

**Casualisation and Trade Union Survival Strategies in the Beverage Sector of  
Lagos State, Nigeria**

**BY**

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Social Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban,  
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**November, 2018**

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## **Declaration**

I, Adewumi Samson Adeoluwa (Student Number 216068810), declare that:

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**November, 2018**

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**November, 2018**

## **Dedication**

This research is specifically dedicated to my Saviour, the Almighty God. The God of mercy. It is He who has shown me mercy and I am forever grateful to Him.

And

To the memory of my first teacher and father; Adeniyi Adewumi, a lover of qualitative education. I remember telling you how I desire to attain this highest academic qualification during my teenage years. This is the result of that dream. To God alone be all the glory.

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S.A Adewumi

## **Acronyms/Abbreviations**

ACN-Action Congress of Nigeria

ADB-African Development Bank

AFBTE- Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employers

ANTUF- All Nigerian Trade Union Federation

ASCSN -Association of Senior Civil Servants' of Nigeria

ASUU- Academic Staff Union of Universities

CAQDAS-Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software

CBN-Central Bank of Nigeria

CIA- Central Intelligence Agency

CSR- Corporate Social Responsibility

CWYB- Common Wealth Year Book

DCs- Developing Countries

DV- Dependent Variable

DWCP- Decent Work Country Programmes

ECA- Employee Compensation Act

ECOWAS- Economic Community of West African States

FCT- Federal Capital Territory

FDI- Foreign Direct Investment

FGD- Focus Group Discussion

FOBTOB- Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association

GDP-Gross Domestic Products

GSM- Global System Mobile

GTB- Guarantee Trust Bank

GTUC- Ghanaian Trade Union Congress

HSSREC- Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

ICT- Information Communication Technology

ID- Independent Variable  
IDI- In-Depth-Interview  
IGR- Internally Generated Revenue  
ILO- International Labour Organisation  
IT- Information Technology  
LCDAs- Local Council Development Areas  
LDCs- Less Developing Countries  
LGAs- Local Government Areas  
LMS- Labour Market Segmentation Theory  
LP- Labour Party  
LSMEPB- Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget  
LSMLS- Lagos State Ministry of Lands and Survey  
LUF -Labour Unity Front  
LUSTA- Lusaka Street Traders' Association  
MHWUN- Medical and Health Workers Union of Nigeria  
MIILDS- Michael Imodu Institute of Labour Studies  
MNCs- Multinational Corporations  
MRA- Multiple Regression Analysis  
NANMN- National Association of Nurses and Midwives of Nigeria  
NASUU- Non-Academic Staff Union of Universities  
NBA- National Bargaining Agreement  
NBS- National Bureau of Statistics  
NCSU -Nigerian Civil Services Union  
NCTUN-National Council of Trade Unions of Nigeria  
NEC- National Economic Council  
NFMBNP- Nigeria Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning  
NFMLE- Nigeria Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment

NITEL- Nigerian Telecommunication Limited  
NLA- Nigeria Labour Act  
NLC-Nigeria Labour Congress  
NRWU- Nigeria Railway Workers' Union  
NSE -Nigeria Stock Exchange  
NSW- Non-Standard Work  
NTUC -Nigeria Trade Union Congress  
NUBBTE- Nigeria Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees  
NUCSSSW-Nigerian Union of Civil Services Secretarial and Stenographic Workers  
NUJ-Nigerian Union of Journalists  
NUPENG- National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers  
NUT- Nigerian Union of Teachers  
NUTGTWN- National Union of Textile Garment and Tailoring Workers of Nigeria  
NWC- Nigerian Workers' Council  
PENGASSAN- Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria  
PFWU- Portugal Footwear Workers' Union  
PPMC- Pearson Product Moment Correlation  
PZ- Paterson Zochonis  
SAP- Structural Adjustment Programme  
SER- Standard Work Relations  
SPSS- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences  
TUA- Trade Union Act  
TUC- Trade Union Congress of Nigeria  
TWG- Technical Working Group  
UAC- United African Company  
UBA-United Bank for Africa  
UKZN- University of KwaZulu-Natal

ULC- United Labour Congress

ULCN -United Labour Congress of Nigeria

UNDESA- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNILAG-University of Lagos

UN-United Nations

WGC- Wempco Group of Companies

ZWEA- Zambian Workers' Education Association

## **Abstract**

The global purpose of work is to promote an ever-improving and sustaining economic outlook, where the working population can be guaranteed fulfilling types of work for the attainment of basic wants and needs. While escalating pressures have been invoked on labour unions for effective strategies and programmes to address the upsurge of poverty amongst the working people, a knowledge gap still exists on the responsiveness of labour unions to employment casualisation. This thesis examines trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Specifically, in a bid to unravel the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies, the study uncovers the different patterns and practices, as well as challenges of employment casualisation. A concurrent mixed method type was employed to gather data. While quantitative data were elicited through stratified sampling from 291 respondents drawn from five Beverage companies in Lagos State, qualitative data were collected through a purposive sampling of 9 respondents of FOBTOB. From the convergence of data, outsourced and contract employment was revealed as the two patterns and practices of temporary employment with a range of challenges. Amongst the four strategic responses of trade union tested with correlation and multiple regression analysis, only trade union leadership activities and education and (re) training programmes were significant to employment casualisation. The integration of data found that the proscription of casual workers from National Bargaining Agreement benefits, and the labour union non-utilization of industrial strikes strategies to subside casualisation, are contraventions of labour legislation. The study further reveals economic constraints; an unpatriotic and divisive labour union; and a lack of political-will; corruption and the ambiguous content of Nigerian labour laws as factors limiting trade union struggles. For a robust labour struggle towards attaining decent work, the study makes a case for the review of Nigeria's labour laws for best international practices; monitoring functions by the ministry of labour and employment; genuine legislative function on the part of Nigeria's lawmakers; addressing the challenges of corruption amongst rank and file trade unions; and the need for the establishment of labour training centers in the six geographical zones of the country.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background and outline of the research problem

The global purpose of work is to promote an ever-improving and sustainable outlook of economic growth of any nation (Di Ruggiero *et al.*, 2015), wherein working people can be guaranteed the fulfilment of basic needs and the promotion of social progress at large (Egharevba, 2008). Specifically, in the case of Nigeria, the need to encourage sustained and fulfilling types of work is not unconnected with the need to ensure a drastic reduction in poverty levels, diseases amongst the citizenry, unemployment and other indicators capable of stunting her development. However, the last four decades have witnessed more of the lethal consequences of globalisation for economies across the globe, with a robust alteration in the functionalities and operations of the workings of their labour markets (Martinez, De Cuyper and De Witte, 2010). Particularly, in the context of Nigeria, the modifications accompanied by globalisation have significantly altered the observable trend in the affairs of her labour market, where a customary long-standing outlook of traditional employment, is now being exchanged for non-standard employment resulting in a high incidence of poverty and disease outbreak amongst working people due largely to the dreadful conditions of work attached to these new forms of work (Fapohunda, 2012). For instance, the increasing influence of globalisation has increased job insecurity, as well as caused the flourishing of job automation, while the bipartite employment relationship is seen to be dwindling more and more in recent times (Kahouei *et al.*, 2016; Igwe, 2013).

Given that the focus on ensuring decent work is not entirely narrowed as being the remit of government, a significant measure of authority is conferred on the trade union movements to evolve appropriate policies and strategies that will promote decent and sustainable work, by achieving a significant progressive reduction of the incidence of employment casualisation. Consequently, the increasing dis-inclination and disappointing roles of the trade union movements in intervening in the upsurge of massive utilisation of casual labour, by employers of labour particularly in Nigeria, and other countries of Africa, has further exacerbated the level of indecency in the workings of the labour market of these countries. In effect, employers of labour have now assumed the character of perpetual and consistent exploitation of the working people. As a result, escalating pressure and expectations have been invoked on the trade union movements, to deal

with the unprecedented increase and usage of casual labour that has become the norm rather than the exception in the labour market of these economies. To this end, the Nigerian trade union movements through the central labour organisations (the Nigeria Labour Congress-NLC and the Trade Union Congress of Nigeria-TUC) as a case in point, are frequently urged by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to wake up and rescue her labour market from perpetual ruin by working towards giving meaning to work, especially in extreme contexts where some organisations are operating with as much as 98 percent of their workforce on casual labour (Adewusi, 2015; Ajobadi, 2015; Fapohunda, 2012; Okafor, 2012b). Specifically, the crux of this study is the need to uncover and understand labour reactionary strategies to the ascending rate of employment casualisation, with reference to the Nigerian Beverage sector.

Furthermore, the tremendous upswing in the number of people without standard employment in Nigeria, who are trapped in poverty has been raising serious concerns. For instance, approximately half of Nigeria's labour force is confined to non-standard employment patterns or informal employment types without job security and good conditions of work (Odu, 2011; National Bureau of Statistics-NBS, 2017). The majority of this working population is predominantly concentrated in sectors such as the Financial, Telecommunication, Oil and Gas sectors, with the Manufacturing sector shows a stronger indicator in recent times (Idowu, 2010; Onyeonuru, 2004). Paradoxically, a number of this population belongs to the cohort of the Nigerian population living on less than a 1US dollar per day (Duggan, 2009). As it appears, the scourge of employment casualisation can (to an extent) be attributed to as one of the major causative factors of the continuing pattern of high levels of poverty among employees in Nigeria, recently amidst other economic indicators.

The desired expectations from work, including good and affordable food for the individual worker and family; access to basic and affordable healthcare; clothing; and housing are almost non-existent with this new work arrangement christened 'employment casualisation.' Similarly, the global changes in the world of work, have conveyed a decreased interest from the ambit of the trade union movements in terms of their roles and responsiveness to modify the increasing trend of employment casualisation. In other words, this diminished interest has nonetheless paved ways for new research frontiers into assessing and establishing, how trade unions have been responding to employment casualisation, through varied strategies as distinct from the plethora of available research works that have particularly dealt with the arrangement and challenges of employment

casualisation within the Nigerian employment relations context (Jawando, 2009; Jawando and Adenugba, 2014).

Studies have been conducted on the *leitmotif* of employment casualisation with a specific focus on the arrangements and challenges (Fapohunda, 2012; Jawando and Adenugba, 2014). Similar studies have set out to examine the nexus between employment casualisation and psychological illness (Kachi, Otsuka and Kawanda, 2014; Kahouei et al., 2016). Other related studies focused on the link between trade union survival strategies, the new employment relations climate and the subject of globalisation (see Betchoo, 2013; Tingo, 2002). However, there is a dearth of research work on the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies, particularly in Nigeria. Employment literature demonstrates a lack of verifiable empirical submissions on how the Nigerian trade union movement has positioned itself, against the snag of employment casualisation. In a bid to fill this gap, this study has explored not just the patterns and challenges of employment casualisation, particularly in the Nigerian Beverage sector, but has also interrogated the nature of trade union strategies employed, as well as their effectiveness for ensuring the realisation of the decent work agenda as promulgated by the apex labour body - the ILO.

The Nigerian Beverage sector as a sub-sector of the manufacturing industry is carefully chosen for this study, considering not just its strategic position amongst other sectors of the economy, but more importantly on the basis of its trade union strength and formation compared to other sectors of the Nigerian economy (Chidi, 2014). For instance, trade union activities of other sectors of the Nigerian economy where employment casualisation is no less prevalent have been confined perpetually as compared to the Nigerian Beverage sector. Particularly, trade union activities in the financial and telecommunication industries, with growing evidence of labour casualisation, have been proscribed perpetually leaving workers in these sectors to the clemency of employers. In light of this, investigative study such as this requires a context with full-bodied trade union strength and activities. In other words, this study draws major justification for the choice of the Nigerian Beverage sector, from the fact that it is one of the leading sectors with robust and consistent trade union activities in the country (Chidi, 2014).

Against this backdrop, the task of this study transcends the prevailing treatise and notions in labour and employment relations discourse concerning the obvious changes in the world of work. It extends to unravelling and understanding the reactions of the trade union movement to the changes in the emergence of labour flexibility and specifically, the growing surge of casualisation has engendered to the world of work. This is imperative against the popular shared assumption that the trade union movements, is staunchly niched to grapple for the overall interests and protection of the workers. In addition, although there is verifiable evidence that the Nigerian employment relations atmosphere is considered unpredictable and non-conducive for effective trade union functions and activities by commentators, without leaving these premonitions unchecked, this study therefore also interrogates a constellation of factors that have marred or hindered effective trade union survival strategies in ensuring the reduced use of casualisation in the specific context of the Nigerian Beverage sector. Therefore, a study of this magnitude is sacrosanct and necessary, bearing in mind the paucity of literature on the nexus between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies (particularly in Nigeria), and its attempts to evaluate and extrapolate from trade union roles and exertions as possible trajectories for the attainment of decent work for all. Thus, the study offers a germane understanding, with fresh insight into the workings and arrangements of employment casualisation practices; the perceived threats for both the employees and the trade union movements; the outlook of the responsiveness of the trade union movement, as well as factors constraining the effectiveness of the reactionary strategies of the labour union.

## **1.2 Significant statistics and history of Nigeria**

Nigeria, is presently the 32nd largest country of the world, occupying a total area of 923,768 sq.km, with an estimate of 910, 768 sq. km and 13,000 sq. km of land and water areas respectively (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs-UNDESA, 2015). The country unarguably is the most populous black nation on earth, with a population of over 193 million (est.) (NBS, 2016). The distribution of Nigeria's population constitutes 39.6 percent in the age group of 0-14 years, 56.3 percent in the 15-64 years' age group and 4.2 percent representing persons in the age group of 65 years and above (NBS, 2016). On a historical account, on 1st October 1960, Nigeria became an independent nation which saw her launched into the Commonwealth of Nations. From its inception as an independent nation to date, several governments including the Military and Civilian governments have ruled Nigeria with the military having the lead share. The military's far greater share of governance spans most of the period from 1966 to 1999 when power was given back to a

civilian government.<sup>1</sup> The handing over of government by General Abdulsalam Abubakar (rtd) in 1999 to a civilian government saw the end of 29 years of military reign in Nigeria.

Geographically, Nigeria is situated in the West African region on the Gulf of Guinea (Douglas, 2004; see Figure 1.1). The country is adjacent to the Benin Republic on the West axis, Cameroon on the East, and Chad and Niger republic on the North-East axis and North-West axis respectively (see Figure 1.1). In the area of ethnic composition, Nigeria is no doubt a multi-ethnic country with 250 ethnic groups stratified across the geographical boundaries of the country, with the three major ethnic groups being the Hausa-Fulani to the North who are chiefly Muslims; the Yoruba and the Igbo who are predominantly Christians to the West and East regions respectively (Bach, 2007; NBS, 2016). Geo-politically, Nigeria comprises of six geopolitical zones, including the North-East, North-West, North-Central, South-East, South-South and South-West. However, in terms of ethnic composition, the North (Hausa-Fulani) shoulders the largest population, totaling an estimate of 29 percent of Nigeria's population, while the West (Yoruba) and East (Igbo) enjoy 21 percent and 18 percent of Nigeria's population respectively (NBS, 2016; Central Intelligence Agency-CIA, 2016). Other known minor ethnic groups that constitute Nigeria's population include the Ijaw, Kanuri, Ibibio and Tiv sharing the meagre fractions of 10 percent, 4 percent, 3.5 and 2.5 percent respectively of Nigeria's total population, while the remaining 12 percent is shared amongst collections of other minor ethnic groups (NBS, 2016; CIA, 2016).

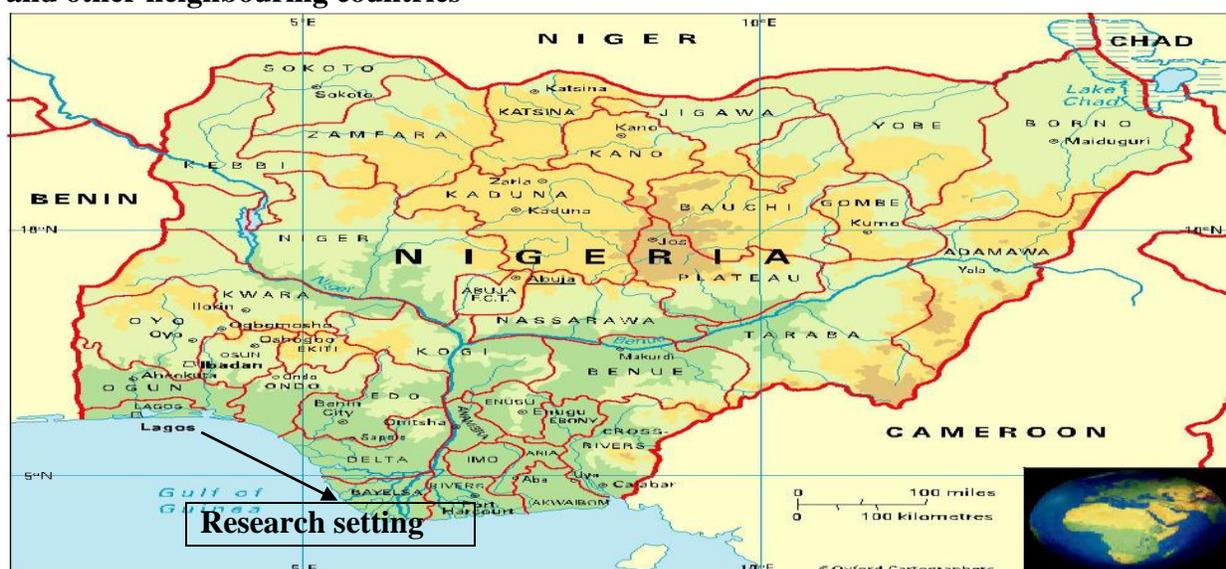
With the commencement of the Fourth Republic in 1999 in Nigeria, the first democratically elected civilian president voted into office was Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, who was succeeded by the late Umaru Musa 'Yaruda' in 2007. Following the death of President Umaru 'Yaruda' in 2010, the then former vice president, Goodluck Jonathan was sworn in as the functional President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in the same year. Currently, the former military head of state, General Muhammadu Buhari (rtd) is the 15th president of Nigeria, an achievement after three consecutive attempts. Nigeria is no doubt blessed with varied cultures and as such, the country is diverse and heterogeneous in culture, history and people. This heterogeneity necessitates the practice of a Federal System of Government, with exclusive powers vested in the Central or Federal Government. The country currently operates a total of 36 states, including the Federal Capital

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<sup>1</sup> The civilian government reigned between 1979-1983 and 1999 to date being a total of 22 years, while the military government ruled between 1966-1979 and 1983-1999 having a cumulative 29 years' dictatorship

Territory (FCT) seated in Abuja and a total of 774 recognised Local Government Areas operating at various grassroots forms of government (see Figure 1.1 for Nigeria’s 36 States).

