merger or acquisition. They are all multinational companies,

with long duration of doing business in Nigeria and the manifestation of changes that have affected workers in the past three decades. Four organisations were selected: two were chosen from the food sub-sector, namely Cadbury Nigeria Plc and Nigerian Bottling Company; and two from the beverage sub-sector, namely Nigerian Breweries and Guinness Nigeria Plc.

Cadbury Nigeria Plc

Cadbury Nigeria Plc is a major player in the global confectionery and beverage markets, with over 40,000 employees and business operations in 200 countries (*Cadbury Annual Report, 2014*). Cadbury is a member of the Cadbury Schweppes Group. In the 1950s, Cadbury's initial objective to source cocoa and prospect for a market in Nigeria led to the establishment of a manufacturing facility in Ikeja, north of Lagos, in 1965. Since then, the company has grown organically to become one of the leading manufacturers in Nigeria, with a rising profile in Europe, Middle East and Africa. With about 2000 employees and sales of over \$130m in 2002, Cadbury Nigeria is a top contributor to the Cadbury Schweppes business in Africa by profitability (*Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employer Annual Report, 2008*). It has a portfolio of brands that are market leaders in the confectionery, food drinks and food categories. In 2010, Cadbury was acquired by the US-based Kraft Foods in a deal valued at \$14 billion

Nigerian Bottling Company Plc

The Nigerian Bottling Company Plc, the largest bottler of non-alcoholic beverages in Nigeria, has its operations dating back to November 1951, when it was first incorporated as a subsidiary of AG Leventis Group, and given the franchise to bottle and sell Coca-Cola products in Nigeria (*Nigeria Equity Research, 2008*). In 1972, it became a public company, with its shares listed on the floor of the Exchange (*Nigerian Stock Exchange, 2012*). NBC kicked off as a family business and metamorphosed into a large soft drinks company. It is a subsidiary of the Coca-Cola Hellenic Bottling Company in a merger of Hellenic Bottling Company S.A and CC Beverage Company Plc in 2000. The NBC has five subsidiaries and four associated companies in Nigeria. It manufactures and sells over 33 brands, including Coca-Cola, Fanta and Sprite (*Nigeria Equity Research, 2008*). The NBC has in recent times re-launched some products, such as the 50cl PET bottles, and also introduced additional products, including Burns Energy Drink, Can Coke, and Zero Sugar Coke.

Nigerian Breweries Plc

Nigerian Breweries Plc is a subsidiary of the Dutch brewer Heineken. The company is Nigerian's pioneer and largest brewer, with current annual production capacity estimated at 10mn hectolitres (*Nigerian Breweries Annual Report, 2009*). Founded in 1946, Nigerian Breweries (NB) operates five breweries in Nigeria. The first was commissioned in Lagos in 1949 and four others have subsequently been established in Aba (1957), Kaduna (1963), Ibadan (1982), Enugu (1993) and Ama (2003), providing a geographical spread across the country, albeit with bias for cities in the southern part of Nigeria (*Nigerian Breweries Annual Report, 2009*). Nigerian Breweries, along with Guinness, constitutes a powerful oligopoly in the Nigerian beer market, with an 80 percent market share. Over the years, NB has launched a series of alcoholic and non-alcoholic brands carefully crafted for Nigerian consumers. These include Star Lager Beer, the Company's flagship product, Guilder Lager beer, Heineken Lager, Maltina (in four variants) and Legend Extra Stout. Listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange in 1990, NB is one of the most capitalised and actively traded companies outside the banking and insurance sectors (*Nigeria Stock Exchange, 2012*).

Nigerian Breweries acquired the majority equity interests in Sona Systems Associates Business Management Limited (Sona Systems) and Life Breweries Limited from Heineken N.V. in October 2011. This followed Heineken's acquisition of controlling interests in five breweries in Nigeria from Sona Group in January 2011 (*Nigerian Breweries Audited Report, 2013*). Sona Systems' two factories in Ota and Kaduna and Life Breweries in Onitsha have now become part of Nigerian Breweries Plc, together with the three brands: Goldberg Lager, Malta Gold and Life Continental Lager. Nigerian Breweries Plc now has eight operational breweries, from which its products are distributed to all parts of Nigeria, in addition to the malting plants in Aba and Kaduna.

Guinness Nigeria Plc

Guinness Nigeria Plc engages in brewing, packaging and marketing of spirits, wine and beer in Nigeria. It offers its products under Guinness Foreign Extra Stout, Guinness Extra Smooth, Malta Guinness, Origin, Harp Lager Beer, Gordon's Spark, Smirnoff Ice, and Satzenbrau Pilsner Lager brands (*Guinness Annual Report, 2013*). The company was incorporated in 1950 and its headquarters is in Lagos. Guinness Nigeria Plc is a subsidiary of

Diageo. Guinness Nigeria is not only regarded as an iconic African company, renowned internationally for its brands of unmatched quality, but also as a company that believes in enriching the communities in which it works, through investment and active participation in the positive evolution of society (*Guinness Annual Report, 2013*).

Guinness Stout was first exported to Sierra Leone in 1827 and soon became popular across West Africa. In 1963, the Ikeja site in Lagos was chosen as the first location outside the British Isles to brew the iconic dark beer. Two years later, in 1965, Guinness Nigeria was listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (*Nigeria Stock Exchange, 2012*). Steady growth in markets for Guinness and Harp Lager during the next 30 years prompted the building of three more major breweries in Nigeria. In 1974, the company built a second factory in Benin, where it produced Harp Lager Beer, and this facility was later expanded to accommodate a second stout brewery, commissioned in 1978 (*Guinness Annual Report, 2013*).

The Guinness fourth brewery was built at Ogba in 1982 to brew Harp Premium Lager Beer. This site too was expanded to include Guinness Stout. To further increase capacity to meet the growing demand for its products, in 2004, the company commissioned a new brewery at Aba, Abia State. In 1997, Guinness Nigeria became a subsidiary of Diageo Plc, thus gaining access to Diageo's range of global brands and technical support.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The literature reviewed in this study covers the state of knowledge on relevant issues on work reorganisation and decent work agenda. As such, the presentation follows thematic issues based on the objectives of the study. Also, empirical studies supporting the arguments are examined. It is aimed at bringing out the state of knowledge on core elements in each objective to find out the gaps in the literature.

2.1.1 Work reorganisation

The concept of work reorganisation has been defined by various scholars to mean changes that occur in the work environment. Among the scholars that defined work reorganisation is Majoribanks (2002), who views it as the process of transformation in technology or improvement in social relations which determine workplace organisational structure, or social choice orientation. This allows the organisations to choose their markets, technologies or workplace structure. Organisations consequently engage in various adaptive strategies to tackle new demands and remain relevant in this unpredictable environment. Although these reorganisation procedures differ in many ways, they usually have at least one thing in common, which is uncertainty about the future of the workers in the organisations. One of the most commonly used strategies in reorganisation is the practice of downsizing. Downsizing strategies may include many different approaches and angles but they all lead to personnel reduction (Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall, 2006) and decent work deficits.

Going through the definitions, one can argue that work reorganisation has implications for workers because each time reorganisation takes place in an organisation, it usually results in the lay-off of competent workers owing to downsizing, thereby increasing unemployment and making job insecurity a lasting characteristic of working life. It has been established that this change has created chaos for workers, in that established forms of doing work are now said to be inefficient and outmoded. Duffy, Fudge and Pupo (1997) observe that much of this work reorganisation experimentation has led to lay-offs, redundancies as well as health and safety issues, thereby increasing insecurity and stress for workers and their families. This culminates in unconditional job security and undue competitive work environment (Rousseau and Tijoriwala,

1998; Adenugba, 2004). In 2001, organisations in United States announced the retrenchment of almost two million workers, with firms like American Express, Lacent, Hewlett-Packard and Dell leading the pack (Cascio, 2005). The reason behind this was to cut cost in order not to incur huge losses. Today's job cuts are not based squarely on large, ailing organisations trying to save themselves, as was the case in the 1990s. It is about healthy organisations hoping to reduce costs and boost their earnings by reducing workforce (Kalleberg, 2000; Adewumi, 2008; Wandera, 2011)

As noted by some scholars, working life has been subject to dramatic change over the past decades (Rifkin, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Gowing, Kraft and Campbell Quick, 1998; Sverke, Hellgren, Naswell, Chirumbolo, De Witte and Goslinga, 2004). These changes are attributed to issues such as increased economic dependency between countries, rapid changing consumer markets and escalating demands for flexibility within and between organisations (Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall, 2006). Weizel and Jonsson (1989) formalise a five-stage model that propels a company to embark on reorganisation. The first stage is called the blinded stage: in this stage, the company is unable to recognise internal or external changes that may threaten its long-term survival. The second is called the inaction stage: the company can see clear signs of the downturn but it does not make any reconstructive action. The third is called the faulty action stage: an organisation acts but its actions are too small or incorrect. The fourth is called a crisis phase: a company cannot manage its obligatory payments. The final one is called the appeal phase: a company appeals to a legal reorganisation process or go bankrupt.

2.1.2 Work reorganisation: business management perspectives

The concept of work reorganisation is seen as a dual assessment of "labour-centred rationalisation strategies" which is concerned with a more efficient and flexible organisation of the factor of work. The other process is in work processes organised along Tayloristic lines, which utilise the silver in the workers' muscles, but now the gold in their heads has to be mined (Kissler, 1994).

Labour-centred rationalisation is not limited to enhancing the efficiency of work on the shop floor, but comprises all company levels (especially the indirect areas and middle management). As an element of systemic rationalisation, it targets the supra-company level and affects the entire value creation chain of the organisation. This rationalisation concept is linked

to the reorganisation at the corporate level: where decentralisation and market orientation are the dominant principles and this is also a distinct characteristic of development in the nineties. The general goal of labour-centred rationalisation is the utilisation of previously less accessible employee performance potential through extensive self-organisation and self-rationalisation. This includes principles of participation and the self-rationalisation of one's working condition and work sequences. In labour-oriented rationalisation, what is new is the fact that human labour becomes the subject of rationalisation and assumes an active role in organisation development (albeit with uncertain repercussions for individual employees and the workforce) (Moldaschl and Schultz-Wild, 1994). Internalising the market in the heads of the employees as well as the self-direction and self-responsibility demands become a functional instrument of decentral and market-controlled companies. The effects on workers are two-sided: the opportunities of self-organisation facing the risks of self-rationalisation or even self-exploitation.

Personnel reductions are the most significant restructuring measure used as a corporate cost-saving objective and as a job security problem for employees. While the connection between corporate restructuring and rising mass unemployment is hard to substantiate statistically, there can be no doubt as to the negative employment effects of corporate restructuring processes. This is borne out of the fact that even sectors with strong growth (automobile industry, for example) are subject to job cutbacks (approximately 120,000 jobs between 1990 and 1995; in 1997, there were 650,000 jobs in automobile industry in the United States of America) (Moldaschl and Schultz-Wild, 1994). Apparently, normal growth is no longer able to create jobs and job losses are readily assumed. Growth depends on productivity gains that, in turn, are based on tremendous rationalisation processes in the manufacturing and services sectors.

2.1.3 Decent work

The concept of decent work was developed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in 1999 to depict opportunities for men and women to achieve decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO, 1999). It involves four key dimensions or strategies, which are well constructed to be independent. The first is the promotion of employment and income opportunities, with the sole aim of creating jobs of acceptable quality (ILO, 2010). The second is the development of basic standards and fundamental rights at work,

in ensuring that workers' constitutionally protected rights to dignity, equality and fair labour practices, amongst others, are protected and safeguarded by appropriate legal frameworks. The third is the provision and improvement of social protection and social security, which is considered as fundamental to the alleviation of poverty, inequality and the burden of care responsibilities. The fourth is the promotion of social dialogue and tripartite. Based on the above, decent work has been defined by ILO (1999:3) as:

Work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security at the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organise and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

In 2001, the concept was further developed and embraced by a vast majority of the member states of the ILO. It emphasised the need to apply a broader and more comprehensive approach to the fostering of decent work and social security in the emerging global labour markets (ILO, 2008b). On its part, the international community has continued to show concern about poverty reduction, unemployment and social exclusion in the developing world, especially in Africa since the 1990s. At the World Summit on Social Development held in Copenhagen in 1995, these issues formed part of deliberation on the global agenda. The United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (New York, 2000) followed the same pattern, as did the World Summit on Sustainable Development held in Johannesburg in September 2002 (Somavia, 2007).

Stressing the significance of the four agenda, Bell and Newitt (2010) argue that it is pertinent to strive for progress in all four areas, as failure to promote one area hinders progress in other areas. The rationale behind this concept is the fact that work is a source of personal fulfilment, family stability, peace and stability in the community, democracies that deliver for people and economic growth that provides opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development (ILO, 2005). This concept has received international acceptance among the various governments and civil society organisations in a very short time, emphasising the importance of productive employment and decent work as key elements to achieving poverty reduction.

The global economic and financial crisis has further worsened the casualisation of full employment and decent work in both developing and developed countries. While unemployment

and inequitable labour market outcomes remain significantly high in developed countries, labour markets in developing countries continue to be plagued with high levels of underemployment, vulnerable employment and informal work (UNDP, UNDESA and ILO, 2012). It has been noted that many economies are not generating adequate, decent work opportunities to reduce poverty. It is estimated that approximately 39 percent of the global labour force or 1.2 billion women and men at work live on less than \$2 a day per person. Young people are particularly poor, as the majority of them are unemployed, which make it difficult for them to join the labour market, which contributes to social exclusion, political instability and conflict (UNDP, UNDESA and ILO, 2012).

2.1.4 Decent work indicators

Decent work has been examined on many dimensions. The Decent Work Agenda incorporates four pillars: the effective implementation of labour standards, especially the ILO core labour standards; the creation of more productive employments, particularly through coherent and employment-friendly strategies for economic growth and development; development and expansion of inclusive social protection systems, including for those working in the informal economy; and the support of social dialogue between the different stakeholders. Among the scholars that have viewed decent work from six dimensions is Anker *et al.* (2003). They identify six dimensions from the Director-General's original statement that ILO should promote 'opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity' (ILO, 1999:3). The following are the dimensions:

- (a) opportunities for both men and women to find any work, including self-employment, family work, and wage employment in both the informal and formal sectors;
- (b) freedom of choice of employment that exclude forced, bonded and slave labour and unacceptable forms of child labour;
- (c) productive work that guarantees adequate incomes and ensures competition;
- (d) equity in work that negates discrimination in and out of work and guarantees access to decent work;
- (e) security at work as it relates to health, pensions and livelihoods; and

- (f) dignity at work that accords respects to workers and guarantees their freedom to join organisations which represent their interests and opportunities to voice out their opinions and participate in decision-making that affects their working conditions.

2.1.4.1 Employment opportunities for both men and women

As observed by Fajana (2008), the first objective of decent work is aimed at minimising the unemployment rate. Noble as these objectives are, employment promotion has become central to decent work agenda. ILO has continuously sought to enlarge the world of work. Hence it is concerned with unemployment and underemployment. An important indicator of decent work is the extent to which a country's population is employed (Anker *et al.*, 2003). Employment opportunities may be measured using either (a) the employment-to-population ratio (EPR), which measures the proportion of the working age of the population that is employed; or (b) the unemployment rate (UR), which measures the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. Bell and Newitt (2010) assert that employment creation is critical or central to poverty reduction and that it has clear links to some policy areas, including economic growth, private sector development and trade. In recent times, factors such as working time and working intensity, wage levels, and safe working environment have continued to dominate the discussion on decent work practices. Ghai (2003) points to the fact that the goal of all workers, in state enterprises, the formal or informal economy or self-employed, is their desire to receive remuneration in cash or kind, which at least provides a minimum standard of living for their families. Workers also wish to work in safe and healthy conditions and have a secure livelihood. Like other citizens, workers in all categories also seek the right to form their organisations to defend and promote their interests and to participate in decisions that affect them as workers.

Among scholars who shared this sentiment is Rodgers (2007). He emphasises that the goal of decent work is best expressed through the eyes of the people. For some people, it is the primary way in which people could get out of poverty. For some other people, it is about realising personal aspirations in their daily existence and solidarity with others. For many people, decent work is about securing human dignity. There are about 197.1 million people today who are unemployed, according to the ILO estimates (ILO, 2016). Precarious employment accounts for 1.5 billion people, or over 46 per cent of total employment. In both Southern Asia and sub-

Saharan Africa, over 70 per cent of workers are in vulnerable employment (ILO, 2016). Similarly, women are confronted with a 25 to 35-per cent higher risk of being in vulnerable employment than men in certain countries in Northern Africa, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States (ILO, 2016). Another 500 million people are unable to earn enough to get their families over the most minimal poverty line of US\$1 per person per day (Rodgers, 2007). However, there has been significant progress against extreme poverty in recent years, with nearly 45 per cent of the world's population living on an income of US\$2.00 per day or less (OECD, 2013). According to Sengenberger and Egger (2006), the issue of poverty remains a daunting issue. Close to one-quarter (24 percent) of the world's population is reported to be living on less than one dollar a day, down from 28.3 percent in 1987. The ILO 2016 Report gave an estimate of 327 million employed people living in extreme poverty (those living on less than US\$1.90 a day in Purchasing Power Parity terms) and 967 million in moderate or near poverty (between US\$1.90 and US\$5 a day in PPP terms) in 2015. This represents a significant reduction in extreme poverty compared with the levels in 2000, but the improvements since 2013 were more limited (especially within the least developed countries). The sharp reduction was observed in East Asia, whereas the most dramatic increase was found in Eastern European and transition countries where the incidence of poverty passed from virtual nil in 1987 to over 5 percent in 1998. Sub-Saharan Africa recorded the highest labour force participation rate of all regions, projected at 70.9 per cent when compared with a global average of 63.5 per cent in 2014 (ILO, 2015). Also, the unemployment rate estimated at 7.7 per cent in 2014 is expected to remain constant till 2018. The youth unemployment rate is moderately low in relation to the adult rate, with a youth-to-adult ratio of 1.9, the lowest of all regions worldwide. Furthermore, the unemployment rate is also similar across genders. The female unemployment rate is 8.7 per cent marginally higher than the rate for men at 6.9 per cent (ILO, 2015).

Also, gender discrimination and cultural norms worsen the situation for young women, who are less likely to be employed than young men and more likely to be outside the labour force. In 2005, youth inactivity rate for females was 50.2 per cent compared with 31 per cent for males. Where job prospects are poor, young women are the first to give up their hopes and stay at home. Women have limited access to education and training when compared to their male peers, particularly in the formal economy (ILO, 2007). Similarly, when the prospects for paid employment are poor and social safety nets exist, such as the state of family support; young

people often become 'discouraged workers'. As noted by ILO (2007), the inactivity rate for young people in Africa increased from 38.3 percent to 40.5 percent between 1995 and 2005. Part of this increase was attributed to increasing enrolment rates in education and some portions due to growing discouragement. Most young Africans cannot afford to be unemployed or inactive. The needs to survive forces most people to enter the informal economy, where many more people work longer hours at low productivity, engaged in casual employment, or are excluded from the workforce without being considered as unemployed. In 2005, the ILO estimated that as many as 44 million young people in Africa or 48.7 percent of all employed young people did not earn enough to lift themselves and their families above the \$1 a day poverty line and 75 million worked but remained below the \$2 a day poverty line (ILO, 2007). Drawing from the above, Rodgers (2007) notes that, for employment goal to be expressed as adequate opportunities for productive and meaningful work, there is the need to take into account working time and work intensity, the need for a living income, the possibilities for personal development and the opportunities to use's one capabilities. Many African men and women know what it means to work on long strenuous days, under an environment which gives low returns to their efforts and gives little opportunities for investment potential. The opportunity created provides an avenue to promote work opportunities to craft decent livelihoods for their families and communities and also to build an employment agenda promoting decent work opportunities in Africa (African Union, 2005).

Sen (2000), looking at the damage that unemployment has inflicted on Europe, lists the following ten types of damage:

- (a) loss of current output and fiscal burden that has cursed unemployment and reduction in national output;
- (b) social exclusion and loss of freedom that have made the unemployed to be excluded not only from economic benefits, such as social insurance and pension and medical entitlements, but also from social activities, such as participation in community life;
- (c) skill losses and long-run damage, which have made people who are out of job to remain redundant, losing confidence and sense of control after a long-term effect on competence;

- (d) psychological harm: unemployment, especially if prolonged, can cause havoc with the lives of the jobless, and cause intense suffering and mental agony which increase a country's suicide rate directly linked with unemployment rate;
- (e) ill health and mortality: unemployment is often associated with a higher incidence of illness and resulting mortality.
- (f) motivational loss: Long-term unemployment often leads to motivational decline and resignation which are detrimental to the search for future employment. It weakens the distinction between those who are in and those who are out of the labour force;
- (g) loss of human relations and family life: Unemployment can disrupt social relations and increase tensions within the family;
- (h) racial and gender inequality: Ethnic minorities are often disproportionately affected by unemployment, which also supports the politics of intolerance and racism and hardens gender divisions;
- (i) loss of social values and responsibility: The material deprivation of the jobless and their feelings of alienation encourage crime and threaten social cohesion; and
- (j) organisational inflexibility and technical conservatism. A high unemployment rate increases workers' resistance to economic reorganisation involving job losses.

Sen (2000) avers that the 'costs' diminished the lives of all, but are particularly harsh on the minority. Furthermore, Vosko (2002) stresses that organisations use the concept of decent work as a metaphor in identifying the dire need to improve the conditions of all people, whether waged and unwaged workers, working in the formal or the informal economy, through efforts at re-regulating and expanding the social and labour protections. However, ILO (2015) has paid more attention to the needs of wage workers, the majority of whom are men in formal enterprises. It is important to note that almost everybody works, but not everybody is employed. The world is full of overworked, underemployed and unemployed people. Most studies have concentrated on the formal labour market. It is, therefore, important that effort should be made to look beyond the formal labour market. Vosko (2000) notes that decent work is not intended to be associated with what is called 'standard work,' and the labour and social protections and benefits associated with it. Similarly, the central features of 'decent work' are not equated with a standard employment relationship, which not only serves as a symbol of the post-war period in

industrialised countries, but also a normative model of employment for the ILO in its standard-setting and technical cooperation activities supported by the international trade union movement.

A vague idea becomes imperative in view of the central dimensions of decent work. The dimensions are said to be culturally and regionally specific and based on people's experiences in their daily lives. However, given the central labour standards linked to the platform, such as those described in the Social Declaration, the protections surrounding 'decent work' are significantly inferior to those typically associated with a standard employment relationship (Vosko, 2000). Temporary employment services contribute significantly towards externalisation and insecure working conditions. Section 198(2) of the Labour Relations Act (1998) stipulates that the temporary employment service is the employer of the person whose services have been procured for a client. The economic rationale for the utilisation of temporary employment services is to evade the contractual link between the client and the employee that would typically arise in a standard employment relationship, and allow the client to bypass the range of statutory and contractual obligations; these employees are left in a vulnerable position. This vulnerability opens the door for frequent dismissal of an employee, as the statutory protection against unfair dismissal is rendered weak and powerless by carefully constructed contractual provisions that usually stipulate that employees of temporary employment service are employed in terms of 'limited duration contracts', that are deemed to terminate automatically upon the happening of an uncertain future (Cohen and Moodley, 2012).

In Nigeria, the Labour Act 1990 does not provide a legal framework for the regulation of the terms and conditions of this work arrangement. However, section 7(1) of the Labour Act, Cap 198, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria provides that:

Not later than three months after the beginning of worker's period of employment with the employer, the employer shall give to the worker a written statement specifying the terms and conditions of employment, which shall include the nature of employment and if the contract is for a fixed term, the date when the contract expires (Labour Act, 1990).

This section of the Labour Act, as well as the entire act, inadequately, addresses the issue of temporary employment in Nigeria, with regard to the regulatory framework for statutory employment rights and protection from exploitation. This inadequacy provides employers of

labour with a legal loophole, which furnishes exploitative employers the impunity that allows them to infringe on the rights of workers.

As Somavia (2000:2-3) notes:

Decent work is not defined regarding any fixed standard or monetary level. It varies from country to country. But everybody, everywhere, has a sense of what decent work means regarding their lives, about their society. The immediate objective is to put in place a social floor for the global economy.

This reflects the ILO's effort to intervene in the conflict between global capital and a vocal group of member states mostly from the G-77, unions (especially unions of informal workers), emerging organisations of labour in the informal sector, and NGOs concerned with improving the living and working conditions of marginalised workers (Somavia, 2000). Bell and Newitt (2010) affirm that labour standards can also be regarded as 'enabling rights' that encourage stronger standards of governance and democracy and promote social development. For example, widespread social and economic benefits can be gained by empowering women through provision of greater access to income and employment opportunities. In the same vein, support for freedom of association and collective bargaining can strengthen workers' organisations and help to promote more equitable income distribution, as well as more responsive political institutions.

One of the problems with measuring the quality of employment is the fact that it is difficult to reach universal agreement on what constitutes a good job (Burchell, Sehnbruch, Piasna and Agloni, 2013). The literature reviewed suggested that institutional initiative to build a universally applicable methodology for measuring the quality of work have so far been unsuccessful. When the ILO launched its Decent Work Concept in 1999, expectations were high among labour market analysis, with the hope that the concept would lead to new measurements, more extensive and internationally comparable data gathering, synthetic employment indicators and theoretical advances in the understanding of the functioning of labour markets (Burchell *et al.*, 2013). Various attempts to synthesise employment indicators by the ILO's Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean showed a decrease in unemployment rate, progress in the quality of jobs, rise in the purchasing power of industrial and minimum wages, fall in the income gap between gender, increase in the coverage of social protection, increase in the degree of

unionisation or decrease in the percentage of workers involved in labour disputes (ILO, 2001; 2002; Lanari, 2005).

Anker *et al.* (2003) propose an extended range of indicators that would capture the concept. They note that the measurement of decent work was severely constrained by the availability of internationally comparable data on employment conditions. Bescond, Chataigher and Mehran (2003) suggest a different methodology based on seven different decent work indicators, while Bonnet, Figueiredo and Standing (2003) present the establishment of a family of decent work indicators from different sources that take into account various aspects of security. According to Burchell *et al.* (2013), all efforts and progress on the measurement and definition of decent work were stalled by employers (and to a certain extent by the government) as they objected to being classified or ranked according to yet another index, which would again highlight the weaknesses of certain countries. International Organisation of Employers (IOE) states that decent work does not set clear parameters and does not take into account the particular conditions of each labour market (IOE, 2008. Lanari, 2005).

2.1.4.2 Promotion of standard and fundamental rights at work

The second dimension concerns the promotion of standards and fundamental rights at work, to ensure that workers' constitutionally protected rights to dignity, equality and fair labour practices amongst others are protected by appropriate legal frameworks. This second dimension is the heart of the decent work agenda and provides a focus for the work of the forum. It covers measures that promote compliance with the fundamental principles and rights at work or core labour standards and other ILO conventions ratified by individuals. As noted by Brown (2001), there is a long history of efforts to regulate labour standards on transnational basis since the 1990s. The question of whether or not and how labour standards should be regulated internationally has become more prominent, largely in the context of globalisation (Royle, 2011). The key issue concerns how globalisation, regarding its advantages, can be reconciled with effective regulation of work and employment relations in a way that ensures that the working conditions and labour rights of people around the world can be protected (Hepple, 2005). Many activists and campaigners contend that the pursuits of the greater movement of capital renders multinational companies and their associates much more powerful and workers more vulnerable

(Klein, 2000; Seidman, 2007). There are some reasons why globalisation has generated renewed interest in the question of international labour standard.

First, it is argued that globalisation imposes significant constraints on the ability of nation-states to control their affairs, including the ability to regulate labour and working conditions effectively (Williams *et al.*, 2013). As a result, national-level arrangement for regulating labour standards are increasingly inadequate (Bercusson and Estlund, 2009; Tsogas, 2009). Second, the process of neo-liberal globalisation is said to have ‘hollowed out’ the nation-state, rendering it less influential as a regulator of labour standards, as countries compete with one another to attract the investment of multinational companies(MNC) by relaxing their regulatory conditions (Williams *et al.*, 2013). While African countries have enough rigorous systems of labour law on paper, the hegemony of neo-liberalism has sapped the political will to regulate employment conditions and labour rights effectively (Brewster and Wood, 2007). The third is the implication of MNC activities for working people in developing countries that have contributed to competitive ‘race to the bottom’ poor conditions for workers.

The violations of labour standards in global supply chains, including very small wages, excessive hours of work, poor health and safety standards, child labour, harsh discipline, manifold employment discrimination and trade union repression, have been extensively documented (Mosley, 2011; Williams *et al.*, 2013). Critics of the use of child labour argued that developed economies, like Britain, had once used children, who worked in the factories; the vigorous campaign was formulated in the nineteenth century to limit child labour (Brown, 2001). There is widespread recognition of the fact that poverty cannot be reduced without promoting human rights. According to Scherrer and Greven (2001:9), ‘workers’ rights (or Labour rights) refer to the core rights of freedom of association, collective bargaining and the prohibition of forced labour, child labour and discrimination in employment.’

Rights are given to workers and their organisations taking into consideration their unique roles and the need to protect them from excessive abuse and exploitation in the hands of profit-conscious employers, often supported by a supportive state (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). For Barrientos (2007), the rights challenge relates to the difficulty of workers in organising or representation amongst such workers. Without the collective power to negotiate with employers, workers are not in a position to access or secure other rights. In Nigeria, workers in non-standard

employment are denied several rights. The Nigeria Labour Law (2004) does not empower this category of workers to join trade unions. When workers are not allowed to join trade unions in their workplaces, so many of their rights could be denied. In such situation, the employers dictate terms and conditions of work, with little or no resistance from the workers. Also, because of their inability to unionise, the non-standard workers cannot negotiate or bargain collectively with their employers, especially as it relates to pay, hours of work, health and safety measures. In a nutshell, any employment relationship that does not afford workers the opportunity to unionise or participate in decisions that affect their work and advance their rights in the place of work is far from being a decent work (Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Adewumi, 2008; Okafor, 2010).

Decent work also contains other rights at work, which are to be implemented in more or less detail, depending on the ILO conventions each country has ratified and its capacity to implement such protocol. African Union (2005) identifies these rights as a safe and healthy working environment, decent working hours, compensation for one's work, a fair labour administration, social security and protection of one's right under the labour law. The labour law expressly recognises that everybody has a right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. Similarly, everyone has the right to equal pay for equal work. The law also stipulates that everyone who works has the right to just and appropriate remuneration, ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity and supplemented by other means of protection. Everyone has the right to form and join trade unions for the protection of rights (CDHR, 1996).

A critical look at the implementation by member nations of these rights, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, would bring out clearly the level of compliance of member countries to some of these treaties and conventions. Workers have continued to strive and fight for some of these rights. Section 17(3) (e) of the Nigerian Constitution states that:

The state shall direct its policy towards ensuring that there is equal pay for equal work without discrimination on account of sex, or on any other ground whatsoever.

And section 40 states thus:

Every person shall be entitled to assemble freely and associate with other people, and in particular, he may form or belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of his interests.

Okereke (2011) observes that discrimination in employment and occupation has been found on several occasions, where non-parametric factors such as sex, social origin, religion, disability, nepotism and the famous godfatherism are employed, in addition to those specified in the policies and practices relating to recruitment, selection and placement, wages administration, promotion and training, lay-offs and termination of employment. Similarly, Busser (2006) stresses the difficulty associated with providing workers with basic rights, the continuous violations on a massive scale and the perceived influence of globalisation on the situation. The Core labour standards are those set out in the Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, adopted in 1998 by the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The ILO claims that compliance with international labour standards and productivity improvements go hand in hand. Effective health and safety provisions, for example, reduce the likelihood of workplace injuries, decreasing welfare and absence costs for firms and raising employee's morale (ILO, 2009b).

All over the world, a vast majority of people want stable jobs, decent wages, and opportunities for improvement (training), unemployment benefits, safe and healthy working conditions, but in reality, this has been an illusion. In an attempt to finding the lowest denominators for quality jobs that are free from any self-reporting bias, some authors defined good jobs in more narrow terms as hours worked, salary and health benefits (Johnson and Corcoran, 2003); income, contractual status, tenure and vocational training (Sehnbruch, 2007); pay, work hours, number of jobs, job security and non-wage benefits (Floro and Messier, 2011). Economic growth and growth in the trade have not led to an equal distribution of income; globalisation has excluded a large majority of people from achieving these benefits. On their parts, Cowling and Mailer (1992) view workers' right as an integral or exemplary aspect of welfare, which, has a corporate entity, reflects the expressed care for employees, but which has continued to elude the workers.

Despite the efforts of the ILO at promoting fundamental principles and rights at work, there have been reported cases of abuse of workers' rights globally (ILO, 2005; Caspersz, 2006; Thomas, 2009). The dimension of the abuse has continued to vary from places and organisations. There were reported cases of violation of workers' rights in the use of tear gas and real bullets by the police to disperse the workers who were protesting against wage reductions in Bornu State, Nigeria (www.tradeunionwordachiever.org). Similarly, workers of Carmaud Metal Box Nigeria, in 2001, were locked out by the management of the organisation for demanding for improved

working conditions and implementation of an agreement reached between the union and management under the auspices of the Federal Ministry of Labour, Employment and Productivity (Akabson and Orhewere, 2001). The table below shows some anti-labour practices and the growing patterns of casualisation in the petroleum sub-sector in Nigeria, which captures private, large public and multi-national companies.

Table 2.0: Anti-labour practices in the petroleum sub-sector

Name of company	Nature of victimisation
Amber Resources Nigeria Limited	Non-recognition of union and victimisation of workers
ABB Lumnus	Non-recognition of union and victimisation of workers
Bellbop Nigeria Limited	Victimisation of union officials and members
CNCP/BGP Warri	Victimisation of union officials and members
Dubril Oil Service	Victimisation of workers
Eleme Petrol Chemical Company	Sacked union officials
Globestar Service Nigeria Limited	Anti-union and victimisation of union official
Geophysical Nigeria Limited	Victimisation of union officials and workers
Oil Tech Nigeria Limited	Termination of union officials, employment and non-recognition of the Union
Schlumberger Group Labour Contractor	Non-recognition of union and victimisation of workers
T.Y Chemical Nigeria Limited	Termination of union official employment

Source: NUPENG, 2003

2.1.4.3 Provision and improvement of social protection and social security

The third dimension of decent work is the provision and improvement of social protection and social security, which is fundamental to the alleviation of poverty, inequality and the burden of care responsibilities. The International Labour Organisation defines social protection as:

... the set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress that would be caused by the absence or a substantial reduction of income from work as a result of various contingencies (sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age,

and death of the breadwinner); the provision of health care; and, the provision of benefits for families with children (Bonilla Garcia and Gruat, 2003:13).

This objective aims at promoting both inclusion and productivity, by ensuring that women and men enjoy working conditions that are safe, allowing for adequate free time and rest, taking into cognisance family and social values, providing for adequate compensation in case of lost or reduced income and permitting access to adequate health care (Okafor, 2012). From the point of view of Barrientos (2007), the social protection implication apparently relates to lack of access that many flexible and informal workers have on the contract of employment and legal employment benefits. These categories of workers are often denied access to other forms of protection and social assistance by the state. In Nigeria, non-standard workers do not enjoy any form of social protection either from their employers or the state. For example, these workers are excluded from the pension scheme by their employers and do not enjoy any form of unemployment benefits from the state. Employees work in very unsafe conditions and are exposed to economic shocks both in their places of work and in the larger society. This implies that employers despise this category of employees in relation to social security and they are also rejected by the state. This hardly promotes decent job as advocated by the ILO conventions and recommendations, to which Nigeria is a signatory (Okafor, 2012).

The aspects of social protection considered in the measurement of decent work often include: the share of national budgets spent on public health, education and access to pensions and health care insurance. Floro and Muers (2009) argue that data on public expenditure on unemployment benefits, pensions and health care is often tough to get and spending in these areas has followed the same downward trends in many countries. Spending may also be unequal across gender lines as these social benefits are often in the form of insurance and thus offered only to the formal sector and full-time employees. Floro and Muers (2009) further observe that, in some developing countries, efforts have been made to develop alternative forms of social protection in response to the shift in jobs from the formal sector to the informal sector and reductions in the state role in providing health care and education services. Saith (2004) presents multiple dimensions which cover a broad range of the spectrum of phenomena or domains over which protection is sought. These include food and nutritional security, health, aspects of employment or work-related insecurity, old-age cover, children's education, and access to legal aid. He also identifies fourteen ways in which social protection could connect with independent

elements, among which are norms, which give full visibility and recognition not just to food requirements, but also to all basic needs; an income level that meets all fully recognised basic needs; money income that is sufficient to meet basic needs; and the system that avoids or bears shocks and fluctuations in the basic needs of life arising from exogenous and endogenous factors, which influence the various components of income separately. Others are a social protection system that must adequately cover the relations between work and citizenship, by underwriting security, identity, dignity and citizenship rights, all understood as the mutual obligations arising from peaceful multi-cultural coexistence; and the system that should be based on the principle of universal basic socio-economic security for all as a right, and not on a narrowly motivated instrumental or politically inspired programme targeted at selected groups of selected items.

The above components are seen as the ideal situation that is expected to be found in both formal and informal employment all over the world but these have been more of a farce than reality in developing countries. The availability of various precarious works has brought to question the issues of social security, old-age cover, children's education, access to legal aid and so on. As observed by Okafor (2007), globalisation has affected work in many ways. In some cases, it has created jobs for some people; to others the condition of the job has been so precarious. This dangerous work is quite evident in the industry, including the transnational, multi-national, public, private or informal sectors. But with globalisation, it has become pervasive in developing economies. Precarious employments are associated with abysmally low wages, absence of medical care or allowances, no job security or promotion at work, no gratuity and other severance benefits, no leave or leave allowance, jeopardized freedom of association, no death benefit or accident insurance at work and no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement (Okougbo, 2004).

The National Social Protection Committee declares that the goal of social protection (SP) in Nigeria is to reduce poverty and protect vulnerable groups through efficient and sustainable risk management mechanism, thereby achieving sustainable social protection by the year 2015.

The specific objectives are to:

- 1 assist the population who are poor to get out of poverty;
- 2 prevent the vulnerable against poverty;

- 3 provide assistance regarding income to the poorest, especially the sick, disable and retirees;
- 4 increase enrolment and attendance rates of poor students in schools;
- 5 address short-term employment needs by developing skills and competencies;
- 6 reduction of damages to properties arising from natural and man-made disasters.

Looking critical at the above set goals, one can conveniently say that, in Nigeria they have remained unrealizable, as the nation has not been able to achieve this despite government efforts in meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

2.1.4.4 Promoting social dialogue and tripartism

The fourth dimension of decent work is promoting social dialogue and tripartite mechanism. This objective maintains that involvement of vigorous and independent workers' and employers' organisations are central to increasing productivity, avoiding disputes at work, and building cohesive societies. Social dialogue mechanisms also mean ensuring that the voices of the marginalised and vulnerable are audible in development debates. In particular, this means providing better avenues for listening to the voices of workers in the informal economy, women workers and youth, as the participation of these groups is still low, but critical for promoting equality (Bell and Newett, 2010). According to ILO (2009a), women currently account for only 15 per cent of the total members of government, workforce and employers of social dialogue institutions. The social dialogue challenge arises from the lack of active voice or independent representation of such workers in a process of dialogue with employers, government or other stakeholders (Barrientos, 2007). In relation to the pervasive nature of non-standard employment relations in Nigeria, this objective shows that this category of workers are unyielding both within and outside the place of work owing to their inability to unionise (Okafor, 2012). Hence, their chances of engaging in the social dialogue of whatever types with their employers and other stakeholders are very limited (Odu, 2011). When the employers exploit and oppress their workers because the workers do not have the real choice or alternative, the dedication, commitment and behaviour of such workers to their work, to the organisation and to the state will be questionable. This has a very serious implication for productivity in both the workplace and in the larger society (Okafor, 2012).

Social declaration uses moral persuasion to encourage member states to fulfil their constitutional obligation to advancing fundamental principles and rights at work. The explicit objective of social declaration is to promote adherence to conventions in the following areas (ILO, 1998):

- freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining;
- elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour;
- effective abolition of child labour; and
- elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.

The expression of the people is a crucial aspect of decent work. For workers, the way to representation and dialogue is through trade unionism, but the various hazardous employments have made it difficult for unions to attract members to its fold. For ILO, the main issue is that the workers themselves should be able to decide what sort of union they want to effectively run. The organisation of employers is equally important for the same reasons. There is no social dialogue without substantial and representative social partners. Social dialogue is the mechanism by which we strive toward the other three dimensions of decent work. It is the institutional framework within which workers express their grievances, which is a critical factor in determining whether common goals can be identified and agreement reached. These include the framework for collective bargaining for local decision-making or national level tripartite economic and social councils (ILO, 2002).

From the ILO perspective, tripartite and social dialogues are integral components of decent work and main channels for achieving it. As explained by ILO Director-General, 'Cohesive tripartite is ILO's bedrock'. The main goal of social dialogue is to promote consensus building and democratic involvement of the key stakeholders in all aspects relating to the world of work. Successful social dialogue structures and processes have the potential to resolve important economic and social issues, encourage good governance, advance social and industrial peace and stability and boost economic progress. However, it could be misleading to assume that social dialogue has added value only in times of financial crises (Fashoyin, 2004). Indeed, social dialogue is equally an essential tool of governance in the context of prosperity (ILO, 1996). Social dialogue is envisioned to provide sound management of change for at least three reasons. First, through information dissemination, quality of policy design and strategies for recovery can

be improved. Second, social dialogue helps in building trust in and commitment to policies, easing the way for their rapid and more efficient implementation. Third, the process of social dialogue helps to resolve inevitable differences and avoid conflict of interest which could delay implementation of policies and ultimate recovery (ILO, 2009).

However, globalisation has continued to hamper the degree of freedom of association in some countries. Efforts to make labour markets more 'flexible' have led to reduction in workers' rights to organise in many countries, and firms' ability to shift jobs overseas has reduced the bargaining power of labour (Floro and Muers, 2009). Again, the sectoral shifts in employment from manufacturing to services have also reduced the proportion of workers' access to unions. Overall, many countries have seen decline in union membership as a share of the workforce, and in the share of workers covered by union contracts. ILO's (2015) report found that, out of the 48 countries for which the ILO publishes data, union density fell to 2.3 from 2008 to 2013. In numerous cases, the decline exceeded 21 percent. In the countries where there were sharp declines, mainly as a result of termination of national general agreements, a rollback in policy support for multi-employer bargaining and policy induced decentralisation.

Furthermore, ILO (2000) notes that, in many countries, unions have responded to declining membership by organising previously under-organised sectors, including the service and the informal sectors, where women predominate. As a result, female union membership has increased significantly in industrialised countries and some developing countries. However, despite women's participation in union activities, their powers have not increased. Union leadership is traditionally male-dominated and focused on the interests of male, full-time workers. Women and union leaders have continued to concentrate on increasing women's membership, by using different women's structures within unions to give women more voice and then bring these to the attention of central leadership. In some cases, this seems to have successfully increased women's influence in unions (Colgan and Ledwith 2002), while in other instances this appears to result in the marginalisation of women's issues. Many unions in both industrialised and developing countries have also turned to quotas on national committees to increase women's participation in leadership (Floro and Muers, 2009).

To monitor progress towards the respect of fundamental rights and to promote ratification, social declaration introduces a 'follow-up' mechanism. Through this follow-up, the

ILO uses its constitutional procedure (Article 12) to require states that have not ratified core conventions to submit reports to allow the ILO to monitor the progress made towards implementing the principles enshrined in these conventions (ILO, 1998). As a means of encouraging the ratification and implementation of the declaration, it requires that the ILO publish annually a major report providing 'a dynamic global picture' in one category of fundamental principles and rights (ILO, 1998). Reflecting its tripartite structure, official observations by organised labour (normally the International Confederation of Free Trade Union (ICFTU)) and established business also appear on each global report submitted (Vosko, 2002). The first global report on the subject of freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to bargain collectively was released in June 2000 by the International Labour Organisation.

There is a widespread debate today about the slow and stunted growth of employment globally that reflects labour market institutions which provide a disincentive for job creation. Rodgers (2007) asserts that highly regulated labour markets were easier to maintain in relatively closed economies, where competitive pressures were less than in capitalist economies, where competition was very high. Globalisation has sharply increased the scope and intensity of competition, thereby making production systems and labour markets essential features for firms' survival in the new global economy. Conventional economic models support this argument. In such models, where wages and conditions of work adjust more rapidly to market forces, full employment is much more easily attained. In a globalised economy, flexibility is a precondition for job creation.

First, the relationship between employment protection and aggregate employment or unemployment is weak. Different studies have shown different results. Baker *et al.* (2005) show that the direct connection that exists between employment protection and unemployment is insignificant. Baccaro and Rei (2005) show similar result in wide range of specifications, including corrections for a variety of possible econometric and substantive biases. Other scholars found varying results depending on the specification of their models. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Employment Outlook (2004) found, from extensive empirical work, that employment protection did not create higher unemployment, although it was found to be associated with lower employment rates.

On the other hand, the OECD employment outlook (2004) found that employment protection legislation might change the distribution of work. It was found that male in prime age benefited more than younger people and women who were disadvantaged. This implies that job protection reduces the inflow of labour market entrants to the employment, though Schmitt and Wadsworth (2002) found little evidence to support that the more flexible US and UK labour markets performed better for marginal groups. There is also some evidence to support the proposition that stricter protection of regular jobs is associated with higher levels of temporary and other non-standard contracts (Rodgers, 2007). Such non-standard employment relationships have been growing in the last twenty years, and considerable literature has emerged on labour market segmentation and ‘insider-outsider’ tradeoffs, with varying interpretations of the causal relationships (Cusack, Inversen and Rehm, 2006; Häusermann and Schwander 2012; Hacker *et al.*, 2013)

However, despite the efforts of the ILO to have decent work that emphasises the four goals, the effects of work reorganisation on the decent work agenda of the ILO has been seen from social and economic changes in the past three decades. Organisations adopt greater flexibility in their production processes and employment systems to respond quickly to rapid developments in technology, greater diversity in labour markets, and corporate financial restructuring in capital market (Piore and Sabel, 1984; Boyer, 1987; Nwachukwu, 1988; Vallas 1999).

2.1.5 Gender issues in decent work

Fair treatment in employment is an intrinsic human expectation. At the international level, this has been expressed regarding equality of opportunity in employment and occupation, and equal pay for work of equal value. The ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No.111) defines discrimination as ‘any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation’. This list of characteristics could be extended to age, disability, disease or other grounds.

A good gender mainstreaming practice in the world of work comprises any action which contributes to greater equality between sexes in any area of intervention and, which has

noticeable results. A good practice, according to the ILO, should fall within one or more of the four strategic areas of concern: protection and promotion of rights at work, employment development, strengthening of social protection and social dialogue (ILO, 2004). Labour markets around the world are highly segmented based on gender. Approximately, half of all workers in the world are in gender-dominated occupations where at least 80 percent of employees are of the same sex (Anker, 1998). This represents a significant form of labour market rigidity that reduces employment opportunities, especially for women, and impairs economic efficiency. Occupational segregation is also associated with lower wage rates for women, as typical women's occupations tend to have lower pay, lower status and fewer possibilities for advancement as compared to typical male professions (Anker *et al.*, 2003). There is even evidence that increasing feminisation in an occupation negatively affects the wage rate in the occupation (Goldin, 2002).

Studies have shown that different cultural practices have continued to hinder access to decent work. Differences emerged not only between men and women, but also with regard to education, household structure, race, class and access to social protection and support welfare system (Floro and Muers, 2009). Globally, female labour force participation rates were steady in 1996 to 2006, at about 53 per cent, compared to male rates of about 80 percent. Women are confined into particular types of employment. Women's jobs are more likely to be part-time or temporary jobs. In many countries, women are liable to work in the informal sector and the share of workers in this industry appears to be increasing (Floro and Muers, 2009). As observed by Stats South Africa (2012), gender inequalities continue to undermine decent work objectives, despite female labour force participation in South Africa, which increased from 38 percent in 1995 to 48.5 percent in 2012. Women employees face inequality and disadvantage in the workplace and face glaring pay differentials, gender stereotyping, discrimination based on maternity and family responsibilities, and difficulties in balancing work and family life (Commission for Gender Equality, 2010). Women are mainly concentrated in the feminised professions, such as nursing and teaching, while at the same time remaining in lower job categories, compared to men, and remain grossly underrepresented in senior positions.

Globally, women are often seen and regarded as second-class citizens, the bottom half of the men, machinery for producing children, mothers cum slaves, the object of sexual satisfaction (Alimi, 2008). Based on the above, Floro and Muers (2009) aver that cultural practices and social

institutions have brought about variations in women and men's performance of their socially ascribed roles and their relations to each other. Fapohunda (2012), sharing a similar view, explains that women are more affected by the contraction of formal employment and decent work. They are more into non-typical or non-standard work, which often comes with low pay, non-coverage of labour legislation or social protection. Many women, therefore, lack access to decent work and this constitutes one of the main causes of poverty among women. They face several constraints in the labour market, some of which include: their disproportionate concentration in vulnerable forms of work; horizontal and vertical occupational segregation; wage gaps and unequal division of unpaid domestic labour. Horizontal/parallel segregations persist in the labour market in Nigeria and institutional barriers, including norms and attitude, hamper women's movement into senior managerial positions. ILO (2009) affirms that, worldwide, only a small proportion of employed women work in industry. Gender discrimination and cultural norms worsen the situation for young women (Onadeko, 1998). Studies like Floro and Muers (2009) and Fapohunda (2012) have found that young women are less likely to be employed than young men. The process of globalisation and the accompanying economic restructuring, coupled with changing demographics and geopolitical conditions, have intensified these tensions by enlarging the scope and sphere of these discriminations. This also contributes to maintaining gender disparities and may even generate a backlash or reversal of movement towards gender equality. The burden of combining reproductive and paid work inevitably affects women's participation in paid labour and access to decent work. In addition, the burdens constitute stress not accounted for in traditional conceptions of decent work, which assess only the outcome of paid work, and do not examine related changes in reproductive labours by the same workers (Floro and Muers, 2009).

Despite efforts by women to close some gaps with men in their access to decent work, in many parts of the world, access to decent work has remained very difficult for both males and females (Floro and Muers, 2009). One of the key causes of the continuing gender wage gap in workplaces is that social and labour market policies have failed to reflect the realities of women's lives. Today, the greater majority of women, including mothers of young children and females with elderly parents participate in paid workforce. But working women still take on most of the responsibilities for the care and work in the home. Many employers demand very long hours of full-time workers but fail to provide reasonable and stable work schedules, which match

family needs, and will penalise women who take alternate leaves. As a result, many women are forced to work in lower paid and more unstable part-time jobs, or pay a big price for dropping out of the workforce for a year or two, or decide to work very long hours and not to have children at all (Floro and Muers, 2009).

Gender differences have further been examined using the social construction of sex roles and the social construction of dominant paradigms, or social theories, particularly in sociobiological and economic disciplines. These methods provide the intellectual rationale for the way societies determine differences between sexes and the way activities and roles are assigned (Ferber and Nelson, 2003). Accordingly, a woman's nature is to be compliant, not competitive, nurturing and not instrumental. Her primary role is to provide a haven for her family and, if she works for pay, she will do her best in the job compatible with her household responsibility and 'feminine personality' (Kim and Ling, 2001). On the other hand, man's natural role is to be a principal provider (Olutayo, 2005). Rationality, logicity and territoriality are attributes of a stereotypical male (Blau, Feber and Winkler, 2006). Influential social theories in the 1960's and 70's, particularly those in sociobiology, have reinforced the beliefs regarding gender roles. Such theories emphasised the biological paternal and maternal functions of female and male species, including humans, in determining their 'natural' traits. For example, Wilson (1975) argues that biological nature, which determines the differences between sexes, is the basis upon which gender differences in activities and roles are built.

Dominant economic thinking tends to foster these gender roles as well. Mainstream economic thought focuses on individual rationality, market competition, and market activities, including trade, finance and monetary exchanges (Beneria 2003). Methods of analysis that have 'culturally masculine' characteristics, such as autonomy, abstraction, and logic, are defined in the field. Topics such as unpaid work, non-market production, social norms, characteristics of connections, and concreteness, are considered 'feminine' and marginalised in mainstream thinking (Ferber and Nelson, 2003). In recent years, such views have been challenged both theoretically and empirically in both biological and social sciences. Recent developments in the field of sociobiology showed increasing evidence contrary to the traditional view of male dominance and rationality and female passivity and compliance (Kaplan and Rogers, 1994).

The roles performed by men and women reflect the existing gender relations, shaped by the interplay of cultural practices and social norms, economic incentives, political institutions and the law. Norms regarding family and kinship ties have been a central force in shaping women's lives in many parts of the world. In parts of the Middle East and North Africa, culture and the strength of patriarchy contribute to the relatively low labour force participation rate of women and high fertility rates (Papps, 1993). In Africa, social identity, division of labour, patriarchy and property transfers are often anchored in various forms of kin relationships (Obbo, 1994; Olutayo, 2005). For example, in Uganda, older men, control the distribution of rights in resources (Floro and Muers, 2009). Similarly, religion plays significant roles in influencing women's status directly through its interpretation and preaching, and indirectly through its influence on law and governance. Also, access to employment, birth control, education, public discourse on women's roles and control of women's fertility are often associated with family law and religion (Floro and Muers, 2009). Political institutions and the law, particularly those governing land rights, have also shaped women's and men's economic roles in some parts of Latin America (Floro and Muers, 2009).

Furthermore, political institutions and state intervention were significant in the recognition and upholding of the rights of women, including the right to work, in Scandinavian, socialist and post-socialist countries (Kabeer, Stark and Magnus 2008). These, however, have not necessarily led to the complete abandonment of patriarchal norms in the labour market. The tension between women's maternal and household responsibilities and the recognition of women's right to work has brought about debates on Sweden's family policy (Jelin, 2008). Since the dual-breadwinner role became established in Sweden, there has also been a trend toward decreased family stability, with women taking the initiative for divorce, as well as reports of increasing health problems for women, particularly in relation to stress (Jelin, 2008). The parental leave model may also affect gender equality in the labour market. The expectation of long leaves, for instance, could produce an unequal condition for women if employers see more risks than advantages in hiring women as employees.

Also, it is evident that an increase in women's time in the labour market (or paid work) does not adequately result to the resulting changes in women's access to decent work or their welfare. Having an independent source of income tends to be valued by women not only for what the income could buy but also for the greater dignity it brings (Balakrishnan, 2002). It may

also have severe costs on their health and well-being that counter these beneficial effects. In recent decades, the global economy has been facing severe financial and economic crises. The impact of the crisis on employment is felt by both women and men, but not in the same manner. Although the concern has been for all workers, attention has been paid mostly to the needs of wage workers, the majority of them in formal establishments; but unfortunately the majority of women are workers in the informal sector. ILO (2015) claims that employment has expanded by about 1.7 per cent from 1991 to 2007. However, since the outbreak of crises, employment growth has reduced to 1.2 per annum within 2007 and 2014. The period was characterised by a concentration of formal jobs and decent work (full-time, formal, regular and permanent contracts covered by labour legislation) and proliferation of various types of non-standard work in both developed and developing countries, including Nigeria. As observed by Fapohunda (2012b), the bulk of new employments in Nigeria in recent years has been in the informal economy. Such forms of work are precarious and poorly paid, with few benefits uncovered by labour legislation or social protection. Charmes (2009) notes that several factors are responsible for the rise in non-standard or atypical work. The downsizing of the public-sector and privatisation of state-owned enterprises are contributory factors as retrenched public sector employees often turn to the informal sector for a living. Also, the failure of current growth strategies to generate formal employment for all has encouraged the rise of informal working arrangements. Employers are now able to hire labour on increasingly less secure contracts and outsource activities to workers located in private enterprises (Chames, 2009).

ILO (2008) adds that the share of wages in total income declined between the early 1990s and the mid-2000s and, during the same period, the income gap between the top and bottom 10 per cent of wage earners increased. According to ILO (2009), sub-Saharan Africa only has a relatively high share of vulnerable employment in total employment, but also a relatively larger gender gap in vulnerable employment exceeding 10 per cent. Women in informal work have no access to social security or protection and have limited potential to organise and ensure the enforcement of international labour standards and human rights.

Ghai *et al.* (2003), in their effort to establish clear and measurable standards for decent work, note that, in many countries, data is not available to adequately measure the prevalence of such work. Standardised gender disaggregated data is not available for many of the indicators needed for such evaluation, as there exist substantial variation. All over the world, work has

become more insecure, as global competition has contributed to a shifting of jobs from formal, large firms to smaller and informal firms. While it is hard to generalise about the nature of casual work, it certainly offers less security than formal employment because it is outside the protection of labour laws and lacks rights to social benefits (Floro and Muers, 2009).

2.1.6 Work reorganisation and decent work

There have been significant changes in the way workers are being utilised all over the world in the last three decades. Some scholars have come up with three ways, namely: job broadening, employment insecurity and work intensification. According to Kalleberg (2003), employers have responded to these changes by seeking two kinds of organisational flexibility. One is functional or internal flexibility, which is the ability of the organisation to redeploy workers from one task to another. This is accompanied by the use of high-performance work organisations that empower employees to participate in decision-making, enabling teamwork and enhancing commitment to the company by linking their compensation to organisational performance (Appelbaum and Batt, 1994; Gittleman, 1999; Wood, 1999; Osterman, 2000). The second is the numerical or external flexibility, which refers to the organisation's ability to adjust the size of its workforce to fluctuations in demand by using workers who are not their regular, full-time employees (Kalleberg, 2003). Organisations are encouraged to limit the duration of jobs by using part-time and short-term temporary workers considered disposable and can be recruited and selected quickly; used when an organisation does not have the approval to hire; and (iii) cheaper than regular, full-time employees. These categories of workers are on the company's payroll but have relatively weak ties to the organisation (Kalleberg, 2003)

Disparity exists in some forms in the extent to which organisations have adopted one or both of these forms of flexibility. Although some evidence suggests that the use of high-performance work team has diffused greatly (Osterman, 2000), writers differ on how best to measure these practices and longitudinal data on organisations' practices of adoption are scarce. Research has shown that employers frequently benefit from adopting flexible work practices and employment systems. Companies adopting high-performance work practices have been seen to experience improvements in productivity and performance and some organisations have been able to save labour cost by using temporary and part-time workers and thereby enjoying greater profits (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). The management's interest for

flexibility has made it possible to have a streamlined work processes, through modification of rigid work rules and practices. It has linked employee's compensation to organisational performance and acquisition of broad skills. Also, it has allowed decentralisation of decision-making authority to operative levels by delayering management and increasing employee's involvement in workplace decisions. Similarly, it has developed a 'participatory enterprise culture' through self-management teams and 'cooperative,' labour-management relationships (Kumar, 1993).

The concept of work flexibility is anchored in the notion that organisations have autonomy and independence to make critical decisions concerning the structure and design of their workplace (Adeleye, 2011). However, with the widespread adoption and diffusion of several innovative or new management practices and trends in recent years, it is evident that these debates and alternative theoretical explanations have emerged on how the adoption of these practices by firms should be implemented (Marchington, 1995; Leseure *et al.*, 2004; Subranomy, 2006).

Furthermore, the influence of work reorganisation on decent work has been seen in the areas of subcontracting and outsourcing non-essential functions. Subcontracting has become an essential ingredient of modern production (Pastore, 2008). Some organisations have concentrated on one or more of their core competencies in order to use their resources more efficiently. The attempt to increase flexibility also has negative consequences for some organisations and employees, although these effects have been less documented (Kalleberg, 2003; Pastore, 2008). Work reorganisation has been seen to encourage some precarious employment situations (Rodgers, 2007; Gibb, 2009). There is no doubt that work reorganisation has brought about significant changes in the work environment. Organisations are encouraged to engage in various precarious employments, such as involuntary part-time, temporary work, contract work (Gibb, 2009). All these hazardous works have effects on the decent work agenda of the ILO, which seeks to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO, 1999; Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). Lewchuk *et al.* (2006) stress that workers in precarious situations are less likely to know their rights, they may be excluded from legal coverage entirely and can be fired for exercising their rights. Despite the fact that their employment situations are illegal, they have limited or no access to social benefits, including health and pension benefits, and they are exposed to more

health and safety risks. They also maintain a much lower probability of entitlement to state benefits and workplace training (Standing, 2008).

Outsourcing has been seen as a management strategy by which an organisation delegates its non-core functions to specialised and efficient service providers. Corbett (1999) sees outsourcing as nothing less than the comprehensive restructuring of corporations around core competencies and outside relationships. According to Kotabe, Murray and Javalagi (1998), successful implementation of outsourcing strategy has helped to reduce cost, increase capacity and improve quality. Kotabe *et al.* (1998) discuss the long-term negative consequences of outsourcing as a result of a company's dependence on independent suppliers. They note that much reliance on outsourcing may make it inherently difficult for the company to sustain its long-term competitive advantage without engaging in the developmental activities of the constantly evolving design and engineering technologies. Supporting the above view, Steensma and Corley (2000) found that the outcomes of technology sourcing partnerships from the sourcing firms' perspective and equity-based alliances were more efficient than contract-based outsourcing.

The entry of multinational companies has further led to the effective competition between and among industries. The use of outsourcing reflects the efforts of large organisations to gain new margins of flexibility in competitive markets and lower costs on short-term and long-term bases. Multinational companies distance themselves from the production process and also absolve themselves of any responsibility for workers' interests (Esbenshade, 2004; Merk, 2009). The growth of transnational production chains has continued to heighten insecurity and vulnerability for those workers employed by subcontractors, who know that their jobs and livelihoods depend upon the continuing preferment of their factory locations as a source of cheap labour (Collins, 2003).

The traditional industrial relations systems based on the concept of a full-time employee working within an organisation are increasingly being challenged by the use of non-standard work arrangements (NSWAs) by employers. This changing nature of work has taken a new dimension, with the adoption of flexible work arrangements by many firms globally. These changes are attributed to the globalisation of the world economy (Blanpain, 1999; Flora and Meurs, 2009). The subject running through many of the new approaches to management in a

globalised economy today is the development of a more flexible workforce (Benson and Ieronimo, 1996), which has become employers' new frontier in the management of labour (Baglioni, 1990). Employers prefer flexible workforce (Rodgers, 2007). The implication for workers, particularly those in the production industries and in blue-collar unskilled occupations, is that there are fewer, insecure and stressful jobs, as workplaces become lean and mean, with focus on producing 'more with less' (Kumar, 1993). The World Bank's (2002) survey found that 34 to 38 per cent of the firms in many countries reported that employment protection legislation is a moderate or major obstacle for them. The survey equally found that workers tend to be sceptical of the benefits of flexible work and that the positions of governments vary widely. There is no agreed ILO position on this issue, despite its obvious importance to the ILO's decent work agenda.

These changing patterns of work, such as casual, contract, temporary, and part-time employments, and subcontracting, occasioned by Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), have created concerns for workers and trade unions alike, especially in Nigeria. Job security, social security, terminal benefits and minimum conditions of work are some of these issues that have made the ILO objectives on decent work impossible in many organisations. Scholars have argued that these new forms of work arrangements have led to the prospects of a 'race to the bottom' in labour standards, particularly in the developing nations (Banks, 2006; Adewumi, 2009). On scrutiny, it is evident that labour standards are being compromised by most firms involved in all categories of non-standard work practices. Such standards include the right to form or belong to a trade union and the right to collective bargaining. Casualisation of employment is growing at an alarming rate. More and more workers in permanent jobs are daily losing their jobs and are being re-employed as casual/contract workers or replaced by casual or contract workers (Otobo, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Adenugba, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2005; Okafor, 2007). Casual work, which is supposed to be a form of temporary employment, has acquired the status of permanent jobs in Nigeria, without the statutory benefits associated with that status.

One of the most commonly used tactics in work reorganisation is downsizing. Research assessing the consequences of organisational downsizing has primarily centred on the effects of being a lay-off survivor and the experience of job insecurity (Nadeem and Abbas, 2009). The literature suggests that downsizing can have negative consequences for both employees and their organisations. Downsizing strategies come in different forms and angles but they all, by

definition, contain methods of personnel reduction. de Vries and Balazs (1997) define downsizing as the planned elimination of position or jobs. Ashford, Lee and Bokko (1989) view it from the angle of workers faced with decreased job satisfaction. In recent decades, the world has witnessed an increase in the occurrence of organisational downsizing and laying-off of millions of people (Cascio, 1998). During the 1980s and 1990s, more than 3 million white-collar jobs were eliminated in the United States alone and the situation in Asia and Europe was not much different (Rifkin, 1995). In the same vein, Aluko (2007) avers that about 4.8 million Nigerians have so far lost their jobs since the re-emergence of democratic governance in 1999, through its reform policy of downsizing in the public sector of the economy.