**Figure 1.1: Nigeria’s map comprising the 36 States, including the Federal Capital Territory and other neighbouring countries**



**Source:** Commonwealth Year Book, 2015

### 1.3 The Nigerian economy under review

Several events have shaped the Nigerian economy. Important among these events is that of 1986 when the then military head of State, General Ibrahim Babaginda (rtd) introduced the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) to cushion the effect of the sluggish, and poor economic outlook of the Nigerian economy. However, in contrast to its acclaimed intention, the policy was encumbered with too many peccadillos such that its introduction ushered in a new economic order characterised with high debt profile, dwindling macro-economic performance, and a loss of jobs in both the private and public sectors of the economy, resulting in a consistent reduction in the basic needs of most Nigerians (Naiman and Watkins, 1999; Edo and Ikelegbe, 2014). Recently, the Nigerian economy has been experiencing a disappointing growth rate prior to when it was officially announced to be in recession in the last quarter of 2016. Growth indices in recent quarters have been decreasing as compared to those of previous years<sup>2</sup> (NBS, 2016). This development is

<sup>2</sup> GDP maintains an appreciable growth increase between 6.1 and 6.0 percent till the last quarter of 2014. The GDP drops to 3.0 percent up until the last quarter of 2015. A more significant decline was the official launching of Nigeria’s economy into recession with a GDP decay of -0.2 percent as at the last quarter of 2016 (National Bureau of Statistics,

(to a large extent) connected to the drop in the price of crude oil, a phenomenon that appears to be affecting major oil producing countries across the globe (NBS, 2016). As a regional economic power, the Nigerian economy accounts for 55 percent of the entire West African countries gross domestic products (GDP), and 64 percent of the GDP of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) member countries (African Development Bank-ADB, 2015). Yet, with the aforesaid evidence of its economic wealth, the Nigerian economy has remained perpetually unable to mitigate the effect of the daunting poverty affecting about 57 percent of her population (NBS, 2016; UNDESA, 2015).

Thus, Nigeria, a resources-rich country where the largest internal market in Africa is seated, has unarguably been unable to utilize these potentials for the overall improvement of economic and social policy programmes. Although on paper, it has supposedly been the intent of past and present governments to exploit the country's economic wealth and potentials to achieve sustainable economic development. A survey of Nigeria's economic development trajectory to date, depicts a perturbing relapse in GDP, with volumes of exports continuing to be on the decline (NBS, 2016). As a result, the growing population of Nigeria is still much in expectation of the alluring benefits of democracy for the creation of viable and sustained employment; improved social welfare; and equality in resources control and devolution of power respectively. With an estimated population of over 193 million (est), Nigeria has an estimated economically active population<sup>3</sup> of 111.1million (est.), with a total labour force of 85.1 million (est)<sup>4</sup> (NBS, 2017). Approximately, 51.1million (est.) persons are in full-time employment and 18 million (est.) representing 18.8 percent, were unemployed as at the third quarter of 2017 (NBS, 2017). Sadly, the majority of Nigeria's population, being youths, in particular, constitutes the bulk of unemployed Nigerians. In many instances, where they are employed, they are involved in jobs that are not self-sustaining and which do not guarantee good living conditions.

Crude oil production remains the highest revenue-generating sector of the Nigerian economy. This sector of the economy accounts for over 90 percent of Nigeria's exports, 95 percent its foreign earnings and 80 percent of its budgetary revenues respectively (NBS, 2016; Edo and Ikelegbe,

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2016). In contrast, the growth in GDPs of the pervious years has not been translated into improved living conditions for the working population as decent work has been dwindling.

<sup>3</sup> Working age population, that is persons within the ages of 15 and 64

<sup>4</sup> Those within the working age population who are willing, able to work and actively looking for work

2014). Expectedly, the Oil and Gas sector accounted for 12.9 percent of the country's GDP in 2015 (ADB, 2015). As a consequence of Nigeria's over-reliance on oil, the price of oil fell drastically in the international market in 2015, thus affecting the GDP growth of Nigeria by reducing it to 3 percent (NBS, 2016). This development has since put Nigeria in an undesirable economic position characterised with hardship. Hence, organisations are seen to be undergoing varied types of restructuring including the retrenchment of workers and the adoption of different kinds of temporary employment contractual arrangements in order to remain in business.

A fuller understanding of the activities of the Nigerian economy would require a review of three distinct industrial sectors, such as the Agriculture, Technology and the Financial sector which are no less contributors to the overall growth of the economy, in addition to the Nigerian Oil and Gas Sectors. Prior to the oil boom in Nigeria, the Nigerian economy has chiefly been dependent on Agriculture which was the mainstay of the economy and major source of livelihood for Nigerians. Sadly, Nigeria's Agriculture sector has since been deteriorating with a massive diversion of interest to the Oil and Gas sector. In addition, the search for white-collar jobs has equally left the Agricultural sector moribund (Industry report, 2016). The Agricultural sector is comprised of four sub-activities, including Crop Production, Livestock and Forestry and Fishing which contributed 4.9 percent to Nigeria's GDP in the first quarter of 2015 (see Figure 1.2). Nonetheless, despite the dwindling output of the former flourishing sector, the Nigerian Agriculture sector reflected an impressive level of growth contributing 5.9 percent to Nigeria's GDP in the first quarter of 2014 as against the slow growth of 3.0 percent in the last quarter of 2013 (see Figure 1.2). To put this situation in perspective, Nigeria's Agriculture sector's GDP still remains abating in comparison to the much alluring Oil and Gas sector, where the former recorded a GDP of 4.9 percent and the latter a GDP of 12.9 percent respectively.

**Figure 1.2: The Nigerian Agriculture sector’s growth matrix chart (growth in GDP terms 2013-2015)**



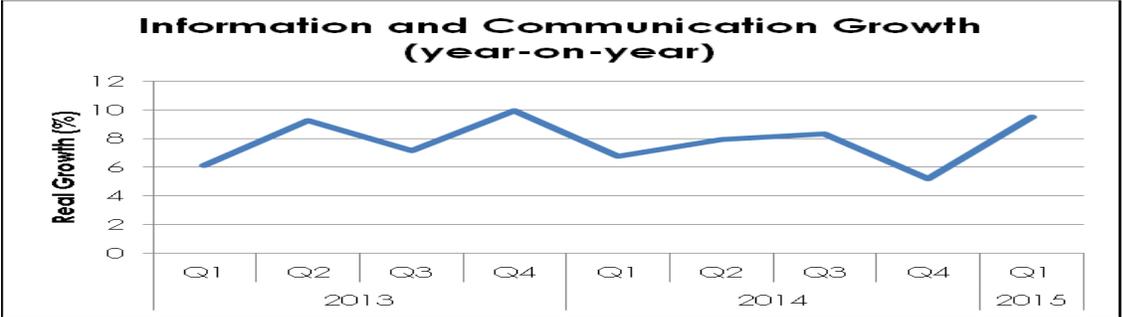
**Sources:** AdoSpted from Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report, 2015

Despite the extraordinary level of fertile land that Nigeria has been bestowed with, the former burgeoning Agricultural sector is grossly underperforming as a result of the many ‘brilliant’ policies that have failed to be efficiently and effectively implemented for the improvement (Downie, 2017). Having said this, Agricultural produce possesses diverse economic importance. For instance, aside from the production of commodities such as consumable foods, the importance of agriculture has been visible in all spheres of human endeavour such as in the arts, culture and management of plants and animals which are no fewer satisfiers of economic needs (Matthew and Adegboye, 2015). Thus, the links between agriculture and national development in the context of Nigeria are obviously inseparable. Instead of primary reliance on the Oil and Gas sector with a sometimes dwindling price outlook that has a great negative effect on Nigeria’s economy, the Agricultural sector can and should be relied upon as the primary driver of economic development of Nigeria. In addition, Nigeria’s over-reliance on the Oil and Gas sector has limited the creation of employment opportunities in other sectors, including Agriculture. Hence, the few available jobs are bound to the clemency of employers who have thus resorted to abysmal labour practices capable of deteriorating the working class.

Nigeria’s Telecommunications industry, numbers amongst the ranks of Nigeria’s industries recording a reasonable growth rate. Hence, holistic analysis and understanding of development in the Nigerian economy, with issues hovering around this important sector cannot be foreclosed. The apex statistics body in Nigeria reports that the Nigerian telecommunications industry contributed a remarkable figure of 9.9 percent to Nigeria’s GDP in the last quarter of 2015 (NBS, 2016; see Figure 1.3). This impressive growth depicts the telecommunication industry as one of

the fastest and major contributors to Nigeria’s economic development when compared to other sectors alike such as the attractive Oil and Gas industry. Furthermore, the improvement in Nigeria’s Telecommunications industry has been transformed into a significant means of information exchange geared towards sustained economic growth (Adi, 2015). On account of this growth, the industry prior to the introduction of the global system for mobile communication (GSM), has been solely managed by Nigerian Telecommunications Limited (NITEL), with poor success stories (Industry Report, 2016). The introduction of GSM has however engendered several opportunities for the growth of Nigeria’s economy as penetration rose from 0.1 percent in 2001 to approximately 70 percent of Nigeria’s total population in 2015 (Industry Report, 2016; NBS, 2016). However, improvement in terms of penetration and real economic growth has not been transformed into decent and sustainable work in this industry. For instance, approximately 97.4 percent of MTN Nigeria staff, 97.9 percent of Airtel Nigeria staff, 96.6 percent of Globacom staff; and 95.4 percent of Etisalat staff (now 9mobile) are all casual workers without social benefits such as pension, gratuity, training, health insurance and, denial of the right to form and belong to trade union associations, which all negate the realisation of decent work as set forth by the apex labour body (Fapohunda, 2012).

**Figure 1.3: Nigeria’s Telecommunications industry growth chart (growth in GDP terms 2013-2015)**



**Source:** Adopted from the Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report, 2015.

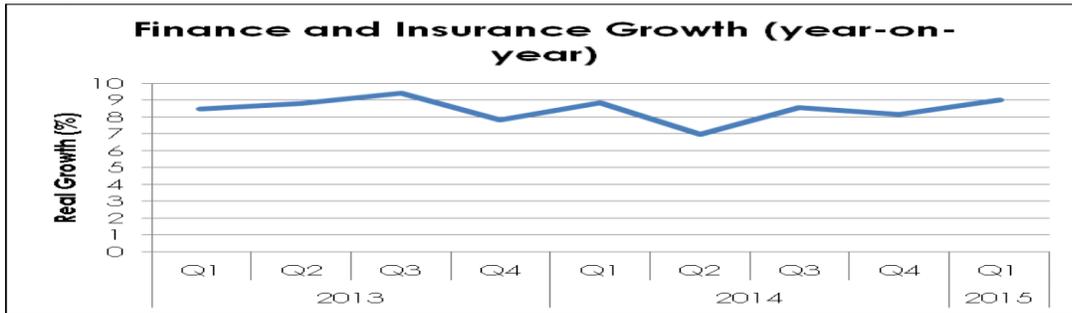
The Nigerian Financial industry has evolved over the past years in terms of novel philosophies, products and services and improved ways of doing business in general (Central Bank of Nigeria-CBN, 2015). However, this transformation is not just limited to the banking sector, as other financial institutions such as insurance and pension equally felt this positive transformation. For instance, the two consecutive pension reforms of 2004 and 2014 are relevant examples to this end. In ensuring the sustainability of this transformation, in 1999 the Nigerian banking sector witnessed

further growth including increased competitiveness and reforms, and the immersion of advanced technology to meet up with global financial market trends (NBS, 2016).

Unlike the Oil and Gas sector, the Nigerian Financial sector has contributed significantly to Nigeria's GDP in recent times, especially since the introduction of the 25 billion naira banks' recapitalisation exercise in 2005 by Professor Soludo, the erstwhile governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria. Figure 1. 4 reflects the consistent contribution of the Financial industry to Nigeria's GDP between 2013 and 2015. For instance, the third quarter of 2013 contributed 9.2 percent, while the fourth quarter of the same year recorded 8 percent, depicting a difference of a 1.2 percent decrease (NBS, 2016). However, a more prominent decline between 2013 and 2015 was recorded in the second quarter of 2014, contributing a real growth of 7 percent (NBS, 2016). While most of this growth is attributed to the banking sector, the insurance sector has done poorly in terms of its contribution to the country's GDP. For instance, out of the total 9 percent of the Financial industry's contribution in the last quarter of 2015, the insurance sector contributed less than 1 percent to the nation's GDP (NBS, 2016).

While the Financial industry has no doubt been growing in recent times in terms of the workforce, the majority are frequently laid-off abruptly, while most are confined to non-standard employment. For example, Fapohunda's (2012) study on employment casualisation and degradation of work in Nigeria shows the trend of non-standard work in selected Nigerian banks. The study shows that the percentage of the total workforce that work on casual contracts in the selected Nigerian Banks, constitute 84.2 percent of the United Bank for Africa's (UBA) total workforce; 85.9 percent of Guarantee Trust Bank's (GTB) total workforce; 83.8 percent of Zenith Bank Plc; 84.0 percent of Skye Bank Plc's total workforce; and 70 percent of First Bank Nigeria Plc's total workforce respectively (Fapohunda, 2012).

**Figure 1.4: The Nigerian Financial industry’s growth chart (growth in GDP terms 2013-2015)**



**Source:** Adopted from the Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report, 2015

#### 1.4 Lagos State as the research setting

Historically, the city of ‘Lagos’ was named after a city known as ‘Lagos’ in Portugal by a Portuguese adventurer in 1472 (Okwuashi and Ofem, 2014). History has it that Lagos State was founded around the Island and Mainland, predominantly as a fishing and Agricultural settlement. Located on the South-Western fragment of Nigeria, Lagos State rests around longitude 2° 42’E and 3° 22’E and between latitude 6° 22’N and 6° 42’N, while it is surrounded by Ogun State to the North and East. To the West is the Republic of Benin and the Atlantic Ocean is to the South (NBS, 2016). Lagos State was annexed as a British Colony in 1861. It served as a prominent slave trade centre between 1404 and 1889 (Okwuashi and Ofem, 2014). In 1914, the Northern and Southern protectorates of Nigeria were amalgamated and Lagos was named it's capital. Lagos State remained Nigeria’s capital until December 1991, when it was changed to Abuja (Okwuashi *et al.*, 2008). By Virtue of Decree 14 of 1967, Lagos State was created in May 1967 with the State capital named Ikeja. The State is made up of two indigenous tribal groups’ the Aworis and Oguns, who are mainly settlers in Ikeja and Badagry local governments of the state respectively. As a predominantly Yoruba-speaking State<sup>5</sup>, Lagos has over the years witnessed an influx of migrants from the other state of Nigeria, as well as from outside the shores of Nigeria. The high rate of entry of migrants can be attributed to the continued economic growth rate of the State, amongst other cities in Nigeria and Africa at large. For instance, the population growth is estimated at about

<sup>5</sup> The earlier settlers, Aworis and Oguns, are mainly Yoruba-speaking before the immersion of other tribes, although the Yoruba language still remains the common means of communication aside from the general official language, being English.

600,000 per annum, including a population density of approximately 4,193 persons per sq. km (NBS, 2017; Okwuashi and Ofem, 2014).

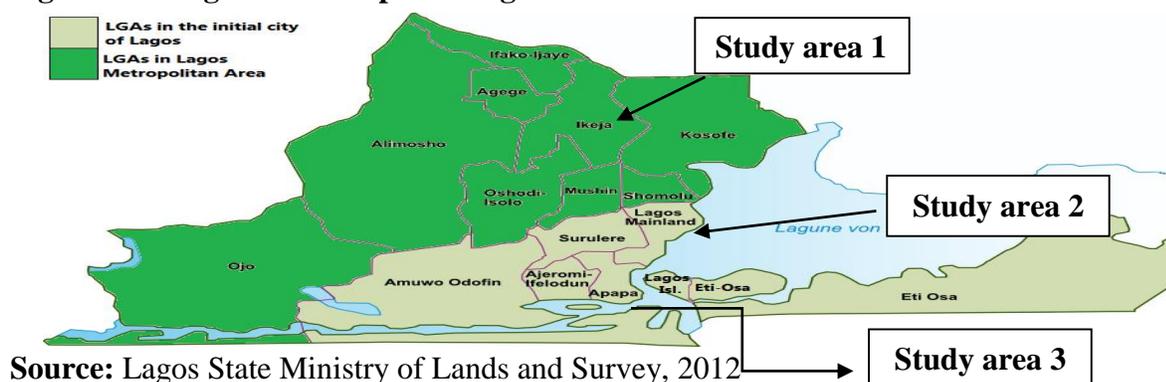
Lagos State is the most populous city in Africa (NBS, 2017). The number of constitutionally recognised local governments in Lagos State is 20, of which 16 form the metropolitan ‘Lagos’ (see Figure 1.5). The State comprises five administrative divisions including Ikeja, Ikorodu, Lagos Island, Badagry and Epe, which were further extended to 20 Local Government Areas (LGAs) following the States and Local Government Areas programme of 1999. Specifically, in 2003, the Senator Bola Ahmed Tinubu<sup>6</sup> led government created 37 new Local Council Development Areas (LCDAs) in addition to the existing 20 LGAs to make up the current 57 local government divisions in the State. Ikeja Local Government is the main administrative hub and capital of the State, positioned in the north-central part of the State, sharing borders with Ifako-Ijaiye, Agege and Alimosho Local Government to the West section of the State; Mushin and Kosofe Local Government to the East; and Oshodi-Isolo Local Government to the Southern perimeters of the State (see Figure 1.5). Many of the industrial zones of Nigeria are housed in Apapa, Ikeja, Lagos Island and Mainland Local Governments, making these local governments the top revenue generators for the State. Geographically, Lagos State covers a total land area of approximately 356, 861 hectares, with 75,755 hectares accounting for its total swamp area (Commonwealth Year Book-CWYB, 2015; Lagos State Ministry of Lands and Survey-LSMLS, 2012).

The State serves as the economic hub of Nigeria and is without argument the most economically vibrant State in the country with a population of 21 million (est) people (NBS, 2016; Okwuashi and Ofem, 2014). The Lagos State economy contributes over 25 percent of Nigeria’s total GDP, and an estimated 60 percent of Nigeria’s energy is consumed by Lagos State (Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget-LSMEPB, 2015). Lagos State contributes an estimated 90 percent of Nigeria’s international trade earnings, and manages over 70 percent of foreign investments, with an impressive GDP of ₦17.64 trillion (NBS, 2017).

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<sup>6</sup> A two term Lagos State governor of four years each (1999-2007) and presently one of Nigeria’s most influential politicians

**Figure 1.5: Lagos State Map showing the 16 Local Government Areas<sup>7</sup>**



Lagos State is Africa's fifth largest economy (CIA, 2016), with three major ports serving as Nigeria's leading ports. These ports are Lagos, Apapa and Tin Can Ports, known as the importation point of various brands of food items, motor vehicles and accessories, machinery and other industrial raw materials. Many Nigerian financial institutions, as well as Multinational manufacturing and telecommunication companies, have their headquarters located in Lagos State, making the state the largest employer of labour amongst Nigeria's thirty-six States (NBS, 2017). In the first quarter of 2016, the Lagos State government declared a total revenue of ₦101.69 billion, a figure that depicts a great improvement compared to the last quarter of 2015 with a revenue of ₦97.28 billion (LSMEPB, 2015). As at the first quarter of 2016, Lagos State's Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) stood at ₦76.06 billion; a far more improved margin as compared to ₦67.25 billion of the last quarter of 2015 (NBS, 2016). All these economic performances position the State as one of the fast-growing economies of the world and unquestioningly the economic hub of Nigeria.

### **1.5 Statement of the problem: broader issues to be investigated**

Work can rightly be conceptually conceived as a fundamental and sacrosanct path to the realisation of the improved and sustained economic growth of any nation (Di Ruggiero *et al.*, 2015). In fact, it affords the individual the opportunity of being able to fulfil basic and other family responsibilities. Nonetheless, it is not surprising, that not all work possesses the required features capable of sustaining basic human needs, as most works outside the confines of decent work is characterised by debilitating features not only unable to provide the material sustenance to meet

<sup>7</sup>Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Guinness Nigeria Plc and Seven-up Bottling Company Plc are located in study area 1. The Nigerian Bottling Company Limited has a presence in both study area 1 and 2, while Nigeria Breweries Plc is predominantly situated in study area 3.

basic human needs, but which have hitherto engendered perturbing conditions of work for working people. Therefore, an attempt at conceptualizing the significance of work for the realization of human aspirations and development would neatly evince that the majority of working people is living unfulfilled work lives, in particular as the trend and impact of globalisation on work continues to ascend across global labour markets in recent times (Okafor, 2012b), while religiously reducing the meaning of work as it were (Igwe, 2013).

One of the significant defects of globalisation on work can be vowed from the use of various strands of employment casualisation as evident in indigenous, private and MNCs respectively (Fapohunda, 2012). In fact, the abolishment of boundaries, increased interconnectedness and the flexibility of labour markets are just a few of the features of economic globalisation that have further exacerbated the rate of the adoption of employment casualisation by employers of labour, such as the evidenced practices of contract and outsourced employment (Wilpert, 2009). Additionally, the ascending unemployment rate and ineffective labour market institutions and regulatory frameworks, have further compounded the widespread adoption of contract and outsourced employment in Nigeria's feeble labour market (Gbosi, 2005; Folawewo, 2015). As such, contract and outsourced employment patterns, emanating from the widespread adoption of employment casualisation practices have since been on the increase, especially in a bid to exploit the opportunity of the teeming population of unemployed members of the Nigerian labour force, as well as their need for gainful employment. The conditions of such work are characterised by horrendous and perturbing arrangements.

Thus, the concern of employment casualisation borders on how the work conditions and social welfare of workers are grossly ignored for profit accumulation, even when several of these denied benefits contravene major sections of Nigeria's labour legislation. For a clearer emphasis, these work conditions include the denial of freedom and autonomy in the workplace (MacGann, White and Moss, 2016); deleterious work settings which are fundamental contributors to industrial accident and disease (Boswell *et al.*, 2014); and strenuous work requiring excessive physical and mental exertion (Kolawole, 2013). Others include working in an unsafe environment without the provision of safety equipment (Odu, 2011), the high incidence of job insecurity and denial of social benefits including pension, gratuity and other workplace benefits like medical and transportation allowances (Kuroki, 2012; Fapohunda, 2012). Chief amongst such work conditions is the denial

of the fundamental right of the human person to join or form a trade union association, which violates sections 40<sup>8</sup> and 12(1)<sup>9</sup> of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended in 2011 and the Trade Union Act 2005 as amended in 2011 (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; Fenwick, 2008). Together, these narratives have worsened the possibility of attaining the decent work agenda. However, these challenges are not limited to working people, as the membership and relevance of trade unions is also abating with the increased adoption of casual labourers (Solaja, 2015; Finlayson and Palmvang, 2016).

The understanding of the responsibility and reactions of the trade union movements to the continuing utilisation of casual labour becomes fundamental. The literature reveals many of the disappointing attempts of the trade union to neatly niche its programs and activities in ensuring that all workers derived an improved working life (Anyim, Ilesanmi and Alaribe, 2013; Nwoko, 2009; Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette, 2001). For instance, Anyim, Ilesanmi and Alaribe's (2013) study evinced that the Nigerian trade union movement has been ineffective for increasing the well-being of employees. Consequently, many trade union movement strategies including the collective bargaining process, industrial strikes and protest actions, activities of trade union leaders and the need to advance the human capacity of trade union members through education and (re) programmes as a measure to reduce the challenges of employment casualisation have not been thoroughly investigated, and in fact are yet to prove effective for ameliorating the challenges of employment casualisation (McDonald, Bradley and Brown, 2009; Adewumi, 2013; Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette, 2001). For instance, several of the strike and picketing actions embarked on by the central labour body in Nigeria in the recent past, as a threat to organisations with an unwholesome utilisation of casual labour is yet to produce any significant results, as more casual labourers have been employed recently than in the past (Solaja, 2015; Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; Odu, 2011).

Again, many of the trade union leaders' activities have been greatly marred with inconsistencies, corruption and rivalry amongst rank and file members, and a lack of patriotism and unity amongst trade union leaders. Poor handling of the collective bargaining process not in conformity with

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<sup>8</sup>Every person shall have the right to assemble freely and associate with other persons, and in particular, he may form or belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of his interest.

<sup>9</sup> A person who is otherwise eligible for membership of a particular trade union shall not be refused admission to membership of that union by reason only that he is of a particular community, tribe, place of origin, religion or political opinion.

extant labour laws and the lack of a structured labour institute for educating and rousing workers' consciousness are amongst the various factors restricting the effectiveness of trade union strategies, activities and policies. Critical to this study, therefore, is the need to thoroughly examine how trade union survival strategies or reactions have been deployed to abate the growing trend of employment casualisation in Nigeria's Beverage sector. This is fundamental in evaluating and determining the responsiveness of the trade unions in Nigeria's Beverage sector, to the plight of workers in the non-standard employment arrangement.

Furthermore, there is no doubt a rarity of research on the *leitmotif* of employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. For instance, previous studies have investigated trade union survival strategies in the new employment climate of Mauritius (Betchoo, 2013), trade union survival strategies under globalisation amongst the National Union of Metal Workers in South Africa (Tingo, 2002), and a close but nuanced study investigated trade union survival strategies towards atypical workers (Cervino, 2000). However, Cervino's (2000) study particularly investigates total inclusion, partial inclusion and exclusion as reactionary strategies, a study reflective of a significant departure from the current study (see chapter two). As a mark of distinction, the present study investigates the collective bargaining process, industrial strikes and protest action, trade union leadership activities and education and (re) training programmes as distinct strategies to surmounting the threats of employment casualisation.

With the pockets of research highlighted above, there is hardly any study that has systematically probed not only trade union survival strategies for employment casualisation in Nigeria but also considered the strands of trade union strategies employed in this study with respect to Nigeria's Beverage sector. Therefore, the foregoing statement clearly points out the gap in the literature which this study sets out to fill. This study offers a more robust understanding of the application of a wider range of trade union survival strategies to emergent labour and employment issues, particularly casual employment arrangements, in countries in Africa by adopting Nigeria as a case study. The importance of this study lies in unravelling how the trade union movement(s) have effectively or otherwise employed their survival strategies for the overall well-being of workers in the casual employment arrangement type.

## **1.6 Aims and Objectives of the study**

The study specifically aims first to examine how trade union survival strategies have been deployed to cushion the growing trend of employment casualisation in Nigeria's Beverage sector. Secondly, it seeks to assess the efficacy of these strategies to understand the possibility of the attainment of decent work in Nigeria's Beverage sector. To achieve the aims of this study, the following objectives shall be addressed:

- i. To examine the patterns in the growth of employment casualisation with implications for trade union strength in Nigeria's beverage sector;
- ii. To appraise the challenges of employment casualisation for workers and the trade unions of Nigeria's beverage sector;
- iii. To investigate and understand trade union reactions to the challenges of employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector;
- iv. To investigate the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in ameliorating the effects of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector; and
- v. To identify and examine the constellation of factors that have constrained trade union strategies in minimising the effect of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector.

## **1.7 Research Questions**

To address the objectives of this study, the following research questions are developed:

- i. What are the patterns in the growth of employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector?
- ii. What are the challenges of employment casualisation for workers and the trade unions of Nigeria's beverage sector?
- iii. How does the trade unions in Nigeria's beverage sector react to the increasing challenges of employment casualisation?
- iv. What is the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in ameliorating the effect of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector?

- v. In what ways are trade union strategies constrained by a constellation of factors in minimising the effect of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector?

## **1.8 Research Hypotheses**

The study proposes four research hypotheses to ascertain the relationship between trade union survival strategies (independent variable) and employment casualisation (dependent variable). The hypotheses are stated below in null form:

- i. There is no significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector.
- ii. There is no significant relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector.
- iii. There is no significant relationship between industrial strikes and employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector.
- iv. There is no significant relationship between trade union education and (re)training programmes and employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector.

## **1.9 Justification for the research and contribution to the body of knowledge**

Emergent issues in employment and labour studies have attracted the attention of scholars in the broad field of the social sciences, with industrial sociologists taking the lead in undertaking corresponding research endeavours to this end (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; Anyim, Ilesanmi and Alaribe, 2013; Kuroki, 2012). However, the motivation for this study is guided by extant literature revealing that, no serious and deep-rooted study on trade union reactionary strategies to employment casualisation has been systematically investigated especially in this epoch of increased job automation and labour flexibility. Undeniably, this development partly accounts for the dearth of literature in labour and other allied disciplines, particularly within Nigeria and other African countries, on the *leitmotif* of trade union strategies to employment casualisation. Thus, this study seeks to provide deep sociological and economic explanations for this neglected area of employment and labour studies. Furthermore, while few studies have accounted for the challenges and problems associated with employment casualisation, they have grossly failed to establish the

responsiveness of the trade union movement to this emergent work pattern that has become prevalent in contemporary times (Finlayson and Palmvang, 2016; Solaja, 2015; Betchoo, 2013). Through empirical analysis, this study attempts to fill this gap by investigating the reactionary strategies of trade unions to employment casualisation, as well as their effectiveness or otherwise, with a view to identifying and exploring possible factors constraining their efficacy.

Essentially, an examination of the role and effectiveness of trade union survival strategies will contribute relevant significance to this academic treatise, by filling the intellectual void in the literature bordering on trade union survival strategies and employment casualisation. Therefore, the significant contributions proceeding from such an examination would be proffered in the form of both policy and theoretical implications. Firstly, at the level of policy implications, this research anticipates serving as a contribution to the on-going debate of labour market flexibility, which has in contemporary times resulted in a massive dehumanization of labour. In other words, this study is undertaken at a crucial time when the ILO has continued to call on the trade union movements to unite and form solidarity movements and strategize, against the tide of casualisation threatening the realisation of decent work across the globe (Fayankinnu, 2015; Crawford and Germov, 2015). At the level of theoretical contribution, it is hoped that the study adds a deeper understanding of existing theories on labour segmentation and trade union strategies, in the fields of industrial sociology and employment relations. Put together, empirical evidence from this study could serve as a repertoire of reference for the trade union movements, labour leaders/activists, Nigeria's Ministry of Labour and Employment, with the Federal Government of Nigeria and other labour researchers on ways of revitalising the work-place for the improvement of the welfare of the Nigerian workers at large.

In terms of significant contribution to knowledge, this study hopes to lengthen the borderline of knowledge specifically in the broad field of the social sciences, and in particular, the discipline of industrial, organisational and labour studies, by clearly showing the essential roles being played or expected to be played by labour unions for sustained relevance amidst the increasing threats of globalisation. Most studies relating to this subject have not only failed to examine trade union responses to employment casualisation but have also equally neglected the many factors that are likely to constrain trade union efforts. Therefore, the study contributes to knowledge by uncovering the factors constraining trade union strategies in effectively addressing employment casualisation in Nigeria's Beverage sector.

While the majority of similar studies have only investigated their research problem with a single research method, this study brings a nuanced perspective by investigating the research problem from two streams of research methods: the qualitative and quantitative research methods. In addition, this study provides the required insight to understand how the trade union movement can advance its strategic tactics aimed at effectively addressing the challenge of employment casualisation. Therefore, in significantly contributing nuanced knowledge to the ongoing labour and employment discourse on employment casualisation in Nigeria, this research increases the pool of knowledge from which fresh insight for policy review or overhaul on this ongoing discourse is drawn.

### **1.10 Scope of the study**

From an economic point of view, it is fundamental to note that the ascension in poverty levels has become a major hindrance, facing many working people today as workers have been left to perpetually suffer untold hardship. This study, therefore, seeks to assess and evaluate the efficacy of trade union reactionary strategies in addressing employment casualisation, which has evinced a high level of poverty on working people. The focus is to unearth the role of the labour unions of Lagos State's Beverage sector in resolving the many conundrums confronting working people. The organisations sampled from Lagos State's Beverage sector comprise those with robust trade union strength and activities, such as the Nigeria Breweries Plc, Seven-Up Bottling Company, Guinness Nigeria Plc, Cadbury Nigeria Plc and Nigeria Bottling Company covering both the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB), and the Nigerian Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUBBTE). In other words, although the projected empirical findings emanating from this study, are greatly connected to Lagos State's Beverage sector, such findings can be generalised to the entire Nigerian Beverage sector. Again, the selection of Lagos State's Beverage sector, as a case study site is based on its standing as the most economically vibrant state in Nigeria, and one of the sixth fastest growing economic cities of the world (NBS, 2016; CIA, 2016).

In an attempt to understand trade union reactionary strategies to employment casualisation, the study also seeks to uncover the prevalence and practices of employment casualisation which has further advanced the poverty levels of people, as reflected by the number of Nigerians living on below 1US dollar per day (UNDESA, 2015), and the assortment of factors constraining trade union

efforts towards realising the decent work agenda. However, pertinent to this research is the investigation of the trade union movement's locus standing, with a view to establishing what fundamental implication employment casualisation holds for the continued relevance of trade unionism.

### **1.11 Limitations of the study**

With evidence of hurdles connected to accessing data for research purposes in Nigeria, the study is limited by different facets of challenges. First is the challenge of getting past the obstacle of the policy of secrecy of information by executives of the trade union of Lagos State's Beverage sector on the subject of inquiry, as most trade union officials interviewed were somewhat sceptical about divulging key information. However, this does not affect the results of the study as retrieved data sufficed to aid the achievement of the research objectives. Importantly, the issue of financial constraints limits the inclusion of other sectors of the economy, in order to undertake a comparative exploration of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation. Nonetheless, this limitation is suggested as a future research endeavour.

While speaking to the limitation of confining the study to one sector of the economy, the findings of the study are only a reflection of five companies in Lagos State's Beverage sector with robust trade union activities; hence, the sample size is only a portion of these organisations. Still, findings obtained from this study are generalisable on the possible outlook of the entirety of organisations that make up Nigeria's Beverage sector at large. Put together, these limitations have no influence or effect whatsoever on the validity of the study, as significant efforts were made in controlling and surmounting the limitations to this study in order to ensure that the objectives of the study are achieved.

### **1.12 Conceptual explanations**

In exploring the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies, some basic concepts that are germane to such a relationship require clarification. Similarly, any intellectual debate embarked upon to untie this relationship requires a rich understanding of relevant concepts. In light of the emphasis of this study, it is appropriate to conceptualise fundamental concepts. Therefore, in this section, relevant concepts such as globalisation; employment casualisation; decent work and decent work agenda; trade unions;

labour market; and survival strategies are clarified for easy comprehension of their usage in this study.

### ***1.12.1 Globalisation***

A number of arguments have surfaced in the social sciences literature concerning the exact meaning of globalisation. Globalisation as a term accompanies multifaceted meanings, hence, there appears to be no specific and universally accepted definition of the concept. For instance, the concept is diffused and its understanding and meaning varies across disciplines. In essence, arriving at a common and universally accepted definition seems implausible, yet the various meanings and definitions accrued to the concept do not have much nuance as they all lean towards explaining the many changes the world has witnessed in terms of technological, social, political, cultural and economic advancements. Therefore, globalisation conceptually approximates a description of technological, economic, political and cultural developments that have realized the end of making the global community of humanity more compact and closely interconnected and interdependent. The concept of globalisation has therefore attracted a great deal of attention from scholars across various disciplines who seek to explain its form, nature and impact of change on the world of work, although without unison in their various submissions. For instance, there is no unanimous proposition amongst scholars on the impact of globalisation on the changing trends of work (see Chapter Two for a discussion on this discourse).

Das (2010) construes globalisation as the pooling together of a network of connections from multi-continental distances, bringing them together economically, socially, culturally and technologically. This definition explains the breaking down of barriers amongst countries and continents for the easy flow of business transactions. In so doing, restrictions confronting effective business dealings either between individuals or corporate organisations are now being lessened with the advent of globalisation. Corporate organisations are now being merged with the outlook of multinationals seated in a particular location of the world where decisions are being made and delegated to other outlets of organisations. With this trend, only a few members of organisations' workforces are now required for the execution of work as significant advancements in technology brought by globalisation requires comparatively far less labour in order to get work done. For Falconbridge and Beaverstock (2008), globalisation is understood as the reconfiguration of space, place and time owing to global technological advancement. The authors further argue for the

incorporation of spatiotemporal changes for a fuller comprehension or meaningful definition of globalisation. For them, spatiotemporal processes of change underline a transformation in the coordination of human affairs by intermeshing and intensifying human activity across regions and continents (p.231). It can, however, be averred that without considering sprawling spatial connections, deciding on a coherent definition of globalisation becomes implausible.

Fazlul, Mohammed and Faud (2010) conceptualise globalisation as the widespread outlook of connectedness amongst countries through the increased flow of goods and services; the spread and openness of political boundaries; and an unrestricted movement of labour. Nayef and Gerard (2006) submit that globalisation involves an array of issues, including the integration of economies; the transfer of policies and knowledge; and the advancement of a flexible labour market outlook across the globe. To capture the implication of globalisation in a fitting sense relevant to this study, globalisation has led to the soaring level of competition amongst organisations engendered by continued technological innovation and, to keep in tune with this, organisations are religiously adopting downsizing and layoff strategies (Akanbi and Itiola, 2013).

Put together, all the above definitions encompass the different components of globalisation including the economic, political, social, cultural and technological. However, economic globalisation remains the major thrust of the concept, which is more pertinent to the discourse of this study. Economic globalisation in the real sense has untied barriers and integrated economies through the strengthening of the cross-border movement of goods and labour leading to an increased attraction of investors by various governments of developing countries (DCs) in order to expand their foreign direct investment (FDI) base. Consequently, with the need to keep up with the attraction of FDI, the cost of raw materials has increased the spate of cost-cutting strategies through all forms of non-standard work arrangement (NSW) by investors cum employers of labour.