Almost every organisation must embark on reorganisation during its lifespan as a reaction to changing markets, pressure from competitors, and new product lines, which can make the change necessary if the organisation is to survive. Martynova and Renneborg (2008) observe that reorganisation may arise as a result of mergers, acquisitions or joint venture, break-ups, divestitures, downsizing, expansion into new locations, markets, technologies or product lines and leadership change. Annually in the United States, approximately 500,000 U.S. workers lose their jobs as a result of the various transitions. In recent times, Nigeria has experienced major changes in organisational downsizing and mergers and acquisition and work reorganisation, leading to significant losses among various categories of workers in its manufacturing sector over the past two decades. Approximately 4.2 million job losses were recorded in the manufacturing sector between 1983 and January 2006 (*MAN Newsletter*, 2010).

However, international or multinational corporations have continued to neglect ILO standards, by engaging in unfair labour practices that are driven by profit maximisation (Anugwon, 2007). Much of the pressure to adopt new production systems form the example of foreign competitors and this pressure probably is felt, most strongly by organisations that compete in international markets. The geographic dispersion of research, design, manufacturing and other operations has been made possible by declining transportation costs, advances in digital communications and falling barriers to trade and investment. This becomes inevitable and has unleashed competitive forces across all countries. Several other environmental features may influence the adoption of new work systems. Establishments that are parts of larger organisations may receive greater resources, information and technical assistance in adopting flexible work

organisation than independent institutions (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Pfeffer and Cohen 1984; Baron, Jennings Devereau and Dobbin, 1988).

These changes have had many consequences, such as reducing the effectiveness of workers' voice, certainly at the level of the company and plant. As a result, workers now have less check on arbitrary and unfair employer practices (Gospel, 2003; Fajana, 2005; Pastore, 2008; Adewumi, 2009). Also, these changes may have reduced the standardisation and increased the variety of terms and conditions within companies, industries and countries. At the same time, however, new mechanisms of direct participation may have increased workers say over the immediate task of work. On their part, unions have reacted in various ways, but in many instances have shown their growing interest in collaborating with management to increase employees' satisfaction and well-being. According to this view, such a 'partnership' relationship is likely to provide a more efficient basis for maintaining jobs and supporting members (Gospel, 2003). Pastore (2008) asserts that trade unions have become powerless to deal with this situation, as the globalisation of the labour markets has occurred much faster than the globalisation of labour protection. Inequality and informality have greatly increased in the work environment, with about two-thirds of the world workforce unprotected. Cheap labour is equivalent to poor conditions of work, as organisations can mitigate the suffering of workers in trying to remain relevant and competitive.

The transformations of social relationship that have accompanied the political and economic restructuring since the 1970s have been described by such terms as globalisation and post-industrialism. This transformation has had profound implications for decent work and workers. The post-war Fordist paradigm of industrial organisation based on Taylorism in the workplace, managerial rights to technological change, unionisation to protect jobs and wages through job hierarchies and security, and a welfare state has been jettisoned (Onyeonuru, 2002; Adewumi, 2009). Also, high wages and stable employment have been undermined by subcontracting and job losses to low-wage countries not matched by vaunted expansion of the service sector (Russell, 1999).

Post-industrialists have argued in support of the benefits of work reorganisation. As noted by Onyeonuru (2002), the new models for change were first introduced from the organisations headquarters abroad. The changes in structure are carried out under such pet programmes as

change management, organisational restructuring and re-engineering. Taylorism and fixed job hierarchies were seen as limiting productivity growth and poorly utilising the human talent. The alternative is the new forms of flexible work organisation, based on work teams, multi-skilling linked to knowledge payment systems and productivity gain sharing (Russell, 1999). However, Onyeonoru (2002) found that studies in some organisations that have restructured along post-modernist lines showed that the new forms are a response to the survival challenges and competition climate created by adverse socio-economic environments of the time. He claims that the economic context in Nigeria has given rise to unstable market conditions characterised by the economic crisis. Consequently, there are threats to the business climate in many organisations occasioned by new prices and market demands. The acclaimed post-modern features shaping institutions in contemporary society represent dynamic organisational responses to the deep capitalist crisis that became globalised since the 1970s (Onyeonoru, 2002).

The changes in the workplace also affect the relations between the organisation's constituencies. High commitment workplace practices are antidotes to aligning management and workers' objectives and to encouraging a more intense direct dialogue between the parties. The role of a cooperative and participative industrial relations climate in influencing the workers well-being cannot be neglected. Participatory industrial relations legitimately complement aspects of innovation activities, affecting working conditions and not only firms' economic performance (Menezes-Filho and Van Reenen, 2003; Metcalf, 2003). Most of the times, unions are concerned about or committed to the well-being of their members, but management is often less sensitive towards workers' well-being and more focused on workers' efforts. The presence of unions in the workplace, their recognition of and their cooperative relations with management, and the inclination of the latter to listen to them may contribute to a non-conflictual resolution of the partially different objectives of the two parties (Onyeonoru, 2002; Adewumi, 2009). In fact, it may be argued that, within a cooperative environment, unions can influence management decisions on innovation implementation, leading to the choice of configurations that produce higher efficiency and have a positive or at least not detrimental impact on workers' conditions.

In reality, the decent work agenda constitutes a framework for social policy, which integrates many of these elements. Each country has its social goals and institutions, but there are broad objectives, which are widely shared, such as the importance of access to productive employment for all. Others are security of work and income and, in the workplace, respect for

core rights at work (including freedom from coercion and discrimination), freedom of association and a democratic process of negotiation and social dialogue by which these goals are set and achieved. This concerns the dignity of work and gender equality in work and the role of work in social integration and personal development constituting elements of a decent work agenda (ILO, 1999; Haiven *et al.*, 2005). Rodgers (2007) notes how painstaking it is to achieve decent work as a set of policies for employment promotion and protection, security and income support, advancement in equality of opportunity and access, and rights at work which have been problematic. He stresses that the combination of institutions and policies which constitute a social model at work in many ways point to articulation of economic and social goals, which make sense to build coherence in economic and social policy foundation.

The issue of working long hours has generated a lot of debates from researchers and policymakers, as the number of hours that employees in developed countries work are increasing (Ng and Feldman, 2008; Trade Union Congress (TUC), 2008). In the United Kingdom, for example, over 3.6 million people regularly work more than 48 hours per week (TUC, 2008). The worst scenario is found among those in managerial and professional jobs, as almost 90 per cent of them exceed their contracted hours, working on average of 1.3 hours beyond contract a day (Worrall and Cooper, 2007). There are signs that the recent economic crisis has led people to put even more hours into work (TUC, 2010).

Research findings showed that the major motivation for working long hours is to meet organisational workload demands and fulfil exacting professional norms (Feldman, 2002). In the work environment, individuals see spending longer hours on work as an avenue to prove their professional credibility and further their careers (Ng and Feldman, 2008). Quite many studies have shown that the more an individual places value on work in terms of job involvement, work commitment and career identity salience, the longer the hours they will spend on work (Wallace, 1997; Major, Klein and Ehrhart, 2002; Brett and Stroh, 2003). Despite these insights, important questions relating to the experience of working long hours remain unanswered. First, little is known about how people experience and feel about working long hours. Some research suggested that working long hours may be widely resented because of the effect it has on other aspects of an individual's life (Crompton and Lyonette, 2007).

In a study in the UK, 80 per cent of the workforce indicated that they would like to spend more time with their families and 66 per cent said that the demands of their job sometimes interfered with their family life (Crompton and Lyonette, 2007). Other researchers suggest, however, that some managers and professionals work long hours willingly and enjoy doing so (Hochschild, 1997; Lewis, 2003; Hewlett and Luce, 2006). For such 'work enthusiasts', the positive benefits of working longer hours, such as job and career satisfaction, seem to outweigh any disadvantages (Burke, 1999). Besides, little is known about how and why individuals engage in different patterns of long working hours. For example, some people may work longer hours on occasions to meet deadlines at work, whereas others work longer hours all the time because they find their jobs enjoyable and absorbing (Mainemelis, 2001; Lingard, Francis and Turner, 2010).

Existing research focuses on invariable measurements of work hours, but has not examined when they take place, how they are distributed over the working week, month or year, and why different patterns of long working hours may exist (Beckers, van Hoff, van der Linden, *et al.*, 2008). Similarly, the differences between men and women who work long hours are not yet fully understood. Most studies have found that women work shorter hours than their male colleagues, especially if they are married and have young children (Wallace, 1997; Powell and Greenhaus, 2010). However, well-educated female managers and professionals work longer hours than women in other kinds of jobs (Seron and Ferris, 1995; Maume and Bellas, 2001). One explanation for their behaviour is that they believe their careers will suffer. Some studies suggest that women's motivation to work longer hours may be more complex and partly driven by higher levels of conscientiousness and willingness to put in discretionary effort, when compared to men (Morrison, 1994; Kmec and Gorman, 2010). One reason existing studies tell us little about people's experience of working long hours is that they treated work time purely as an objective and a quantifiable phenomenon (Brett and Stroh, 2003). From this perspective, time is a finite, limited commodity that can be spent on different activities within and outside the workplace.

However, work time also has a qualitative dimension that is important with regard to understanding attitudes and experiences relating to long working hours. From the qualitative perspective, work time is not value-neutral but a socially constructed state to which individuals ascribe subjective meanings (Daly, 1996; Hassard, 1996; Tietze and Musson, 2002). Thompson and Bunderson (2001:23) note that, as a consequence, work time can mean different things to

different people, for example, 'passionate commitments, resented obligations, aimless puttering, or carefree entertainment'.

2.1.7 Pension scheme and decent work

Social protection has been conceptualised as a set of interventions which is aimed at addressing poverty, vulnerability and risk by the ILO. Such interventions may be carried out by the state, non-governmental actors or the private sector, or through ordinary individual or community initiatives. Social protection coverage is measured from different points of view: the amount of money public authorities dedicate to social security, the share of persons benefiting from a social security scheme (current beneficiaries) and the proportion of the population contributing to a social security system (future beneficiaries) (ILO, 2012). According to Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler's (2004), the transformative social protection framework takes into consideration both economic and social sources of risk and is based on a framework whereby social protection promotes social equity as well as economic growth. It includes four levels of welfare provision:

- 1 protective (protecting households' income and consumption and such protective provision include: welfare programmes, such as cash transfers, in-kind transfers, fee waivers to support access to core and social services);
- 2 preventative (preventing households from falling into or further into poverty and such provision includes: health insurance programmes, subsidised risk pooling mechanisms);
- 3 promotive (promoting household's ability to engage in productive activities and increase incomes, for example through public works employment schemes, agricultural inputs, transfers or subsidies); and
- 4 transformative (addressing social inequalities and discrimination, which includes core social protection programmes, which tackle gender inequality and promote child rights and linkages to awareness-raising programmes or tackling discrimination).

Social protection directly targets workers in areas that affect them, like pension, household grants and public works programmes. One thing that has been a major source of concern for most workers in the private or public sectors in Nigeria is life after retirement. The fears of facing the future after retirement are a source of worry among employees. Workers see retirement as a transition that could lead to a physiological, psychological and economic problem

(Ogunbameru and Bamiwuye, 2004). The mere thoughts of facing an uncertain future after retirement by workers have encouraged most bureaucratic corruption (Agba, Ikoh, Ushie and Agba, 2008); and have also been linked to low commitment to work by employees and the service ineffectiveness of vital institutions in Nigeria.

The pension scheme is to provide employees regular and stable income after their retirement from service. It is an arrangement an employer or a group of employers use(s) to provide pension (and sometimes other) benefits for their employees when they leave or retire. They also provide benefits to the employee's dependents if the employee dies. These schemes are usually funded by contributions from just the employer, or from both the employer and the employee (Occupational Pensions Regulatory Authority (OPRA)). An excellent pension scheme does not only serve as an incentive to employees, but also helps to attract and retain experienced staff. Pension plans are social security maintenance plan for workers after their disengagement as employees through retirement (Ilesami, 2006). The history of pension in Nigeria could be traced to the prolonged battle between workers and employers of labour on better conditions of service. The victory of the workers over the employers marked the beginning of receiving gratuity and pension in Nigeria (Sule and Ezugwu, 2009). A pension is money paid on regular basis by the government or any establishment to someone who is officially considered retired from active service after serving for a stipulated time, usually a minimum of ten years and a maximum of thirty-five years. The Pension Ordinance of 1951 was the first ever legislative act on pension in the public sector in Nigeria. It started on a smooth take-off, and after sometimes suffered setbacks. Some other notable pension-related acts are the Pension Ordinance of 1956, the National Provident Fund, the Pension Act 102 of 1979 and the Nigerian Social Insurance Trust Fund. The National Provident Fund (NPF) was established to address pension issues in the private sector. This was followed by the Pension Act No.102 of 1979 and the Armed Forces Pension Act No.103 of 1979. In 1987, the police and other government agencies' pension schemes were established under Pension Act No.75 of 1987; in the same year, the Local Government Staff Pension Board (LGSPB) was established to cater for pension matters among local government employees (Sule and Ezugwu, 2009). In the private sector, pension reforms have been slow and marginal since 1961, it was only in 1993 that a pragmatic step was made by government to address the many problems of pension in the private sector. The government

established the National Social Insurance Trust Fund (NSITF) in 1993, to cater for pension issues in the private sector.

On the 1st July 1994, the National Social Insurance Trust Fund (NSITF) was established under the Nigerian Social Insurance Trust Fund Act of 1993 with the aim of enhancing the social protection of private sector employees. It took over all the assets of the National Provident Fund (NPF) to run a limited Social Security Program (Ndubuisi, 2004). The scheme came to the limelight with the agreement of the tripartite platform which consisted of the government, organised labour and employers. It was established in response to the requirement of International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention of 1952, which mandated member countries to establish a social security programme for its members (Bassey, Atim and Asinya, 2008). The scheme prescribed that all private employers having five or more employees should remit 10 per cent of their monthly emolument in the ratio of 3.5 per cent by the employee and 6.5 percent by the employer. The initial monthly contribution before 2001 was 7.5 percent in the ratio of 2.5 percent by the employee and 5 percent from the employer. Just like its counterpart, the scheme was faced with numerous problems. For instance, the scheme suffered from poor public perception (Ndubuisi, 2004). This was because it was regarded by the public as emerging from the National Provident Fund, which was plagued with a similar problem. Also, the scheme suffered from underfunding, as the bulk of the contributions (6.5 percent) rested on the employers. As a result, most employers were unable to contribute adequately but were still making deductions and not remitting same to NSITF officials. There was also the lack of an apex regulating agency to monitor the deduction and administration of the fund. This was coupled with the frequent pension verification exercise (Ojo-Aromokudo, 2009), which resulted from rampant complaints of loss of pensioners' files and other records, translating into loss of public confidence in the scheme (Amaechi and Alban, 2009).

Several years after the establishment of the New Pension Act (2004), there is still speculation among Nigerians about the success of the scheme, particularly whether the new pension act will be able to address the many problems associated with retirement schemes in the past. The general features of the Nigerian Pension Scheme before 2004 reform were non-contributory and characterised by many impediments. A large number of pensioners and mismanagement of pension funds impose a heavy burden on government and the private sector (Ikeji, Nwosu and Agba, 2011). As noted by Buhari (2003), the public pension debt as at 2003

was over one trillion naira. The increasing effect of the debt was as a result of government's inability to service the pensions of retirees. As a result, pensioners could not pay their children's school fees, and cater for their health and other necessities of life (Ikeji, Nwosu and Agba, 2011). It was this uncertain scenario that necessitated the enactment of the Pension Reform Act of 2004. The 2004 Pension Reform Act is a shift from the 1979 Pension Act.

Under the new pension scheme, employers and employees are to contribute 7.5 percent each of employees' monthly emolument which includes basic salary, housing and transport allowance. However, military personnel are to contribute 2.5 percent, while the Federal Government contributes 12.5 percent of the employees' monthly emolument (Pension Reform Act, 2004). The scheme covers the private sector having five or more employees. The only exceptions are public employees, who have three years or less to retire with effect from the date of enactment of the Pension Act, 30th June 2004 (National Pension Commission, 2004). The employer may elect under the 2004 Pension Act to bear the full burden of the pension by contributing not less than 15 percent of the employees' monthly emolument.

The objective of the new pension scheme is to ensure that every employee in the private and public sectors receives his/her benefits as and when due; and to establish a uniform rules, regulations, standards and laws for the administration, management and payment of pension funds in the country (Ikeji, Nwosu and Agba, 2011). The scheme was also established to assist employees by ensuring that they save to cater for life after retirement. Besides, the scheme was to address the massive unsustainable pension deficit estimated at two trillion naira, which characterised the former Pay-As-You-Go (PAYG) Pension Scheme. As summarised by Aminu (2010:1), 'The contributory pension scheme would address the pension deficit of the past in Nigeria; that the scheme, as of July 2010, has an asset of 1.7 trillion naira (11.3 billion dollars) across the country'.

The contributory pension scheme is also expected to have multiplier effects on workers' attitude towards retirement, commitment to duty, and labour retention as well as corruption, especially in the civil or public service. The uncertainty of receiving pension and gratuity after retirement was primarily responsible for high labour turnover in the public service. WHO (2007) posits that poor remuneration, delay in payment of fringe benefits and poor conditions of service, among others, are jointly responsible for the large number of pensioners and mismanagement of

pension funds, which impose heavy burden on government and the private sector. This precarious situation necessitated the enactment of the Pension Reform Act of 2004.

Workers' commitment to organisational goals has received wide attention (Steer, 1977). It involves the willingness of an employee to invest personal effort for the sake of the organisation (Agba, Nkoyen and Ushie, 2008). It includes attitudes or orientation towards organisational goals or objectives (Hall and Schneider, 1972). Commitment is the positive and consistent attitude towards organisational goal that are produced by exchange consideration. Workers' commitment is a function of many variables, including characteristics of the job situation, the work environment, leadership style and career development (Salanick, 1977; Agba, Nkoyen and Ushie, 2008; Ushie, Agba, Agba and Chime, 2010; Ushie, Agba, Agba and Best, 2010). Employees' commitment could also be influenced by the level of job involvement or the responsibilities of the worker (Lodahl and Kejners, 1965). Also, commitment is tied to how well an employee is motivated. The motivation here entails the process of influencing employees' behaviour towards the attainment of organisational goal (Dhameja and Dhameja, 2009). Motivation includes meeting the psychological, financial and emotional needs of workers. Pension is part of motivation and could help attain the psychological and emotional needs of workers, because it assures them of life after retirement.

An excellent pension scheme would determine the level of workers' commitment as well as influence whether an employee will do his/her work conscientiously. According to Sule and Ezugwu (2009), good pension guarantees employee's comfort and commitment to the organisation during his/her active years. A few private-sector companies in Nigeria have pension plans and the publicised problems of pension schemes have been on the public pension schemes. There are numerous problems with the pension scheme, which include: delays in the payment of gratuities to fresh retirees, arrears in pension payment for old pensioners, the erosion of the value of pensions by inflation, increasing incidence of ghost pensioners, mismanagement and misappropriation of pension funds, and disparities in pension practices among organisations (even among public sector agencies) (Sule and Ezugwu, 2009).

2.1.8 Bargaining power and decent work

One of the goals of the ILO is to ensure decent work for men and women all over the world. It is aimed at strengthening social dialogue by involving national institutions, legal

frameworks, labour administrations and all tripartite consultation processes. The organisation seeks to promote sound labour relations and to increase the participation of the social partners in economic and social policy-making. To encourage productive jobs for men, women and young persons around the world, a series of indicators on trade union representation and collective bargaining coverage are essential to assess and monitor progress regarding the components of industrial relations. The contribution of such statistics to measuring progress in implementing decent work as well as the social impacts of globalisation at the local, national and international levels will nurture the development of sound social and economic policies related to this phenomenon (Lawrence and Ishikawa, 2005).

ILO (2004:3) defines social dialogue as:

all types of negotiation, consultation or simply exchange of information between representatives of governments, employers and workers, on issues of mutual interest relating to economic and social policy. Currently, work on social dialogue indicators is focused on collecting key industrial relations statistics relating to trade union membership, trade union density and collective bargaining coverage.

The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98) form the core of fundamental principles and rights at work. The conventions hammer on freedom of association and collective bargaining as the basis of social justice and democracy. Freedom of association and the right to bargain are of paramount importance to both workers and employers to engage in negotiations of mutually favourable collective agreements. Constructive negotiations encourage fairer economic development through a joint effort to increase productivity and enhance conditions of work (ILO 2004). However, there have been cases of conflicts in work environments arising from the parochial interest of the employers represented by the management and that of the employees represented by their unions (Fajana and Shadare, 2012). Social dialogue is a medium of exchanging information and ideas that facilitate harmonious relationship in a work environment. Social dialogue includes:

All types of negotiation, consultation or simply exchange of information between, or among, representatives of governments, employers and workers, on issues of mutual interest relating to economic and social policy (Fajana and Shadare, 2012: 4).

Social dialogue sometimes comes up as bipartite or tripartite. When it is bipartite, it involves the employers and the trade unions, where the government acts as a silent partner by setting the parameters for the parties involved. On the other hand, tripartite dialogue requires cooperation among government, employers' organisations and workers' organisation in formulating or implementing labour, social or economic policies (ILO, 2002). Tripartism and social dialogue are integral components of decent and productive work, for all women and men, and constitute key channels for achieving this in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO, 1999). Both forms may be purely advisory to the government or may involve negotiations leading to agreements. The relevant ILO instrument concerning social dialogue is the Consultation (Industrial and National Levels) Recommendation, 1960 (No. 113). In 2002, the ILO, at its 90th session, adopted the resolution concerning tripartite social dialogue. Governments of member states were enjoined 'to ensure that the necessary preconditions exist for social dialogue, including respect for the fundamental principles and the right to freedom of association and collective bargaining, a sound industrial relations environment, and compliance with the role of the social partners' in achieving employment goals and improving social protection (Turnbull, 2005).

Fajana and Shadare (2012) observe that management employ various policies in ensuring harmonious and industrial relationship between workers and their employers. These include corporate performance and plans for structural changes in mergers and acquisitions, redundancy arising from variations in the organisation environment. Others are the job requirements for an employee and the reporting system, disciplinary rules, social and welfare facilities, safety regulations and suggestion schemes. Employees are communicated to through certain modes of communication, such as: internal communication, joint consultation and collective bargaining.

- (i) **Internal Communication:** As noted by Fajana and Shadare (2012), effective interactions with employees are supported by employers whether they are unionised or not. There various means and new ones are evolving to serve social dialogue in industries. They include:
- (ii) **Maintenance of Industrial Intranet Connectivity:** This involves the use of email services, which enables workers to have access to Internet facilities and also to pass information to

their superiors and colleagues. Workers find this easy and convenient to use as a medium of communication.

- (iii) Publication of house journals and magazines: This is the oldest and, perhaps, the traditional method of industrial communication. They carry information about the personal details of staff, as well as social events in the organisation. Examples include: information on promotion and advancement, leave, termination of appointment, news on staff wedding, naming ceremonies, and so on. Also, bulletins, notice boards, newsletters, and house journals are freely used in disseminating such information
- (iv) Adoption of an open-door policy: Management encourages workers to come forward as individuals and in groups for the purpose of contributing their ideas in the day-to-day running of firms. The companies put all relevant information at the disposal of the employees, who would respond by making suggestions for improvement. The use of suggestion schemes or suggestion box is an inclusive approach, aimed at encouraging workers in decision-making and management roles. For example, in the oil and gas sector, local contractors are invited to participate in decision-making, thereby getting the community and contract employees involved in the management of business. In the absence of this arrangement, contract staff would have very little or no voice in the administration of the parent companies.

2.1.8.1 Joint consultation

Consultation can take different forms. It could be direct but informal, face-to-face discussions that take place over day-to-day, job-related issues between individual employees and their immediate manager. Similarly, elected representatives of the social partners can meet in a highly formalised setting to discuss issues of strategic importance. In some situations, consultation could be entirely marginal to negotiations because workers' organisations prefer to deal with management, through collective bargaining. In other circumstances, discussion is seen as an important complement (or prelude) to collective bargaining. It could also be used by management as a substitute for formal negotiations (Turnbull, 2005). Because negotiations typically involve formal agreements that commit the social partners to a particular course of action, making them jointly responsible for the ensuing outcomes, they are regarded as a more intense form of social dialogue than either consultation or information sharing (Isikawa, 2003).

Social dialogue works best when it is an ongoing process, embracing all the different elements of information sharing, consultation and negotiation, rather than an option the social partners simply call upon at times of crisis or major structural change (Turnbull, 2005).

Joint consultation is a mutual communication process employed for resolving conflict arising from issues of common interest. Management, rather than passing direct information to workers, extend hands of fellowship in seeking the views of staff on management's plan for innovations. Workers' suggestions and views are taken and may be used in decisions (Fajana, 2000). Social dialogue helps in building trust between the parties, the essence of which is a belief that another party will continue to adhere to rules of fairness and reciprocity, even in circumstances where it might be advantageous to do otherwise (Turnbull, 2005). In the larger firms, Joint Consultative Committees (JCCs) are usually organised on a plant basis. They serve the following functions:

- (i) giving employees the prospect of improving policies, through their submissions, making full use of staff expertise, ideas and innovations;
- (ii) offering labour and management the opportunity to identify with and have a high opinion of each other's views and perceptions;
- (iii) making available a forum where administration and staff can swap over advice, views and ideas on all matters touching their joint and several interests in the workplace before or after decisions have been made;
- (v) providing a workable method of associating employees with the running of the business;
- (vi) creating an unassailable safety valve and a two-way channel of communication between staff and management;
- (vii) helping to foster co-operation between management and employees; and
- (viii) improving the quality of decisions, by using the knowledge and experience of those most affected by those judgments.

2.1.8.2 Collective bargaining

Collective bargaining is the channel or medium through which wages and conditions of employment of workers are regulated by agreements between the employees' representatives and their employers (Flander, cited in Fajana and Shadare, 2012). ILO (2005) defines collective bargaining as the process of workers' organisations and employers' organisations (or individual

employers) negotiating in all areas relating to wages and terms of employment. According to Rose (2008), the term collective bargaining emanated from Webb and Webb to describe the process of agreement relating to the conditions of employment through representatives of employers (and possibly their associations) and representatives of employees (and probably their unions). Collective bargaining is the process whereby representatives of parties in the negotiation (that is, employers and employees) collectively determine and maintain decisions about both essential and procedural matters within the employment relationship. The outcome of this process is the collective agreement. As averred by Anyim *et al.* (2011), collective bargaining is one of the processes of industrial relations, which perform a series of functions in work relations. It could be viewed as a means of industrial jurisprudence as well as a form of industrial democracy. It is a mechanism for resolving industrial and workplace conflict between labour and management as well as the determination of terms and conditions of employment. For workers, collective bargaining helps to convey their voice to ensure decent pay and working conditions and share in the benefits of economic progress. For employers, collective bargaining is a means to maintain social peace and prosperity.

Collective bargaining decisions depend on the voluntary interaction between two parties and its outcome – the collective agreement (generally based on the consent of both sides). These negotiations need to be distinguished from workplace or national consultations that are only advisory and where final decisions are generally taken by management or the State. Similarly, collective agreements often require registration that is, in certain systems, compulsory for their legal validity and enforcement. As noted by Turnbull (2005), globalisation has created a new agenda for social dialogue in the work environments. From the workers' perspective, the primary concern is for job security and associated conditions of employment that jointly constitute decent work for them (ILO, 1995). Workers want decent work but many employers believe that permanent employment and guaranteed income are not viable in today's global economy.

The collective bargaining process is acclaimed internationally as the legal instrument by which employees and management settle conflicts arising from employment contracts. In particular, the conventions and standards of the ILO are noticeable and instrumental. The result of the negotiation process is the signing of an agreement between both parties. Collective bargaining thus exemplifies bipartite social dialogue. Within the industrialised world, both union density and collective bargaining coverage are weakest in the liberal market economies (UK,

USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand) (Visser, 2002), because of their pluralist and fragmented union structures, prevalence of company-level agreements, and weak social partnership traditions or institutions (ILO, 2005). Collective bargaining coverage rates are very low in industrialising countries (like Eastern Europe, Latin America and the emerging economies in South and South East Asia) despite some countries displaying relatively high union density rates. Similarly, in many countries in these regions, the institutional structures relating to social partnership are weak or still developing. Union and employers' organisations are only portions and often locked into confrontational relations. Also, a large share of employment in the developing world takes place in the informal economy, in which the structures of unionisation and collective bargaining hardly exist, and where poor statistical evidence influences proper assessment of the situation (ILO, 2005; Fajana and Shadare, 2012).

Unionisation and collective bargaining coverage is declining across all sections of the private sector, with density and collective bargaining rates still high in private manufacturing and construction establishments (Visser, 2002; Adewumi, 2009; Fajana and Shadare, 2012). During recession, government support of collective bargaining and extension of agreements can play an important role. Underlying these trends are liberalisation and deregulation and rising unemployment levels. Associated fragmentation of workers' representation and decentralisation of wage bargaining structures result in falling collective bargaining coverage rates. In sub-Saharan Africa, it has been established that unions often display strong relations with political parties (ILO, 2005). The institutional and structural base of industrial relations have been eroded by the social, political and economic crises experienced by sub-Saharan Africa over the last few decades (Visser, 2002; Adewumi, 2009). On the part of employers, affordability continues to remain a big constraint against the readiness and willingness to concede well-deserved improvements that unions demand. Despite the fact that bargaining has received considerable elevating policy pronouncements, there is less of such regarding its seriousness and effectiveness in various industrial sectors (Adewumi, 2009).

Often the unilateral determination or awards by the employers' record short-term acceptance, but do not always satisfy the long run yearning of the employees. In Nigeria, the three tiers of government (federal, state and local) have continued to set aside collective bargaining and award wages unilaterally to score political points, in spite of its commitment to the ILO Convention 98 to freely bargain with workers. The government, in trying to regulate

wages and employment terms and conditions, revert to the use of wage commissions (Anyim *et al.*, 2011). Thus, wage is determined by fiat. The continuous use of wage commissions is regarded as a unilateral system, as collective bargaining is consigned to the background. Wage tribunals or commissions offer little opportunity for workers' contribution to the resolution of terms and conditions of employment and can hardly be viewed as bilateral or tripartite. Thus, the state preference for wage commissions is against the principle of collective bargaining. In spite of Nigeria's commitment to the conventions of the ILO, with particular reference to such conventions as 87 of 1948 and 98 of 1949 which provide for freedom of association and the right of workers to organise and bargain collectively, there have been no committed compliance. This position of the state has restrained effective collective bargaining in the public sector. As observed by Chidi (2008), the use of *ad hoc* commissions in addressing workers' demands, such as wage determination and other terms and conditions, is unilateral and undemocratic; it negates good industrial democratic principles. The Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) has continued in its struggle to determine minimum wages for the country since its inception. It has advocated and supported an endorsement for a lower but negotiated rate and resisted unilateral offers (awards) made by the state (Fajana and Shadare, 2012).

Often, the Nigerian government merely consults with officials of the NLC without carrying on board private sector employers and state governments, who are to implement the wage awards at the state and local government levels. This exclusion usually generates serious conflicts at those levels, as state governments normally express inability to pay, and consequently concede to various shades of collective bargaining and agreements (Anyim *et al.* 2011). The state preference for wage commissions was inherited from the colonial administrators. Collective bargaining in the public sector is carried out at three complementary levels, through the machinery known as National Public Service Negotiating Councils (NPSNCs).

This structure has been criticised by Damachi and Fashoyin (1986) for having the same management negotiating with each level of the union. The exceptions, where negotiations or consultations take place at the departmental or ministerial level and the creation of two central negotiating councils for junior staff in the civil service, is at variance with the structure of management. Since the industrial union structure is the basis for the organisation of workers, one council would seem sufficient for all the junior workers. Damachi and Fashoyin (1986), in terms

of representations at negotiations, see bargaining machinery, at which not less than 20 members on each side participate as unwieldy.

2.1.8.3 Collective bargaining in the private sector

Collective bargaining in the private sector is used to conclude collective agreement, settle disputes or arrive at a common understanding on issues affecting the workers. Parties draw procedural agreements, which determine the kinds of matters to negotiate at the central level through the National Joint Industrial Council or Joint Negotiation Council, and those to be treated at the company level. For example, issues for negotiation may include: salaries, hours of work, leave and leave conditions, disciplinary procedure, principle of redundancy, allowances, inconveniences, transport, housing, acting, relief-duty, utility, sickness benefit, medical scheme, principle of loan, lunch subsidy, membership of social clubs, entertainment expenses, burial expenses, staff conversion, equity participation and end of year payment (Imoisili, 1986).

Similarly, at the company level, matters of mutual interest, affecting the effectiveness of the company and the welfare of workers are discussed by the parties. On what constitute items for negotiation at the central level and those at company level, Imoisili (1986) observes that the items may not be necessarily mandatory or voluntary or exclusively managerial. It is the relative bargaining strength of the parties that determines items for negotiation and those for discussion. Where the union is worried that its branches will not be strong enough to get a good deal from their respective employers at the company level, it will insist that such a matter be earmarked for negotiation at the central level. If the unions in the branches are strong and could handle difficult issues to their advantage, they are given autonomy and as many items as possible are moved to the branches or company level. Imoisili (1986) asserts that issues concerning wages, fringe benefits, and working hours, among others tend to be negotiated at the central level generally, while items that are peculiar to each company (canteen facilities, shift arrangement, home ownership schemes and so on) tend to be discussed at plant level. The procedural agreement also includes checks and balances to safeguard the interest of both parties.

Diali (1977) supports industry-wide bargaining, which prevents unfair exploitation of a weak employer by a powerful union. Besides, uniform conditions of service in the industry will lead not only to an equitable system of remuneration for all employees in the industry, but will also contribute immensely towards the maintenance of a stable and reasonably contended labour

force, by minimising the unhappy tendency of experienced staff moving from one establishment to another for a purely economic reason. A critical look at the industry-wide bargaining shows that it tends to be too unwieldy and could lead to neglect of the interests of some sections of the workforce, with its attendant repercussions. The welfare of the more productive workers could also be neglected in an attempt to treat their conditions of service with those of the less productive employees in the industry.

Akintayo (1983), while supporting Diali's (1977) assertion, states that bargaining on a market-wide basis permits the pooling of bargaining strength and provides each small employer with access to expert services in the negotiation and administration of the collective agreement. The system will give greater protection to the workers, establishing more uniform conditions and guaranteeing the same advantages to all employers, including those less capable of defending themselves effectively in their undertakings.

2.1.9 The Concept of Global Political Economy

The concept of political economy as a field of study of social relations of production emerged with capitalism in the 17th and 18th centuries as a new subject matter to understand the new mode of production. The physiocrats considered political economy as the creation of surplus value (net product) in agriculture being its main area of investigation. Adam Smith and David Ricardo see it in the same perspective as the science of wealth. Also, Samuelson (1973) defines it as the study of wealth. The definition of the subject matter of political economy as the study of wealth cannot be said to be correct as it leaves out the structures of societies and the contradictions inherent in them as a result of economic and material relations. The western liberal economists' view of political economy as the study of aggregate of things or material goods, their production, distribution and consumption are not adequate to define the subject matter of political economy. However, political economy being a Social Science does not study things or material goods but the economic relations, the relations of production between people (Smirnov, Golosov and Maximova 1984). It is used to refer to the economic system of nations defined and regulated by external relation forces especially engendered through local and international politics. According to Bush and Szeftel (1994) and Ake (1996) markets represent concrete configuration of power and power relations are integral to markets and hence politics is central to the design and implementation of economic reform projects. It tries to create a positive

impression of government involvement in setting the standards for economic activities as the best way to ensure the growth and development of the national economy but has however assumed a broader and international dimension where nation states are no longer capable of solely determining or controlling their boundaries in terms of flow of goods, trades and services, because of the dictates of some world powers hence the term global political economy (Streeten, 1997).

The relations people enter during the course of material production whether in cooperative relations in egalitarian societies or oppressive/exploitative relations in societies of private property are called social relations of production. During the era of the primitive communal system or primitive communism, the relations were non-exploitative or egalitarian. However, when society splits into classes as a result of private property, the relations became oppressive and exploitative. In this respect, therefore, the most famous and most important example of social relations of production is the relation between the ruling classes and subordinate classes (Ake, 1981). In the historical process, the first class society that superceded the primitive communal system was the slave epoch and the relations of production was based on the ownership of slaves by the slave masters. The second class society that emerged in the historical perspective was the feudal society in which the relations of production was based on ownership and control of land by the feudal master over the landless serf or peasant. Under capitalism, the relationship is now based on the ownership and control of capital by the capitalist classes over the non-capitalist classes-the working classes or the proletariat/peasantries (Ake, 1981). As capitalism became internationalised, it created the situation for the emergence of subordinate or dependent capitalist classes variously called the dependent, comprador, landed/aristocracy, commercial bourgeoisie or classes who are junior partners (Alavi, 1979) in the chain of the dominant imperialist classes. Thus there is intra-classes struggle between the landed/comprador bourgeoisie of the third world and their metropolitan mentors or the dominant imperialist classes. Equally, there is the struggle between imperialism and their landed/comprador classes, on the one hand, the working classes or people on the other. This struggle over the impoverishment of the working people of Third World leads to civil wars and crises in these territories.

2.1.9.1 Nigerian Political Economy and the challenges of Decent Work

Using Marx's political economy approach, Claude Ake developed a new approach to the study of Africa's political economy. He called this, "*Peripheral Political Economy*". According to him, the history of underdevelopment in Africa is traceable to the formation of the colonial state. According to him, the colonial state emerged, matured and dominated its colonies based on the need for it to build the capitalist system in the colonies, so that mass of the wealth of less developed societies could be used to advance technology and science in the developed countries. The goal of colonialism was therefore to advance Western capitalism which would allow owners of the means of production to dominate the producers of natural resources. State formation and consolidation continued on this basis until the independence of African countries in the 1960s. The post-colonial state Africa adopted some of the methods of the defunct colonial state using force, and class domination to embezzle state funds. Ake argued further that underdevelopment is pervasive in contemporary Africa because state project is often used as an avenue to siphon public funds through illegal accumulation of capital. He noted that it was this legacy that African political leaders have retained, pursued ruthlessly and galvanized when in and out of government, to ensure that they retain capital at all means (Ake, 1981; 1996).

The economic liberalist reform objectives of privatization, deregulation and open trade and investment have been introduced mainly through Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) in Nigeria and other developing countries through the support of World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). The government of Nigeria, since 1986 has been implementing such a programme of economic reforms aimed at reducing the role of the state in the economy, increasing the role of the private sector and the market, liberalizing the economy and integrating it more fully into the global market. The structural adjustment programme was a major environmental change which has evoked a lot of coping and adaptive strategies by organisations, small and large, private and public (Akinnusi, 1992). Onyeonoru (2004) captures the above succinctly when he argues that in the specific case of Nigeria, the globalisation of neo-liberalism combined with the debt crisis to intensify its impact on the economy and workplace relations. He argues further that policies that emanated from the economic, social and political spheres were basically underpinned by neo-liberalism, and impacted negatively on workers and trade unions. The neo-liberal economic policies adopted by Nigeria included privatisation, commercialization,

deregulation, removal of subsidies, liberalisation among others. These policies have generated pressures in the operating environment and the economy of the nation and have impacted major changes and posed challenges to the Nigerian labour market where all forms of adjustments, re-engineering and re-structuring have and are still taking place. The pressures generated by these policies have led to adoption of survival strategies on the part of business organisations such as retrenchment, mergers and acquisition, casualisation, outsourcing and so on. In the process workers have become impoverished and made to survive under difficult situations; They are losing job security and becoming less powerless to defend themselves; Daily, workers are retrenched, downsized and made to survive untold hardship in the hands of their employers who are all looking for cheap labour in order to maximize profits; Trade unionism and collective bargaining which hitherto have been their weapons, are losing their potency, and thus Nigerian workers are more exposed to the vagaries of the market forces. This is the situation Nigerian workers find themselves in this globalized world (Okougbo, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2003, 2004; Adewumi, 2008; Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010)

Decent work has been defined by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) as work that takes place under conditions of freedom, equity, security and dignity, in which rights are protected and adequate remuneration and social coverage is provided (ILO, 1999). The argument is that human beings should not be treated as ordinary factor of production, but rather as rational, intelligent and inevitable social partners in the workplace. It is recognized that man is the most important factor of production because all other factors will produce nothing without the human element to activate and coordinate them. Realizing this importance, national legislations and ILO instruments have evolved to define the minimum and basic standards under which workers are to be treated in order to recognize the dignity of man and to promote the decent work agenda (Labour Law Review, 2009).

Since the inception of paid employment, through a combination of sustained struggles and appeals to the conscience of the rest of the society, workers, using the platform provided by their organisation (trade unions), have been able to secure for themselves a number of rights (Labour Law Review, 2009). These rights are entrenched in national legislation and international instruments and are predicated on, and complemented by, as citizens of their countries. Trade unions are those associations meant to protect workers not just as producers of national wealth, but also as free citizens. Such rights are conferred on workers and their organisations taking into

consideration their special role and the need to protect them from extreme abuse and exploitation in the hands of profit-conscious employers often backed by a collaborative state.

Various provisions have been used to recognize the provisions on workers' rights and also to compel government and individual employers to respect these rights. In Nigeria, legislations such as the Labour Act 1974, Trade Union Act 1973, and Trade Dispute Act 1976, the Factory Act 1987, Workmen's compensation 1987 and the Constitution (1999) have been put in place to provide some rights and comfort for Nigerian workers (Labour Law Review, 2009). Similarly, ILO instruments such as the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at work and its follow-up; the Declaration of Philadelphia of 1944; the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, Convention 87 of 1948; Convention 98 of 1949 and others have equally been put in place to guarantee certain basic rights and protections for workers worldwide (Adewumi, 2008). It is therefore obvious that both at the national and international levels, there are enough laws, instruments and standards to ensure that workers offer their services in dignity and not treated as mere factors of production. But how decent are workers treated in Nigerian political economy? The following are the challenges workers are facing in Nigeria which has affected decent work.

Weakening of labour: Membership of unions is no longer automatic as it was in the past; Workers are being threatened or discouraged from joining unions and in some cases such as in the banking sector, with its explicit policy for workers not to join trade unions, this has weakened the workers. A cursory look at most companies owned fully or partly by Chinese, Indians, Koreans and Lebanese businesses are notorious for their distaste for trade unionism. Thus it could be seen that trade unions who are vanguards of the workers and who exist to promote the interests of workers are gradually being made less relevant in the workplace.

Management and Labour Flexibility: As a result of the prevailing practices in the international labour market, employers in Nigeria are also embracing labour flexibility which allows them to reduce labour cost and maximize more profit through the use of non-standard and precarious employment relationship. Against these backdrops, Oil and gas companies, banks, telecommunication, insurance and food and beverage industries as well as others, are therefore embracing casualisation, contract work, outsourcing, contingent employment, part-time jobs and other emerging employment relationships.

Working conditions: the working conditions, working environment, working hours and job security especially among organisations, owned by expatriates in Nigeria reveals a situation of the low level of decency under which Nigerian workers are treated. Conditions and terms of employment are very low and incomparable with what expatriate staff earns even when they are less qualified (Adenugba, 2009). For example, an expatriate staff with a high school certificate earns triple of what is offered and actually paid to a Nigerian postgraduate staff under the same profession. Most of these expatriate staff have official cars with drivers attached while their Nigerian counterparts do not enjoy same benefits. The working environments are such that do not in any way promote decent work agenda.

Changes in industrial relations: Contingent employments are structured to be short term or temporary: This form of employment is becoming trendy. The term is often associated with negative connotation implying less security and is used to describe a wide variety of employment arrangements including part time work, temporary help agency employment, contracting out, employee leasing and employment in the business services industry. In Nigeria, varying forms of contingent employment, drawing from global economic development which has conditioned employers to request just-in-time workforce because of increased demand for product or service at a particular time has been on the increase (Adenugba, 2009).

Agencies of the state: In the face of all these shortcomings in labour standards, what happens to our agencies of the state that are constitutionally required to monitor these labour standards in the workplace? Here a special attention needs to be given to the Ministry of Labour. According to Adewumi (2008), the image and effectiveness of labour administration systems in the country have not been helped by the low priority accorded their operations as reflected in the paltry budgetary allocations every year. In addition, the problem becomes compounded by the shortage of personnel with special emphasis on labour officers. For example, in 2005, the Factory Inspectorate was made up of only 47 staff as against the required manpower of about 250. In the same year, there was not a single vehicle to facilitate inspection visits to work establishments (FMELP, 2005:19, 20). Under these operational difficulties, very little would be expected from such agencies including the Ministry of Labour in its enhancement of labour standards in the country.

Government's political willpower: There is also the need to examine the political willpower of the government in its responsibility to promote decent work agenda for Nigerian workers. The

reality is that the government of Nigeria is weak to protect workers from the excesses of employers as they are best described as an executive committee of the capitalist state, promoting the interests of international organisations like the IMF, World Bank and the donor states that claim to provide grants, aids and loans to solve the problems of the society. As proponents of the market driven economy emphasis is placed on labour market flexibility as a means of encouraging investments, particularly foreign. Unfortunately, the Nigerian government readily embraces such prescriptions and indulges the investors to the extent of disregarding the labour laws (Adenugba, 2009).

2.2 Empirical literature

Studies on employment opportunities or creation abound in different countries. One of the series of work by Freeman (2001) in the United States shows that, in the years of economic growth, both the unemployment rate and the incidence of poverty fell. On the other hand, when there were recessions, the unemployment rate increased, and in all but one, the poverty rate also rose. He, therefore, draws two conclusions: wages and employment increased among the poverty-prone during times of economic expansion; and poverty reduction and improvement in behaviour that accompanied the boom in the 1990s in the United States can be translated into economic growth towards poverty eradication.

There has been significant growth in developed economies, but it has been difficult for many economies in developing countries to generate adequate, decent work opportunities to reduce poverty. It is estimated that approximately 39 per cent of the global labour force or 1.2 billion women and men at work live on less than \$2 a day per person (UNDP, UNDESA and ILO, 2012). Young people constitute the majority of the poor, as most of them are unemployed, which makes it difficult for them to join the labour market, leading to social exclusion, political instability and conflict.

According to Somavia (2007), Africa accounts for 11.9 per cent of the world total workforce, made up of over 368 million men and women. The African economy is predominantly dominated by agriculture and rural non-farm activities. It is estimated that 70 per cent of the African population lives in rural areas (where agriculture is the chief source of income for 90 per cent of the population). As a result of poverty, a large number of the rural poor have migrated to urban areas in search of job opportunities. This has further compounded the

problems of most African countries, as there are no jobs in the cities to accommodate the migrants from the rural areas. Similarly, over the past decade, informal work has accounted for almost 80 per cent of non-agricultural employment, over 60 per cent of urban jobs and 90 per cent of new jobs in Africa (Charmes, 2000; ILO, 2002).

According to ILO (2002), sub-Saharan Africa has been dominated by the informal sector, which accounts for three-quarters of non-agricultural employment, having increased significantly over the last decade from about two-thirds. In sub-Saharan Africa, the informal economy represents 92 per cent of the total job opportunities outside agriculture for women (as against 71 per cent for men); and almost 95 per cent of these jobs are performed by self-employed or own-account workers and only 5 per cent as paid employees. Again, in sub-Saharan Africa, street vendors dominate much of the informal economy, with women traders accounting for the majority of the number in those countries (ILO, 2002).

In countries like Angola, Nigeria, South Africa and Uganda, it is estimated that over half of the informal workers are engaged in the retail trade (ILO, 2002). The primary sources of livelihood for women in the everyday informal activities are food processing, handicrafts, vending and hawking, which have been affected by trade liberalisation. For example, women basket makers have been displaced by cheap imports from Asia. In South Africa, vendors and hawkers have been replaced by foreign traders from other parts of the continent. Faced with the challenge of competition, many of these women vendors are constrained and end up working for these (predominantly male) newcomers for their livelihood, which has resulted in the cut in their income and much more independence on these people. As a result of this challenge, most of the vendors are becoming linked to multinational corporation chains, with Unilever, for example, selling its soap through them and with Coca-Cola renting out kiosks (Carr and Chen, 2001).

The World Bank (2002) surveys found that 34 to 38 per cent of the firms in many countries reported that employment protection legislation is a moderate or major obstacle for them. The study equally found that workers tend to be sceptical of the benefits of flexible work and that the positions of governments vary widely. There is no agreed ILO position on this issue, despite its obvious importance to the ILO's decent work agenda.

Research findings show that the major motivation for working long hours is to meet organisational workload demands and fulfill exact professional norms (Feldman, 2002). In the

work environment, individuals see spending longer hours on work as an avenue to prove their professional credibility and further their careers (Ng and Feldman, 2008). Quite a number of studies have shown that the more an individual places value on work in terms of job involvement, work commitment and career identity salience, the longer the hours they will spend on work (Wallace, 1997; Major, Klein and Ehrhart, 2002; Brett and Stroh, 2003).

Despite these insights, important questions relating to the experience of working long hours remain unanswered. First, little is known about how people experience and feel about working long hours. Some research suggests that working long hours may be widely resented because of the effect it has on other aspects of an individual's life. In a study conducted in the UK, 80 per cent of the UK workforce noted that they would like to spend more time with their families and 66 per cent indicated that the demands of their jobs sometimes interfered with their family life (Crompton and Lyonette, 2007). Another research suggests, however, that some managers and professionals work long hours willingly and enjoy doing so (Hirschfeld, 1997; Hewlett and Luce, 2006; Lewis, 2003). For such 'work enthusiasts', the positive benefits of working longer hours, such as job and career satisfaction, seem to outweigh any disadvantages (Burke, 1999).

Second, little is known about how and why individuals engage in different patterns of long work hours. For example, some people may work longer hours to meet deadlines at work (Lingard, Francis, and Turner, 2010), whereas others work longer hours all the time because they find their jobs enjoyable and absorbing (Mainemelis, 2001). Existing research focuses on general measurements of working hours, but has not examined when they take place; how they are distributed over the working week, month or year; and why different patterns of long work hours may exist (Beckers, van Hooff, van der Linden, Kompier, Taris, and Geurts, 2008).

Third, differences between men and women, who work long hours, are not yet fully understood. Most studies have found that women work shorter hours than their male colleagues, especially if they are married and have young children (Wallace, 1997; Powell and Greenhaus, 2010). However, well-educated female managers and professionals work longer hours than women in other kinds of jobs (Seron and Ferris, 1995; Maume and Bellas, 2001). Some studies suggest that women's motivation to work longer hours may be more complex and be partly

driven by higher levels of conscientiousness and willingness to put in discretionary effort, compared with men (Morrison, 1994; Kmec and Gorman, 2010).

Studies have also shown that mergers and acquisitions are associated with lower morale and job dissatisfaction, unproductive behaviour, the act of sabotage and petty theft, increased labour turnover and absenteeism rates, and accident rates on the part of the employees, rather than increased productivity of the organisation. In a study conducted among 30 workers, it was found that there were often adverse reactions to the acquisition by the acquired employees (Newman and Krzystofiak, 1993; Olajide, 2006; Osaze, 2006; Okafor, 2013). These reactions by employees apparently account for unsuccessful mergers and acquisitions (M&As). The question now is 'why do M&As trigger negative reaction in employees?' It has been observed that disgruntled employees often engage in counterproductive practices to register their displeasure on issues that negate their rights, such as engaging in unproductive practices, absenteeism, low morale, and little commitment and job satisfaction (Olajide, 2006; Osaze, 2006; Okafor, 2013)

2.2.1 Gap identified

The growth in decent work deficits is driven by employers' demand for more flexibility and innovation as well as their wish to reduce labour costs and administrative complexity (Kalleberg *et al.*, 2003; Burgess and Connell, 2006). One of the ways in which an organisation does this is to hire or fire workers according to the requirements of the market in any given situation (Martinez *et al.*, 2010). The use of flexible contracts, in the form of temporary employment, is a way to achieve this. Precarious work is created when permanent, regular jobs are replaced by subcontracted labour, temporary and short-term jobs, fixed-term contracts and informal day labour (Hevenstone, 2010). In fact, some countries have taken steps to reduce employment regulation, weakening established protections enjoyed by workers (Williams *et al.*, 2013). This is also the concern about the future that new laws and policies are inadequate to protect workers in 21st-century jobs, whether in the form of temp work, part-time jobs, subcontracting, or the use of independent contractors. This is not surprising, as there is little quantitative research that has attempted to link trends in the organisation of work to the steady growth in wage inequality that dates back to the mid-1970s (Fligstein and Shin 2003).

One of the key causes of the decent work deficits in workplaces is that social and labour market policies have failed to reflect the realities of men and women in workplace. There is the

disparity of work between women and men, permanent and non-permanent workers, as well as standard and non-standard work. Labour has been weakened by this precarious work arrangement and successive government has been reluctant to address the plight of employees from this indecent work practices. Many employers demand very long hours of full-time workers, but fail to provide reasonable and stable work schedules which match family needs and will penalise women who take temporary leaves. As a result, many women are forced to work in lower-paid and more unstable part-time jobs, or pay a big price for dropping out of the workforce for a year or two, or decide to work very long hours and not to have children at all.

2.3 Theoretical framework

This study employed two theories, namely the Neoliberal and Social Action. The main reason for choosing these theories is that no single theory can adequately explain and capture the effect of work reorganisation on decent work.

2.3.1 Neo-liberal Theory

The coming of neo-liberalism as the framework for macro-economic development since the 1980s has dealt a devastating blow to the workers, as they are constantly and consistently facing all forms of exploitation in the hands of their employers. Harvey (2005:2) defines neo-liberalism as a 'theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurship freedom and skills within an institutional framework characterised by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade'. Central to neo-liberal ideology is the primacy accorded to free markets; regulations, including regulations of employment relations by states and trade unions, are condemned for imposing constraints on the ability of individuals and companies to contract freely with one another, impeding business competitiveness. In the area of work and employment, the neo-liberal recipe for economic prosperity emphasises deregulatory policies said to enhance labour market flexibility. Neo-liberal reforms are often operated under the guise of structural adjustment programmes. Privatisation diminishes the effectiveness of union movements, whose power base has mostly been concentrated in the state sector. Greater labour flexibility has been used to reduce labour costs, giving employers more freedom to sack workers, to erode pay and employment conditions. Most of what used to be done manually is daily being replaced by

sophisticated machines and technology, thereby reducing the security of job tenure enjoyed by the workers.

On the political side, the increasing hostility of the state towards addressing the plights of workers has made it unenviable. To remain competitive and thus make their countries safe for investors, governments repress independent trade unions and weaken the system of employment regulation, such as legislation on pay and working conditions or fail to enforce it effectively (Williams *et al.*, 2013). The capitalist enjoys a lot of power, which is reinforced by some legal instruments limiting the control, which the individual employee can exercise within the work situation. The fact that workers have to struggle with these issues is a reflection of the inherent contradictions of capitalist industry and society as a whole. These contradictions are the products of antagonistic interests of labour and capital as epitomised in the continuous accumulation on the part of the employers at the expense of the workers (Adewumi, 2009).

The relevance of this theory to our discussion of work reorganisation influence on decent work in Nigeria can be seen from the way and manner the dominant and hegemonic capitalist class dictates to the Nigerian managers and their board of directors what they want and how they want to achieve their objectives, which are to maximise profits and minimise cost. In trying to be relevant and competitive, organisations adopt the best technology that will reduce cost and embark on work reorganisation from time to time, which inevitably affects the decent work agenda of the ILO regarding the security of job enjoyed by the workers. Social security is, therefore, not as a result of the gradual changes personally thought by managers of organisations but as a result of the forces of imperialism guiding the Nigerian economy and the economic interests therein. Neo-liberal theory emphasises the hegemonic power of capital over labour. Neo-liberalism is seen as an imposed ideology by powerful financial institutions, like the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank.

The Neo-liberal Theory is summed up by George (1999:23) thus:

...the idea that the market should be allowed to make major social and political decisions; the idea that the state should voluntarily reduce its role in the economy, or that corporations should be given total freedom, that trade unions should be curbed and citizens given much less rather than more protection – such ideas were utterly foreign to the spirit of the time. Even if someone actually agreed with these ideas, he or she would have hesitated to take such a position in public and would have had a hard time finding an audience.

It is as a result of this shortcoming in the neo-liberal theory that this study adopted the social action theory by Max Weber to fill the gap left by Neo-liberal theory.

2.3.2 Social Action Theory by Max Weber

Max Weber's Social Action Theory, also known as 'The Action Frame of Reference' (Ritzer, 2008), focuses on the subjective meanings that human actors attach to their actions in their mutual orientations within particular socio-historical/cultural context. Weber argued that explanations of social action must describe the way in which individuals attach subjective meanings to the situation, and direct their actions by their perception of those conditions. In other words, individuals define and interpret situation and act accordingly. According to Weber, there are four ideal types of social action, namely: emotional action, traditional action, goal rational actions and value-rational actions.

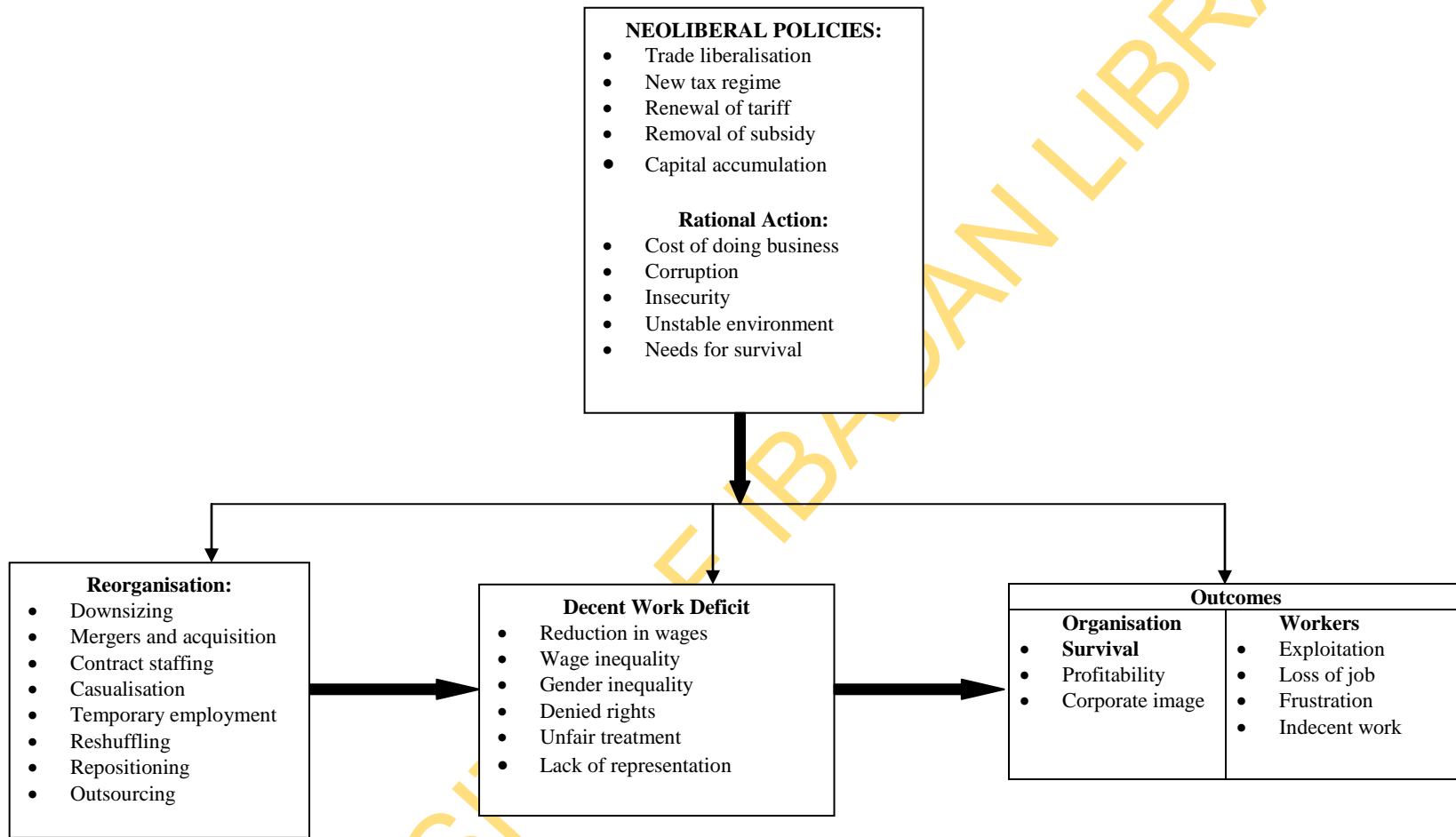
The affective social action has a strong link with emotion or impulse. In this type of social action, emotion or impulse determines the means and ends of action. The affective action is anchored in the emotional state of the actor (Coser, 2004). Another type of social action is traditional action, which is guided by customary habits of thought, reliance on 'the external yesterday' (Coser, 2004). Every society has distinct traditional perspectives that are transferred from one generation to another. Cohen (1966) observes that Weber typically depicted the process of means-end motivation in social action. Every actor has certain sentiments or affective dispositions, which affect both his/her choice of goals. Action is influenced not only by the situation, but also by the actors' knowledge of it. In this case, it is the awareness that change is inevitable, and that people or organisations must continually respond to changes to be relevant. It is based on this reason that knowledge of available means and the perceived efficacy of action play important roles on what course of action to take in each actor activities.

The third is *Zweckrational* action or rational action: This is a goal-oriented rational action, where the actor deliberately acts to achieve a definite goal. It is a known fact that people do not get involved in action without understanding the goal(s) to be achieved. According to Labinjoh (2002), rational action is guided by consideration of ends, means and secondary consequences. The need to reorganise is based on a rational decision by organisations to minimise cost and adapt to changes in the environment to remain relevant. The consequence of not responding to changes in the environment may be monumental.

Action could also be *Wertrational* action or value-rational action. This implies that value-rational actions illuminate consciousness about value standards. Value-oriented rationality is the process of pursuing goals through rational means, although the goals may not be rational (Elwell, 2009). In this case, the agent consciously decides on the ultimate objective of his or her action and, in consequence, systematically organises the action to achieve the goal. In this regard, the action is based on intrinsic unconditional value, whether ethical, aesthetic, religious or any other, of particular sort of behaviour. In other words, action relies on collective beliefs, values and sanctions (Labinjoh, 2002).

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Diagram 1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Researcher (2013)

The conceptual framework in Diagram 1 indicates that the choice to reorganise work depends on many factors both within and outside the purview of an organisation. Neo-liberalism argues that commercial and industrial enterprises are better placed in the hands of private enterprise that are all out to maximise profits and minimise cost. Neoliberal policies allow for trade liberalization, which allows for more private participation, new tax regime, renewal of tariff and removal of subsidy. This further encourages the capitalists to take a rational action decision on how to reduce cost and maximise profits. To achieve this, they must adopt the best technology. When reorganisation takes place in work environment, it usually has effect on the workers, such as leading to downsizing, retrenchment, casualisation, outsourcing, mergers and acquisition, and contract staffing. When this occurs, the outcome is loss of job, de-unionisation, poor remuneration, early retirement, labour movement, unemployment and underemployment, which ultimately affect the decent work agenda of the ILO, which emphasises right at work, employment, social protection and social dialogue. The decisions to adopt these changes have an effect on decent work agenda regarding protection.

The application of the Social Action Theory is based on the premise that actors have defined goals that are backed by the consideration of ends, means and consequences. Since man is a rational animal, he is always propelled to take actions that will not jeopardise him. The ultimate aim of the capitalist is to maximise profits and minimise cost. Also, the goal of the worker is to get a fair deal for the day's work. These precarious works negate the decent work agenda of the ILO, which frowns at any form of deficits, such as: reduction in wages, compulsory retirement, job loss/redundancy, wage inequality, unequal /unfair treatment, unclear career/work life path, gender discrimination, unsafe work and insecure income and denied rights.

2.4 Research hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to help in the realisation of the research objectives:

- i. Work reorganisation will not significantly influence decent treatment of non-permanent workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors.
- ii. Work reorganisation will not significantly influence decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

This study employed cross-sectional survey research design to gain more insight into the changes that have occurred in the chosen organisations and also develop the direction for future research. In achieving this, representative sample was used to produce generalised statements. To produce valid generalisations, methodological triangulation was the preferred method, which involved a combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques.