Conceptualising globalisation from an economic viewpoint, Das (2010) posits that globalisation is the increasing integration and expansion of national economies harnessed through goods and services, and cross-border corporate investment. According to Awuah and Amal (2011), globalisation is argued to refer to the liberalisation of economies and the breaking of trade barriers, which has consequently resulted in the increased use of technology and communication systems for smooth business transactions amongst organisations nationally, continentally and within the

international space. In a more related fashion, Das (2010) highlights that the discourse of economic globalisation has provoked many changes in the global landscape. For him, economic globalisation is the process of broadening the 'space' with advancements in technology and communications, thus increasing global production and the exchange of goods and services. Taking a cue from this, it can be argued that there is no much nuance between the duo of economic and technology strands of globalisation, as a significant advancement in one usually translates to such corresponding levels of advancements in the other.

As Padmanabhan (2012) rightly notes, the emergence of globalisation has brought about a new perspective to world trade and firms are moving from a local to a transnational identity, with an increased presence in countries across the world. From a somewhat different perspective, Akpor-Obaro (2012) posits that globalisation was synonymous with large corporations at inception, but presently a departure from this contention is that globalisation is now infused in all forms and sizes of business, giving even small businesses global identity. In Anugwom's (2007) argument, globalisation is conceived as a process in which the world has witnessed a reduction in the distance between time and space on the one hand and a slackening of hindrances in terms of communication barriers between countries on the other hand. From another perspective, Carmody (2010) in his book titled "*Globalisation in Africa: recolonisation or renaissance*", explained globalisation as the integration of world trade including the market, services and capital. Gorodnichenko, Svejnar and Terrell (2010) regard globalisation as the emergence of the opening of borders for advancing trade and foreign investment, thereby bringing about both positive and negative consequences for economies of the world, especially developing economies.

Highlighting the shortcomings of globalisation, Foellmi and Oechslin (2010) postulated that the emergence of globalisation has increased the level of inequality within broader society. In essence, globalisation has done more good than harm to the affluent, while leaving the poor at the mercy of the rich. This resonates well with the view of other scholars that globalisation has indeed worsened the situation of developing countries with the presence of multinationals seen to be exploiting the working class through cheap labour in a bid to advance their competitive advantage (Wei, 2013; Kaplinsky, 2013). Other scholars' studies hold contrary opinions, entailing that the increased competitiveness of multinationals has aided the economic development of developing countries and the living standards of people (Henry and Springborg, 2001; Docquier and Rapoport,

2012). To this end, the concept of globalisation has remained a double-edged sword possessing both opportunities and threats in the view of scholars. In the context of this study, it is therefore imperative to identify and discuss distinctively the threats and gains of globalisation (see Chapter Two).

### ***1.12.2 Employment casualisation***

Casualisation is a nebulous concept lacking a precise and coherent definition, particularly within the context of Nigeria's labour legislation. Although there is a general definition of a 'worker' in selected labour legislation such as the Trade Union Act (TUA), Nigeria Labour Act (NLA) and Employee Compensation Act (ECA), there exists no definition of casualisation or casual worker in any of the legislation to date. In 2003, all known Ghana labour laws were merged together into one consolidated Act called the Labour Act. Unlike the case of Nigeria, the Ghana Labour Act of 2003 explicitly defines 'workers' and 'casual worker' respectively<sup>10</sup>. However, aside from the absence of a clear definition in any of Nigeria's labour legislation, the concept of casualisation seems somewhat difficult to define because of the varied nomenclature attached to it and defining the concept is greatly a reflection of countries' specific labour laws. For instance, the travails to establish a definition in the context of Nigeria's labour law could seem more troublesome than in the sphere of Ghana's labour law.

However, in an effort to deduce a definition, employment casualisation can be conceived as a work arrangement that does not have all the qualities of a standard job. In other words, it is sometimes used interchangeably with non-standard work, which is a work arrangement that does not guarantee standard work conditions and forecloses all fair and justified remuneration, as well as other basic entitlements. For Danesi (2011), the subject of casualisation is also known as non-standard work, contingent, precarious, atypical and alternative work arrangement. All these features, according to the ILO (2007), describe casualisation as a work practice that lacks job security, gratuity, medical care and all other social security benefits. McGann, Moss and White (2012) define casualisation as any employment characterised by a lack of stability of tenure,

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<sup>10</sup> Under section 75 of Ghana's Labour Act of 2003, a comprehensive definition of casualisation and casual worker was not only stated but also included was benchmark of remuneration for these sets of workers, as well as the procedure for redress in cases where there is a breach in the terms of employment by the employer

uncertainty, restriction of employees from leave entitlements and the adoption of all manners of unfair labour practices.

According to Fapohunda (2012), casualisation of labour is a work pattern characterised by temporary and uncertain wages, an unspecified period of work and the absence of job security. These, according to her, practice employers adopt to replace jobs that are supposed to be self-sustaining, which should include benefits, training and promotion with jobs that are insecure and short-term in duration. Okafor (2010) construed casualisation as an employment practice invoked by the emergence of globalisation and trade liberation. For him, the sprawl of globalisation accompanied by advances in technology and communication systems have all facilitated the spread of casualisation. In a broader narrative, organisations now prefer to execute their core job functions while they outsource peripheral jobs through outsourcing and other external agencies. Kalejaiye (2014), in an effort to advance the assertion that no singular definition is fitting for casualisation, argued that casualisation is simply a work pattern in which employees are denied a holiday or sick leave; do not work within defined working hours; and the work has no guarantee of continuity, being one in which the worker can be dismissed without notice and gratuity paid to cushion the effect of the unfair dismissal. Kalejaiye's (2014) definition can be relative and depends on country-specific labour legislation.

Drawing from the above-stated viewpoints, Wandera (2013) conceptualised casualisation as the deviation from permanent and full-time employment status to a temporary and casual work status occasioned by irregularities; insecurity and low wages; inhumane working conditions; and the denial of unionization and collective bargaining. For Bamidele (2010), casualisation is conceived as a work arrangement possessing a high demand for unskilled labour to last for a specific period of time. This conceptualisation deviates from the recent practice of casualisation by most employers in Nigeria in particular, where skilled jobs are occasionally casualised. For instance, managers and supervisors are not excluded from the lists of casual workers in most Nigerian organisations. This clarification is to clear the air on the popularly shared assumption that casualisation of labour is restricted to unskilled jobs, while it exonerates employees offering skilled labour. Within the framework of the legal perspective, O' Donnell (2004) added that, in principle, labour casualisation is a form of employment characterised with jobs that are not expected to exceed a given period, usually 6 months in legal terms. Notwithstanding that it is enshrined in

Nigeria's Labour Act<sup>11</sup> that not more than 3 months after the commencement of work the employer shall specify the terms of employment binding both parties, the contrary is at play as most working people have spent a variegated number of years as casual workers without having their jobs formalised. Therefore, in the context of this study, casualisation is religiously referred to as all forms of work practices existing outside the traditional or standard work arrangement.

### ***1.12.3 Decent Work Agenda***

The decent work crusade remains one of the cardinal objectives of the apex labour organization, the ILO, in ensuring that working people attain the highest possible level of fulfilment from work in terms of remuneration, conditions of work and the representation of members' interests. In the quest to achieve these objectives in order to dignify work, the first pronouncement of decent work was issued by the erstwhile Director-General of the ILO, Mr. Juan Somavia, when he conceptualised decent work in his opening address at the 87th International Labour Conference in 1999 as "productive work in which workers' rights are protected and work capable of generating adequate income for commensurate work input, and the promotion of passable social protection within the workplace". Furthermore, the ILO (2002) opines that decent work constitutes work that is productive and offers employment benefits such as fair income' security in the workplace' social protection' opportunity for personal development and the right to organise and participate in issues bordering on the terms of employment conditions, as well as and the equal treatment of all irrespective of gender.

According to Okafor (2012b), decent work refers to the existence of jobs characterised by freedom, equity, security and self-worth. Although Nigeria is a signatory to the ILO's conventions and recommendations, as well as being a member country of the Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP) for the identification of decent work deficits, little or no progress has been achieved in its commitment to the attainment of decent and sustainable livelihoods for its working population. Levin (2003) also explains the concept of decent work as the availability of jobs that allows for freedom within the workplace and the right to organise and partake in issues on the wellbeing of workers. In addition to the enjoyment of the right of freedom of expression, Di Ruggiero *et al*, (2015) construed decent work as work possessing a safety net, which comes with the provision of

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<sup>11</sup> See 7(1) of Nigeria's Labour Act of 1974

sustainable income and social security measures in the event that a worker becomes ill or injured in the workplace.

Therefore, the decent work agenda sets out the policy, guidelines and procedures for the attainment of decent work across countries who are signatories to the ILO's conventions. Generally, the goal of the decent work agenda is to give the working class a sense of pride and opportunity to engage in work that is devoid of inequality, has security and freedom and that guarantees a sustainable income. In essence, the decent work agenda has to do with working towards attaining a drastic reduction in the alarmingly high rate of unemployment and the creation of jobs that are more substantial and guarantees better living standards. As a benchmark to measure the attainment of this goal, four strategic objectives were set out by the ILO, including the job creation objective, social protection objective, social dialogue objective and rights at work objective (see Chapter Two for an explicit explanation of these objectives).

In practice, the upsurge of employment casualisation with different nomenclatures such as outsourcing, contracts and part-time jobs with little or no self-sustaining returns roused the need for the declaration and promotion of the decent work agenda in order to guarantee an improved and better work-life for workers. Similarly, the emergence of the decent work agenda is not an end in itself. Rather, it is more like a cogwheel required for the attainment of decent work objectives. Therefore, in this study, the decent work agenda explicates the promotion of sustained, befitting and dignifying work and the forging of a pathway to personal dignity, family stability and the attainment of peace within the larger community (Cohen and Moodley, 2012). To this end, the decent work agenda shoulders the policy and institutional intervention required for the actualisation of decent work as promulgated by the ILO.

#### ***1.12.4 Trade Union***

The term trade union is synonymous with a group of persons who have agreed to come together for the sole protection of its constituents. Like every other association or pressure group that likewise co-exists to promote the interest of their members, a trade union association also seeks to protect the well-being of its members. However, a major distinction between the trade union and other pressure groups is that the interests of trade union members are protected based on stipulated employment conditions only when the statutory procedure has been fulfilled by its members as deemed fit by the Registrar of Trade Unions. Therefore, trade union associations are

constitutionally recognised interest groups working for the protection and furtherance of members' interests. In any employment relationship, the protection of either parties' economic interest is no less a wrestle between employees and employers' trade union associations and is far more pronounced than any cog of interest such as the social and political. For instance, employees' trade union associations are out to secure workers' economic interests including increased wages and other allowances as prescribed in their terms of employment on the one hand. On the other hand, employers' trade union associations also seek to protect the economic interest of their members through cost-cutting strategies, especially in industry-wide bargaining. In other words, the popular shared assumption that trade union associations are limited to working people is far from being true as it extends to employers of labour as well, a case in point is the Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employers (AFBTE).

One of the earliest definitions of the term 'trade union' was pronounced by a British couple named Web and Web, otherwise regarded as the pioneers of Industrial Relations (now Employment Relations). Web and Web (1897 cited in Otobo, 2005) conceptualised a trade union as a continuous association of wage earners coming together for the purpose of maintaining and improving the conditions of their working lives. One wonders if this definition suitably captures a conceptual description of employers' trade union associations with the phrase "association of wage earners" which to a large extent is by no means synonymous with employers' associations. To address this misconstruction, the Nigerian Trade Union Act <sup>12</sup>defined a trade union as:

"any combination of workers or employers, whether temporary or permanent, the purpose of which is to regulate the terms and conditions of employment of workers, whether the combination would or would not, apart from this Act, be an unlawful combination by reason of any of its purposes in restraint of trade, and whether its purposes do or do not include the benefits for its members"

Taking a clue from the Nigerian Trade Union Act, a trade union association does not foreclose the employers' association from being recognised as a trade union association. Rather, the emphasis of a trade union association is more pronounced with workers' organisations in practice than employer's associations, particularly in Nigeria's employment relations climate as it is common to observe trade unionism with workers' organisations. For Otobo (2005), a trade union is a

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<sup>12</sup> Section 1 (1) of the Trade Union Act 1973 of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

continuous organisation of working people that seeks to maintain and improve the terms and conditions of their employment through collective bargaining representation with the employer. In a similar line of argument, this definition also does not exclude the consideration of employers' associations as trade union associations since employers' representatives also bargain with representatives of workers' organisations. Therefore, an association of workers or employers whose remit is to protect the interest of its members through the collective bargaining process falls within the trade union appellation. Okpara (2014) conceived a trade union as an association of workers whose solidarity is arrayed towards achieving common goals in regard to issues related to wages, hours of work, working conditions and the need for recognition in the enterprise.

For Adefolaju (2013), a trade union is construed as a structured group of organised workers that exists to bargain with employers on issues affecting members' working conditions. In furtherance of the pursuit of the achievement of this goal, he mentioned that this group of organised workers travails to improve members' collective working life. Fajana (2006) conceptualizes a trade union as an association of wage or salary earners, formed with the purpose of safeguarding and improving the wage and employment conditions of its members' social status and standard of living in the community. Indeed, this definition uncovers the many challenges that wage earners such as casual workers encounter with the perpetual trend of many Nigerian employers prohibiting them from forming or joining a trade union association. Indeed, there is a level of unanimity in all the above descriptions of a trade union, the fulcrum of which explains an association of the working people organised for the sole aim of protecting and enhancing members' welfare.

From the above-stated propositions, it suffices to say that trade unions function as associations of employees or employers working for the protection of the economic, political, social and psychological interests of their members<sup>13</sup>. Nevertheless, the economic interests of members remain fundamental to any trade union association. Such includes equitable and fair wages; negotiation for improved working conditions; ensuring possible attainment of individual personal growth, and the fight against unfair labour practices through its representatives. Additionally, the trade union association is the mouthpiece of the working class, whose interest is to ensure that the working population derives requisite fulfilment from their jobs while discontinuing anti-labour practices that can jeopardise this mandate. Therefore, within the context of this study, a trade union

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<sup>13</sup> See chapter two for details of trade union functions

is religiously referred to as an institution of the working people that is responsible for the defence of workers' interests by ensuring improved work conditions, not only limited to its members but for the entire working class as the case may be. Thus, the motive of a trade union is anchored on the assumption that the generality of the working people believes that by uniting or coming together, they will be able to confront any economic exploitation and all other social injustices that are plaguing them in the workplace.

### ***1.12.5 The concept of the labour market***

Differentiating between a 'market' and 'labour market' could be problematic, considering the similar nomenclature both concepts assume, particularly for persons not in the discipline of economics, employment relations and general management. To be sure, a typical market is a place where goods and services are traded for individual consumption and both the buyer and seller are physically present during this exchange, while a labour market is an abstract market where job seekers meet with an employer for the possible initiation of an employment contract. Unlike a typical market, job-seekers (suppliers of labour) and employers of labour (buyers of labour) are not always present in the physical sense before the formalisation of an employment contract takes place. In other words, the labour market is more abstract than physical. In this era of globalisation, the need for a physical presence has been replaced with all sorts of other recruitment and selection practices, including the widely accepted online-recruitment and telephonic interviewing practices.

However, prior to the formalisation of any employment contract, the individual job-seeker brings his skills, qualification and experiences to the field of play and the employer consequently hires the best pool of candidate (s). The concept of the labour market is profoundly present in fields across the social and behavioural sciences discipline since it offers a very important explanation for earnings and inequality. Thus, the configuration of the term 'labour market' has a substantial influence on employment status and a very important determinant of family income and wellbeing. Therefore, the spread of inequalities and poverty evident in a developing economy like Nigeria is traceable to the events, structure and functionality of the labour market. According to Ongwumike *et al.* (2006), the Nigerian labour market in recent times has increased the poverty level of many Nigerians with the nature of jobs been prioritised. The authors argue that the Nigerian labour market is heterogeneous in nature, with job-seekers possessing a wide range of variegated skills, qualifications and experience, yet the corollary is that this heterogeneity has not improved the

living standards of workers. Rather, jobs are becoming consistently precarious in Nigeria's labour market.

The Canadian Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities (2005) conceptualised the term labour market as a place where the exchange of labour and bargaining between prospective employees and employers of labour take place. For instance, employees with the requisite skills and experience might have to bargain for better pay when considering a new job. For Standing (1999), the term 'labour market' entails the allocation of jobs, which sometimes involves labour exploitation cloistered through institutional frameworks. Institutions control an ideal labour market, such as is the case of Nigeria. Labour market institutions are stakeholders regulating the conduct and operations of the market including the trade union, employers' association, Ministry of Labour and Employment and recruitment agencies (outsourcing firms). Hence, the effective functioning of any labour market is greatly determined by labour market institution policies and regulations. These institutions shape the conduct of the market through policies hinging on wage fixation, conditions of work and the employment relationship between employees and employers. Therefore, in the context of this study, 'labour market' explains an abstract marketplace where skills, experiences and qualifications are interchanged for a reward.

#### ***1.12.6 Survival Strategies***

The researcher is not unaware of the conceptual confusion entrenched in placing a fitting definition for the concept of survival strategies. Some of these conceptual confusions can be traced to the multidisciplinary use of the term. Therefore, with the knowledge that the meaning and usage of the concept cuts across wide-ranging disciplines, the concept is conceptualised based on its appropriate use for this discourse. However, in general terms, survival strategies are clearly some distinct human or organizational efforts, explained by both psychological and behavioural dispositions towards enduring, reducing, and minimizing stressful situation or to manoeuvre their ways out of turbulent times (Stroe, Parida and Wincent, 2018). To add, the successful application of survival strategies for positive results out of any trying periods is not fixated but greatly depend on the situation at hand (Marina, Antonio and Jose, 2018). In this study, survival strategies are broadly used to describe the responsiveness of the trade union movement to the perturbing and escalating trend of anti-labour practices. It includes strategies marshalled against the snag of atypical work arrangements, such as it is evident within the global labour market and the Nigerian labour market

in particular. Issues relating to the significantly increased practice of employment casualisation are not new-fangled. In fact, it is a common household name in Nigeria's employment relations environment and has since been relegating the relevance of the trade union movement to the background.

In specific terms, survival strategies are conceptualised in this study to refer to how the trade union movement is out to revive the deriding meaning of work through various programmes, activities, policies and reactions. For clarity, four distinct trade union survival strategies are identified in this study, namely collective bargaining processes, industrial strikes, trade union leadership activities and trade union education and training programmes<sup>14</sup>. For clarity, these strategies are identified and classified by the researcher to understand their effectiveness for reducing the ascending spate of employment casualisation. Thus, the adoption of these strategies is clearly predicated on the verity that, hardly any study exists that seems to have employed the collection of these strategies towards addressing employment casualisation. With the advent of industrialisation, which brought the recognition of the role of the trade union movement, several survival strategies have been mapped out and utilised as weapons used by the trade union movement for improving the welfare of trade union members and of working people in general. In other words, survival strategies within the broad scope of this study refer to trade union weapons utilised for curbing the increased incidence of employment casualisation.