3.2 Study population

The study population included the permanent and non-permanent workers in four selected organisations. The first was Nigerian Bottling Company Plc, which was the first indigenous bottling company and later merged with Hellenic Bottling Company S.A and CC Beverage Company Plc in 2000. The second was Cadbury Plc. It was the first confectionary company in Nigeria. It was acquired in 2010 by the US-based Kraft Foods in a deal valued at \$14 billion. The third was Guinness Nigeria Plc. This was the second brewery in Nigeria and it became a subsidiary of Diageo Plc, in 1997, thus gaining access to Diageo's range of global brands and technical support. The fourth was Nigerian Breweries Plc. It was the first indigenous brewery in Nigeria and was acquired by Heineken's controlling interests in five breweries in Nigeria from Sona Group in January 2011. Apart from the issue of various mergers and acquisitions, the organisations were chosen based on the following criteria: being multinational companies, long duration of doing business in Nigeria, and reorganisation which affected workers in their organisations in the past three decades.

Three categories of workers formed the study population. The first category was the permanent staff: top management staff, senior and junior staff in the chosen organisations. The second category was the casual workers either employed directly by the organisations or through recruitment agencies that have worked with the organisations in the last five years. The third group contained the executive members of the two unions in the sub-sectors under study: Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB-SSA) and National Union of Food Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE).

3.3 Sample size and sampling techniques

The multi-stage sampling procedure was utilised in selecting the respondents that were used for the study. There are 84 affiliate branches of the food beverage and tobacco industry in Nigeria. Out of these, 49 are located or have their operations in Lagos. Out of the 49 branches, 42 companies are into food (that is confectioneries, millers, biscuits, sugar, refineries, cocoa and related drinks) and the remaining 7 are into beverages (i.e. breweries, bottlers and distillers) (see appendix pp 173).

Stage One: This stage involved the categorisation of the organisations into food and beverage sub-sectors according to what they produce. For the food sub-sector, there are confectioneries, millers, biscuits, sugar, refineries, cocoa and related drinks; for the beverage sub-sector, there are breweries, bottlers and distillers. The purposive sampling method was used at this level. The four organisations were selected based on their long-standing performance, duration in business, merger with other world-class brands, their adoption of various reorganisation practices and series of expansion in the last two decades. The two organisations in the food sub-sector were purposively selected: Nigerian Bottling Company Plc and Cadbury Nigeria Plc. For the beverage category, Guinness Nigeria Plc and Nigerian Breweries Plc were also purposively selected.

Stage Two: The second stage involved the systematic sampling technique. Out of the total staff strength of 3720 in the four chosen organisations, the systematic sampling technique of 0.03 per cent was drawn from the study, using Yamane's (1969: 886) simplified formula. The first step involved calculating for single proportion to get the sample sizes. The formula used in calculating the sample size is shown below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)} = \frac{3720}{1+3720(.03)^2} = \frac{3720}{1+3720(0.0009)} = \frac{3720}{1+3.348} = \frac{3720}{4.348} = 856,$$

where n is the sample size, N is the population size and e is the level of precision. When this formula is applied to the above, the total sample size will be 856 among the various strata.

The second step involved calculating for probability proportionate to size (PPS) since the different organisations do not have the same population. This is calculated based on their population and the proportion of each of the organisation, as shown below:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{1505} \times 856 = 346 & \underline{910} \times 856 = 209 & \underline{725} \times 856 = 167 & \underline{580} \times 856 = 134 \\ 3720 & 3720 & 3720 & 3720 \end{array}$$

The third step involved calculating for PPS of the category of staff in each cadre, as shown below:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{25} \times 346 = 6 & \underline{20} \times 209 = 5 & \underline{25} \times 167 = 6 & \underline{30} \times 134 = 7 \\ 1505 & 910 & 725 & 580 \end{array}$$

Stage Three: The third stage of the sampling involved the adoption of stratified random sampling in the selection of categories of workers included in the study. A total sample size of 856 was drawn from the selected organisations. The stratified random sampling technique was used to select the required sample from the various strata in each of the organisations to give every member of the population a fair chance of being selected and also to increase the variability. To ensure adequate representativeness, the proportionate sample of 0.03 percent was drawn from each organisation among each hierarchical structure.

The table below shows the proportion of management, senior and junior staffers that were selected as part of the 856 participants for each of the organisations.

Table 3.1: Total population and proportion of the management, senior and junior workers selected

Category of Staff	Nigerian Bottling Companies		Cadbury Nigerian Plc		Guinness Nigeria Plc		Nigerian Breweries Plc		Total	
	Pop	Sample Size Chosen	Pop	Sample Size Chosen	Pop	Sample Size Chosen	Pop	Sample Size Chosen	Pop	Sample Size chosen
Management	25	6	20	5	25	6	30	7	100	24
Senior Staff	280	64	190	44	280	64	100	23	850	195
Junior Staff	1200	276	700	160	420	97	450	104	2770	637
Total	1505	346	910	209	725	167	580	134	3720	856

In addition, in each of the chosen organisations, two members of top management staff each were purposively selected for in-depth interview because of their experience and knowledge

about work reorganisation in their organisations. The category included the Production Manager and Human Resource Manager. Also, two junior staffers each in the four organisations were randomly chosen from the human resource and production departments for in-depth interview to complement the responses gathered from the questionnaire. Similarly, the members of the executives of the two unions in each of the organisations were purposively selected. One member of the executive each was selected from Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB-SSA) and National Union of Food Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE) in each of the four organisations for in-depth interview.

3.4 Methods and instruments of data collection

In all, a total of 856 copies of the questionnaire were administered in representative proportions to the 4 chosen organisations. Out of the 856 copies of the questionnaire administered, 635 copies were returned but only 550 were properly filled, leaving 85 invalid and not properly filled. In all, 64 per cent of the questionnaire were analysed. As a result of this low return rate, the number of in-depth interviews with the junior workers was increased to 5 in each of the selected organisations. Also, 4 casual workers were selected in each of the sub-sectors. In all, a total of 30 interviews sessions were held for the study.

The research utilised both quantitative and qualitative methods for the study. The structured questionnaire was used to collect data in the survey. The questionnaire was structured in such a way that adequate information was elicited on the research questions, objectives and hypotheses tested.

Section A covered questions on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Other sections contained both open- and close-ended questions. Specifically, section B measured the level of acceptance of indices of decent work. In measuring these indices, the study adopted the Reilly and Barber's (2006) model, which classifies the level of utilisation into three categories: low, moderate and high.

To measure the level of acceptance of the decent work indices, employment opportunities, standard and fundamental right at work, social protection and promotion of social dialogue were used. Based on the value attached to each question, the maximum value any respondent could score was 24, while the minimum was 0 and 8. Therefore, the range attached was Low: Below 8; Moderate: 9 - 15; High: 16 - 24.

For the qualitative data, in-depth interview was employed. According to Taylor (2005), the primary value of the qualitative method shows insight into norms, values, beliefs, attitudes and strong socio-cultural ethos that could be investigated and teased out, in as much depth as possible against what is achievable in quantitative techniques. Data were generated from primary and secondary sources. Primary data were obtained directly from the field, while secondary data were sourced from published reputable journals, books, periodicals and reports.

Table 3.2: Sample distribution and methods of data collection

Organisations	Each category	Instruments
Nigerian bottling Companies Plc	Management staff Senior staff Junior staff Non-permanent workers FOBTOB-SSA Executive NUFBTE Executive	Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI IDI IDI
Cadbury Nigerian Plc	Management staff Senior staff Junior staff Non-permanent workers FOBTOB-SSA Executive NUFBTE Executive	Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI IDI IDI
Guinness Nigerian Plc	Management staff Senior staff Junior staff Non-permanent workers FOBTOB-SSA Executive NUFBTE Executive	Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI IDI IDI
Nigerian breweries Plc	Management staff Senior staff Junior staff Non-permanent workers FOBTOB-SSA Executive NUFBTE Executive	Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI Questionnaire & IDI IDI IDI

Table 3.3: Matrix for research instruments and objectives

	Research instruments	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Objective 5	Objective 6
1	Questionnaire	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-
2	IDI	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 3.4: Measurement of variables to achieve specific objectives

Objectives	What to measure	Measurement Parameter	Measure Scale	How it will be measured
1	What indices constitute decent work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge about decent work • Employment opportunities • Right at work • Social dialogue • Social protection 	Close-ended questions	Univariate Analysis
2	Effects of work reorganisation on workers benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment of reorganisation • Financial benefits • Assessment of reorganisation and financial incentives 	Close- and open-ended questions with options	Univariate Analysis
3	Nature and pattern of work reorganisation effects on decent work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Casualisation • Merger and acquisition • Downsizing • Outsourcing • Contract staffing 	Open-ended questions	Content Analysis
4	Effect of work reorganisation on decent treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preferential treatment • Indecent treatment • Segregation 	Close- ended questions	Multivariate Analysis
5	Examine work reorganisation on access to sustainable pension benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to pension and gratuity • Prompt payment of pension 	Close-ended questions	Univariate Analysis
6	Examine work reorganisation on bargaining power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to negotiate • Collective bargaining • Adequate representation 	Open-ended questions	Content Analysis

3.5 Validity and reliability of the research instruments

Prior to introducing the research instruments to the actual studied population, the researcher carried out a pilot study to pre-test the instruments in Nigerian Bottling Company Plc. This was done to ascertain their ability and strength to capture the completeness and suitability of the questions, how orderly the questions were and the aptness of the length of the interview and probable logistical problems that may occur during the data collection. After the pilot study, minor adjustments were made to the research instruments. Some of the technical questions and not-too-clear ones were removed to achieve the overall objectives of the study.

3.6 Data analysis

The quantitative data analysis involved the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17 version. Parametric and non-parametric statistical tools were utilised to analyse the generated quantitative data. The univariate analysis involved the use of frequency distributions, percentages, charts and graphs to depict the descriptive statistics on the distribution of the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. This is because the behaviours of the workers are to a significant extent determined by their personal characteristics as well as those of the work environment. The multivariate analysis involved the use of regression analysis and correlation to test the associations that exist between the dependent variable, that is decent work and other independent variables, such as casualisation, downsizing, merger and acquisitions, and outsourcing. The main reason for choosing the above methods of statistical analyses was the fact that many of the variables generated were continuous and categorical in nature. The above identified methods were the most appropriate and relevant methods to avoid both spurious and distorted results.

For the qualitative aspect, in-depth interview was used to elicit information in order to have a clearer understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation. Content analysis was employed for analysis, through the Nvivo 8 software. Themes from the interviews and discussion transcripts that have been identified from the range of objectives, theoretical and conceptual frameworks were validated through the deductive method. Information derived from in-depth interview was transcribed and content-analysed under different headings depicting the various aspects of the discussion to complement the quantitative data.

3.7 Ethical consideration

In line with the principles and ethics of social research, verbal informed consents were obtained after thorough explanation (both in the local language and English) of the purpose of the research to the respondents. They were assured that the data provided would be treated with utmost confidentiality and used for academic purposes only and that the study would have no latent or manifest harm on the participants. They were further informed that the research would only enrich understanding in the area of Sociology of work in relation to decent work agenda in the selected organisations, and as such does not expose the respondents either as permanent staff or non-permanent workers.

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CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The broad objective of this study was to examine the influence of work reorganisation on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in Lagos State, Nigeria. As a result of this broad objective, six specific objectives were raised and addressed.

This chapter covers the presentation and analysis of the data collected. The quantitative data obtained through the questionnaire were collated and analysed in tables, graphs, simple percentages and discussed, while the qualitative data were content-analysed and used to complement the quantitative data. The chapter also presents the results of the hypotheses tested in the study.

The data analysis is divided into various sections: Section one presents and discusses the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. The subsequent sections present and discuss the data obtained in respect of the substantive issues in the study. This is done according to the arrangement of the survey objectives.

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 4.1.1 deals with the socio-economic features of the respondents, including sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, religious affiliation, monthly salary, length of employment, name of organisation, department and position held. Questions were raised to address the socio-demographic variables of the respondents. The advantages of having these characteristics are that they help to differentiate the respondents, to provide the basis for comparison of responses, in addition to contributing to explaining issues that may account for similarities or differences in response to the main issues of the research.

Table 4.1.1: Distribution of the respondents by selected characteristics

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Sex	n	%	n	%
Male	233	72	172	76
Female	91	28	54	24
Age	n	%	n	%
Below 20 years	12	4	5	2
21-30 years	109	34	90	40
31-40 years	138	43	88	39
41-50 years	63	19	38	17
51-60 years	2	1	5	2
Marital Status	n	%	n	%
Single	106	32	99	44
Married	213	66	120	53
Formally Married	5	2	7	3
Educational qualification	n	%	n	%
No formal education	4	1	1	.4
First School Leaving Certificate	15	5	8	4
WASC/SSCE	44	14	76	34
OND/NCE	90	28	64	29
First Degree/HND	142	44	71	31
Postgraduate	29	9	6	3
Religion	n	%	n	%
Christianity	232	72	165	73
Islam	89	27	59	26
Traditional Religion	3	1	2	1
Monthly income (₦)	n	%	n	%
Less than 50,000	155	48	124	55
50,0001-1000,000	72	22	53	23
100,001-150,000	48	15	27	12
150,001-200,000	18	6	11	5
200,001 and above	31	10	11	5

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4.1.1 above shows some of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. In terms of sex, the majority of the respondents were males, representing 72% in the food sub-sector and 76% in the beverage sub-sector, compared with their female counterparts in the food

sub-sector (28%) and the beverage sub-sector (24%). This result was expected considering the lower level of women in the manufacturing organisations in Nigeria, especially in production and key sections of formal organisations. This also confirms ILO's (2009) assertion that worldwide only a small proportion of employed women work in industry. The finding, therefore, supports the existing literature and statistics on male dominance in the formal sector. As observed by Wood (2003) and Ogenyi and Victoria (2004), women reproductive roles, socio-cultural beliefs, education, glass-ceiling barriers are some of the likely reasons for the imbalance.

The age distribution of the respondents showed that the majority (40%) were within the age bracket 21-30 years in the beverage sub-sector, while in the food sub-sector, the majority of the respondents (43%) were in the age bracket of 31-40 years. This indicates that more of the respondents are younger and new when compared to older workers, which studies have found to be more experienced and received higher wages than the younger workers. Studies have equally found that employees above the age of 50 have lower productivity than younger workers, in spite of their higher wage levels (Skirbekk, 2003). This presupposes that employees within the age bracket of 21-40 years are likely to take up any job to sustain themselves since they fall within the productive age.

On the marital status of the respondents, the majority of them (66% and 53%) were married, in both sub-sectors, while 32% and 44% were single. The remaining 5% were divorced, separated or widowed in both sub-sectors. With the majority here, it is expected that the study respondents would be mature in terms of orientation to life, work life balance, experience and being well-informed about the organisational structures. The fact that most of them were married suggests that most of them have responsibility and are prone to take any kind of jobs, be it standard or non-standard employment.

The educational qualification of the respondents indicated that most of them in the beverage sub-sector (63%) possessed middle-level education, having WASCE/ SSCE and OND/NCE, and 34% had higher level of education, possessing Higher National Diploma, Bachelor and Postgraduate degrees. On the other hand, the majority of the respondents (53%) in the food sub-sector had higher level education, possessing Higher National Diploma, Bachelor and Postgraduate degrees. Only a few respondents had lower level education (6%), with no formal education and first school leaving certificates. This suggests that only few respondents

had lower educational qualifications, which indicates that the literacy rate of the respondents is high. Therefore, they had no problems responding to the questions.

On the religious affiliation of the respondents, 72% in the food sub-sector and 73% in the beverage sub-sector were Christians; while 27% in the food sub-sector and 26% in the beverage sub-sector were Muslims. A high percentage of Christian respondents was recorded in the beverage sub-sector. On the monthly income of the respondents, 55% in the beverage sub-sector and 48% in the food sub-sector earned less than ₦50, 000 per month, while small proportion of the respondents (10%) in the food sub-sector and 5% in the beverage sub-sector earned over ₦200, 000 per month, respectively. In general, the findings showed that the respondents were not well remunerated. This is expected, as most of the respondents were junior and non-permanent workers in the selected sectors, who probably secured employment through recruiting/employment agencies as a result of the organisations' need to outsource non-core functions and maximise profits.

Table 4.1.2: Distribution of respondents by selected characteristics

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Length of Service	n	%	n	%
1-5 years	177	55	113	50
6-10 years	78	24	72	32
11-15 years	40	12	14	6
16-20 years	12	4	9	4
20 years and above	17	5	18	8
Name of Organisation	n	%	n	%
Nigeria Bottling Company Plc	192	59	-	-
Cadbury Nigeria Plc	132	41	-	-
Guinness Nigeria Plc	-	-	120	53
Nigerian Breweries Plc	-	-	106	47
Department/units	n	%	n	%
Production	124	38	115	51
Human Resources	32	10	16	7
Marketing	28	9	21	9
Engineering	25	8	28	12
Customer Service	24	7	9	4
Finance	40	12	20	9
Logistics	41	13	17	8
Position	n	%	n	%
Senior Manager	22	7	6	3
Junior Manager	60	18	19	8
Supervisor	92	28	58	26
Junior worker	96	30	59	26
Casual worker	54	17	84	37

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4.1.2 above presents further socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. In terms of their length of service, further re-classification showed that 82% of the respondents had spent below 10 years and 18% of them had spent above 10 years in service in the beverage sub-sector. Similarly, 79% had spent below 10 years and 21% had spent above 10 years in the food sub-sector. This suggests that most of the respondents might not have witnessed many instances of reorganisation as those that had spent 10 years and above. This might also have effect on the likely responses to get on work reorganisation.

The responses from the selected sub-sector indicated that 59% of the respondents were employees in the food sub-sector (Nigerian Bottling Company and Cadbury), while the beverage sub-sector (Nigerian Breweries and Guinness) recorded 41% participation rate.

The distribution of the respondents by departments revealed that the majority of the respondents (38% and 51%, respectively) worked in production department in food and beverage sub-sector; 13% worked in the logistics department of the food sub-sector and 12% worked in the engineering department in the beverage sub-sector; only 10% of the respondents worked in the human resources department in the food sub-sector; and 9% worked in the finance department in the beverage sub-sector. The finding from this study suggests that the selected sub-sectors employed more workers in production department, which was more or less outsourced because of the competition for market dominance among organisations producing similar products. This also confirms the view of Rodgers (2007) that employers prefer flexibility to workers, which has implications for workers, particularly those in the production industries and in blue-collar, unskilled occupations, which mean fewer, insecure and stressful jobs as workplaces become lean and mean with focus on producing more with less (Kumar, 1993).

In terms of status in the organisation, 37% of the respondents were casual workers, 26% were supervisors and junior workers in the beverage sub-sector. Few of the respondents (3%) were management staff. Similarly, in the food sub-sector, 30% were junior workers, 28% were supervisors and 17% were casual workers. The large number of junior workers at the bottom was based on the organisational structure of most formal organisations, which is pyramidal in nature and the fact that the junior workers do the bulk in production and other menial jobs. Also, the broad participation of casual workers also indicates the existence of non-standard employment in the selected sub-sector. As noted by Adenugba (2004), it is not uncommon to have more workers employed on contract or short-term employment basis than permanent workers, as these categories of workers possess the professional or administrative skills needed for contract or short-term employment. The saturation of the labour market has made it so, and it is causing a lot of abuse of many employees.

4.2 Indices of decent work practices

In measuring the indices of decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors, the study adopted the Reilly and Barber's (2006) model, which classifies level of utilisation into low, moderate and high.

To measure the degree of acceptance of the indices of decent work, otherwise known as decent work agenda, which is divided into four by ILO (employment opportunities, standard and fundamental right at work, social protection and promotion of social dialogue), the level of utilization was classified into low, moderate and high. Based on the value attached to each question, the maximum value any respondent could score was 24, while the minimum was between 0 and 8. Therefore, the range attached was classified into the following: Low: 0-8; Moderate: 9-15; High: 16-24. For example, No is 1, Somehow is 2 and Yes is 3 in the questionnaire filled by the respondents

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Table 4.2.1: Distribution of the level of decent work indices in the food and beverage sub-sector

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Opportunities in employment	n	%	n	%
Low	14	4	11	5
Moderate	302	93	206	91
High	8	3	9	4
Productive work producing adequate income for permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	24	7	16	7
Moderate	278	86	201	89
High	22	7	9	4
Productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	281	87	206	91
Moderate	26	8	7	3
High	17	5	13	6
Opportunities to secure job for permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	236	73	173	79
Moderate	31	10	16	7
High	57	18	32	14
Better Treatment of Permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	34	11	15	7
Moderate	261	81	183	8
High	29	9	28	12
Better treatment of non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	216	67	169	75
Moderate	33	10	20	9
High	75	23	37	16

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4.2.1 above presents data on some indices of decent work practices vis-a-vis the level of these indices in the selected sub-sector. In terms of opportunities in employment, it was moderate in both the food and beverage sub-sectors. As indicated in the responses, 93% of the respondents in the food sub-sector and 91% in the beverage sub-sector showed this. A further analysis of the responses showed that opportunities in employment existed for those who had

spent above 5 years in service. A possible reason for this is the fact that, most times, when some of these workers are trained, there is that tendency for them to opt out for a better-paying job having gathered some experiences and training. This is supported by the interview conducted with some of the respondents. As explained by a 47-year old permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector:

Most organisations now want experienced workers at the senior level. In Guinness, you are not sent on training programme as a junior worker until you have spent a minimum of 5 years. But during this period, you would be trained on the job. You will have to learn from your supervisor and colleagues. Experiences have shown that when workers are trained, they are more marketable and easily attracted by other organisations based on the experience and training they have received. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/Guinness/2013)*

Also, in terms of productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff, it was more slightly moderate (89%) in the beverage sub-sector than the food sub-sector (86%). Buttressing the above, one of the production managers in the beverage sub-sector during one of the IDI sessions explained thus:

I think decent work has to do with work one does, and one is satisfied with, based on better payment or take home pay, a work that can easily sustain one and family members. This can be said to exist in the beverage sub-sector in particular among the multinational companies compared to the food sub-sector. There are various opportunities for the permanent staff than the non-permanent workers since they are not employed directly but through outsourcing companies. *(IDI/Male/Management Staff/Guinness/2013)*

With respect to productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers, the view of a vast majority of the respondents (91%) suggested that there is a low productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers in the beverage sub-sector compared to the food sub-sector (87%). On the other hand, few of the respondents (8%) affirmed that it was moderate in the food sub-sector. Corroborating the above finding, a 28-year old staff in the beverage sub-sector asserted that:

The kind of work that is done here is relative, in the sense that the permanent staffers are doing productive works while there are some that are not doing productive work such as those employed as casual or temporary workers. But it depends, because people

believe that one works to earn a living. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/NB/2013)*

Furthermore, with regard to opportunities to secure job as a permanent staff, it was lower in the two sub-sectors, as indicated by the respondents. The majority of the respondents (79%) in the beverage sector affirmed that opportunities to secure job for permanent staff are low compared to the food sector, which recorded 73% of the responses. Also, the issue of better treatment of permanent staff in both sub-sectors was considered moderate. Few of the respondents (12%) in the beverage sub-sector affirmed that it was high.

Further indices of decent work practice in terms of better treatment of non-permanent workers indicated that non-permanent workers were not properly treated in both sub-sectors. The low level of treatment was slightly higher (75%) in the beverage sub-sector than the food sub-sector (67%). Corroborating the above findings, a female casual worker in the beverage sector in her 20s had this to say:

The truth is that casual workers are treated like slaves between and amongst workers. Some of the permanent staff treats us like slaves except for those few ones who have human feelings. In my company, there is disparity in the way contract workers are treated, especially the foreign or expatriate workers. They are given some respect, and they talk to them politely because some of them are graduates. They see most casual workers as not too educated and without adequate skills, forgetting that the situation in the country forced most people to take casual jobs.

(IDI/Female/Casual Worker/Guinness/2013)

The above findings confirm Parker's (1994) and Vosko's (2000) assertion that temporary employees are more poorly treated. This vulnerability opens the door for frequent dismissal of workers, as the statutory protection against unfair dismissal is rendered weak and powerless by carefully constructed contractual provision. This provision stipulates that the employees of a temporary employment service are on 'limited duration contracts' that are deemed to terminate automatically upon the happening of an uncertain future (Cohen and Moodley, 2012).

Table 4.2.2: Distribution of the level of decent work indices in the food and beverage sub-sectors

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Equity in work including absence of male discrimination	n	%	n	%
Low	91	28	33	15
Moderate	203	63	152	67
High	30	9	41	18
Equity in work including absence of female discrimination	n	%	n	%
Low	42	13	10	4
Moderate	248	77	197	87
High	34	11	19	8
Protection of permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	7	2	3	1
Moderate	3	1	7	3
High	314	97	216	96
Protection of non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	227	70	56	25
Moderate	81	25	116	51
High	16	5	54	24

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4.2.2 above shows data in respect of the indices of decent work practices concerning equity in work including absence of male discrimination, the view of a large majority of the respondents (67%) suggested that there was slightly moderate equity in work, including lack of male discrimination, in the beverage sub-sector compared to the food sub-sector (63%). Also, few of the respondents considered it to be high in the beverage sub-sector compared to in the food sub-sector.

Similarly, the indices of decent work also revealed that equity in work including absence of female discrimination was moderate in both sub-sectors. The majority of the respondents (87%) in the beverage sub-sector affirmed that equity in work including absence of female discrimination was low, while few respondents (11%) in the food sub-sector indicated a high

level of equity in work including absence of female discrimination. As expressed by a 45-year old staff in the food sub-sector:

There is this whistleblower initiative that ensures the security of workers in outpouring their mind when any unfair practice is seen or felt. This initiative is put in place to check cases of discrimination in this organisation. I can tell you there is no discrimination in terms of gender. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/NBC/2013)*

Protection of permanent staff was slightly higher (97%) in the food sub-sector than in the beverage sub-sector (96%), as expressed by the respondents. It must be noted that this protection of permanent staff is anchored to the dignity at work in respect of freedom of workers to join organisations, such as trade unions. As pointed out by Adewumi and Adenugba (2010), rights are bestowed on workers, and their unions, taking into consideration their particular role and the need to protect them from extreme abuse and exploitation in the hands of profit-conscious employers often supported by a collaborative state.

In terms of protection of non-permanent workers, majority of the respondents (70%) in the food sub-sector affirmed low level of protection for this category of workers. On the other hand, 51% of the respondents indicated moderate level and 25% reported a high level of protection for non-permanent workers in the beverage sub-sector. It can, therefore, be deduced that non-permanent workers are relatively protected in the beverage sub-sector more than those in the food sub-sector. However, the literature suggests that many temporary workers, because of their high turnover and lack of integration in the employing organisation or trade union, may be subjected to reduced protection by labour legislation and union membership (Vosko, 2000; Adewumi, 2009). This is revealing, as most studies have found that non-permanent workers are not protected since they are not allowed to join trade unions (Vosko, 2000; Adewumi, 2009).

Table 4.2.3: Distribution of the level of decent work indices in the food and beverage sub-sector

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Security at work that guarantees health care services, pension and livelihood for permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	38	12	8	4
Moderate	237	73	144	64
High	49	15	74	33
Security at work that guarantees health care services, pension and livelihood for non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	282	87	212	94
Moderate	32	10	8	4
High	10	3	6	3
Participation of permanent staff in unions activities	n	%	n	%
Low	67	21	28	12
Moderate	12	4	10	4
High	245	76	188	83
Participation of non-permanent workers in union activities	n	%	n	%
Low	241	74	174	77
Moderate	40	12	26	12
High	43	13	26	12

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

As captured in Table 4.2.3, 73% of the respondents indicated that there is a reasonable security of the employee on the job that guarantees health care services, pensions and livelihood for permanent staff in the food sub-sector, compared to the beverage sub-sector (64%). The respondents explained that this privilege was only given to only permanent staff and expatriate staff employed by the organisation. However, they stressed that non-permanent workers were excluded from the pension scheme. Most of the respondents emphasised that the recruiting agencies or outsourcing companies had been mandated to take care of such workers, as this was included in the agreement signed with the organisation. In the case of emergency, non-permanent

workers would be treated by the organisation and, after that, the recruiting agencies or outsourcing companies would be responsible for the treatment of such workers.

Security at work that guarantees health care services and livelihood for non-permanent workers was lower in both sub-sectors. It was, however, much more in the beverage sub-sector, recording 94%, than in the food sub-sector of 87%. In the same vein, few of the respondents (10%) believed that security at work that guarantees health care services and livelihood for non-permanent workers was still very moderate when compared to unemployment. This was supported by the in-depth interview. One of the junior staff in the food sub-sector argued thus:

To me, the presence of non-standard workers has enhanced the reduction of unemployment, giving people something to do and be remunerated in the absence of none. It is true that they enjoy little privileges but when one compares the high rate of unemployment and the need to sustain one's family, one will consider taking any non-standard job to get out of poverty. It is when poverty is reduced or eradicated that one can talk of decent work.

(IDI/Male/Junior Staff/Cadbury/2013)

In developing societies like Nigeria bedevilled by the crisis of development and where the labour market is saturated, most employers' intention to keep the cost of labour as low as possible has resulted in the proliferation of non-standard employment, such as casual work, contract work or part-time job, even though workers in these categories have prerequisite skills to hold full-time jobs with varying implications for decent work deficits (ILO, 2005). The indices of decent work practices in the food and beverage sub-sectors also revealed high-level participation rate for permanent staff in unions' activities in the beverage sub-sector (83%) compared to the food sub-sector (76%). The high rate of participation in unions' activities has helped to foster industrial harmony and internal democracy in the entire sector.

Participation of non-permanent workers in unions' activities was abysmally low in both sub-sectors, as they were not allowed to join unions once they were employed in non-standard employment. Studies have found that any employment relationship that does not afford workers the opportunity to unionise or participate in decisions that affect their work and advance their rights in the place of work is far from being a decent work (Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Adewumi, 2008; Okafor, 2010).

Table 4.2.4: Distribution of the level of decent work indices in the food and beverage sub-sectors

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Female workers' proportion in professional work	n	%	n	%
Low	73	23	32	14
Moderate	155	48	155	69
High	96	30	39	17
Female workers' proportion in technical work	n	%	n	%
Low	160	49	143	63
Moderate	68	21	36	16
High	96	30	48	21
Female workers' proportion in managerial and administrative work	n	%	n	%
Low	21	7	11	5
Moderate	269	83	178	79
High	34	11	37	16
Right to safety at work among permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	102	32	43	19
Moderate	121	37	82	36
High	101	31	101	45
Right to safety at work among non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	122	38	59	26
Moderate	123	38	102	45
High	79	24	65	29
Medical health care facilities for families of permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	98	30	40	18
Moderate	98	30	71	31
High	128	40	115	51

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

As shown in the table above, the female workers' proportion in professional work in both sub-sectors was moderate. Most of the respondents (69%) in the beverage sub-sector affirmed this, compared to 48% respondents in the food sub-sector. Also, few of the respondents (30%) in the food sub-sector opined that the female workers' proportion in professional work was high.

Similarly, in terms of the female workers' proportion in technical work, 63% of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector indicated low female workers' proportion in technical work, compared to 49% response rate in the food sub-sector. Also, 30% of the respondents in the food sub-sector buttressed the fact that female workers' proportion in technical work is high, compared to 21% response rate in the beverage sub-sector.

With respect to women workers' proportion in managerial and administrative work in both sub-sectors, 83% of the respondents affirmed that there was a moderate female workers proportion in the food sub-sector, compared to 79% in the beverage sub-sector. In addition, 16% high rates were recorded in the beverage sub-sector. Buttressing the above differences in task done, a member of the executive in FOBTOB-SSA in Cadbury asserted that:

The fact is that few women work in the factory when compared to men. There are lots of sophisticated machines and strenuous jobs that are better handled by men. I'm not saying that women cannot operate some of these machines but most organisations prefer the men to operate such machines. So, most times, you tend to find more women working in admin, finance, store, quality control, laboratory, than you find them in engineering and production.
(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)

Also, another member of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in Cadbury, a 42-year old woman, shed more light on the issue of gender in the workplace and why women are not allowed to work in all departments except few ones:

The idea of gender equality is present. But departmental heads discover that when some of the female applicants are looking for employment, they tend to be desperate to get the job. But they soon discover that, after some of the female applicants get the job, they begin to give excuses when the tasks of their job require them to do it in a particular way, most especially when it is against their religious doctrines. There was a lady who claimed that her religious doctrine as a Christian does not permit her to put on trousers. But the kind of work she does requires her to put on trousers because she works as a technical crew in the organisation. Sometimes, her work may require climbing a ladder, which may not be proper without putting on trousers. Although this idea was later corrected, the fact remains that even female departmental heads will not even want to work with female workers because of their attitude and sometimes religious beliefs.
(IDI/Female/Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)

Fapohunda (2012) also avers that horizontal segregations persist in the labour market in Nigeria and women's movement into positions has been hampered by institutional barriers, including norms and attitudes.

The indices of decent work also revealed very low response rate on the right to safety among permanent staff. A total of 45% respondents indicated a slightly high right to safety of permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector, compared with 31% response rate from the food sub-sector. In terms of right to safety among non-permanent workers, 45% of the respondents noted that the right to safety among non-permanent workers was slightly moderate in the beverage sub-sector, compared to 38% for the food sub-sector. As shown in the table above, 51% of the respondents indicated that there was provision for medical health care facilities for families of permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector, compared to 40% in the food sub-sector. They explained that this privilege was given to only permanent and expatriate staff employed by the organisations. They stressed that the families of non-permanent workers were excluded from the scheme. The majority of the respondents emphasised that the recruiting agencies or outsourcing companies had been mandated to take care of such workers as this has been included in the agreement signed with the organisations. One of the members of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in Cadbury had this to say:

On health insurance scheme, Cadbury operates that too. As a worker, you are allowed to go to any hospital of your choice to register with your wife and four children. Once you register Cadbury will be responsible for the bill incurred. Even when a worker sustained severe injury, s/he is flown out of the country. For instance, they gave me glasses and, after a while, I changed the lens. Even the non-permanent workers enjoy the benefit of health insurance scheme through their recruiting companies and agents. Unions negotiate for the welfare of employees as a whole.
(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)

Corroborating the above view, the Human Resource Manager in one of the food sub-sector noted that:

We take the health care of our staff very seriously. We offer the best health package in the industry. Each employee registers with accredited HMO of his/her choice approved by management which covers his/her spouse and 4 children for all permanent staff.
(IDI/Male/Management Staff/Cadbury/2013)

Table 4.2.5: Distribution of the level of decent work indices in the food and beverage sub-sectors

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Normal working hours for permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	148	46	52	23
Moderate	81	25	78	35
High	95	29	96	43
Normal working hours for non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	126	39	104	46
Moderate	89	28	79	35
High	109	34	43	19
Payment for extra working hours for permanent staff	n	%	n	%
Low	188	58	154	68
Moderate	75	23	49	22
High	61	19	23	10
Payment for extra working hours for non-permanent workers	n	%	n	%
Low	68	21	155	24
Moderate	62	19	12	5
High	194	60	159	70

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

As evident in the table above, a total of 46% of the respondents indicated low normal working hours for permanent staff in the food sub-sector. Similarly, 43% of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector affirmed that there was a high normal working hour for permanent staff working within the stipulated mandatory 8 hours in a day. This was supported by the in-depth interview conducted with one of the union leaders. A 45-year old executive member in Nigerian Bottling Company corroborated this:

Workers also work for the normal stipulated hours by the organisation except for rare occasion, where they are asked to work overtime based on management decision, and they are well compensated. Although extra hours of work for senior staff is seen as trying to achieve a difficult task or meet up with work on ground. But for junior staff, it may be referred to as overtime

which they are being remunerated for and added to their salaries.
(IDI/Male/Executive Member /NBC/2013)

As regards regular working hours for non-permanent workers, 46% of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector indicated a low normal working hour for non-permanent workers, compared to 39% respondents in the food sub-sector. As for overtime allowance for workers that work more than 8 hours a day, most of the respondents (68%) affirmed low payment of extra working hours for permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector. They stressed that workers worked in three shifts, which did not afford them overtime most of the time, except for few occasions. Corroborating the above summation, an executive member of NUFBTE in Cadbury in his 50s commented that:

On the hours of work, I think in Cadbury now we work for 8am-5pm per day. But the work is based on shifts which made the work go all round the clock. For instance, the shift is based on 3 shifts 4 gangs. There are different work shifts, namely: morning, afternoon and night. 3 shifts 4 gangs means 2 mornings, 2 afternoons, 2 nights and 2 days off, for morning 7am-2pm, for afternoon 2pm-9pm and night 9pm- 4am. Workers also have the benefit of leave of absence, some 2 weeks and some 3 weeks, which is compulsory every year because, at the beginning of the year, workers fill when he/she wants his/her leave of absence. *(IDI/Male/Union Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)*

Also, in terms of payment of extra working hours for non-permanent workers, the majority of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector affirmed the high payment of extra working hours for non-permanent, compared to those in the food sub-sector.

4.3 Trend of work reorganisation effects on workers' benefits

Table 4.3.1: Distribution of selected variables on work reorganisation and workers' benefits

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Positive benefits of reorganisation	n	%	n	%
Low	155	49	32	14
Moderate	96	30	39	17
High	73	21	155	69
Financial benefits workers enjoy since reorganisation	n	%	n	%
Bonus	201	18	180	28
Leave allowance	228	21	105	16
Overtime allowance	177	16	93	14
Outstation allowance	98	9	48	7
Compensation allowance	92	8	48	7
Health Insurance allowance	80	7	59	9
Financial assistance	75	7	49	8
Child care allowance	55	5	15	2
Hazard allowance	51	5	27	7
Family responsibility allowance	30	3	12	2
Reorganisation that has taken place	n	%	n	%
Outsourcing	173	23	67	15
Repositioning	154	21	170	37
Temporary Employment	134	18	73	16
Reshufflement	127	18	84	18
Downsizing	117	16	49	11
Merger and acquisition	42	6	15	3

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4.3.1 presents data on the effect of work reorganisation on workers' benefits. Most of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector (69%) indicated high response that reorganisation had benefited workers positively in their sector, while 49% of the respondents affirmed low level of reorganisation benefits to the employees in the food sub-sector. The number of those who responded that it was moderate in the food sub-sector was too significant to be disregarded. It could, therefore, imply that the reorganisation does not impact positively on all categories of

workers, since the non-permanent workers do not form the core staff of the selected organisations. It is, however, noteworthy that 69% of the respondents indicated that the reorganisation benefitted the workers positively in the beverage sub-sector. This result corroborated previous studies that claim that reorganisation, most times, is aimed at job rotation and multi-skilling, employee involvement and teamwork and thereby poses serious challenges to unions, threatening their primary role of defending worker's rights and promoting social justice, equity and fairness through collective bargaining, and workplace interaction (Kumar, 1993; Kalleberg *et al.*, 2003; Burgess and Connell, 2006; Martinez, De Cuyper and De Witte, 2010).

Further confirmation of some of these claims was exhaustively addressed in the in-depth interview sessions with the unions and workers in the two sub-sectors. In terms of those benefits that employees enjoy now, the respondents indicated that there were opportunities to express themselves, training opportunities, increment in wages and leave allowances, improvement in loan facilities, improvement in health care facilities and gift items. Corroborating the above findings, one of the Human Resource Managers in the food sub-sector asserted thus:

I think to a greater extent work reorganisation have affected activities in the organisation now than before. But this depends on the perspectives of different workers. The idea of rightsizing has also affected workers in the organisation positively since this has also given opportunity to workers to be trained in other areas (multi-skills). For instance, production operatives are trained to become technical operatives. More so, permanent workers enjoy more benefits than non-permanent workers.
(IDI/Male/Management Staff/Cadbury/2013)

Also, shedding more light on the positive benefit of reorganisation on the workers, a member of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in Nigerian Bottling Company noted thus:

I think I have witnessed work reorganisation in this organisation twice within the period of 2006 and 2010, though the two experiences are rightsizing. These had brought about some benefits to workers annually and the work of two people is being done by one person. But the fact remains that it will enhance the smooth performance of work done. Moreover, all the workers enjoy whatever benefits that are given to all based on their different cadres and functions. *(IDI/Male/Executive Member/NBC/2013)*

Apart from the positive impact of reorganisation on worker benefits, some of the respondents also believed that work reorganisation has not been positive for workers. They claimed that before reorganisation took place, workers enjoyed better packages than what their

managements are now giving them. They stressed that workers had normal working hours, had freedom of expression, were encouraged to buy stocks of their companies, enjoyed better welfare package and free medical facilities with their spouses and four children in any four health care provider of their choice. With respect to those things that workers enjoyed before the reorganisation that they do not enjoy now, the respondents indicated overseas training, freedom of expression and better welfare package amongst others as lacking in their organisations since reorganisation.

As for the financial benefits that workers enjoyed since reorganisation, on bonuses, the two sub-sectors scored high. Again, the beverage sub-sector scored the highest percentage (28%), compared to the food sub-sector 18%. A further breakdown of the sub-sector into individual organisations on the financial benefits revealed that Guinness scored the highest percentage (83%), followed by Nigerian Breweries (75%). The two organisations are rivals in the same industry, producing competitive brands and might be using this strategy to motivate their workers. With respect to leave allowances, Cadbury scored high (75%), closely followed by Nigerian Breweries (71%). In addition, all the selected organisations performed poorly on such benefits like out-station allowance (26%), compensation allowance (26%), financial assistance (22%), hazard allowance (14%), child care allowance (13%) and family responsibility allowance (8%). All these benefits were enjoyed mostly by permanent workers across the selected organisations with meagre benefits like bonuses being given once in a while and during festive periods. One of the members of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in Guinness had this to say on bonuses:

I think permanent workers enjoy better bonuses as well as other emoluments while the non-permanent workers only enjoy lesser bonuses. *(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Guinness/2013)*

The in-depth interview session revealed that there were differences between the benefits given to permanent and non-permanent workers. The differences in benefits given to permanent and non-permanent workers were in terms of disparity in allowances, leave bonuses, pension and gratuity, health care facilities for only permanent workers' families and lack of access to company products. A 23-year old casual worker in the food sub-sector averred that:

I do not even enjoy good health insurance not to talk about other benefits. More so, when one sustains injury(ies) one is not even well taken care of not to talk of even when one is ill. For a casual

worker, there is nothing like pension as well as other fringe benefits. And when one does any overtime work one does not even get the overtime allowance that is paid to other categories of workers. *(IDI/ Male/Casual Worker/ Cadbury/2013)*

Another respondent, a 35 year-old casual worker in the beverage sub-sector submitted that:

In terms of health insurance and some other fringe benefits, I enjoy that to some extent but not on the benefit of pension which should help one in securing future benefits when one is out of active service. One does not enjoy the pension benefits. And even those benefits enjoyed are not enjoyed in the way the permanent workers enjoy them. *(IDI/Female/ Casual Worker/ NB/2013)*

This finding confirmed the argument of Okafor (2012), that non-permanent workers do not enjoy any form of social protection, either from their employers or the state. For example, these workers are excluded from the pension scheme by their employers and do not enjoy any form of unemployment benefits when they are out of job from the state even though the state can afford this. Precarious employments are associated with abysmally low wages, absence of medical care or allowances, no job security or promotion at work, no gratuity and other severance benefits, no leave or leave allowance, jeopardised freedom of association, no death benefit or accident insurance at work and no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement (Okougbo, 2004).

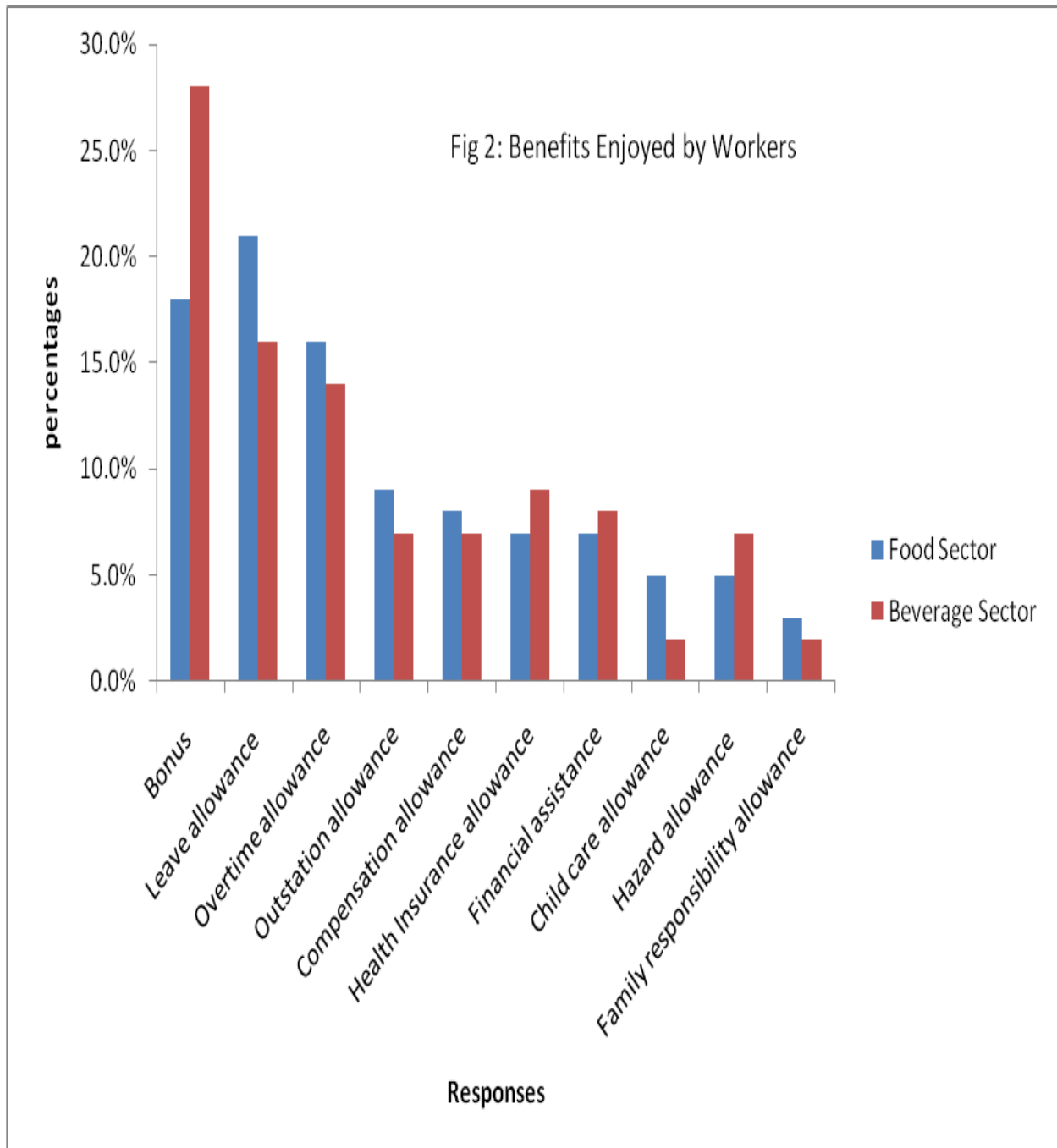


Figure 4.1: Presentation of financial benefits enjoyed by the permanent workers

Table 4.3.2: Distribution of selected variables on trend of work reorganisation and workers' benefits

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Reorganisation that has affected workers benefits	n	%	n	%
Repositioning	124	25	148	45
Reshufflement	87	18	40	12
Outsourcing	71	14	19	6
Casualisation	57	12	33	10
Downsizing	55	11	22	7
Temporary Employment	41	8	35	11
Layoff	30	6	20	6
Merger and Acquisition	26	5	9	3
Reorganisation that has affected workers benefits negatively	n	%	n	%
Outsourcing	105	19	27	7
Casualisation	104	19	75	25
Layoff	100	18	58	20
Downsizing	92	16	46	15
Temporary employment	60	3	12	4

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

The histogram above presents the aggregate of the responses on the various forms of work reorganisation that have taken place in the selected organisations. From the table reclassified into sub-sectors and histogram based on organisations shown above, in all the selected organisations in the food and beverage sub-sectors, repositioning seemed to have been implemented more, as majority (58.9%) of the respondents indicated it had taken place in their organisations. This was followed by outsourcing of none core jobs (43.6%) and creation of temporary employment (37.6%). A total of 8.9% respondents affirmed that there had been merger and acquisition in their organisations. A Production Manager in the food sub-sector asserted that:

Essentially, in recent times, there have been merger and acquisition. For instance, Coca-Cola is now called Hellenic Coca-Cola and that they have also acquired Limca, which has now made them picked up the franchise of bottling Limca.

(IDI/Male/Management Staff/NBC/2013)

Shedding light on temporary employment in the organisations, a junior worker in Cadbury argued thus:

To me, the presence of non-standard workers has enhanced the reduction of unemployment, giving people something to do and be remunerated in the absence of none. I think rightsizing is either long-term or short-term benefits thing but the cost-benefits analysis is always verified before introducing it. But then it has brought about benefit in terms of salaries, arrears and other benefits.

(IDI/Male/Junior Staff/Cadbury/2013)

The new approach to management in a globalised economy today is the development of a more flexible workforce (Benson and Ieronimo, 1996), which has become employers' new frontier in the management of labour (Baglioni, 1990). This changing nature of work has taken a new dimension, with the adoption of flexible work arrangements by many firms globally. These changes have been linked to the globalisation of the world economy (Floro and Meurs, 2009).

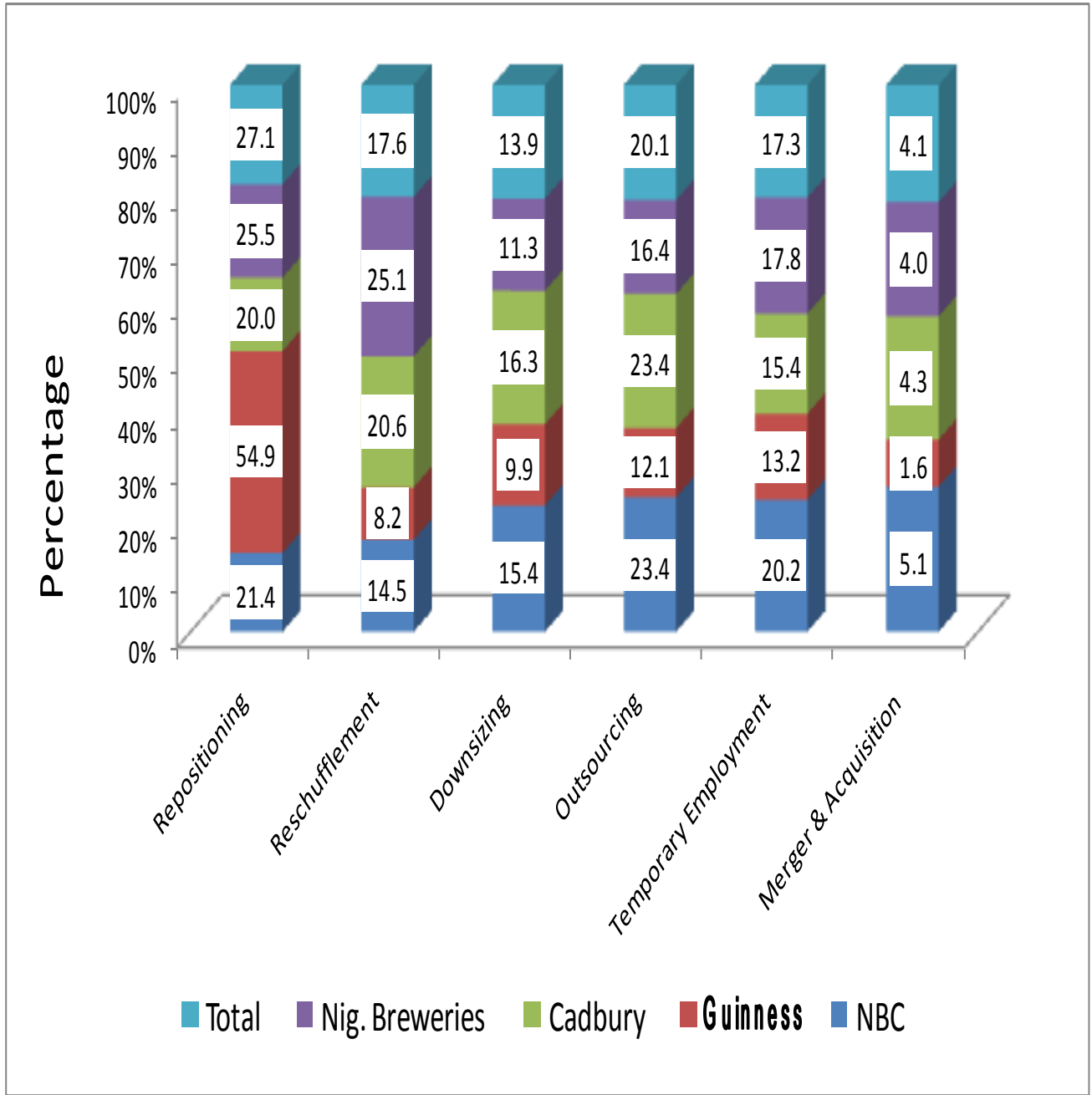


Figure 4.2: Presentation of the various forms of reorganisation across organisations

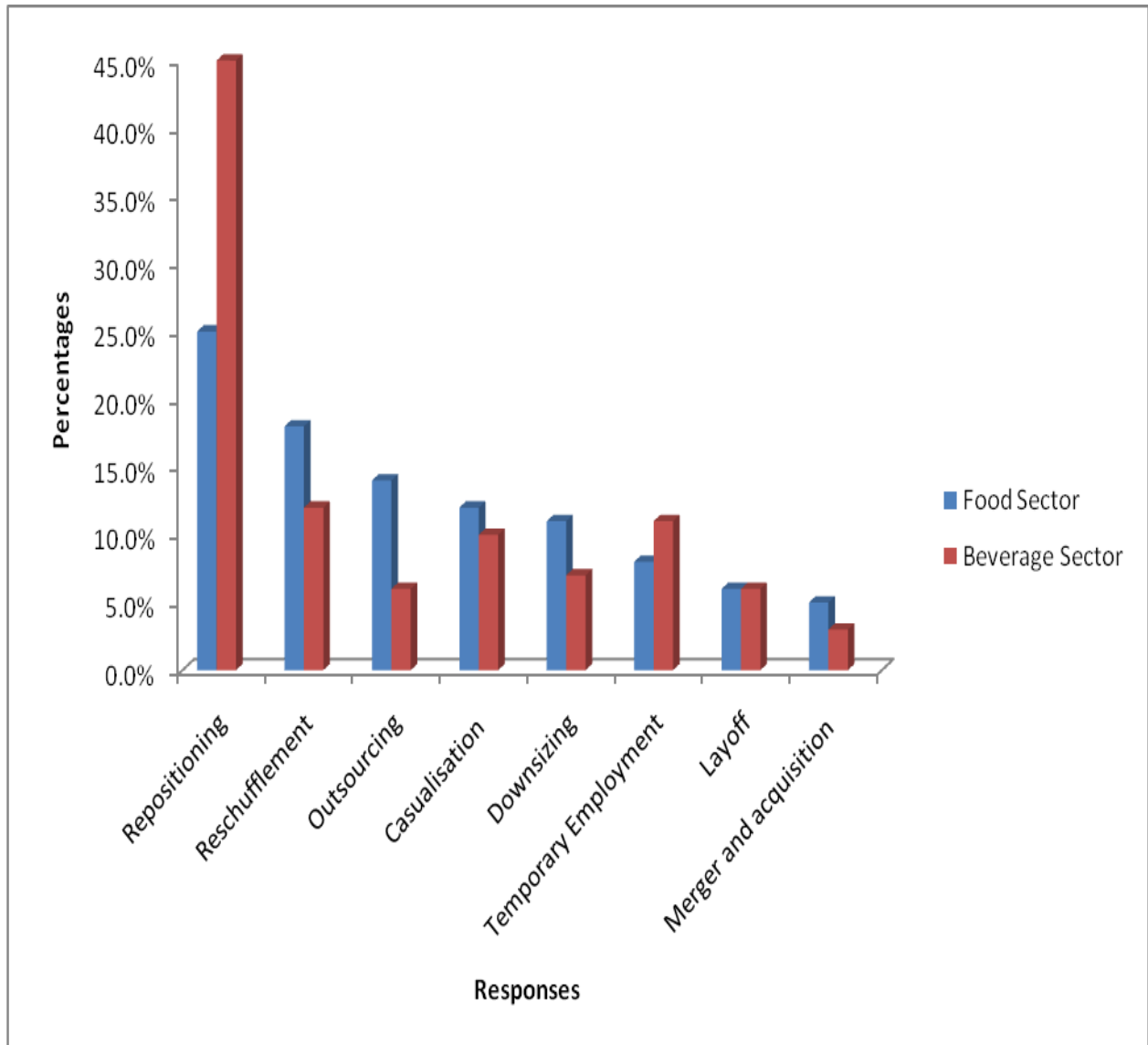


Figure 4.3: Presentation of trend of work reorganisation indices that have positively affected workers' benefits

Over all, in terms of the various reorganisation indices that have positively affected workers' benefits in both sectors, repositioning had the highest impact on workers benefits in the beverage sub-sector (45%) and 25% in the food sub-sector. A further reclassification of the data showed that as regards work reorganisation that has affected workers positively, the majority of the respondents in Nigerian Bottling Company (45.7%) identified merger and acquisition. In Guinness, 33.5% of the respondents indicated repositioning. In Cadbury, 33.1% of the respondents affirmed that reshuffling affected workers positively.

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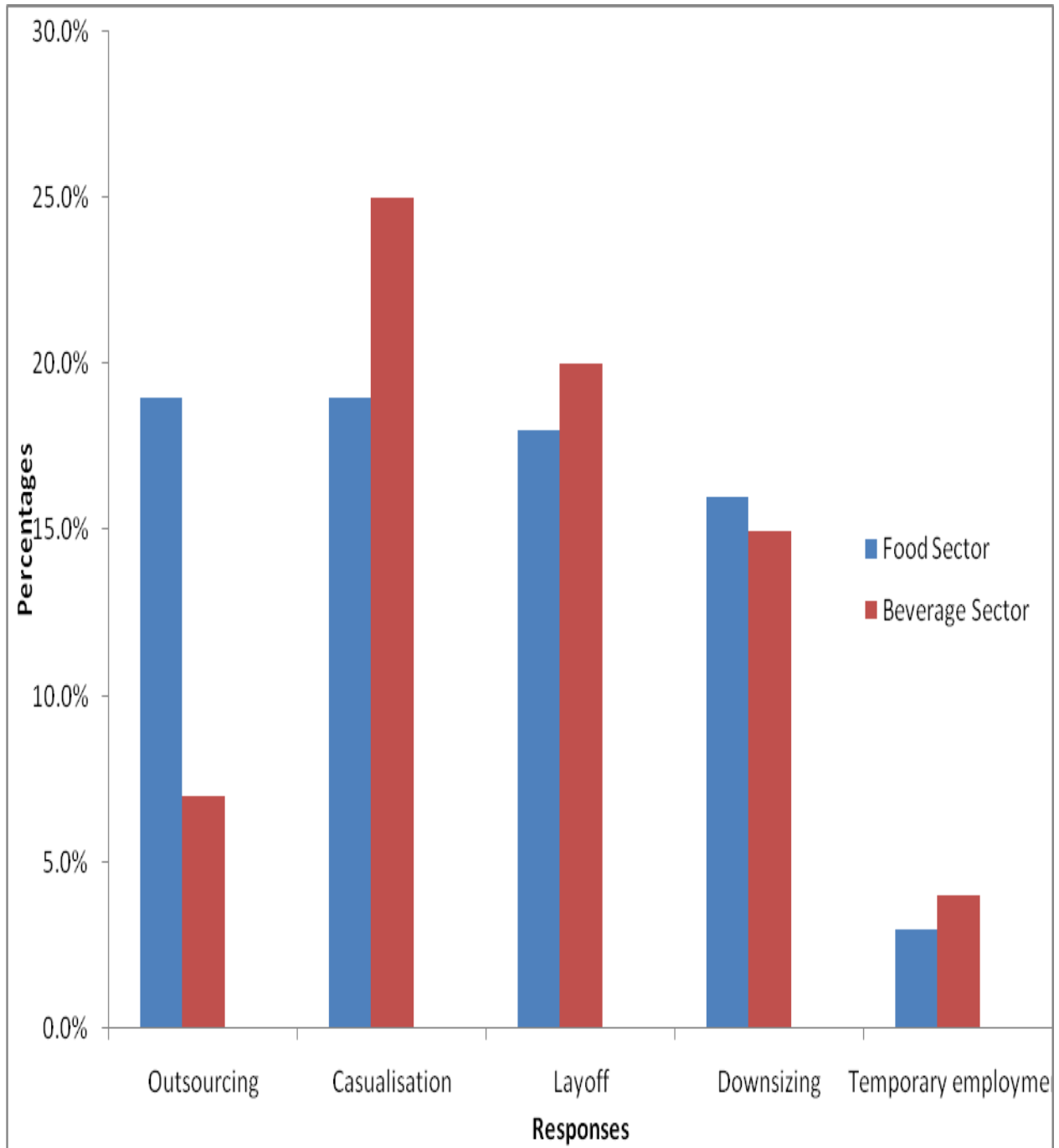


Figure 4.4: Presentation of trend of work reorganisation indices that have negatively affected workers

Regarding work reorganisation indices that have negatively affected workers in both sub-sectors, most of the responses in the beverage sub-sector indicated that casualisation (25%), temporary employment (20%), and downsizing (15%) affected workers' benefits negatively. Similarly, in the food sub-sector, outsourcing (19%), casualisation (19%) and lay-off (18%) negatively affected workers' benefits. A reclassification of the data based on organisations, as shown in the graph above, indicated that most of the respondents in Nigerian Bottling Company (25.4%) and Guinness (36.3%) confirmed that casualisation affected workers negatively. Also, in Nigerian Breweries, 28.3% of the respondents affirmed that lay-off affected workers negatively and 24.9 % of the respondents in Cadbury confirmed that outsourcing of non-core functions affected workers negatively. One of the members of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA commented that:

Concerning work reorganisation, the adverse effect is that some workers leave, while the positive impact is that some are repositioned well and better paid, and more so, it gives room for employment but it might be the kind of employment that is not gratifying. I think the aspect of merger and acquisition has been a global one between beer and spirit companies all over the world. Downsizing in Guinness has been called reorganisation, which sometimes might retire 10 people and bring back 5 people into those positions. *(IDI/Male/Executive/Guinness/2013)*

A junior worker who had witnessed some forms of reorganisation shed more light on this:

I think I have witnessed 4 reorganisations and, in fact, reorganisation has come with more of negative outcome, not in terms of people that have left but in terms of people who are still in active work. In fact, the bulk of work for the remaining workers has increased without other people replacing those that had left. Reorganisation as a matter of fact does not come with any benefit, as there is no increase in salaries as well as allowances or bonuses and so it is in other related benefits.

(IDI/Male/Junior Staff/NBC/2013)

The workers see reorganisation from different perspectives, as either positively or negatively affecting them, based on their perception of the concept. The literature has shown that reorganisation is often realised in actions like outsourcing, mergers and acquisitions, privatisation, often in combination with reduction in personnel through lay-offs, downsizing, and offer of early retirement and increased utilisation of subcontracted workers (Burke and Nelson, 1998; Burke and Cooper, 2000; Tetrick and Quick, 2003; Sverke *et al.*, 2006). Although these

reorganisation strategies differ in many ways, they usually have at least one thing in common, which is uncertainty about the future of the workers in the organisations.

4.4: Nature and pattern of work reorganisation effects on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors

This section is mainly qualitative, as it attempts to get the views of the respondents on issues of work reorganisation and its effect on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector. Specifically, attention is focused on the executives of the two unions in the food and beverage sub-sectors and the management. Also, the views of other respondents were sought on some of these issues.

There were divergent views on work reorganisation. While management viewed it from the positive perspective, unions and workers perceived it more negatively. Most of the respondents from the unions' and workers' side affirmed that casualisation affected decent work in so many ways, such as: workers spending longer hours at work, reduction in pay, high rate of unskilled workers on few tasks, and lack of commitment on the part of the casual workers. From the management perspective, 50% of the respondents interviewed in the food sub-sector affirmed that it allowed management to concentrate on its core functions and 45% in beverage sub-sector alluded to this. Also, 25% of the respondents in the food sub-sector as well as 30% in the beverage sub-sector indicated that it enhanced job opportunities. Furthermore, 15% of the respondents in the food sub-sector asserted that it reduced allowances and other benefits to workers and 20% noted flexibility in employment.