### **1.13 Structure of the thesis**

This thesis is structured into seven chapters. Although each chapter captures different issues, they are however not entirely distinct from each other as they are all poised towards addressing the research questions. The present chapter uncovers the chief essence of the study by establishing and identifying the research problems, objectives, questions and hypotheses. The justification of the study is accurately explained by explicitly stating its importance to the world of work. Similarly, this chapter provides a contribution to existing knowledge in the broad field of labour and employment studies and other related disciplines. In addition, the current chapter also seeks to situate the study within an explicit analysis of trends and activities in the Nigeria economy, with a survey of the Manufacturing, Agriculture, Telecommunication and Financial sectors and an

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<sup>14</sup> See a detailed and comprehensive explanation of these four distinct survival strategy in Chapter Two

assessment of Lagos State being the research site and the Nigeria Beverage sector representing the case study of the research respectively. Lastly, this chapter examines the study's limitations, scope and the major concepts used in the study.

Chapter Two positions the study within the relevant literature with an entrenched survey of streams of issues. These issues fittingly follow an arranged structure that permits a scrutiny of varied streams of contention reinforced by empirical knowledge such as globalisation and work; patterns and practices of employment casualisation; an appraisal of the challenges of employment casualisation; trade union relevance and the plague of employment casualisation; the Nigerian labour market and the growth of employment casualisation; an exposition of the formal and informal sectors of Nigeria's labour market; and the role of the ILO in achieving decent work for all. The chapter also discusses trade union reactionary strategies and the interrogation of factors cramping its effectiveness. In addition, the chapter presents a discussion on the theoretical framework underpinning the study. Three distinct theories are identified and reviewed to appropriately answer the stated research questions and hypotheses. Finally, the chapter niched the study on a clear conceptual framework where the relationship between variables is clearly explicated. The conceptual framework is developed from identified themes in the literature in addition to the adaptation of Dunlop's (1958) Systems Model. Specifically, Dunlop's (1958) Systems Model explains the relationship between actors (employees, employers and the State) in an employment relationship and how external factors (economy, legal, politics, public policy and social environment) influence the decision of these actors (see Chapter Two for details).

In Chapter Three, issues on the Nigerian labour market are explored. In this chapter, a nexus between the failed labour market institutional and regulatory framework on the one hand, and the connection between the ascending unemployment rate and the flourishing of employment casualisation, on the other hand, are established. While this chapter beams its searchlight on the historical evolution of the trade union movement in Nigeria, it equally attempts to convey the functions of a trade union to the working people, not foreclosing those in the non-standard employment category. Again, this chapter concludes with a survey of the Nigerian beverage industry with a particularly chosen case study on Lagos State's Beverage sector. Here, the economic performance of Nigeria's beverage industry is explored and a cursory analysis of how the poor economic indicators have escalated the plague of the industry, especially with its

consistently low GDP contribution to the Nigerian economy at large. The selected case study organisations were equally examined with specific reference to their development, products and trade union development.

Chapter Four sets out the methodology and techniques of the research. Discussions under this chapter commence with explanations of the various strands of research philosophies, with a firm adoption of the pragmatic research philosophy after careful evaluation of the other research philosophies. For emphasis, the utilisation of the pragmatic research philosophy is neatly connected with the adoption of the mixed method research method option in this study. Other issues discussed in this chapter include the research design; the population of the study; sample techniques and size; instrumentation and procedure for eliciting and analysis of data; problems encountered during fieldwork; and ethical considerations respectively. In order to make sense of the data collected, Chapter Five attempts the analysis and interpretation of both the quantitative and qualitative data garnered. Quantitative results emanating from the data are presented in tables and bar graphs, while corresponding qualitative results are analytically presented with a content analytical tool.

Similarly, Chapter Six discusses the research findings in line with empirical results that ensue from the preceding chapter. Discussions of findings under this heading were marshalled in line with the research objectives, questions and hypotheses respectively. In addition, the findings are guided to either corroborate or refute existing research by providing a scholarly and succinct understanding of the emphasis of the study. Lastly, Chapter Seven attempts a summary of the entire research with a concise conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further areas of study as appropriate. Some of the recommendations highlighted are those that clearly capture suggestions on how to review all the ambiguous provisions in Nigeria's labour legislation, which no doubt have been providing a safety net for the continued dehumanising of labour. It is established in this study that if the systematically proffered recommendations are followed, not only will it benefit the working people, but it will also improve and enhance the practice of employment relations by sanitizing the Nigerian workplace for good.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 Introduction

Discussions on the growing theme of employment casualisation and the survival strategies of trade union movements have only attracted diminutive research efforts by employment and labour studies scholars globally. Much like other strands of employment and labour studies research interests, the discourse of employment casualisation on the one hand, and the responsiveness of trade unions through their strategies, on the other hand have also witnessed little research exertions within the Nigerian research climate. Therefore, fundamental to this chapter is the need to unearth, summarise and synthesize scholarly debates on the discourse of employment casualisation, trade union survival strategies and other related issues that neatly connect and address this study's research questions. The literature review exercise is no less a formative cog of the research progression, that provides significant contributions to the entire research process (Kumar, 2012). In fact, it acquaints the researcher with vital information about the issues under review (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005), and equally serves as a road map to the discovery of new knowledge through the identification of existing gaps in the body of existing knowledge on a subject matter (Collins and Hussey, 2013).

The conviction that issues revolving around the concepts of employment casualisation, and trade union survival strategies are numerous is not far-fetched. To address these issues, the review is structured in a way that captures diverse empirical arguments obtainable from published peer-reviewed articles; conference reports and papers; published and unpublished scholarly works; and other labour legislation. The first section of the review commences with addressing the ongoing discourse on globalisation and work (including a narration of the attendant opportunities and threats that globalisation brings for the future of work); patterns and practices of temporary employment; an appraisal of the challenges of employment casualisation; and trade union relevance and the scourge of employment casualisation. In addition, the chapter reviews existing trends of literature on the Nigerian labour market and the growth of employment casualisation. The review also discusses the need for achieving decent work for all and the role of the ILO; trade union survival strategies and factors constraining their effectiveness; and an explanation of a conceptual framework explicating the relationship between variables. The second section

discusses the relevance of three theories that make up the theoretical framework underpinning this study, with clear justifications for their adoption, particularly on how each of the theories addresses sections of the study. Put together, the review integrates the combination of conceptual, empirical and theoretical review in order to clearly achieve the purpose of the study. Specifically, the chapter is organized in the arrangement of objective by objective. Although some issues reviewed were not directly reflected in the research objectives, they nonetheless have an indirect bearing on the research objectives. For instance, the discourse of employment casualisation cannot be clearly unpacked without an appraisal of globalisation and work; as it is known, the emergence and flourish of globalisation has engendered copious threats to the meaning of work, wherein many jobs have become the prey of precariousness.

## **2.2 Globalisation and work**

The discussion concerning how the emergence of globalisation has prospered or dehumanises work remains an ongoing scholarly dialogue amongst scholars of employment relations, industrial sociology and labour economics. The apologists of globalisation vehemently construe globalisation with its emergence spanning over two decades as a *boon* to the future of work. In contrast, other commentators are of the view that rather than prospering the world of work, globalisation has remained a *bane* to the future of work (see Smidt, Becker and Bradley, 2015; Hessami and Baskaran, 2015; Austin-Egole, Wokoma and Iheriohanma, 2014; Awuah and Amal, 2011; Bandelj, Shorette and Sowers, 2011). The literature on globalisation and work reveals that the positive and negative effects of globalisation on work cannot be conceptualised in terms of which outweighs the other, rather either set of effects should be conceived in terms of their peculiarities. For example, globalisation has attracted gains to the economies of a few nations thereby sustaining and prospering working people on the one hand, yet other nations' economies have only felt the debilitating effects of globalisation with its accompanying effect on the working population on the other hand.

The above assertion is premised on the disparity between developed, developing and less developing countries (LDC). For instance, the developing and LDCs are more prone to the negative effects of globalization, owing to their weak labour market policies and fragmented employment laws (Foellmi and Oechslin, 2010). However, in spite of their comparatively more virile labour market policies and employment laws, developed countries are not left out of the

countries having their economies experience the negative effects of globalisation. In fact, all countries seem to be victims of ‘globalisation’, though the level of this negative effect varies from one country to another in terms of development and planning policies (Akpór-Robaro, 2012). In a similar vein, there is a need for caution on the popular propositions of scholars that there exists a dearth of literature on how globalisation has positively affected work, as most of the scholarly works in this area of study tend to idolize the negative impacts of globalisation. Consequently, the travails to recognise the significant merits of globalisation for the world of work has remained a debate of morass amongst its supporters.

### ***2.2.1 Globalisation and the future of work***

Conceptualising the positive effects of globalisation for the world of work, Bhalla (2008) argues that the emergence of globalisation has increased the pool of labour migration by promoting the employment generation of both skilled and unskilled labour globally. On a similar global scale, Ogasawara (2007) contends that the acceleration of advancement in information communication technology (ICT) motivated by globalisation has forced workers into direct competition with their counterparts in other parts of the world in order to remain relevant to the evolving trends in the world of work where machines and robots have made the execution of work a painless adventure. With evidence of the verity that the rising influence of technology has almost replaced the human worker with machines, the need to remain competitive has also caused workers to be attracted to the trends and innovations in the world of ICT. In addition, globalisation has increased the pace of progress amongst the working population while lessening the rigidity of work. For instance, workers now have the freedom of flexibility in the management of their work routine with the privilege of having the schedules of their work controlled by themselves rather than being controlled by managers (Ogasawara, 2007).

The invaluable aid that ICT brings constitutes one of the discernable benefits of globalisation to work. Of course, there have been commentaries on how the global communication network has been broadened in recent times with the consistent expansion of globalisation (Deb and Sen, 2016; Jones and Sherwood, 2014). Precisely, advocates of globalisation have continued to chronicle how the global communication network has enjoyed huge advancements with the corresponding establishment of corporate organisations not limited within national territories, both those having an international presence such as MNCs. However, it is evident that globalisation has heralded

significantly increased job opportunities and that jobs are no longer restricted to the workingman, but has since been extended to women who are obviously becoming a larger part of the global workforce (Deb and Sen, 2016). In other words, the position for women, including those in the developing world, has been distant from being wavering in this new global space as women are seen to be beneficiaries of the new globally dispersed work, with higher pay and increase self-confidence (Autor, 2015).

Again, the flourishing of globalisation has shifted the focus from investment and employment in the public sector to the private sector globally, with numerous changes in both the nature and context of work (Czaika and de Haas, 2014). Some of these evident changes have been a keen emphasis on competitiveness, an upsurge in the number of women entering the workforce and the growth of part-time and flexible work (Deb and Sen, 2016). Although the utility of different job types engendered by globalisation has continued to be a subject of debate in terms of the outlook of wages, the denial of labour rights and essential social protection that comes with such jobs. In fact, while some of these jobs allow improved flexibility for workers, they often lack the required benefits, social protection and opportunities for career advancement compared to jobs in traditional standard employment. In contrast, however, Scarpetta (2016) rightly avows the verity that since globalisation has increased the growth of global economies in which more people are now engaged in paid employment than in the past and relishing multiple categories of income, it is inconsequential to make a case for the issues connected to working hours, wages and social protection evident in traditional employment (Scarpetta, 2016).

Apologists of globalisation like Autor, Katz and Kearney (2008) argue that globalisation has indeed brought about an impressive level of development to the world of work. In their submission, they reiterate that the emergence of globalisation occasioned by ICT has replaced the bulk of workers who execute organisational tasks manually. By implication, workers who perform high information technology jobs appear to be the beneficiaries of this trend, while those possessing low skills are at the receiving end. Again, the intermeshing of organisations into the transnational arena, a feat achieved with the emergence of globalization, has created new employment opportunities for the unemployed the world over, as well as initiated the prospects of dipping the biting rate of unemployment, diseases, poverty and inequality amongst the working population (Ellwood, 2002; Lee and Vivarelli, 2006). According to Austin-Egole, Wokoma and Iheriohanma

(2014), although one cannot take away the deleterious consequences of globalisation on work, there still exist some extolling benefits. For the authors, the significantly increased adoption of ICT heralds the emergence of new forms of employment within the world of work (Austin-Egole, Wokoma and Iheriohanma, 2014).

The emergence of these varied work patterns has transformed the rigidity of the workplace to a more flexible work environment by eliminating the fixing of employees to a particular work location and bringing about improvement in employees' work-balance conflicts (Hines and Carbone, 2013). Smidt, Becker and Bradley (2015) observe that the distinctive significance of globalisation to work is linked to the limited constraints in the attracting of experts in international labour markets. In essence, the advent of globalisation has enabled organisations to attract employees from far and near. Assessing the positive impact of globalisation on work, Barrientos *et al.* (2011) contend that the emergence of globalisation has created new trends of employment opportunities in countries with low development indices, as well as in those categorised as emerging nations. Similarly, Lee and Vivarelli (2006) in their discussion paper on the "*Social impact of globalisation in developing countries*" highlighted that the positive impact of globalisation is more pronounced in manufacturing firms the world over, leading to an increased influx of the workforce into this industry, especially amongst developing countries of the world. To capture this aptly, Chidi (2014) submits that the Nigerian manufacturing industry has remained one of the leading employers of labour in recent times, with the Beverage, Food and Tobacco sector taking the lead in this industry. Sadly, several of the available jobs in this industry possess casual and precarious work features (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014).

In a bid to narrow the topic of globalisation to economic globalisation within which the nexus between globalisation and work can be more articulately explicated, Obayelu (2007) explains that the effects of economic globalisation (positive or negative) remain a sensitive discourse owing to the diverse meaning attached to the concept. From the positive point of view, the author identified that globalisation has expanded employment opportunities for employees concentrated in the informal sector of major economies of LDCs and developing nations. Although informal sector jobs have been on the increase, this is not adequate to conclude that this represents some benefits of globalisation as major industrial sector concentrated in the informal sector considered as drivers of economic growth have been encumbered with severe job losses in recent times, specifically

among the LDC's and developing nations respectively. In contrast, Stiglitz (2006) book "*Making globalisation work*" outlines that it is erroneous to conceive that the benefits of globalisation are only available to developed nations, as there is an abundance of these benefits potentially available but untapped by developing countries and LDCs to improve working conditions. The author contends further that the mindset and actions of leaders of these nations (developing and LDCs) are not helping matters, as such traits exhibited by these leaders are not enabling developing countries and their LDCs to harvest the alluring gains of globalisation to better the conditions of their working population.

### **2.2.2 Globalisation as a threat to the future of work**

The preponderance of globalisation scholars tends towards the conception that globalisation has done more 'harm' than 'good' to the world of work (see Bandelj, Shrotte and Sowers, 2011; Adewumi and Adenugaba, 2010). Bhalla (2008) illustrates the vivid impact of this harm by pointing out that economic globalisation with its policy on trade liberalisation has weakened the power of the trade union movement. In so doing, MNCs are now exploiting the advantage of the free-market policy of globalisation to introduce all sorts of work arrangements capable of reducing the strength of the trade union (Adewumi and Adenugaba, 2013). In effect, trade union power has been abating and workers are becoming defenceless owing to the proliferation of various forms of non-standard work (Adewumi and Adenugaba, 2013).

In a related argument, Bandelj, Shrotte and Sowers' (2011) work on "*Workers and Neo-liberal Globalisation*" shows that rather than being a 'blessing', globalisation has remained a 'curse' to the working population. The authors submit that economic globalisation has introduced enormous job insecurity, while the existing relationship between the employer and employees has been diminishing in recent times (Bieler, Lindberg and Pillay, 2008). Accordingly, the traditional contract of employment representing the establishment of an employment relationship between the employer and employee has been replaced by contracting and outsourcing work arrangements in which employers are no more liable to their obligations. In fact, most work arrangements no longer come with expressed terms as they are now religiously arranged in implied terms<sup>15</sup>. Obayelu

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<sup>15</sup> As explicated by British Common Laws, expressly agreed upon terms of employment portray a contract of employment where the obligations of both party (employer and employees) are expressly written and endorsed by both sides as a rule guiding the employment relationship. Sometimes, it is commonly referred to as an employment letter where all work conditions are explicitly stated, including wages/salary and other employment benefits. Implied

(2007) also gave supportive evidence that economic globalisation has accompanied various economic reforms in Nigeria, including the SAP of the 1980s engendering widespread downsizing and layoffs in both the public and private industrial sectors (Obayelu, 2007). Findings from Austin-Egole, Wokoma and Iheriohanma's (2014) study reveal that the advent of economic globalisation has promulgated the wide adoption of different fashions of employment casualisation in major Nigerian indigenous private organisations and MNCs, where increased job insecurity and wage differentials amongst skilled and unskilled workers, with the same qualifications and skills have become the norm rather than the exception. Consequently, no doubt, the high rate of employment casualisation practices in Nigeria calls for caution. In retrospect, can it then be argued that economic globalisation has created a constraint-free employment relations atmosphere promoting different strands of anti-labour practices in Nigeria, even with Nigeria's opulence in terms of both human and material resources? The answer to this would explicitly predict the posterity of work in Nigeria.

Globalisation is an evolving trend. It evolves specifically around new innovations in the field of ICT. According to Wilpert (2009), the advent of globalisation obviously accompanied the invention of several new information technology tools, prominently in use by MNCs in their day-to-day execution of work. Wilpert (2009) reiterates that these inventions have had profound effects on workers, especially unskilled labour. As an illustration, jobs requiring physical competencies are now supplanted with those requiring intellectually-oriented skills. Therefore, the promotion of information technology for the execution of organisational tasks has tended to replace human skills with machines. Similarly, no doubts, the crux of globalisation is to increase the interconnectedness amongst nations. This submission relates to the removal of barriers and constraints which have hitherto been restraining the migration of both skilled and unskilled labour to other nations of the world. Wilpert's (2009) submission acknowledges that the elimination of barriers hindering the migration of labour has consequently introduced many of the challenges facing workers the world over on many fronts. For instance, many migrant workers do not possess equal workplace rights in comparison to locals and are often underpaid, suffer dehumanising conditions and have the locals often disproportionately favoured over them. Also, several migrant workers face

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terms describe the flip side of express terms. Here, the agreed terms of employment are not documented as these are barely agreed by both party through word of mouth.

xenophobic attacks and are seen taking low paid jobs without the provision of social protection, including retirement and health plan benefits (Wilpert, 2009; Danesi, 2011).

Again, one of the defects brought about by globalisation to work is increased unemployment. To be sure, most of the literature on globalisation and work confirmed that not only has globalisation reduced the meaning of work, but it has also coalesced the disservice of unemployment. Igwe (2013) rightly contends that most of the benefits attached to globalisation are only enjoyable by the developed nations who own most of the MNCs around the globe. Correspondingly, local companies who cannot stay longer in business because of a lack of competitive advantage in a globalised market resort to the retrenchment of workers, thereby adding to the pool of unemployed persons. In her submission, Bhalla (2008) debated that globalisation has significantly attracted skilled jobs to developed countries, while subsequently relegating unskilled jobs to developing nations and LDCs. A significant effect of this trend is increased unemployment in developing countries whose skilled workers have migrated to developed countries, leaving behind unskilled workers who have to wrestle competitively to secure jobs (Danesi, 2011).

Castree *et al.*'s (2004) book titled "*Spaces of Work: global capitalism and the geographies of labour*" outlines that globalisation has made several obliterating strategies, in the anti-labour practices of indigenous and multinational organisations more pronounced with their attendant effects visibly seen on working people. The authors submit that the need to remain competitive in a competitive globalised market, initiated these obliterating strategies of cutting down employees' wage inappropriately, taking over the entire work relationship without considering employees' participation (industrial democracy), dehumanising the workforce and a denial of major work benefits (Doogman, 2009). Furthermore, Ehrenreich (2005) posits that employers' survival tactics in an increasingly globalised market affect the working population in various ways such as increased depression, low living standards, decreased self-esteem and declining employment value (Bhalla, 2008). To put it in perspective, globalisation has increased the number of working poor people around the globe, such that the essence of work no longer dovetails with the traditional meaning of work.

As advocated by the allies of globalisation, the free market economic policy being one of the features of the 1980s SAP initiative is positioned as a major pathway for improving industrialisation and job creation opportunities for the unemployed by reducing the level of

constraints to external influences, specifically in less industrialised countries. Contrarily, Anugwom (2007) maintains that to date, the opening of the Nigerian economy to external influence has failed to translate to an improvement in the desired conditions of work. Rather, it has welcomed deleterious effects on the employment situation of the country. In essence, globalisation has increased the vulnerability of both unskilled and semi-skilled workers who seem to be victims of the free market economy policy by subjecting the majority to the secondary labour market, where working conditions are harmful and dreadful. On the whole, the ongoing debate with regard to whether the emergence of globalisation has improved or debased the conditions of work remains inconclusive and calls for continuous research efforts among scholars of industrial sociology, management, labours economics and other allied disciplines. Although the majority of arguments for and against the effect of globalisation seem skewed to the negatives, it would not be fitting to intellectually avow that the threats of globalisation to work outweigh the benefits (see Table 2.1).

Similarly, considering the above line of literature, it would also not be too problematic to determine that globalisation has accompanying copious conundrums to the world of work, such as those emanating from the promulgation of different types of employment casualisation including outsourcing, contract and part-time jobs that are all lacking in social protection with the dominating influence in developing and LDCs that have weak labour laws and fragile regulatory frameworks. In contrast, to borrow the words of Stiglitz (2006, p24), globalisation portrays well for the working people of developing countries and LDCs. Regrettably, the approach and dilly-dally nature of these countries to reap the benefits of globalisation calls for drastic measures. Can one then conclude, that the leaders of these countries be held responsible for the misfortune that has befallen their working people or globalisation itself? Although the answer to this question is somewhat skewed to the former submission. However, provoking a fuller understanding of the benefits and drawbacks of globalisation to work can preferably be unearthed through a profound understanding of labour market flexibility, particularly which has birthed different patterns of temporary employment types across nations of the world. Table 2.1 shows a summary of the positive and negative impact of globalisation on work.

**Table 2.1: A summary of the benefits and shortcomings of globalisation for work**

<b>Merits of globalisation for work</b>	<b>Demerits of globalisation for work</b>
Increase in employment creation in both the formal and informal sectors of economies of developing countries and LDC's	The human worker has been replaced by machines and work is becoming meaningless
The rigidity attached to work is reducing and the execution of task does not have to be physical as most work is done via the internet aided by ICT	The advent of globalisation has increased labour market flexibility, resulting in the proliferation of different temporary work arrangements
Globalisation has initiated the need for global competition. Workers are now developing their human capital skills to remain competitive in the highly competitive global market	The strength of the trade union movement is abating, with the economic policy of free-market promulgated by the neo-liberal economic policy choice option
With globalisation, workers now enjoy an improved work-life balance as tasks are becoming more flexible in such a way that work is now being executed without been stationary	Wages are being reduced inappropriately and reduced industrial democracy is becoming employers' work practices
Increase in the flow of both unskilled and skilled labour, a practice that has been hindered prior to the advent of globalisation	The advent of globalisation has heralded different organisational programmes and change-oriented organisational policies resulting in various forms of downsizing and retrenching of the workforce

**Sources:** Author's compilation

### **2.3 Patterns of temporary employment**

The adoption of temporary employment practices has been on the increase, especially amongst organisations of Third World countries (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; Ohiorenoya and Uwadie, 2016). Temporary employment is alternatively used to describe employment casualisation (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; May, Peetz and Strachan, 2013). Nevertheless, the term 'temporary employment' seems more appropriate in relation to issues to be discussed under this heading. Danesi (2011) for instance argues in the context of Nigeria's employment relations that casual workers are otherwise referred to as temporary workers even when they remain perpetually on the job. While it remains debatable whether temporary employment is trading stones to permanent work or a dead-end, studies have shown that a substantial amount of temporary workers are hired on long-term duration (Faccini, 2016; Kahn, 2017). Specifically, the likely evidence to conceive whether temporary employment can be a stepping stone to permanent work suggests that the large chunk of temporary workers are being exploited by firms for profit accumulation (Lam and de Campos, 2015). In other words, the contention that temporary work is a path to permanent work seems not plausible, especially with the increasing trend of informalisation across the globe (Wilkin, 2016). Temporary employment encompasses work arrangements that are supposed to be a one-off job with an expected expiration timeline, such as a contract, outsourced and part-time

employment, but these are now termed “permanent casuals” and characterised with different job challenges (Danesi, 2011).

The effect of global changes on labour market functionality has engendered great changes in the working of most organisations. For instance, Faccini (2016) argued that as a way of moderating these changes on the performance and profit margin of organisations, most organisations now have a handful of their core workforce on permanent terms, complemented by temporary workers (Kifle and Desta, 2017). Thus, having a sparse core workforce conveys the flexibility to adjust to the vicissitudes in the economic environment including reducing the workforce when demand declines (Faccini, 2016). Consequently, temporary employment possesses two unequal faces. With the first face, the dual labour market theory maintains that temporary employment may be reflected as jobs with low value, which is practically implausible to secure a high-quality job owing to the increasing effect of labour market segmentation (Lewchuk, Clarke and de Wolff, 2016). On the other hand, an alternative body of research on careers suggests temporary employment to support boundary less career, where workers are not confined to work in one organization during their working life (Forde and Slater, 2016; Kifle and Desta, 2017). For clarity, many temporary workers lack career path and are thus at the clemency of employers as they transit from one organization to the other.

However, a fuller understanding of temporary employment features can be conceptualized from two standpoints. On the one hand are core workers, otherwise called primary workers, while on the other hand are peripheral workers, otherwise called secondary workers (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014). De Cuyper *et al.* (2008) in an effort to distinguish between these two employment types, assert that the core workers of an organisation enjoy employment continuity, safe workplace conditions, stable working hours and the provision of fringe benefits and other social security benefits. On the contrary, employees categorised as peripheral workers lack the opportunity for training, career progression and social security benefits and are classified as secondary employees in most instances (De Cuyper *et al.*, 2008; Samuelsson *et al.*, 2012). Temporary employment practices have been argued to increase the pool of employment by way of reducing the rising spate of unemployment globally. In the analysis of Dorsett (2014), the adoption of different forms of temporary employment has led to a rise in sustained employment for job

seekers who apparently have been active members of the labour market without being able to secure a job.

In contrast to the preceding argument, the study of de Graaf-Zijl *et al.*, (2011) titled “*Stepping stones for the unemployed: the effect of temporary jobs on the duration until regular work*” refute Dorsett’s (2014) submission that the widespread adoption of temporary employment is significantly related to increased employment generation. Again, if temporary employment has been linked to lessening the ascending rate of unemployment, then Dorsett’s (2014) assertion does not corroborate with the prevailing employment situation in Nigeria, where for instance, even with the rising rate of temporary employment, the country’s unemployment rate still stood at 18.8 percent as at the third quarter of 2017, representing an estimate of 18 million unemployed Nigerians (NBS, 2017). Still eulogising the benefits of temporary employment, de Graaf-Zijl *et al.*, (2011) add that the existence of temporary employment has bettered a lot of unemployed workers by way of providing them with work experience and human capital development skills. As such, their further search for more standard job types comes with ease.

However, the above-mentioned findings do not hold ground in a country like Nigeria, where employees under a temporary work arrangement are not enlisted for human capital development, as their experiences are limited to the confines of unstructured work patterns. Hence, where and how does the experience and skills required for the transition from being a temporary to a permanent worker surface from? The literature on temporary employment reveals that contract, outsourced and part-time work patterns are the predominant temporary employment types prevalent in Nigeria’s Manufacturing, Telecommunications, Banking and Oil and Gas sectors respectively (see Idowu, 2010; Onyeonoru, 2004).

The following section explores these three distinctive patterns of temporary employment practices<sup>16</sup> while pointing out that, although temporary employment types possess dissimilar features, yet they are seamless and attract similar work conditions.

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<sup>16</sup> These three forms of temporary employment are mostly practiced in Nigerian organisations, while others having a different nomenclature are derived from them.

### **2.3.1 Contract employment**

Unlike other types of temporary employment practices, the duration of employment enjoyed by a contract worker hinges on the completion of the task they are recruited to execute (Hamilton, 2006). Essentially, the work of a contract worker thrives on the completion of the specific job task. Hamilton (2006) reiterated that contract workers are often times called upon to execute another job after the initial completion of a task. Accordingly, the need to recruit contract workers only becomes necessary when there is excess production requiring more hands at a point in time, without long-term benefits and an investment in training accruing to the worker (Hamilton, 2006). Contrarily, employment trends in Nigeria foreclose the expiration of the contract tenure as contract employment has taken on a new dimension. In fact, the employment of contract workers is no longer conditioned on the need to engage more hands when production increases, rather it has become a norm with the intention to minimize costs and maximize profits (Fapohunda, 2012; Okafor, 2012a).

The employment of a contract worker can either be finalized by the user firm or contracting agency. Adewusi (2015) submits that there are sufficient instances where contract workers employed through an agency or directly by the user firms work as long as six years without commensurate pay and training opportunities in comparison to their permanent counterparts, even in situations where they perform similar jobs within the same hours and with the same skills (Onemola, 2012). To support this, a similar study by Animashaun (2007) argued that many contract workers in Nigeria who are due for permanent positions are still without the employment benefits accrued to workers that hold permanent work status. This submission echoes Ajonbadi's (2015) findings in his study on "*The dynamics of policies and practices of labour contracting in the Nigerian Oil and Gas sector*". Ajonbadi (2015) especially provides an analysis of the disparity between contract and permanent workers. According to him, the duo of contract and permanent workers are distinguished based on unequal employment benefits, remuneration and the security of jobs (Ajonbadi, 2015).

The bulk of Nigeria's contract workers are located within the Manufacturing, Oil, and Gas, Telecommunication and Banking sectors (Fapohunda, 2012; Adewusi, 2015). The management of these organisations employs the service of a contracting agent who supervises the affairs of these workers while rendering services to the user firms (Ajobandi, 2015). The user firms are not the

primary employers of the contract workers, hence they are not liable for the provision of social security and other employment benefits, which create more lethal work conditions (Ohiorenoya and Uwadie, 2016). Several opinions have been raised within the body of employment relations and human resources management literature about the wide-ranging benefits of contract staffing. For Lee (2014), contract staffing comes with a boon to the organisation. Accordingly, the need to have some portion of the workforce as contract staff discernibly relieves the firm in attaining organisational flexibility by the application of a cost reduction strategy. In a similar vein, such positivity extends to the reduction of the unemployment rate, where women and those possessing fewer skills are taking advantage of the flexibility of the labour market to secure jobs (Lee, 2014).

Furthermore, it is common to see the contracts of contract workers renewed either by the agency or user firm, even before the expiration of the initial contract. This reflects some of the practices amongst many Nigerian organisations that do not synchronize with the general provisions of contract work where a contract is only expected to be extended upon the completion of the first task. However, the idea of a continuous employment contract was argued by Wagenaar *et al.*, (2012) as a way to increase the security of jobs and create a more meaningful working life than an intermittent contract, in which the first contract has to be completed before the commencement of another contract. For instance, the waiting period before the finalisation of the next contract has been argued to attract major work problems for workers (Wagenaar *et al.*, (2012).

Conceptualising the above-deliberated arguments, one of the significant drawbacks identified with contract work in the employment and human resources management literature is the snag of increased dissatisfaction with work. While this conclusion is not far-fetched, studies on this motif have over time revealed a major nuance between the compensation of contract workers and that of full-time workers, with increased job dissatisfaction observed amongst contract workers (Shang *et al.*, 2014; Chambel, Lopes and Batista, 2016). For Callea *et al.* (2016), uncovering the extent or the nature of job displeasure amongst contract workers can be explained from two unequal dimensions of job insecurity constructs; *subjective* and *objective* job insecurity. For the former, contract workers are engulfed by the threat ensuing from their work environments placing their jobs at risk. For the latter, contract workers are daily confronted with the threat of job loss evolving from the temporary conditions of their jobs, such as the perception of the limited duration that their jobs are characterised with (Callea *et al.*,2016). While other empirical evidences have narrated

that, although workers either in the full-time or contract work employment category do exhibit same level of job insecurity, it is out of place to conclude that contract workers are not obsessed with the high incidence of job insecurity, particularly with a definite timeline on their job duration (Sapka, 2016).

Researchers have also established that contract workers possess higher rates of intention to leave than workers in full-time employment. Ji, Guthrie and Messersmith's (2014) study rightly point out that contract workers' dissatisfaction with their employment conditions such as salaries, benefits and other employment terms are amongst major work indicators that propel contract workers' intention to leave. While this verity to an extent can be substantiated, it, however, lacks a fuller justification as most contract workers, irrespective of the nomenclature of their jobs enjoy major work benefits and reasonable work pay (Kurtessis *et al.*, 2015). Nonetheless, other related studies have established that depending on a country's specific legislation, contract workers are more significantly proscribed from enjoying similar work benefits in terms of remuneration, pension and medical insurance than full-time employees (Griep *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, mirroring this narrative from the Nigerian employment relations context, it is no doubt the fact that contract workers are not only dissatisfied with the content of their jobs as a result of poor work benefits, but more importantly, have been perpetually stifled without any immediate hope for a transition. This among other factors, explains the many work challenges plaguing contract workers in the Nigerian labour market at large (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014).

### **2.3.2 *Outsourced employment***

The remit of organisations is to consider the individual worker's skills (experience) and educational qualifications in the fixing of compensation (salary) for a specific job. Recently, most organisations now have this responsibility executed by a secondary employer (outsourcing firms) whose acts of exploitation have become immutable. The traditional means, through which organisations bargain with prospective workers regarding compensation has dampened as most in-house jobs have become externalised through outsourcing practices. According to Fritsch and Görg (2015), outsourcing entails the contracting-out of organisations' activities that are considered non-core to external outsourcing firms. In essence, the organisation reduces the workload of executing peripheral jobs to external outsourcing firms. For Lair (2012), outsourcing is conceptualised as the transfer of conventionally performed tasks by an organisation to a sub-contractor outside the

organization, which prefigures a cost reduction strategy and the need to gain more advantage within the competitive labour market (Jaafar and Rafiq, 2005). Unlike contract employment, where ‘contract employees’ are employed by the user organisations or an agency, outsourced workers are independently employed by outsourcing firms.

Whatever the taxonomy, outsourced employment deviates from the formal employment relationship that warrants employers’ obligation towards workers’ welfare and sustainability in the workplace. Prior to now, the preponderance of outsourced workers fell within the low-skilled workers such as factory workers, cleaners and security jobs. With the increasing spate of globalisation, organisations have tended to extend outsourcing the jobs of high skill workers to external firms in industries such as Manufacturing, Banking, Telecommunication and Oil and Gas (Fapohunda, 2012). For instance, there are several justifications in the academic literature for the need to outsource peripheral (not too important) tasks of the organisation to outsourcing firms. Amongst these justifications is the need to cut organisational costs and allow the organization to concentrate on core (important) tasks. However, if these justifications are anything to go by, then the onerous conditions workers are confined to calls for an urgent debate. The corpus of justifications given by organisations for the need to outsource part of its workforce still does not hold water, as they only make efforts to evade being responsible for employees’ social security benefits.

This is sufficient to argue, that the spread of outsourcing has almost taken over the milieu of work, with the sequence of increase seen among MNCs operating in developing countries of the world, Nigeria inclusive (Fapohunda, 2012). Tregenna (2010) submits that the desire to outsource part of an organisation’s workforce is motivated by the pervasive benefits of capitalism, which subsequently has divided the working population into different components, rendering them weak as an association capable of challenging the *status quo* of the capitalist movement. Much has been discussed regarding the benefits and arduous experience of outsourcing in both the human resources and labour economics literature. Konig and Koskela (2013) narrate that outsourcing has conveyed novel trends in the operations of the global labour markets. The authors in their submission argued that the rise in outsourced jobs has increased the wage of high-skilled workers, specifically those located in the information technology (IT) industry (Konig and Koskela, 2013). Therefore, the job specification of an IT worker is no doubt *avant-garde*; expectedly the

corresponding compensation is envisaged to be high. In real terms, this assertion is not in alignment with employees of other sectors where outsource employment is prevalent. Similar arguments concerning the alluring benefits of outsourcing were depicted by Yan *et al.*, (2013). The practice of outsourcing tends to benefit the organisation in the area of strategic decision making for improved customer quality relationship and a robust concentration on achieving human resources management functions that are relevant to the organization, while outsourcing those considered to be not too important to the organisation (Yan *et al.*, 2013).

Snieska and Draksaite (2007) account for a significant relationship between outsourcing practices and business risk. Organisations can outsource part of their non-core and risk business activities to outsider firms, thereby reducing the amount of business risk confronting their survival and sustainability (Snieska and Draksaite, 2007). For instance, in Nigeria, the norm is to discourage outsourced workers from either forming or joining a trade union association, although a development that may contravene Nigeria's labour Act, yet the argument from an employer's point of view is that trade union activities could slow or engender risk to the organization. Another significant barrier that can limit the continuity of outsourcing business is the costs of maintenance. For Sriwongwana (2009), these costs range from the need to keep abreast with modern technology and expenses for training low skill employees. Sadly, the majority of outsourcing firms discontinue business operation owing to increase costs of maintenance by consequently increasing the pool of unemployed persons. Therefore, outsourcing no doubt is a difficult transition to go through, with probable losses to terms and conditions of employment during the transition process (Mitchell and James, 2017).

Furthermore, other debates with regard to the drawbacks of outsourcing have been identified. Particularly, while it is no doubt that outsourcing does not guarantee or allure the required work fulfillment to the individual worker, it has greatly coalesced decreased job morale in recent times. For instance, Sanchis-Pedregosa, Gonzalez-Zamora and Palancin-Sanchez's (2017) study highlight that the upturn use of outsourcing employment has increased the administrative costs of organisations, decreased employee's morale and can mutilate the processes and activities of business if not professionally managed. Similarly, other shortcomings include increase legal issues for the organisations, decreased employees attachment to the organisation and performance, and constant dissection of attention and focus to details (Alvi, 2016).