Corroborating the above, a member of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in the beverage sub-sector said:

Casualisation has brought many adverse effects on the workers, particularly those that are employed by agents on behalf of the company. These workers are short-changed by these agents who pay them less than what the company asked them to pay. This has brought about low commitment from these workers because they know at anytime they may lose their jobs. They are denied benefits such as housing, medical, leave allowance and, most importantly, pension and gratuity. This negates decent work, and this has made most of the casual workers not to be committed to their work.
(IDI/Male/ Executive Member/Guinness/2013)

Also confirming how work reorganisation has affected decent work in the sector, a member of the executive of NUFBTE in Nigeria Bottling Company explained thus:

Casualisation is one of the processes of reorganising work, a strategy that is used by management to reduce cost and streamline workers. Decent work has to do with the effective implementation of core labour standard, the creation of more productive work and inclusive social protection. With the creation or use of casual workers, these core values of decent work have been negated because casual workers are not part of the protected workers. They cannot be said to be doing productive work and are not allowed to join union. You can see it has affected decent work negatively. **(IDI/Male/ Union Executive/Cadbury/2013)**

Similarly, another respondent in his 40s in the food sub-sector opined that:

One important thing that affects most organisations in this country is lack of data to know the trend of casualisation in the industry so as to know how to address the challenges facing different organisations under the sector. I think casualisation is an aberration to decent work. The economic crisis in the country gave credence to the use of casual workers in the oil, communication, banking, etc. I think what Coca-Cola use casual for is what Guinness also use them for. So it is very common in both sub-sectors but I think is used more in the beverage sub-sector than in the food sub-sector. **(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/NBC/2013)**

Expressing a divergent view, a Human Resources Manager in the beverage sub-sector averred thus:

There is no casualisation in my organisation. What we do is to outsource none-core functions to contractors and concentrate on core functions. If you ask me, this process of contracting out jobs have helped management to reduce cost and maximise profits. In a way, it has helped to reduce issues of allowances, benefits, pension and gratuities. For management, what you call casualisation and we called outsourcing has provided opportunities for employment, income for sustenance, right to work and social protection. All these are indications of decent work which exist. Casualisation, outsourcing, merger and acquisition etc have affected decent work positively. **(IDI/Male/Management Staff/Guinness/2013)**

On the effects of merger and acquisition on decent work, most of the respondents interviewed affirmed that merger and acquisition also affected decent work negatively. They based their assertion on the fact that mergers and acquisitions (M &As) have been more beneficial to management than workers. On the part of management, M&As encouraged competition among organisations and improved performance. On the part of workers, M&As encouraged loss of job, transfer of workers' employment contract without consent, non-payment of terminal benefits, exploitation of workers and creation of job insecurity in the sector.

On merger and acquisition, one of the members of the executive of FOBT OB-SSA in the food sub-sector noted that:

A merger occurs when the assets and resources of two or more companies are brought together under the control of one company. On the other hand, acquisition is the transfer and control of assets, liabilities, employees, management technical relationship of one company to another. Most mergers give rise to employee issues because they involve the transfer of employees from one entity to another, the termination of certain employee contracts, payment of redundancy or terminal benefits and the harmonisation of the terms and conditions of employment of the existing and transferred employees. A contract of employment of an employee cannot be transferred or assigned from one employer to another employer without the employee's consent and without the need for the termination of the contract by one employer, followed by the other rehiring the employee. The Transfer of Undertakings (Protection of Employment) Act 1981 (otherwise called the 'TUPE Act') enacted in the UK established the right to consultation of the employees and provided for the automatic transfer of employment rights and liabilities. The TUPE Act also confers mandatory protection on the terms and conditions of employment of the employees who are affected by a transfer. But this is a far cry in the Nigerian system of M&As.

(IDI/Male/ Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)

Giving a divergent view, one of the production managers in the food sub-sector emphasised that M&As enhanced decent work practices:

I think M&As have been used to enhance decent work practices as stronger organisation come together, and weaker organisation assets and liabilities are acquired by strong organisations. If there are no M&As we will not be talking about workers welfare in terms of severance and terminal benefits as also decent work practices as most workers would just wake and find their organisation bankrupt. *(IDI/Male/Management Staff/NBC/2013)*

In terms of downsizing and outsourcing, most of the respondents interviewed affirmed that downsizing reduced labour force, affected job security and encouraged differential treatment of workers, which negate decent work practices. Specifically, it was mentioned that the food sub-sector downsized more in the entire sector in the last 10 years. Also, outsourcing encouraged non-chalant attitude to work by those employed by the recruiting agents. It also revealed discrimination between permanent and non-permanent workers, exploitation of workers by the outsourcing company, lack of motivation to work, and job insecurity.

One of the executive of FOBTOB-SSA in the food sub-sector commented thus:

I think downsizing has affected decent work more. This is because a lot of workers are not gainfully employed. Those that are employed cannot be said to be doing productive work, workers lack social security on the job and workers are exploited every day. In the past 10 years close to 100,000 jobs have been lost in the food sub-sector alone in Lagos due to downsizing or it is rightsizing without any correspondence increase in wages and salaries of those that survived it. *(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Cadbury/2013)*.

Furthermore, in one of the interview sessions with some respondents in the beverage sub-sector, a permanent staff in his 40s explained the effects of outsourcing on decent work thus:

To be honest with you and from what you might have heard from other respondents in the course of this work, you would find that outsourcing has been used to short changed workers. It is an aberration to decent work. Organisations use outsourcing practices to reduce standard employment and create non-standard employment practices. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/ NB/2013)*.

This response corroborates the fact that Nigeria has experienced major changes in its manufacturing sectors. It is estimated that approximately 4.2 million job losses were recorded in the entire sector between 1983 and January 2006 (*MAN Newsletter*, 2006). It also confirms that most workers are not adequately protected as most organisations have continued to defy labour laws that abolish workers exploitations in any form (World Bank, 1997; Adewumi, 2009); and high workers' violations concerning fundamental human rights at work, as entrenched in the Labour Act of 2004 (Aturu, 2005).

Temporary employees, who are employed for a specific task, for a specific period of time and have the required skills are more likely to hold a transactional contract as against permanent workers, whose employment is on a long-term basis, who are more likely to hold relational contract (Millward and Hopkins, 1998). These findings are in conformity with Turnley and Feldman (1999) who argue that, if temporary workers feel they are not receiving what they think they deserve, this might generate a sense of deprivation and, therefore, create a negative perception of the working situation. Workers evaluate their situations in terms of perceived fairness in workplace (Buunk and Gibson, 2007).

4.5: Work reorganisation and treatment of permanent staff and non-permanent workers

Table 4.5.1: Distribution of respondents on work reorganisation and decent treatment

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Casualisation has encouraged	n	%	n	%
a)Decent treatment of non-permanent workers	22	7	12	5
b) Decent treatment of permanent workers	23	7	18	8
c) Decent treatment of all categories of workers	34	10	31	14
d)Indecent treatment of non-permanent workers	245	76	165	73
Merger and acquisition has affected	n	%	n	%
a)Decent treatment of permanent workers	251	77	135	60
b)Decent treatment of non-permanent workers	37	12	46	20
c)Decent treatment of all categories of workers	20	6	24	11
d) Indecent treatment of all categories of workers	16	5	21	9
Downsizing has affected	n	%	n	%
a) Better treatment of permanent workers	40	12	36	16
b)Better treatment of non-permanent workers	85	26	43	19
c) Better treatment of all categories of workers	199	62	147	65
Outsourcing has encouraged	n	%	n	%
a)Better treatment of non-permanent workers only	23	7	17	8
b)Better treatment of permanent workers only	24	8	10	4
c)Better treatment of all categories of workers	21	6	20	9
d)Better treatment of only outsourced workers	53	16	35	15
e) Poor treatment of non permanent workers	203	63	144	64
Repositioning has allowed for	n	%	n	%
a) Preferential treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers	62	19	12	5
b)Preferential treatment of permanent workers only	214	66	179	79
c)Preferential treatment of non-permanent workers only	48	15	35	16

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

The table above presents data on the work reorganisation and treatment of permanent staff and non-permanent workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors. The section of the study establishes that casualisation encouraged indecent treatment of non-permanent as evidenced by 76% and 73% respondents in the food sub-sector and beverage sub-sector, respectively. Some of the respondents affirmed that casualisation encouraged decent treatment of all categories of

workers in both sectors. Corroborating the above findings are results of the various in-depth sessions. One of the respondents in the food sub-sector during the interview session shed more light on this disparity:

Let me be honest with you, before casualisation was introduced all workers were treated equally. It is when the issue of casualisation began that we started having this discrimination in terms of pay and other benefits. I think the concept of casualisation was borrowed from the oil sector, when workers were employed on contract basis. Casual workers are not treated decently in most organisations even in this company. They are not employed directly by the organisations and as such they are not regarded as workers. Casual workers are treated indecently in this organisation. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/Cadbury/2013)*

The above findings further confirmed Parker's (1994) and Vosko's (2000) assertion that temporary employees are not treated as human resources, but as disposable commodities. This vulnerability opens the door for frequent dismissal of employees, as the statutory protection against unfair dismissal is rendered weak and powerless by carefully constructed contractual provision that usually stipulate that employees of a temporary employment service are employed in terms of 'limited duration contracts' that are deemed to terminate automatically upon the happening of an uncertain future (Cohen and Moodley, 2012).

Also, 77% and 60% of the respondents indicated that merger and acquisition affected treatment of permanent staff in the food sub-sector than in the beverage sub-sector, respectively. As explained further in the interview sessions, most of the respondents argued that the issues of severance benefits are often left hanging during and after merger and acquisition. One of the permanent staff in the food sub-sector, a man in his 50s argued thus:

Most times when organisations embarked on merger and acquisition, the issues of workers severance packages and all other matters affecting workers are usually left unresolved. This always create problems for the workers as most of the workers will be compulsorily retired when they are not yet ready for such sudden exist. *(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff/NBC/2013)*

The majority of the respondents (65%) claimed that downsizing affected better treatment of all categories of workers in the beverage sub-sector, as against 62% of the respondents in the food sub-sector. Again, 26% of the respondents in the food sub-sector affirmed that downsizing affected better treatment of non-permanent workers.

Explaining the effect of downsizing on treatment of workers, a junior worker in his late 30s in the beverage sub-sector expatiated on this:

You will agree with me that downsizing and rightsizing has been a regular occurrence in the industry. Someone employed as a permanent worker today may lose his/her job and be reabsorbed as a casual or temporary worker the next day. Casualisation to me has not ensured employment opportunity; rather it has taken people's job, from those that are permanent workers and given it to non-permanent workers to allow the management pay less than they would pay to the permanent workers (skilled labour) and this, to me, is not decent treatment of workers.

(IDI/Male/Permanent Staff /Guinness/2013)

The study also sought to know whether outsourcing has encouraged better treatment of workers in both sectors. Most of the respondents (63% and 64%) noted that outsourcing encouraged poor treatment of non-permanent workers in both sub-sectors, respectively. Similarly, in the food sub-sector 16% of the respondents acknowledged that outsourcing encouraged better treatment of only outsourced workers. Some of the respondents interviewed reiterated that outsourcing enhanced productivity and created employment opportunities for a lot of people, who would still be searching for job. They further explained that the precarious nature in which the non-permanent workers found themselves, necessitated the lukewarm attitude to work. If the job is available permanently and the outsourced workers are employed, it will still reduce unemployment.

In terms of whether repositioning has affected work reorganisation, 79% of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector claimed that repositioning allowed for preferential treatment of permanent workers only. Similarly, 66% of the respondents in the food sub-sector claimed that repositioning allowed for preferential treatment of permanent workers only. Few of the respondents in both sub-sectors had divergent views, with some expressing that repositioning allowed for preferential treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers and that it allowed for preferential treatment of non-permanent workers only. However, it is noteworthy that most of the respondents admitted that the disparity in the treatment of temporary workers had to do with the negotiating power of the recruiting agents and management of the organisation. It was noted that most of the recruiting agents are owned by some retired personnel of the various companies as well as by some serving personnel or close allies of management. Depending on the

negotiating power and how close they are to management, some of them get better package for their employees. While some of these agents translate it to better package for their workers, others choose to short-change their workers. It was reported that it is how influential the agent or agency is that determines the treatment of workers in the organisation. Since most companies have started outsourcing some of their duties to employment agencies, the ownership structure also goes a long way in determining the treatment and benefits that accrue to various workers. Organisations do not deal directly with most of the temporary workers, but with their employment agencies, except in situations in which employment is done directly, by the organisations; but this has reduced lately.

The adoption of outsourcing can be attributed to the effective competition among the multinational companies across the industry groups. The use of outsourcing reflects the efforts of large organisations to gain new margins of flexibility in competitive markets and lower costs on short-term and long-term bases. This allows multinational companies to distance themselves from the production process and also absolve themselves of any responsibility for workers' interests (Esbenshade, 2004; Merk, 2009). The growth of transnational production chains has continued to heighten insecurity and vulnerability for those workers employed by subcontractors, who know that their jobs and livelihoods depend upon the continuing preferment of their factory locations as a source of cheap labour (Collins, 2003).

4.6: Work reorganisation and terminal benefits

Table 4.6.1: Distribution of respondents on work reorganisation and terminal benefits

Variables	Food sub-sector		Beverage sub-sector	
	N		N	
Casualisation has affected workers' right to:	n	%	n	%
a) pension and gratuity among permanent workers	45	14	30	13
b) Pension and gratuity among non-permanent workers	279	86	196	87
Casualisation has made:	n	%	n	%
a) permanent workers enjoy all the benefits	89	27	59	26
b) reduced pension, gratuity and numbers of years of permanent workers	45	14	33	15
c) non-permanent workers not to be included in pension and gratuity	190	59	134	59
Merger and acquisition has :	n	%	n	%
a) enhanced prompt payment of terminal benefits of permanent workers	188	58	154	68
b) delayed payment of terminal benefits of permanent workers	136	42	72	32
Outsourcing has affected:	n	%	n	%
a) permanent workers' rights to pension and gratuity	68	21	23	10
b) non-permanent workers' right to pension and gratuity	256	79	189	90
Downsizing has not affected	n	%	n	%
a) the payment and entitlements of all categories of workers	62	19	12	5
b) the payment and entitlement of only permanent workers	194	60	159	70
c) the payment and entitlements of senior workers	68	21	55	24

Source: Fieldwork, 2013

The table above captures data on the perceived effect of work reorganisation on workers' access to sustainable pension benefits. Most of the respondents (87%) claimed that casualisation affected non-permanent workers' right to pension and gratuity in the beverage sub-sector, as against 86% of the respondents in the food sub-sector. In the same vein, 59% in both sub-sectors affirmed that the non-inclusion of non-permanent workers in pension and gratuity was higher than the reduction in pension, gratuity and number of years of permanent employees in both sub-

sectors. Also, few respondents acknowledged that casualisation made permanent workers enjoy all the benefits. This assertion was corroborated in one of the interview sessions. A casual worker in the beverage sub-sector noted that:

There is no pension benefit for casual workers or non-permanent workers, but then, the treatment of workers depends on the contractor company negotiating with Guinness. For instance, I am aware of some casual workers that are being paid almost the same as they pay the permanent staff. It is not as if they are graduates but are SSCE holders and they are well paid. In fact, one guy that do the same work that I do just got to know that they are paying his contractor pension and he just went to update his pension account believing that he is entitled to pension. *(IDI/Male/Casual Worker/Guinness/2013)*

Explaining further on the issue of pension, a junior female staff in the beverage said:

Most permanent workers are retrenched before pension age because they feel the casual can do their work. *(IDI/Female/Permanent Staff/NB/2013)*

The response of those who believed that casualisation affected workers' rights to pension and gratuity was based on the fact that most organisations do not consider non-permanent workers as their workers. Regarding prompt payment of terminal entitlements, 68% of the respondents affirmed that merger and acquisition did not affect the prompt payment of terminal entitlements in the beverage sub-sector. They stated that permanent staff received their terminal entitlement as soon as they were laid off or retired from the organisation. In the same vein, 58% of the respondents in the food sub-sector attested to the fact that mergers and acquisitions affected the prompt payment of terminal entitlement. As explained by a member of the executive of NUFBTE in the food sub-sector:

The union ensures that when workers are retrenched, laid-off, downsized or right sized or retired voluntarily. Call it any name; we make sure that they are given their entitlement immediately. In fact, if there is going to be restructuring that would affect the workers, the management would inform the union and we will sit down to look at it critically. On our part, we make sure that all those affected receive their terminal entitlement as they are laid-off. So merger and acquisition have not affected the prompt payment of terminal benefits/ entitlement in Nigerian Bottling Company.

(IDI/Male/Union Executive Member/NBC/2013)

Furthermore, 90% of the respondents indicated that outsourcing affected the non-permanent workers' entitlement to pension in the beverage sub-sector. Also, 79% of the respondents agreed that outsourcing affected the non-permanent workers' entitlement to pension in the food sub-sector. They noted that all this money used for outsourcing would have been used for workers' entitlements, which would benefit all workers, including non-permanent workers. But because most organisations want to reduce cost and maximise profits, this has made them to outsource non-core jobs to contractors who handle specific functions, such as: health welfare benefits administration, security, payroll, recruitment, human resource information system, and benefits and compensation. The findings are in tandem with Kalleberg (2003) and Pastore (2008), who assert that outsourcing has enabled some organisations to concentrate more on their core competencies and thereby use their resources more efficiently. The attempt to increase flexibility also has negative consequences for some organisations and employees and these effects have been less documented.

With regard to frequent downsizing of workers and entitlement, 70% of the respondents in the beverage sub-sector indicated that the frequent reduction of labour did not affect the payment and entitlement of workers, as compared to 60% of the respondents in the food sub-sector. They pointed out that all issues relating to entitlements of workers were often resolved before the workers were retrenched, as the unions were informed ahead of the exercise. Furthermore, some of the respondents argued that the various forms of reorganisation did not positively enhance sustainable pension for workers in their respective organisations.

In one of the interview sessions in Cadbury, a member of the executive of NUFBTE commented that:

On the issue of pension, it was an internal thing before but when Obasanjo regime started in 1999 it was then that it became an external thing that was handled by IBTC. This has been handled properly by them and workers also have access to their pension anytime. For someone who was laid off from work after six months when one is not sure of another employment, one can apply for 25% of one's pension, but if the person is 50 years the IBTC Pension fund will pay one 50% of one's pension. What they do is to tell one to sign a treaty or get a letter from one's previous employer. The implication is that, when workers are coming for employment, they will reduce their age but now they are claiming to be 50 years of age when their age was not based on the age they

tendered when they started work. (*IDI/Male/Executive Member/Cadbury/2013*)

Job security, social security, terminal benefits and minimum conditions of work are some of the issues that have made the ILO objectives on decent work impossible in many organisations. Scholars have argued that these new forms of work arrangements have led to the prospects of a 'race to the bottom' in labour standards, particularly in the developing nations (Banks, 2006). Retirement is seen by workers as a transition that could lead to a physiological, psychological and economic problem (Ogunbameru and Bamiwuye, 2004). The mere thoughts of facing an uncertain future after retirement by workers have been seen as the responsibility for most bureaucratic corruption (Agba, Ikoh, Ushie and Agba, 2008); and also linked to low commitment to work by employees and the service ineffectiveness of vital institutions in Nigeria. The pension scheme is to provide employees regular and stable income after their retirement from service.

4.7 Work reorganisation and power relations

This section specifically addresses the last objective of the study. As such it is mainly qualitative. The respondents included the executive members of the two unions in the food and beverage sub-sectors, namely the FOBTOB-SSA and NUFBTE, management staff and workers. Specifically, questions on the involvement of unions in matters that affect workers on various forms of work reorganisation in the sub-sectors were addressed. On whether reorganisation has strengthened workers' bargaining power in the sub-sectors, most of the respondents acknowledged that this has been a difficult task. They argued that reorganisation has weakened the bargaining power of unions as organisations employ workers through recruitment agents and, as such, workers are not allowed to join unions. Most times, this category of workers could not bargain for better conditions of service and are denied certain rights.

Corroborating the above view, one of the executive members in the beverage sub-sector explained thus:

The union does not negotiate for all workers because some workers are employed through recruitment agencies and on individual basis it has become increasingly difficult for unions to negotiate for this category as they are exempted from joining unions in most organisations. So to me, this has weakened our bargaining power because the large percentage of these workers would have

strengthened our bargaining power with management
(IDI/Male/Union Executive /NB/2013)

However, there are divergent views on this between the members of FOBTOB-SSA and NUFBTE in the food and beverage sub-sectors. Members of FOBTOB-SSA affirmed that reorganisation has strengthened their bargaining power based on the fact that it has brought about the shift in the position of management on issues affecting labour. According to one of the members of the executive of FOBTOB in the food sub-sector:

I think we have been able to strengthen our bargaining power, as major issues are handled by the union on behalf of workers and this is divided into two: Appendix A at the national level basic salaries, housing and leave and other allowances are negotiated for; while for Appendix B transport, medical, long service awards, children education support, utility, pension payment even in terms of weeks spent maybe 6 weeks, 10 weeks, though monetary pension now has increased from 15-20 per cent. If there is redundancy, the national body of the union has to come in whenever the management fails to see to ours agitation.
(IDI/Male/Executive Member/NBC/2013)

On the part of management, it has strengthened union bargaining power with management as they are involved in decisions that affect workers from time to time. As explained by one of the human resource managers in the beverage sub-sector:

If you asked me, work reorganisation has strengthened the bargaining power of unions in matters that affect them more than it was in the past. Workers have a voice through their unions with management on issues bothering on improved welfare packages, industrial democracy and peaceful industrial relations devoid of strikes.
(IDI/Male/Management Staff/NB/2013)

On the issue of union leaders incorporating the issues of non-permanent workers in their negotiation, most of the senior executive members in the beverage sub-sector affirmed that the issues of non-permanent workers are excluded from negotiation, as non-permanent workers are not part of the union members. They do not pay check-off dues; their wages are fixed and cannot be changed. Non-permanent workers are controlled by the outsourcing firms. A senior member of the executive of FOBTOB in Guinness commented on why non-permanent workers are excluded from their negotiation:

In most of our deliberations with management, permanent workers welfare is always our priority. We only discuss the issue of non-permanent workers, only when they have been used to replace some of our members. Most times, management brings in casual

workers to handle tasks that our members are supposed Apart from that, we only concentrate on our members in most of our negotiation. Do not forget that most of these non-permanent workers are recruited by agents and have their contractual agreement fully signed stating their salary. If management feel they can accommodate them in the agreement reached with union they benefit from such but, if not, they are exempted. *(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Guinness/2013)*

In Nigeria, workers in non-standard employment are denied several rights (Uvieghara, 2000). The Nigerian Labour Law does not empower this category of workers to join a trade union. When workers are not allowed to join trade unions in their workplaces, so many of their rights could be denied. In such situation, the employers dictate terms and conditions of work, with little or no resistance from the workers. Also, because of their inability to unionise, the non-standard workers cannot negotiate or bargain collectively with their employers, especially as it relates to pay, hours of work, health and safety measures and such related issues. In a nutshell, any employment relationship that does not afford workers the opportunity to unionise or participate in decisions that affect their work and advance their rights in the place of work is far from being a decent work (Okougbo, 2004; Adewumi, 2008; Okafor, 2010).

In terms of bargaining covered by the agreement between management and unions in the sub-sectors, most of the respondents in both the food and beverage sub-sectors affirmed that workers' welfare formed parts of the agreement between management and unions in their respective organisations. They also mentioned performance issues relating to safety and convenient working environment. Also, employment issues, such as downsizing, rightsizing and redundancy are some of the things negotiated for in the agreement with management. Furthermore, the respondents affirmed that the unions were carried along by management before any change takes place in their respective organisations. They stressed that before any reorganisation of any sort, management always informed the unions of their intention either to downsize or rightsize or any other issues affecting the workers. They also emphasised that the involvement of unions in matters that affect workers was of paramount importance to the union. Other areas of emphasis to the union include: improvement in employees' development and training, increase in both numerical and functional labour flexibility, and, ensuring that employees enjoy some forms of job security. This finding confirmed the view of Fajana (2000), that rather than merely inform, management goes out of its way to seek the views of the staff on

management's plans for the introduction of changes. In addition, workers' contributions are taken and may be used in decisions. The implication of this is the strengthening of industrial democracy and enhancing industrial harmony between management and workers.

Finally, the respondents asserted that there have been cases where agreements have established joint bodies to examine change on continuous basis and draw up solutions between management and unions in both sub-sectors. They stressed that when agreements were not reached with the management at the local level, unions would inform the national body about the development, and, most of the time, after consultation with the national body, they always reached an amicable settlement. The issue of workers' welfare was reviewed from time to time and varies across organisations. As indicated by the respondents, such cases include salary issues, issue of overtime allowance, compulsory leave, safety, medical, furniture allowance, fringe benefits, disagreement between management and unions in some cases, tax management, old pension scheme and, specifically in Cadbury, the overstatement of account during the term of a former Managing Director.

One of the members of the executive of FOBTOB in Guinness asserted that:

In Guinness, union negotiate workers' entitlement every 2 years like housing, transport, feeding, company products, long service award, etc. when union negotiate for 10 things; management may concede 5 to the unions with convincing arguments
(IDI/Male/Executive Member/Guinness/2013)

The findings above corroborated the view of Fajana and Shadare (2012), that various policies are employed by management to ensure harmonious relationship and industrial harmony between workers and their employers. These are done to include corporate performance and plans for structural changes in mergers and acquisitions, and redundancy arising from changes in the organisation environment. However, there have been cases of conflicts in work environments stemming from parochial interest of the employers represented by the management and that of the employees represented by their unions. According to ILO (1999), tripartism and social dialogue are integral components of decent and productive work for all women and men, and constitute essential channels for achieving this in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity.

4.8. Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Work reorganisation will not significantly influence decent treatment of non-permanent workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors.

Methodology: Correlation and Simple Linear regression analysis.

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations Analysis

Sector		Decent treatment of non-permanent workers	Work Reorganisation	Mean	Std.	N
Food Sector	Decent treatment of non-permanent workers	1		2.13	0.563	324
	Work Reorganisation	0.206**	1	2.04	0.471	324
Beverage Sector	Decent treatment of non-permanent workers	1		2.08	0.498	226
	Work Reorganisation	0.289**	1	2.11	0.386	226

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

The descriptive statistics results indicate that the decent treatment of non-permanent workers in both food and beverage sub-sectors was moderate with mean rating values of 2.13 and 2.08, respectively. The same moderate rating was also ascribed to work reorganisation with 2.04 and 2.11, respectively. The Pearson correlation result suggests that, for the food and beverage sub- sector, there was a significant positive correlation between decent treatment of non-permanent workers and work reorganisation at $r = 0.206$ and 0.289 , since $p < 0.05$ significant level, respectively. This implies that improvement on work reorganisation will enhance decent treatment of non-permanent workers in both the food and beverage sub-sectors. The variability of the relationship in model summary is obtained as $r^2 = 0.043$ (4.4%) and 0.084 (8.4%), respectively. The adequacy of variation in the model is ascertained in the ANOVA table below:

Model Summary

Sector	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Food Sector	1	.206	.043	.040	.55221
Beverage Sector	2	.289	.084	.079	.47746

Predictors: (Constant), Work Reorganisation

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Sector	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Food Sector	1	Regression	4.366	1	4.366	14.319	.000
		Residual	98.189	322	.305		
		Total	102.556	323			
Beverage Sector	2	Regression	4.656	1	4.656	20.422	.000
		Residual	51.066	224	.228		
		Total	55.721	225			

The ANOVA table shows that the variation in the model was adequate for both the food and beverage sub-sectors at $F = 14.319$ and 20.422 , $p < 0.05$, respectively. Hence, the model was acceptable for result utilisation and further analysis. The effect of work reorganisation on decent treatment of non-permanent workers was examined in the regression analysis.

Regression Coefficients

Sector	Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Food Sector	(Constant)	1.626	.137		11.911	.000
	Work Reorganisation	.247	.065	0.206	3.784	.000
Beverage Sector	(Constant)	1.288	.177		7.277	.000
	Work Reorganisation	.372	.082	0.289	4.519	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Decent treatment of non-permanent workers

Simple regression analysis was used to determine the effect of work reorganisation on decent treatment of non-permanent workers. Decent treatment of non-permanent workers represented the dependent variable, while work reorganisation represented the independent variable. The result of the analysis revealed that for both sub-sectors work reorganisation was significant at $t = 3.784$ and 4.519 , $P < 0.05$, respectively. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that work reorganisation will significantly influence decent treatment of non-permanent workers in the food and beverage sub-sectors. Based on the standardised coefficient,

it can be deduced that work reorganisation on improvement of decent treatment of non-permanent workers has more effect in the beverage sub-sector than the food sub-sector, with 0.289 (28.9%) against 0.206 (20.6%) for the food sub-sector.

Hypothesis 2: Work reorganisation will not significantly influence decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors.

Methodology: Correlation and Simple Linear regression analysis.

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations Analysis

Sector		Decent Work	Work Reorganisation	Mean	Std.	N
Food Sector	Decent Work	1		1.95	0.260	324
	Work Reorganisation	.640**	1	2.04	0.471	324
Beverage Sector	Decent Work	1		2.05	0.248	226
	Work Reorganisation	.669**	1	2.11	0.386	226

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

The descriptive statistics results indicate that the level of decent works in both the food and beverage sub-sectors was moderate, with mean rating values of 1.95 and 2.05, respectively. The same moderate rating values were also ascribed to work reorganisation, with 2.04 and 2.11, respectively. The Pearson correlation result suggested that, for both sub-sector, there was a significant positive correlation between decent work and work reorganisation at $r = 0.640$ and 0.669 , since $p < 0.05$ significant level, respectively. The implication of this is that improvement on work reorganisation will enhance decent work in both food and beverage sub-sector. The variability of the relationship in model summary was obtained as $r^2 = 0.409$ (40.9%) and 0.448 (44.8%), respectively. The adequacy of variation in the model is ascertained in the ANOVA table below:

Model Summary

Sector	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
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Food Sector	1	.640	.409	.407	.20038
Beverage Sector	2	.669	.448	.446	.18439

a. Predictors: (Constant), Work Reorganisation

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Sector	Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Food Sector	1	Regression	8.951	1	8.951	222.919	.000
		Residual	12.929	322	.040		
		Total	21.880	323			
Beverage Sector	2	Regression	6.186	1	6.186	181.965	.000
		Residual	7.616	224	.034		
		Total	13.802	225			

The ANOVA table shows that the variation in the model was adequate for both the food and beverage sub-sectors at $F = 222.919$ and 181.965 , $p < 0.05$, respectively. Hence the model was acceptable for result utilisation and further analysis. The effect of work reorganisation on decent work was examined in the regression analysis.

Regression Coefficients

Sector	Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
Food Sector	1	(Constant)	1.228	.050		24.788	.000
		Work Reorganisation	.354	.024	.640	14.930	.000
Beverage Sector	2	(Constant)	1.142	.068		16.705	.000
		Work Reorganisation	.429	.032	.669	13.489	.000

Dependent Variable: Decent Work

Simple regression analysis was used to determine the effect of work reorganisation on decent work. Decent work represented the dependent variable, while work reorganisation represented the independent variables. The result of the analysis revealed that, for both sub-sectors, work reorganisation was significant at $t = 14.930$ and 13.489 , $P < 0.05$, respectively. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that work reorganisation will significantly influence decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector. Based on the standardized coefficient, it can be deduced that work reorganisation meant to improve on decent work has

more effect in the beverage sub-sector than the food sub-sector, with 0.669 (66.9%) against 0.640 (64.0%) for the food sub-sector.