For a successful outsourcing transition, a fuller understanding of cultural diversity is no doubt imperative. For instance, a good number of outsourcing firms are MNC's, and to some extent lacks a grasp of the cultural background of their operating countries resulting in a failed outsourcing transition altogether. Studies, however, have identified a robust need for outsourcing agent to understand the culture and communication styles of countries, for a successful transition process (see Earl, 2016; Sapkal, 2016). In other words, cultural knowledge, fluency, and communication styles have been reported to influence outsourcing outcomes in many instances (Alexandrova, 2015). In fact, the unfamiliarity of outsourcing agent to cultural practices and values have been reveal as a significant barrier constraining customer's loyalty and patronage to organisations (Mitchell and James, 2017; Earl, 2016). In addition, work delay, the incursion of privacy and other ethical concerns are among other risk factors associated with outsourcing (Plimer, 2015). While these accounts is not far-fetched, many outsourcing practices have chronicled failed transition process with debilitating consequences for the concerned workers.

### ***2.3.3 Part-time employment***

Any employment relationship, whose terms and conditions do not fall within the confines of permanent employment relationship ordinarily possess temporary employment features. By extension, therefore, part-time employment lacks the basic features of permanent employment type. According to Abhayaratna *et al.*, (2008, p.20), there are two strands of the motive why people choose part-time jobs. On the one hand is the abating rate of permanent employment, leaving persons with the alternative of part-time jobs at least for the sustenance of the body, soul, and mind. On the other hand, is the flexibility of the labour market. In Nigeria for instance, the labour market has become so flexible that there exist part-time workers in different sectors of the economy including the manufacturing sector such as factory workers, the Banking such as security guards and the telecommunication such as call center agents all categorised as low-skill workers. These instances shared similar assumption with the findings of Abhayaratna *et al.*, (2008), that majority of part-time workers are low skilled workers. In other words, the growth of part-time employment is espoused by employers continued quest for low wage work among low skilled employees (Akbari, Zandieh and Dorri, 2012).

However, it remains uncertain what influence does a part-time job status have on organisational career growth (van Osch and Schaveling, 2017). While few of the available discourse have garner supports for increase organisational career growth, others have opposed the possibility of part-time jobs increasing organisational career growth (see Gallie *et al.*, 2016). Accordingly, part-time workers are predominantly conceived as less dedicated and undeserving of career development (Meijis, Lammers and Ratiliff, 2015). In other words, the infrequent and ceasing visibility of part-time workers to the functionality and operations of an organisation indubitably increases the possibility of these set of workers missing out on significant organisational assignment and responsibilities which are all crucial for career progression (van de Meij, Schaveling and van Vugt, 2016). Practical evidence also supports these narratives. For instance, for the case of Nigeria, most part-time workers are not expected to evince advanced career growth, particularly since their terms of employment are predicated on the need to augment an existing workforce with less expectation on skills and career growth. Thus, the ascending growth of part-time employment has practically left people with limited on-the-job experience needed for the possible transition to a full-time employment, while the number of Nigeria's workforce with requisite skills and experience has continued to decline within the broad labour market (NBS, 2017). Considering this line of argument, it is perhaps conclusive that the features and arrangements of part-time employment possess twin implication for both the individual worker and the functioning of the labour market as it were.

In Nigeria, the motive of entering into a part-time job is not entirely based on the need to raise children. The chief reason is not far-fetched from the non-availability of full-time jobs. Similarly, authors have highlighted that part-time employment remains one of the easiest means to transpose to full-time employment (see Robatham, 2012; Akbari, Zandieh and Dorri, 2012). In contrast, the transition from part-time to full-time jobs seems not a rosy adventure. While evidence emerging from Nigeria reveals that part-time workers work for a long period of duration with little or no hope for transition to full-time employment<sup>17</sup>, a related study by Wolf (2014) shows that the German workers once in part-time employment for ten years going forward without transition to full-time employment, they perpetually remain in part-time employment with associated

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<sup>17</sup> In the context of Nigerian labour market, many employees on part-time employment work for as much as 6 years without the hope of transiting to full-time employment (see Animashaun, 2007)

challenges of low wage and financial difficulties. In fact, most employers of labour prefer part-timer in order to avert the social security implications that come with being a full-time worker, and the majority of the request for conversion is often not entertained by management (Campbell, Charlesworth and Malone, 2011).

No doubt, aside from its deleterious impact, part-time jobs also comes with extolling benefits to the organisation and individual worker. For instance, it is argued to increase the productivity gains of the organisation by a way of having to cut costs and other benefits that comes with being full-time employees, and also allows the individual the opportunity of having multiple streams of income by holding more than one jobs (Abhayaratna *et al.*, 2008). Part-time jobs especially for women has attracted more benefits than challenges. Women working on part-time are somewhat flexible and have the glut of time to attend to other issues outside the confines of work. In addition, many people, with the majority being women enter into part-time employment to balance the existing conflict between work and life, thereby having quality time for childbearing (Roeters and Craig, 2014). The significance of working on part-time by a parent with children has attracted several benefits including the opportunity for sustained career momentum and professional distinctiveness, the prospects to improve with relevant skills, and it could advance the economic security of working mothers (van Osch and Schaveling, 2017).

The task of childrearing undoubtedly comes with many travails especially in a country like Nigeria. In essence, women in this part of the world perceive childrearing as a norm that should be embraced. This belief, aside from the fact that there are sparse standard jobs, has allure more women to part-time jobs with the expectation to balance work, family and other personal demands. Interestingly, the ability of women in part-time jobs to balance work and family effectively depends on the level of protection supported by the country's labour legislation. Therefore, countries with weak labour laws protection may attract an ample number of women with work-life conflicts (Roeters and Craig, 2014). The ILO in 2000 in her 183<sup>rd</sup> Convention<sup>18</sup> on Maternity Protection Convention (C 183 revised) promulgated that a woman shall be entitled to 14 weeks of paid leave upon childbirth, including those in casual labour. In order to encourage healthier work-

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<sup>18</sup> The ILO Maternity Protection Convention of 2000 was a revised of the 1952 Maternity Protection Convention regarding matters relating to childbirth during the time of employment. It is expected to be ratify by all member countries including Nigeria.

life balance in Nigeria, the Lagos State and Enugu State government<sup>19</sup> in 2005 increased their maternity leave from 12 weeks to 24 weeks, and 2 and 3 weeks paternity leave for the husband's for their first two deliveries respectively.

Interestingly, one wonders if this novel development extends to workers outside the shore of standard employment as enshrined in ILO maternity protection convention and if the private sectors, where employment casualisation is having its strong feet have equally incorporated this feat to better advance the work-life balance of women in part-time jobs. Thus, having examined the different types of employment casualisation commonly practiced among MNC's, private and public organisations, there is a need to examine the challenges of these work arrangements or otherwise its consequences for the working population. A survey of these issues includes several workplaces dares such as unsafe work conditions, strenuous work description, job insecurity, denial of pension and other social benefits, and the most devastating being the proscription of the fundamental right of the human person to associate among forms the focus of the next section.

#### **2.4 Challenges of employment casualisation**

The last few decades (1998-2018), no doubt have ushered in rapid development world over affecting the operations and functionality of the global labour market (Martinez, De Cuyper and De Witte, 2010). Conversely, the world of work is now inundated by different work arrangements with debilitating challenges. Expectedly, jobs that fall outside the borders of standard and permanent employment relationship will no doubt be encumbered with various work challenges. In fact, these challenges vary with respect to the nature of industry the jobs are situated, and the manner in which the individual worker respond to these challenges as well differs by the type of jobs. Employment casualisation is conceived to allure many workplace challenges to the individual worker. Scholars in this area of research explain that the deleterious challenge of casualisation has recently diminished the meaning of work (see McGann, White and Moss, 2016; Standing, 2007). Aside from the role of financial reward to bring about increase workers commitment to the organisation, other non-financial incentives such as freedom and autonomy equally exude a formative role. However, a significant challenge to workers in casual employment is the absence of freedom and autonomy in the day-to-day execution of their work. McGann, White and Moss's

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<sup>19</sup> Lagos State and Enugu state are part of Nigeria's 36 State. Lagos State is the most economic viable state of the Country and presently the 6<sup>th</sup> largest economy city in the world (see chapter one)

(2016) study on labour casualisation and the psychological health of workers portrays that casual workers tend to suffer from abate freedom and autonomy in the enterprise with a profound effect on their psychological well-being and effective social relations.

Similarly, a healthy psychological state can emanate from employers practice of accepting and tolerating workers. For instance, the need to show workers how important they are to achieving organisational goals, cannot be distanced from the development of psychological healthy state of mind. McGann, Moss and White (2012) study investigated the impact of labour market casualisation on the health, freedom and wellbeing of rural workers. Their study through a qualitative approach sampled 72 respondents in regional Victoria of Australia. The findings revealed that the non-acceptance of casual workers by other permanent workers as members of the same team yielded many psychological problems for casual workers. In essence, permanent workers were reported dissociating and withholding any possible relationship with workers in casual work arrangement for fear of having their jobs casualised in the long run. In addition, the study shows that casual workers face all sort of workplace discrimination including harassment and bullying; a situation that excludes them from enjoying similar work rights and benefits.

To put in perspective, the work conditions of casual workers are fundamental contributors to disease, industrial accident, and many psychological problems. Again, the non-interest of the organisations in both the development and well-being of casual workers engenders several workplace problems. For example, Boswell *et al.*, (2012) study indicate that the perception of employment with casual status, predicts the expected behavioural disposition from employers and co-workers in permanent work alike. Further, the study reveals that the upshots of behavioural and attitudinal problems are not only visible on the psychological wellness of the individual worker; rather it could rouse unpleasant workplace problems capable of disrupting the entire milieu of work (Boswell *et al.*, 2012, p. 455). In another related finding, Ashford, George and Baltt (2008) affirm that the corollary of casual workers feeling of not been treated equally in the workplace can unearth undesirable character towards the organization, demystifying a threat to sustained organisational growth. In addition, there are ranges of social problems attributed to labour casualisation (see Standing, 2011). Kalleberg and Hewison (2013) highlighted that employment casualisation has disinterred many social problems, particularly among young people, wherein they are now avoiding the need to be positioned for marriage because of the meager pay attached

to casual labour. Expectedly, this scenario posits a potent indicator that could create an impetus for a high rate of ill behaviours among young people, who apparently are not comfortable with the conditions of their job.

Jawando and Adenugba (2014) examined the patterns of employment casualisation in the Nigerian food processing industry. The study sampled 40 respondents spread across outsourced, contract and disengaged workers. Findings from the study identified that the job composition of casual workers is strenuous, and requires investing more of both physical and mental energy than the permanent workers requires. Again, it was revealed that the consequence of excessive work stress has an unpleasant effect on workers physical and mental balance, thereby affecting their wellness conditions. This scenario explains the nature of challenges casual workers in the manufacturing industry are confronted with, where their job description is not fixed and depends on the need of the market. Similar position has earlier been demonstrated in McGann, White and Moss (2016) study. In particular, factory workers of this industry are classified as second-class employees with limited or non-existing protection (McGann, White and Moss, 2016). Again, despite the frail conditions of work, McGann, White and Moss (2016) argued that a momentous challenge of employment casualisation is confirmed on employees' lack of control on the scheduling of their work. Lack of control connotes that casual worker lacks the willpower to reject any work assigned to them by their employers'. In fact, the status of a 'casual worker' tends to incapacitate the employee from questioning the prerogatives of management, while the employer delegates any manner of jobs to the employees without objection.

Furthermore, analysing the challenges of employment casualisation, Benach *et al.*, (2002) investigate the emergence of occupational hazard in the new work environment. Findings from their study revealed that casual workers work in an unhealthy work position and not provided with safety measure gadgets in the event of industrial incident or injury. Many casual workers experience more injuries and are in most case not enlisted for compensation in the event of industrial hazards. This stance, in Nigeria for example, explains one of the many challenges casual workers, especially the low-skilled factory workers experience in some Chinese and Indonesian firms. Majority of them are not entitled to compensation in the event that they lost their limbs while carrying out their assigned job function on the employer's premises or out of the premises, in as much as they are in the cause of discharging their employer's duty. These challenges, among

others, are having a weighty effect on the individual casual worker. For Odu, the challenges of employment casualisation are explicitly explained from the below extract from a worker in one of the confectionaries company in Ilupeju, Lagos, Nigeria:

as casual workers, our conditions of work are poor and sometimes life-threatening. We are engaged to work for extra hours, including days set aside as national public holidays or risk the possibility of losing our jobs. There is no tolerance for any mistake from casual workers in the cause of executing their work. Any mistake would mean an outright termination of his/her job no matter the reason. Workers are engaged in washing their plates before they could serve a meal in the canteen. Taxes are deducted from our salary inappropriately. The higher the number of extra work we do, the higher the amount of tax to be deducted from our salary. This applies to both casual and outsourced staffers. Both the casual and outsource workers work the year round including Saturdays and Sundays without leave. We earn between N400 and N800 daily without benefits. From this small token, we are expected to pay for our safety boots, nose masks and customized T-Shirt's because the company does not provide any of these. Those in the management position of the organization are reaping from the hard labour of the casual workers. The concerns of welfare and healthy well-being of the casual workers do not bother them in anyway (Odu, 2011, pp. 20-22).

Drawing from the above excerpt, and borrowing from the words of McGann, White and Moss, (2016, p. 777), when they considered casual workers as second-class citizens, would be appropriate to describe the enormous challenges threatening the wellbeing of these sets of workers. According to Kuroki (2012, p. 561), the challenges of employment casualisation also extends to the high incidence of job insecurity. Insecurity in this fashion explicate that the job of casual workers is terminated at the slightest show of low production turnout in order for organisations to remain in business, and the permanent employees sometimes enjoy exemption from this unfair dismal by relishing some level of employment protection.

Chiwendu's (2016) study on contract staffing and job satisfaction in selected organisations in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria give an elaborate account of the individual employee need to opt for casual work. Although unemployment has previously been sighted as the main reason by several authors, Chinwendu (2016) adds that dissatisfaction with employees' current income could trigger the transition to casual work, and being the only breadwinner in the family is another important consideration. More reasons are the need to combine work with schooling, especially among low skilled workers and those working on part-time as a source of generating income to keep the soul and body together. Others include the acquisition of improved human capital skill

for a possible transition to permanent employment, and more importantly is the desire to change the *status quo* of being unemployed (Jawando and Adenugba, 2014). Fenwick (2008) posits that the employment conditions of casual workers have restricted many from progressing on their career path as well as issues of concomitant low pay, poor employment benefits, and staying long on casual status without the hope of transition. By implication, the above justifications fall short of verifiable reasoning, since reasons for choosing casual work in the first place could not be achieved with these employment features.

The need to restructure and redesign the existing workforce, especially to allow for a more critical decision making is solely the responsibility of organisations. This is predicated on the need for flexibility by engaging in more efficient organisational restructuring and change programmes. In Nigeria, many employers have tended to be inexorable in their quest to attract more casual workers, and less of employees with permanent status as an explanation of organisational restructuring. On the other side of the discourse, Ohiorenoya and Uwadie (2016) study on contract staffing and employee engagement in the Oil and Gas sector depicts that the autonomy for flexibility by many Nigerian organisations, has allure a more enslave workforce devoid of good working life in both the public and private organisations. This phenomenon laid credence to the moribund and ineptitude form of the Nigeria labour laws, which have grossly failed to provide the expected safety net for the working people. Regrettably, Danesi (2012) asserts that the Nigerian employment laws has only given a general definition of work, while it excludes the definition of other components of employment including casual work. In her view, this exclusion has resulted in the increased spate of exploitation and maltreatment confronting of the working people (Danesi, 2012).

Equally, the consequences of casualisation can be discussed on many fronts. On the one hand, Yan *et al.*, (2013) study argued that casualisation empowers workers to become lax on their jobs, thereby exposing the organisation to the risk of transaction costs. The daunting mindsets of casual workers, whose welfare are not the concerns of the organisation ordinarily worsened the attachment and commitment of workers to the organisation. On the other hand, the practice of casualisation has led to increased neglect of worker's welfare by organisations in recent times, frequent job loss, reduced performance and increased job exit (Kahouei *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, casualisation empowers the organization with the freedom of how to manage the affairs of casual workers. The bottom line of this argument is that such freedom can convey negative or positive

consequences for the organisation and the working population; in particular, the negative outcomes have been more discernable on the working class (Liar, 2012). Expectedly, women are more prone to these effect with a cumulative level of poverty (Bodipe, 2006). For example, women are expected to coalesce work and non-work activities while controlling for the minimal occurrence of work-life conflicts. Conversely, the cluttered nature of casual work has attracted more work-life conflict for women, and women are more niche to be disadvantaged than men. In other words, most women wrestle with the challenges of casualisation for survival out of poverty (Bodipe, 2006).

Relying on the need to augment the workforce by employers with casual workers are issues around poor quality of the job, denial of training opportunities and participating in issues affecting employees' welfare (industrial democracy), job insecurity and stalled career growth (Corrales-Herrero and Rodriguez-Prado, 2016). For illustration, Garnero, Kampelmann and Rycx (2013) study examined part-time work, wages and productivity in Belgium. Their study confirmed that employers of labour, are not interested in investing in the human capital development of casual workers since there is a nuance between the employment status of casual and permanent workers with the former having irregular terms. This assertion, although decipher a similar employment trend in Nigeria; nonetheless, the unwillingness of employers to invest in the training of casual workers exudes a violation of the Nigerian Trade Union Act<sup>20</sup> where only one definition of a 'worker' exists without further classification. In other words, by law, organisations should unanimously apply the same employment benefits to both the casual and permanent workers alike. From the foregoing, a comprehensive understanding of the challenges of employment casualisation is explained in Bohle (2012) paradigm of casualisation and its impact on employee (See Table 2.2).

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<sup>20</sup> Section 54 of the Nigerian Trade Union Act 2005 as amended defined a "worker" as any employee, that is to say any member of the public service of the Federation or a State or any individual (other than a member of any such public service) who has entered into or works under an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and whether it is a contract personally to execute any work or labour or a contract of apprenticeship. The crux of this definition, by implication is that the status of a worker can either be formalised whether through standard employment terms, that is in writing or implied such as jobs outside standard employment terms including labour casualisation. Hence, the definition of a worker as contained in this labour legislation does not marshal worker in terms of their employment status and there is no clear cut distinction between standard employee and non-standard work employee.