4.9 Theoretical discussion of the findings

Two theories were adopted as the framework to guide this study: Neo-liberal theory and Social Action Theory. On the various indices of decent work measured in the food and beverage sub-sectors in Lagos State, Nigeria, this study has established that decent work practices were relatively low in the food sub-sector when compared with the beverage sub-sector. On the whole, there are some indices of decent work that could be said to be very low across the two sub-sectors studied, namely: productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff, productive work providing fair wages for non-permanent workers, participation of non permanent workers in union activities, women proportion in technical work, regular working hours for non-permanent workers and payment for extra working hour for permanent staff. The Neo-liberal Theory argues that government in general lacks the capacity to run large industrial and commercial enterprises as these are better placed in the hands of private enterprise. This has further placed businesses in the hands of few capitalists, whose ultimate aim is to maximise profits. As a result, greater labour flexibility has been used to reduce labour costs, giving employers more freedom to sack workers, as well as to erode pay and employment conditions. The capitalist enjoys a lot of power, which does not compel him to adhere strictly or religiously to standard labour practices linked to decent work. The fact that workers have to struggle with these issues is a reflection of the inherent contradiction between the capitalist industry and society as a whole. The capitalist enjoys a lot of power, which is reinforced by some legal instruments limiting the control, which the individual employee can exercise within the work situation. This findings confirmed what Okereke (2011) observes, that discrimination in employment and occupation has been found on several occasions, where non-parametric factors, such as sex, social origin, religion, disability, nepotism and the popular godfatherism, are used in addition to those specified in the policies and practices relating to recruitment, selection and placement, wages administration, promotion and training, lay-offs and termination of employment. As argued by Rodgers (2007), the goal of decent work is best expressed through the eyes of the people. For some people, it is the primary way in which people could get out of poverty. For some other people, it is about realising personal aspirations in their daily existence

and solidarity with others. For many, decent work is about securing human dignity. This finding, therefore, was supported by the components in the Neo-liberal theory.

The results from this study also showed trend of work reorganisation in the sub-sectors. It clearly revealed that the positive benefits of reorganisation are lower in the food sub-sector than in the beverage sub-sector. Across the board, in terms of benefits workers enjoyed, family responsibility and child care allowance were lower in both sub-sectors. Similarly, in terms of reorganisation in the sub-sectors, outsourcing seemed to be very high in the food sub-sector and repositioning in the beverage sub-sector. In addition, repositioning affected workers' benefits positively in both sub-sectors. Regarding what affected employees' benefits negatively, outsourcing and casualisation were more in the food sub-sector, while casualisation and lay-off were negative in the beverage sub-sector. These findings provided justification for the adoption of the Social Action theory for this study. The Social Action Theory focuses on the way individuals and organisations attach subjective meaning to situation and direct their actions in accordance with their perception of those situations. In the case of an organisation, a rational action that is goal-oriented to achieve definite goals is applied. In this case, work reorganisation is seen as a means of reducing labour costs in order to maximise profits in such a way that various forms of precarious employment are introduced from time to time. On the part of the workers, a choice will have to be made between poverty and precariousness. Osterman (1994) argues that the new work system represents considerable investment and organisations that face very competitive market situations need to rationally recognise that progress means change and attaining benefit will be beneficial to all when organisations restructure. Supporting this rational action of organisations, Anugwon (2007) avers that international or multi-national corporations have continued to neglect the International Labour Organisation standards by engaging in unfair labour practices that are driven by profit maximisation. Social Action Theory, therefore, supported the findings of this study.

Furthermore, findings from the study, especially on the nature and pattern of work reorganisation effects on decent work, showed that casualisation, merger and acquisition, and downsizing have significantly affected decent work practices in both sub-sectors. Casualisation encouraged longer hours at work, reduction in pay and lack of commitment on the part of the workers. Merger and acquisition encouraged loss of jobs, transfer of workers employment contract without consent, non payment of terminal benefits, exploitation of workers and job

insecurity. In addition, downsizing brought about reduction in labour force, affects job security and encouraged differential treatment of workers. These findings were consistent with Turnley and Feldman (1999), who notes that a negative perception of the work situation is perceived by temporary workers when they are not receiving what they think they deserve, leading to deprivation. Workers evaluate their situation in terms of perceived fairness in workplace (Buunk and Gibson, 2007). It is estimated that approximately 4.2 million job losses were recorded in the entire sector between 1983 and January 2006 (*MAN Newsletter*, 2006). Apart from job losses, most workers are not adequately protected, as most organisations have continued to defy labour laws that abolish workers exploitations in any form (World Bank, 1997; Adewumi, 2009) as well as high workers' violations concerning fundamental human rights at work as entrenched in the Labour Act of 2004 (Aturu, 2005). Temporary employees, who are employed for a specific task, for a specific period and have the required skills, are more likely to hold a transactional contract as against permanent workers whose employment is on a long-term basis and are more likely to hold relational contract (Millward and Hopkins, 1998; Montes and Irving, 2009). One of the most profound effects of the neo-liberal policy is the impact of deregulation policies on work and employment relations. This finding supported the Neo-liberal Theory.

Also, the findings from this study showed that casualisation has not encouraged decent treatment of non-permanent workers more in the food sub-sector than in the beverage sub-sector. On the other hand, merger and acquisition affected the treatment of permanent staff more in the beverage sub-sector. Downsizing equally affected treatment of permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector, while outsourcing encouraged better treatment of non-permanent workers in the food sub-sector. The above findings confirmed the argument of Parker (1994) and Vosko (2000) that temporary employees are treated as disposable commodities and not as human resources. This susceptibility allows regular dismissal of workers, as the statutory protection against undue dismissal is rendered weak and powerless by carefully conceived contractual condition that usually specify that employees of a short-term employment service are employed under 'limited duration contracts' which are required to terminate automatically upon the occurrence of an uncertain future (Cohen and Moodley, 2012). The use of outsourcing allows large organisations to gain new margins of flexibility in competitive markets and lower costs. This allows multinational companies to get detached from the production process and absolve themselves of any

responsibility for the interests of workers (Esbenshade, 2004; Merk, 2009). These findings provided justification for the adoption of the Social Action theory for this study.

Also, the study found that casualisation affected non-permanent workers' rights to pension and gratuity in the food sub-sector more than in the beverage sub-sector. Also, merger and acquisitions did not affect payment of terminal entitlements in the beverage sub-sector. In the same vein, outsourcing affected the non-permanent workers' rights to pension and gratuity in the beverage sub-sector more than in the food sub-sector. Similarly, downsizing did not affect the payment and benefits of workers. Scholars have argued that these new forms of work arrangements have led to the prospects of a "race to the bottom" in labour standards, particularly in the developing nations (Banks, 2006).

Finally, the study found out that reorganisation weakened the collective bargaining power of the junior staff unions more than the senior staff unions in both sub-sectors. The study also found that non-permanent workers issues were not part of what unions discussed with management. Furthermore, the findings revealed that workers' welfare formed part of the agreement between management and unions in their respective organisations. Similarly, unions were carried along by management before changes took place in their respective organisations. Besides, there were cases where agreements to establish joint bodies to examine changes on a continuous basis to arrive at solution between management and unions in both sub-sectors. This finding agreed with the existing literature that argues that rather than merely inform, management seek the views of the staff on management's plans before introducing changes. Workers' contributions are taken and may be considered for decisions (Fajana, 2000). This is capable of strengthening industrial democracy and enhancing industrial harmony between management and workers. This finding found support in the Social Action Theory

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of this work. It also draws conclusion based on the results of the study. It ends with some useful recommendations and contributions to knowledge.

5.1 Summary

The focus of this study was to investigate the influence of work reorganisation on decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector in Lagos, Nigeria. The study examined the work environment and the practice of decent work from the sociological perspective. The study was interested in the actions taken by the organisations and the individual employees working in the work environments and the subjective meanings attached to the actions. To achieve the primary objective of the study, the researcher delved into the relevant literature that could explain studies that have been done in the area and identified that there was a gap in knowledge in the area of work reorganisation and decent work. The study examined indices of decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in Lagos Nigeria. This was considered imperative to gain insight into the differences that exist between the food and beverage sub-sectors given the fact that many workers in Nigeria are employed in indecent and precarious work as a means of getting out of poverty and putting something on the table for their family to eat, while some people work but still remain in poverty, as their salaries cannot sustain them. The study found some low indices in both sectors, such as: productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff, productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers, participation of non-permanent workers in union activities, female workers' proportion in technical work, normal working hours for non-permanent workers and payment for extra working hour for permanent staff.

The study investigated the trend of work reorganisation effects on the economic benefits of the workers. Individual workers deserve some benefits that will motivate them to perform better. Access to such economic benefits, like leave allowance, overtime, out-station, hazard, bonus and other allowances, was investigated across organisations and among categories of workers. The study discovered that concerning the benefits workers enjoyed across the board, family responsibility and child care allowance were lower in both sub-sectors. Similarly, in terms

of reorganisation that took place in the sub-sector, outsourcing seemed to be very high in the food sub-sector and repositioning in the beverage sub-sector. Repositioning affected workers' benefits positively in both sub-sectors. In terms of what affected workers' benefits negatively, outsourcing and casualisation were more in the food sub-sector, while casualisation and lay-off were negative in the beverage sub-sector

Also, the study examined the nature and patterns of work reorganisation effect on decent work. The study found that casualisation, merger and acquisition, and downsizing significantly affected decent work practices in both sub-sectors. Casualisation encouraged longer hours at work, reduction in pay and lack of commitment on the part of the workers. Merger and acquisition sustained loss of jobs, transfer of workers employment contract without consent, non payment of terminal benefits, exploitation of workers and job insecurity. Downsizing brought about reduction in labour force, affected job security and encouraged differential treatment of workers.

The study also investigated work reorganisation and decent treatment of workers and found that work reorganisation has negatively affected decent treatment of workers, leading to differential treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers. As part of its specific objectives, the study examined work reorganisation and workers' access to sustainable pension benefits. It found that casualisation encouraged decent treatment of non-permanent workers more in the food sub-sector than in the beverage sub sector. On the other hand, merger and acquisition affected the treatment of permanent staff more in the beverage sub-sector. Similarly, downsizing affected treatment of permanent staff in the beverage sub-sector, while outsourcing encouraged better treatment of non-permanent workers in the food sub-sector. Lastly, the study investigated how work reorganisation affects workers' bargaining power. It found that reorganisation weakened the collective bargaining power of the junior staff unions more than the senior staff unions in both-sub sectors. Also, non-permanent workers issues were not part of what unions discussed with management. This is an indication of exclusion of this set of workers from union activities, roles and benefits. Workers' welfare formed part of the agreement between management and unions in their respective organisations. Unions were carried along by management before changes occurred in their respective organisations. Also, there were cases agreement to establish joint bodies to examine changes on a continuous basis to arrive at solutions between management and unions in both sub-sectors.

5.2 Conclusion

The changes that have been taking place in the past three decades in work environment globally have been aimed at reorganising work in favour of management and for better performance. The economic meltdown and global recession have encouraged the prevalence of precarious forms of work which have further led to the reduction in labour costs and the number of permanent/core workers. The study was able to establish some low indices of decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in terms of very low productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff. This shows that workers' productivity is not commensurate with the income they earn. Also, productive work providing fair wages for non-permanent workers was abysmally low in both sub-sectors. Lawrence (2011) observes that the abundance of labour means that work is irregular; workers assemble at dawn in anticipation of being selected for a day's job at a low minimum wage. Decent work deficits were also recorded in the non-participation of non-permanent workers in union activities as well as the discrimination or low proportion of women in technical work. Globalisation has brought with it flexibility which has encouraged cheap labour, thereby making employers of labour to violate workers' human and trade union rights, including intimidation of workers to leave union. Between the two sub-sectors, there were discrepancies in some positive benefits of reorganisation. Outsourcing seemed to be very high in the food sub-sector and repositioning in the beverage sub-sector. Outsourcing and casualisation affected employees' benefit negatively in the food sub-sector and casualisation and lay-off in the beverage sub-sectors. Casualisation, merger and acquisition, and downsizing significantly affected decent work in both sub-sectors. Casualisation, merger and acquisitions, downsizing and outsourcing contributed to decent work deficits inherent in the two sub-sectors. All over the world, jobs in all sectors are being outsourced or sub-contracted from employment agencies. Workers are subjected to job instability, lower wages and more dangerous working conditions, as they are denied rights and benefits of regular workers.

In Nigeria, the work environments have been most challenging, particularly for the non-permanent workers. The constant changes in the work environments have contributed significantly to the increase in precarious employment. The rise in non-standard job in the food and beverage sector, as well as other sectors, has contravened the decent work agenda of the ILO as well as section 7(10) of the Labour Act, Cap 198, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990, which provides that 'Not later than three months after the beginning of a worker's period of

employment with an employer, the employer shall give to the worker a written statement specifying: the terms and conditions of employment, which include the nature of employment and if the contract is for a fixed term and date when the contract expires' It also contravenes the provision of section 7(e) of the Nigerian Constitution, which guarantees 'equal pay for equal work without discrimination in pay between permanent and casual employees'. The assertion that temporary workers are not treated as human resources, but disposable commodities became obvious in this study. As more work is replaced by technology, work becomes increasingly de-skilled, creating more rooms for precarious and unstable temporary employment.

The primary assumption made in this study was that work reorganisation will not significantly influence decent work in the food and beverage sub-sector. It was evident that work reorganisation significantly influenced decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors. Specifically, it was more in the beverage sub-sector than in the food sub-sector. The effect of this influence has to do with the rise in flexibility of employment, which negates decent work practices, such as social protection of workers, labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, employment opportunities and social dialogue.

Despite some low indices of decent work found in this sub-sector, there are quite some work deficits that need to be investigated further.

Closing remarks: The Nigerian workers have gone through a lot from government policies that are not protecting workers from the antics of the employers. Most of the various conventions that Nigeria are signatory to, remain half or none implemented. The government agencies that are saddled with protecting workers' interests have failed in the discharged of their regulatory duties. Systemic corruption has affected the fabric of the society. Nigerian workers remain in poverty and their wages and salaries cannot take them home. I remain on the side of workers as an injury to one is an injury to all.

5.3 Recommendations

The aim of this section is to provide practical steps and realistic methods towards improvement in decent working standards of workers, especially when organisations are embarking on work reorganisation processes. The recommendations are made from the findings of the study.

1 Improvement in some low indices of decent work practices

The strategies that have been adopted by the various individual organisations and sub-sectors of the industry on what constitutes decent work practices play significant roles in the body of knowledge. There are discrepancies in the tasks women were allowed to do. Also, productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff was very low in addition to exclusion of non-permanent workers in union activities among other decent work deficits. Frequent and regular monitoring and sensitisation by the Ministry of Labour and Productivity and relevant stakeholders will ensure that they checkmate unwholesome practices among employers of labour in terms of employment relations.

2 Improvement in workers benefits to enhance performances

Workers deserve the best to motivate them towards better performance on their job. Prompt and regular access to such benefits like leave allowances, overtime, hazard, bonuses, outstation and others will go a long way in bringing out the best in any employee. Government should ensure that trade unions are recognized and strengthened to resist any anti-labour policies which are inimical to the fundamental rights of workers either from any government establishments or the employers of labour.

3 Researching and documenting strategies used by organisations during work reorganisation

The strategies that have been adopted by organisations to help them deal with successes and challenges during processes of work reorganisation constitutes a very relevant body of knowledge. A research programme should be launched to study and systematically document the various strategies adopted by different organisations. Such knowledge should be published and shared widely. There is still a lot to cover on the aspect of work reorganisation and decent work in Nigeria. For example, attempt could be made to understand the various techniques of work reorganisation and impact on the workers in Nigeria. This will go a long way in addressing the issues of labour casualisation and other unwholesome practices among the industries.

4 Strengthening trade unions

Trade unions are associations of workers located in an employment situation. The primary objective of trade unions is to improve the terms and conditions of employment of members with the employers through the process of collective bargaining. They address the

enormous problems faced at work, which include job insecurity, injustice, dependence and the inhuman conditions under which work is carried out. Workers join trade unions with the ultimate aims of protecting and defending their rights and the overall improvement of their conditions in their various organisations. Trade unions should ensure that temporary workers are captured in their efforts at unifying all workers through awareness programmes, discussion, recording and exposing cases of abuse, and collaborating with major contract employers.

5 Improvements in labour practices

Casualisation refers to bad conditions of work, such as employment insecurity, irregular hours, intermittent employment, low wages and the absence of standard employment benefits. Casualisation has encouraged longer hours at work, reduction in pay and lack of commitment on the part of workers. Merger and acquisition sustain loss of jobs, transfer of workers employment benefits, exploitation of workers and job insecurity. Downsizing brings about reduction in labour force, affects job security and encourages differential treatment of workers. Employers of labour should endeavour to improve on some of their labour practices to meet with best international labour practices. In as much as most organisations make use of all categories of temporary workers, there is the need to review existing labour laws as well as industrial relations practices to protect these categories of workers from violation of labour standards by organisations who indulge in such unlawful practices.

5.4 Contributions to knowledge

The thesis has contributed to knowledge in the following ways

- 1 The results from the study show the existence of some low indices of decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in terms of productive work producing adequate income for permanent staff, productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers, participation of non-permanent workers in unions activities, female workers' proportion in technical work, normal working hours for non-permanent workers and payment for extra working hours for permanent staff
- 2 This study also contributes to the existing body of knowledge by revealing detailed information on decent work deficits in the Nigerian food and beverage sub-sectors.
- 3 The study reveals that not all forms of work reorganisation influence decent work agenda negatively in the Nigerian food and beverage sub-sectors.

- 4 It notes that downsizing, lay-off, casualisation, outsourcing, merger and acquisition are sources of decent work deficits in the food and beverage sub-sectors.
- 5 It argues that work reorganisation negatively affects standardisation of income, rights, social protection, and job security in the food and beverage sub-sectors.
- 6 It further shows that work reorganisation also impacts negatively on trade unions rights, which is a sign of decent work deficits.
- 7 This work argues that work reorganisation is used as a weapon by employers of labour to propagate further unfair labour practices.

5.5 Problems and limitation of the study

The major problem encountered was gaining access officially to the selected sub-sectors to conduct the research despite series of letters written to inform the managements about the purpose of the study. While Nigerian Bottling Company readily accepted the questionnaire after going through and also assisted in administering it, Cadbury, Guinness and Nigerian Breweries entirely rejected the contents of the questionnaire and insisted that it will expose the management. They also claimed that previous researchers who had been granted free access in the past often misrepresented them in their findings and, as such management had placed embargoes on all forms of academic research on their organisations. Getting the required number of respondents, therefore, became impossible; the researcher had to employ informal means to administer the required number of the questionnaire, through contacts of union leaders and workers in the affected organisations. As a result of this problem, it took a long time to recover the copies of the questionnaire administered, as the respondents claimed that management must not see them filling such questionnaire during working hours. As a result of these shortcomings, the researcher did not have full knowledge of some individuals' opinions on the questionnaire filled and returned.

Another problem was the reluctance on the part of some of the respondents to grant interviews. Most of them claimed that management might have hired the researcher to get their views on some of the questions asked. Those that accepted to grant interviews insisted that their voices should not be tape recorded and, most times cancelled appointments with the researcher and his team. It was not until the researcher and his team assured them that the work was only for academic purposes that some of them agreed to participate.

The major limitation of this study was that majority of the respondents were permanent workers in the two sub-sectors, and might not have experienced most of the work reorganisation processes that affected workers in the past. This made comparison a bit difficult to make.

5.6 Suggestion for further studies

- 1 The study concentrated only on work reorganisation and decent work in the food and beverage sub-sectors in Lagos State, Nigeria. The findings cannot be generalized to other sectors. Since organisational cultures vary across firms, this work suggests similar studies in other sectors to find out if there are similarities and differences that would be useful for holistic data towards policy-making
- 2 The changes in the work environments globally in the last three decades have been enormous. While most studies have been carried out in developing societies that have contributed to the body of knowledge, few of such studies have been done in Nigeria. There is the need to carry out more sociological studies about the behaviour of the employers of labour during work reorganisation processes
- 3 Decent work is more than economic factors, especially the non-economic factors that serve as catalysts towards workers' development in an organisation. It is, therefore, imperative that more studies are carried out to explore these areas particularly in relation to Nigerian workers.

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Appendix 1

Department of Sociology
Faculty of the Social Sciences
University of Ibadan
Ibadan

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This study is part of the requirements for the award of a PhD degree of the University of Ibadan. You are invited to participate in this research study titled **“Work Reorganisation and Decent Work in the Food and Beverage Sub-Sector in Lagos State.”** This study does not in any way expose you to management. You are, therefore, requested to please assist by honestly supplying answers to the questions below. Be assured that your answers will be given the highest level of confidentiality as your responses are purely for academic purposes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Jubril Jawando

Section A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

S/N	Questions	Responses	Remarks
1	Sex	(a) Male () (b) Female ()	1 2
2	Age	(a) Below 20 years () (b) 20-30 years () (c) 31- 40 years () (d) 41-50 years () (e) 51-60 years ()	1 2 3 4 5
3	Marital Status	(a) Single () (b) Married () (c) Divorced () (d) Widowed () (e) Separated ()	1 2 3 4 5
4	Education	(a) No Formal Education() (b) First School Leaving Certificate() (c) WASC/ SSCE () (d) OND/ NCE () (e) B.Sc/HND () (f) Postgraduate ()	1 2 3 4 5 6

5	Religion	(a) Christianity () (b) Islam () (c) Traditional () (d) Other specify ()	1 2 3 4
6	Monthly Salary	(a) less than ₦50,000 () (b) ₦ 50, 001- ₦ 100,000 () (c) ₦ 100,001- ₦ 150,000 () (d) ₦ 150,001- ₦ 200,000 () (e) ₦ 200,001 and above	1 2 3 4 5
7	How long have you been employed in this organisation?	(a) 1-5 years () (b) 6-10 years () (c) 11-15 years () (d) 16-20 years () (e) 20 years and above ()	1 2 3 4 5
8	Name of Organisation		
9	Department/ unit/ section	(a) Production () (b) Human Resources () (c) Marketing () (d) Engineering () (e) Customer service () (f) Others specify.....	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Position	(a) Senior Manager () (b) Junior Manager () (c) Supervisor () (d) Junior worker () (e) Casual worker () (f) Others specify.....	1 2 3 4 5 6

Section B: Indices of decent work practices

S/n	Variables	No	Somehow	Yes
11	Opportunities in employment			
12	Productive work producing adequate income for permanent workers			
13	Productive work producing adequate wages for non-permanent workers			
14	Opportunities to secure job for permanent staff			
15	Better Treatment of Permanent staff			
16	Better treatment of non-permanent workers			
17	Equity in work including absence of male discrimination			
18	Equity in work including absence of female discrimination			

19	Protection of permanent staff			
20	Protection of non-permanent workers			
21	Security at work that guarantee health care services, pension and livelihood for permanent staff			
22	Security at work that guarantee health care services, pension and livelihood for non-permanent workers			
23	Participation of permanent staff in unions activities			
24	Participation of non-permanent workers in union activities			
25	Female workers proportion in professional work			
26	Female workers proportion in technical work			
27	Female workers proportion in managerial and administrative work			
28	Right to safety at work among permanent staff			
29	Right to safety at work among non-permanent workers			
30	Medical health care facilities for families of permanent staff			
31	Normal working hours for permanent staff			
32	Normal working hours for non-permanent workers			
33	Payment for extra working hours for permanent staff			
34	Payment for extra working hours for non-permanent workers			

Section C: Trend of Work Reorganisation Effects on Workers' Benefits

- 35 Has the reorganisation in this organisation benefitted the workers positively? (a) No (b) Yes (c) Don't Know
- 36 What are those financial benefits workers enjoy since reorganisation? Tick as many as possible (a) Bonus (b) Leave allowance (c) Overtime allowance (d) Outstation allowance (e) Compensation allowance (f) Health Insurance allowance (g) Financial assistance (h) Child care allowance (i) Hazard allowance (j) Family responsibility allowance
- 37 Which of these reorganisations have taken place in your organisation? Tick as many as possible (a) Repositioning (b) Reshuffling (c) Downsizing (d) Outsourcing (e) temporary employment (f) merger and acquisition (g) Others Specify.....
- 38 Which of these reorganisations have affected workers' benefits positively? Tick as many as possible (a) Repositioning (b) Reshuffling (c) Downsizing (d) Outsourcing (e) temporary employment (f) merger and acquisition (g) Others Specify.....

- 39 Which of these reorganisations have affected workers' benefits negatively? Tick as many as possible (a) Repositioning (b) Reshuffling (c) Downsizing (d) Outsourcing (e) temporary employment (f) merger and acquisition (g) Others Specify.....

Section D: Work Reorganisation and Treatment of Workers

- 40 Casualisation has encouraged (a) Decent treatment of non-permanent workers (b) Decent treatment of permanent workers (c) Decent treatment of all categories of workers (d) Indecent treatment of non-permanent workers (e) None of the above
- 41 Merger and acquisition has affected (a) Decent treatment of permanent workers (b) Decent treatment of non-permanent workers (c) Decent treatment of all categories of workers (d) Indecent treatment of all categories of workers (d) none of the above
- 42 Downsizing has affected (a) Better treatment of permanent workers (b) Better treatment of non-permanent workers (c) Better treatment of all categories of workers (d) None of the above (e) All of the above
- 43 Outsourcing has encouraged (a) Better treatment of non-permanent workers only (b) Better treatment of permanent workers only (c) Better treatment of all categories of workers (d) Better treatment of only outsourced workers (e) Poor treatment of non permanent workers
- 44 Repositioning has allowed for (a) Preferential treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers (b) Preferential treatment of permanent workers only (c) Preferential treatment of non-permanent workers only (d) None of the above (e) All of the above

Section E: Work Reorganisation and Terminal benefits

- 45 Casualisation has affected workers' right to (a) Pension and gratuity among permanent workers (b) Pension and gratuity among non-permanent workers (c) Pension and gratuity among permanent and non-permanent workers (d) All of the above
- 46 Casualisation has made (a) Permanent workers enjoy all the benefits (b) Reduce pension, gratuity and numbers of years of permanent workers (c) Non-permanent workers not to be included in pension and gratuity (d) All of the above
- 47 Merger and acquisition has (a) Enhanced prompt payment of terminal benefits of permanent workers (b) Delayed payment of terminal benefits of permanent workers (c) Enhanced prompt payment of terminal benefits for expatriates only (d) None of the above

- 48 Outsourcing has affected (a)Permanent workers to pension and gratuity (b)Non-permanent workers to pension and gratuity (c) Permanent and non-permanent workers to pension and gratuity (d) All of the above
- 49 Downsizing has not affected (a) The payment and entitlements of all categories of workers (b)The payment and entitlement of only permanent workers (c)The payment and entitlements of senior workers (d) All of the above

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Appendix II

Appendix 1I: In – Depth Interviews (IDI) Guide

Work Reorganisation on Decent Work in the Food and Beverage Sub-Sector in Lagos State

Section 1: In - Depth Interview Identification Particulars

Organisation _____
Community _____
Date of IDI _____
Time IDI started _____
Language of Interview/Discussion _____
Interview result _____
Time IDI Ended _____
Venue name _____
Interviewers/Moderator's Code _____

Confidentiality and Consent;

Dear Sir/Ma,

I am a doctoral student of the Faculty of Social Sciences, Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan. I am working on my PhD and you have been chosen to help in supplying vital information strategic to the achievement of this purpose. I sincerely wish you participate as this study is meant to investigate Work Reorganisation and Decent Work in the Food and Beverage Sub-Sector in Lagos State. Your comprehensive and factual responses are, therefore, solicited and will be treated in strict confidence. Nothing in the material supplied by you to be used in the study will be described in any way that reveals your identity. Please, feel free to share with me the whole truth in respect of all issues raised in the course of this interview/discussion. Please, I do appreciate your time and attention invested in this academic venture. Should you have any question about me and the study that is likely to make you develop confidence in me before we continue, I will be too pleased to answer. Therefore, I sincerely ask for willingness to participate in the session.

1 What are those indices of decent work practices in this organisation?

Probe for:

Knowledge of ILO Decent Work agenda right at work, protection of workers, employment opportunities, voice at work etc

Probe for the

Existence of opportunities in employment

Productive work providing adequate incomes for workers

Equity in work including absence of discrimination

Access to productive work

Dignity at work in respect of freedom of workers to be unionized

Categories of workers that enjoy decent work

Salaries and wages commensurate with job done

Hours of work

Health insurance policies for workers for injury sustained

Medical health care for permanent workers' families

Issues of overtime allowances

- 2 What are the effects of work reorganisation on workers benefits?

Probe for:

What are the positive effects of work reorganisation on workers benefits?

What are the negative effects of work reorganisation on workers benefits?

What are those benefits enjoyed before reorganisation?

What are those benefits enjoyed after reorganisation?

What are those work reorganisations that have taken place in the organisation?

Mention the financial benefits giving to the workers

Are there differences between financial benefits giving to permanent and non-permanent workers?

- 3 How has work reorganisation affected decent work in the food and beverage industry?

Probe for:

The existence of casualisation

Existence of merger and acquisition

The issue of downsizing

The practice of outsourcing

The existence of Contract staffing and their effects on decent work

- 4 How does work reorganisation affect decent treatment of permanent and non-permanent workers?

Probe for

Casualisation and easy access to secure job for workers

Merger and acquisition and dignity of workers

Downsizing and productive work

Outsourcing and equity in work

Contract staffing and different treatment of workers

Differential treatment of permanent and non permanent workers

- 5 What effect does work reorganisation have on workers access to sustainable terminal benefits?

Probe for:

Merger and acquisition and payment of terminal entitlement

Outsourcing affected non-permanent workers and entitlement to pension

Downsizing of workers and payment of entitlement

Regular and prompt access to pension

Challenges in accessing the pension

- 6 How does work reorganisation affects power relations?

Probe for:

Ability to negotiate

Types of negotiation and what are negotiated for

Existence of collective bargaining

Adequate representation

Establishment of joint bodies to examine changes on continuous basis

Appendix III

Table 3.1: List of Food and Beverage Industry in Lagos State

No	Company	Location	Category
1	A & P Foods Ltd.	Ikeja	Food
2	Anxin industrial Technology Nigeria Ltd	Oregun	Food
3	Bio-organics Nutrients Systems Ltd	Ojodu	Food
4	Big Treat Plc	Oregun	Food
5	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	Ikeja	Food
6	Coca-cola Nigeria Ltd	Ikoyi	Food
7	Consolidated Breweries Plc	Iddo	Beverage
8	Conserveria Africana Ltd	Gbagada	Food
9	Chikki Foods Industries limited	Ikoyi	Food
10	Crown Flour Mills limited	Apapa	Food
11	Dangote Flour Mills Plc	Apapa	Food
12	Dangote Sugar Refinery Plc	Apapa	Food
13	Dangote Pasta Plc	Ikorodu	Food
14	Dakento limited	Ilupeju	Food
15	Femstar & Company limited	Isolo	Food
16	Flour Mills of Nigeria Plc	Apapa	Food
17	Friesland Campina WAMCO Nigeria Plc	Ogba	Food
18	Guinness Nigeria Plc	Ikeja	Beverage
19	GlaxoSmithKline Consumer Nig. Plc	Ojota	Food
20	Goal Global Investment limited	Okota	Food
21	Grand Oak limited	Oregun	Food
22	Intercontinental Distillers Limited	Ikeja	Beverage
23	JOF Nigeria Limited	Obanikoro	Food
24	Kneipe Nigeria Limited	Apapa	Food
25	Karma Milk Industries Limited	Surulere	Food

26	Kesserwani Industrial Limited	Apapa	Food
27	K.I.L Foods Limited	Apapa	Food
28	Lisabi Mills(Nig.) Limited	Maryland	Food
29	Newbisco Limited	Ikeja	Food
30	Nestle Nigeria Plc	Ikeja	Food
31	Niger Biscuit Co. Limited	Apapa	Food
32	Nascon Plc	Apapa	Food
33	Nigerian Bottling Company Plc	Oyingbo	Food
34	Nigerian Breweries Plc	Iganmu	Beverage
35	New Age Beverage co. Limited	Amuwo-odofin	Beverage
36	Nosak Distillers Limited	Apapa	Beverage
37	New Century Industries Limited	Yaba	Food
38	Ok foods limited	Isolo	Food
39	Oyin Holdings Limited	Lagos Island	Food
40	Promasidor Nigeria limited	Isolo	Food
41	Ragolis Waters Limited	Ikorodu	Food
42	Seven-Up Bottling Company	Apapa	Food
43	Sosaco Nigeria Limited	Gbagada	Food
44	Standard Flour Mills Limited	Apapa	Food
45	UAC Foods	Ojota	Food
46	Unilever Nigeria Plc	Oregun	Food
47	UTC Nigeria Plc	Apapa	Food
48	UAC Dairies	Oregun	Food
49	West Africa Seasoning Co. Limited	Apapa	Food

Source: Food Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association, 2009