**Table 2.2: Matrix of the impact of employment casualisation on employees**

<b>Financial and reward pressure</b>	<b>Disorganization</b>	<b>Regulatory failure</b>
Poor financial compensation	Fragmented work description i.e. no fixed work time and place	Non-existence of health and safety regulatory system
Inability to cope with other financial pressures	Poor workplace communication resulting from the disparity between standard and casual employees	Non-existence of social security and pension scheme
Inconsistent income associated with financial problems	Decrease work attachment	Poor or non-existence of compensation for industrial accidents
Promotion of unhealthy and unsafe work behaviours resulting from meagre pay	The short tenure of work and limited expertise	Poor knowledge of legal rights
Irregular work schedule	Poor work output arising from unorganised task	Non-compliance with employee's well-being
Impracticable financial freedom	Procedural failures in work execution	The non-existence of human capital training scheme

**Source:** Adapted from Bohle, 2012 p.6.

## 2.5 Trade union relevance and the plague of employment casualisation

The challenges of employment casualisation cannot be explicitly examined without a cursory analysis of how it has stalled the smooth operations of the trade union movement. To be sure, the trade union movement has suffered several invidious challenges, whether in terms of organizing or in respect to maintaining a strong influence against the growing surge of employment casualisation. In fact, the trade union in recent times has been described as a weak institution dwindling in relevance, and lacking the right strength for ensuring improved working life for the working people. Expectedly, there have been many disappointing roles of trade unions in the struggle for sustenance and relevance as their sway is now more hampered with political, economic and social constraints (Solaja, 2015).

The acceptance of economy liberalization by many African countries has stimulated increase influx of workers into the mainstream of non-standard employment, with many aberrant work arrangements possessing stiffer consequences for trade union relevance (Finlayson and Palmvang, 2016). Still, the fact that workers of the non-standard employment category do not unionised posits great threat to trade union finance and membership growth. Unarguably, one of the bases for ensuring continuous growth and relevance of trade union is unhindered remittance of check-dues by all acknowledged members. However, the trade union in its pursuit to remain relevance has been conditioned to a parlous stance by way of proscribing casual workers who form an outsized number of the working population inclusive of those concentrated in the informal sector for

partaking in union activities, hence reducing its financial strength (Barchiesi, 2010). Admittedly, a major challenge for trade union can be avowed from sparse financial strength needed for continued survival.

Similarly, membership growth signifies a vital component of a growing trade union movement. It affords the trade union the privilege to respond swiftly to any unpleasant employment conditions plaguing the working people. Unfortunately, a major challenge facing the trade union is the difficulty in organising casual workers into the trade union association. In Kolawole (2013, p. 31) Ph.D. study on labour reforms and their impact on employment security in Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) in Nigeria, three hundred and four (304) respondents were selected from the organisation consisting junior, senior and managerial level position workers. The study reveals that difficulties abound in organising casual workers into union structures, and such constraints possess great poser for trade union membership growth. In essence, the eroding of trade union members with all sorts of work arrangement by replacing permanent work with temporary work, and the proscription of casual workers from been represented in trade union conveys a major problem for continued trade union relevance (Adenugba, 2009).

The trade unions represent the mouthpiece of the working class, working towards changing the *status quo* through bargaining collectively with employers on issues affecting employment relationship. However, the conditions of work have been dampening to a lethal state owing to declining trade union strength, accompanied by the widespread adoption of employment casualisation practices (Adefolaju, 2012). Given this fact, Campell in his study reveals that although, the strength of trade union is somewhat evident among the permanent workers, yet the incessant growth of employment casualisation has endangered the bargaining power and strength of the trade union. Further, the study shows that the spread of employment casualisation has placed hamstring on the rights of trade union previously won, and has consequently clouded trade union sway in the broad society (Campbell, 2004). For instance, it is not uncommon to see employers of labour disagreeing to fulfill procedural agreement previously negotiated between parties. Obviously, the bargaining forte of the trade union is now ebbing in this era where casualisation has become a norm rather than an exception in most Nigerian organisation. In fact, a considerable number of workers in employment casualisation are deterred from either participating in collective

bargaining agreements or been represented in collective bargaining, a conundrum that further escalates the trade union movement puzzles.

In a recent study on the struggle to empower trade union members in Zambia, Finlayson and Palmyang (2016) convey that the consequences of non-standard work on the trade union movement are becoming daunting and intolerable. The study reveals that trade unions are now lobbying employers, in particular, employers of the private sector, for donations and assistance towards training and education of their members, and for other formative commitment of the union as a result of membership lost. Similarly, in Nigeria, it is equally not unusual to see trade union leaders lobbying for employers' aid in the areas of organizing education and training programmes for the improvement of human capital skills, since the majority of the working people are concentrated in non-standard work arrangement, and are not contributing to trade union finance in the form of check-off dues.

Interestingly, trade unions recently are ostensibly becoming employers' *tooth dog*, thus confined to employers' clemency while ebbing in relevance. In fact, employers prefer to have almost all the members of their workforce as casuals in order to discourage unionisation efforts (see Fapohunda, 2012; Animashaun, 2007). Collective responsibility is one of the cardinal points of achieving trade union aims. Achieving these feats seems hindered by the widespread adoption of employment casualisation. Sela (2001) claims that employment casualisation has brought about a marshaling of the workforce into two distinct work categories, the standard with corresponding employment benefits, and the non-standard with invidious employment benefits. According to her, the classification of the workforce into two distinct groups, with the largest occupying the non-standard work category thus makes organising for common solidarity a difficult adventure for the trade union movement (Sela, 2001).

In parentheses, trade union movements have had a very robust influence, in the pursuit of independence in many African countries. Specifically, their impact was fervently recognised during and after independence in many African countries (Adebisi, 2011). Specifically, Nigerian trade unions played a very formative role during the many years of military dictatorship, characterized with fettered trade union activities and high displays of human right violations (Solaja, 2015). By implication, although, the Nigerian trade union movement traverses many anti-union periods of the military era, specifically the dictatorship rule of General Gbadamosi Ibrahim

Babaginda (Rtd), and the Late General Sanni Abacha<sup>21</sup>, yet their relevance for improving the conditions of workers were still immutable during these periods and were equally positioned for the wrestle for democracy. Thereafter, the increase in employment casualisation in many Nigerian organisations became more virulent to trade union strength. For instance, workers in most Nigerian organisations were retrenched and re-employed as casuals during and after the failure of the IMF-World Bank economy policies, while others were denounced of their trade union membership (Fapohunda, 2012). Thus, employment casualisation has remained a fundamental bane challenging the continued growth of trade unions in Nigeria.

More importantly, another challenge of employment casualisation grappling with trade union relevance is the practice of *the yellow dog contract*<sup>22</sup>. Jawando (2009) in his study on trade unions and the challenges of employment casualisation in Nigeria, argues that most MNCs including the Oil and Gas, Banking and Manufacturing sectors alike are known for the practice of *yellow dog* contracts, geared towards prohibiting the possible unionisation of casual workers. Casual workers at the point of entry are lured compulsorily, to sign this contract indicating their non-interest in trade union activities. (Jawando, 2009, p. 160). Albeit, the Trade Union Act 2005<sup>23</sup> as amended in itself conveys a shortcoming for trade unions by way of making membership involuntary, notwithstanding this, the need to sign a *yellow dog* contract explains employer's violations of the conditions contain in the original Act<sup>24</sup>. Positioned together, this practice has been described by Adefolaju (2012) as an aberrant act capable of obliterating the power of the trade union. The next

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<sup>21</sup> Both General Ibrahim Gbadamosi Babaginda (Rtd) and Late General Sanni Abacha were Nigeria's former military Heads of State. The former ruled between 27 August 1985 and 27 August 1993 after having annulled the most acclaimed corrupt-free general elections in Nigeria. The latter, the Late General Sanni Abacha came into power on 17 November 1993 and died as a sitting Head of State on 8 June 1998. The government of Late General Sanni Abacha chronicled high disregard for the rule of law and unlawful detention of Nigerians, including trade union leaders who were perceived as anti-government by his administration. Notable trade union leaders such as Frank Kokori, Wariebi Agamene and F.A Addo, amongst others, were jailed unlawfully without trial during his administration.

<sup>22</sup> A *yellow dog contract* is an agreement jointly signed by the employee and the employer, though usually imposed by the employer as an avowed oath not to partake in union activities. This contract always comes as a condition of employment.

<sup>23</sup> Notwithstanding anything to the contrary of this Act, membership of a trade union by employees shall be voluntary and no employee shall be forced to join any trade union or be victimized for refusing to join or remain a member. This provision as amended has become a new subsection (4) of section 12 of the Trade Union Act of 2005

<sup>24</sup> Section 12 (1) of the Trade Union Act of 1973 states that "any person who is eligible for membership of a particular trade union shall not be refused admission to membership of that union by reason only that he is of a particular community, tribe, place of origin, religion or political opinion. Interestingly, the Act states that any person eligible shall not be refused admission, hence the caption of casual workers falls within this description.

section explores the nexus between the Nigerian labour market and the growth of employment casualisation.

## **2.6 Achieving decent work for all: the role of the ILO**

Work is a fundamental necessity needed for viable and sustained economic growth of any nation (Di Ruggiero *et al.*, 2015). It signifies a path to the fulfillment of human aspirations and needs, especially those that have to do with financial obligations such as personal and family remit. Consequently, it is no doubt that not all work has the potential to sustain the individual worker's needs, for instance, work classified under casual employment. In fact, rather than fulfilling human needs, work outside the decent work arrangements has the propensity of increasing the individual worker's ordeals. In contrast, safe, secure and meaningful work engenders increased psychological and financial well-being. Thus, the thrust of ensuring that the individual worker derives maximum meaning and well-being from work globally birthed the establishment of the ILO in 1919 by the United Nations.

The ILO is tasked with ensuring that workers in countries ratified to ILO conventions enjoy freedom, equity, security and well-being in the workplace through the enactment of various policies and programmes (Romeyn, 2007). In addition, the responsibility of the apex labour body includes the appropriate regulation of work hours, ensuring workers are shielded from sickness and injury arising both within or out of the employer's work premises as far as the employee is in the case of executing the employee's assigned work, and recognition of the right to form and belong to any trade union association with the motive of protecting the interest of workers through conventions and recommendation reports. However, in order to ensure that the individual worker attains the best form of well-being in the workplace, the ILO incorporate the need to protect the *human rights* of workers through the *Declaration of Philadelphia* 26th Conference held in 1944. As an extension, the *Declaration of Philadelphia* conference reports was incorporated into the ILO constitution with the mandate of ensuring "freedom of association and expression, and that all persons have the right, irrespective of gender, race, ethnicity, and sex to pursue material well-being and equal opportunity in the workplace"<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> See the conference on the Declaration of Philadelphia 26<sup>th</sup> conference of the ILO, held on 10<sup>TH</sup> May, 1944

Broadly, the need to ensure the promotion of equality and freedom in the workplace is now complemented with ensuring that work itself is sustaining and decent. Decent work encapsulates the basic features of equal rights; freedom of association; equal pay for work of equal value; security of work; opportunity for growth and personal development; and respect for human dignity (ILO, 2009). Work within the purview of non-standard employment such as casualisation will no doubt encompass *indecent work*<sup>26</sup> features. By implication, decent work allows for individual self-fulfillment, attainment of improved health and well-being, entitlement to pay commensurate with equal efforts, the promotion of workplace democracy, and gender equality among the working people. In essence, decent work extends beyond work that is individual-sustained, rather it entails work that is productive, and allows the individual worker provision of family and social needs (Okafor, 2012b).

The changes in the global labour market accompanied by flexibility have hindered the prospects of attaining decent work. Moreover, rather than the attainment of decent work, the corollary has been an offshoot of *indecent work*, with perturbing conditions across the globe. With this development, the ILO has been at the forefront of ensuring the realization of decent work in all member countries who have ratified its conventions. In 1999, when Juan Somavia, the 9<sup>th</sup> and immediate past president of the ILO first used the term “decent work”, it was aimed at ensuring the world of work is more attractive while promoting high international labour standards. This declaration is supported by *four strategic objectives* as a road map for the realisation of decent work across the globe, including developed and developing countries (Okafor, 2012b) and in particular, countries ratifying of ILO conventions. The practical details of these objectives are explained below while drawing highlights through the lens of Nigeria’s employment relations.

### **2.6.1 Job creation objective**

This objective relates to the creation of jobs for all and sundry. Specifically, it explains jobs that are meaningful and humanly dignified. The job creation objective also prefigures the establishment of an enabling environment, where entrepreneurs can compete and strive effectively. Barrientos (2007) comments that the strategic objective of job creation as a pathway to achieving decent work, as promulgated by the ILO is chronicled with a varied number of challenges. For instance, the

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<sup>26</sup> Work lacking basic features of decent work such as engaging in productive work, having social protection coverage, access to social dialogue and employers’ recognition of workers’ rights at work

author asserts that many of the available jobs are products of the global production system, with concomitant precarious features. A major bane, however, is that for work to be decent, it must possess such features as being regular, sustaining and capable of generating continuous wages (Okafor, 2012b). Regrettably, the swathe on which Nigeria's economy is presently positioned is unable to generate sustainable jobs for unemployed job-seekers (p. 102).

Conversely, the inability to secure jobs by those willing to work lures them to accepting precarious jobs, which are being promoted by profit-driven employers of labour. Job-seekers are desperately pushed by the need for survival to opt for any type of job. Abideen and Osuji (2011) state that it is the desperate tendency of job-seekers, that has thus increased the motive of employers in exploiting and dehumanizing workers in casual work arrangements, while demeaning the working class. In reality, the government on its own cannot create jobs for seemingly unemployed persons. Still, there must be concrete efforts tailored towards creating an enabling environment for entrepreneurs to strive, failure of which has the potential of increasing precarious jobs and increasing incidents of the unemployed persons (Okafor, 2012b) who apparently have been at the clemency of exploitative employers. Hence, the strategic objective of job creation as a yardstick to attaining decent work will long remain scintillating promulgation without hope for fruition.

### ***2.6.2 Social protection objective***

The social protection objective revolves around employers' responsibility of providing a safe and secured workplace for all, unfettered rest time for workers and the provision of adequate compensation in the event of injury either on or outside of the employer's premises, the facts being that it occurs within the stipulated working time. Again, Barrientos (2007) claims that the social protection crusade to achieving decent work for all as envisaged by the ILO, seems not practicable amongst workers in the casual employment relationship. To be sure, casual employees are not covered by most of Nigeria's social protection schemes. Although Nigeria's Employee Compensation Act of 2010 (ECA)<sup>27</sup> aptly captures casual workers in its definition of employee, the conditions stipulated in the Act does not still extend to them. A cursory analysis of this trend

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<sup>27</sup> The ECA 2010 is one of Nigeria's social protection schemes. It is intended for the compensation of employees in the case of illness, injury, death and other occupational accidents in the workplace. Section 73 of the ECA defines an employee as a person employed by an employer under an oral or written contract of employment, whether on a continuous, part-time, temporary, apprenticeship or casual basis and includes a domestic servant who is not a member of the family of the employer, including any person employed in the Federal, State and Local Government, and any of the government agencies and in the formal and informal sectors of the economy.

within the Nigerian employment atmosphere, deciphers the denial of any forms of social protection to these sets of workers including protection in terms of pension and other benefits, either from employers or the State as the case may be (Okafor, 2012b). By implication, employees under casual work arrangements, are exposed to all forms of workplace accidents and injury without commensurate compensation. Therefore, if social protection serves as one of the strands to attaining decent work, then the non-inclusion of employees in the casual employment phase by both employers and the State in their social protection scheme poses a major constraint to the realisation of this objective.

### ***2.6.3 Social dialogue objective***

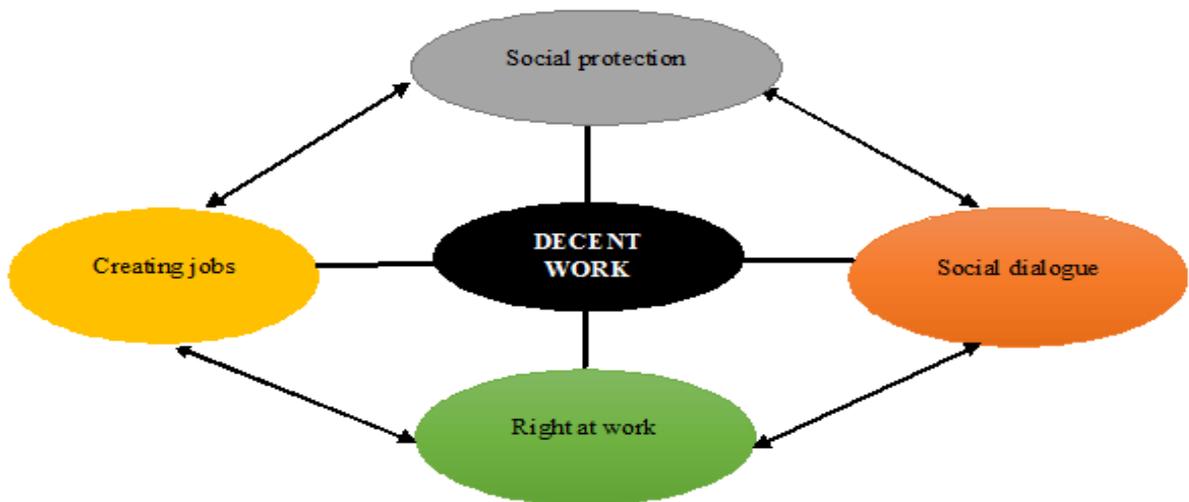
In line with achieving decent work, this objective was construed for the promotion of a collaborative employment relationship between the employer's association and the trade union association respectively. No doubt, organisational growth becomes more discernable when workers' associations on the one hand and employers' association on the other hand coalesce for the common interests of the organisation. However, the possibility of achieving this feat depends on the lens through which this relationship is viewed. For illustration, Barrientos (2007) argued that the lack of effective and equal representation of independent worker association demonstrates a threat to attaining the objective of social dialogue. In contemporary Nigerian employment relations, employees under casual employment terms are proscribed from unionising, hence lacking the willpower to engage with employers on issues affecting their employment conditions (Okafor, 2012b). This situation invariably promotes both increased exploitation and inhumane work conditions as a result of employees' lack of a collective voice to enter into dialogue with the owners of production. Under this circumstance, therefore, where employers circumvent employment conditions by avoiding dialogue with casual workers, the wrestle to achieving decent work remains an adventure of futility.

### ***2.6.4 Rights at work objective***

The right at work specifically stipulates workers' right for recognition and respect in the workplace. It also extends to the right for representation and participation, irrespective of employment types (Okafor, 2012b). Casual employment workers are alienated from their fundamental rights of representation and participation. The right of representation and participation could afford casual workers the privilege to negotiate and bargain collectively with

the employer. In Nigeria, there is high deprivation of several rights of casual workers, including the right to form or join trade union associations (Okafor, 2012b). Drawing from this, the denial of casual employees to form or belong to a trade union association could convey the denial of several other rights. As expected, the terms of employment conditions, that should be bipartite between the employee and employer have now been the sole remit of the employer. The refusal of the right to organise and unionise also affects casual workers’ potency to bargain collectively with employers on crucial issues of employment conditions, such as pay, health and safety concerns (Okafor, 2012a). In other words, any employment that denies workers their fundamental human rights, as stipulated in the Federal Constitution of Nigeria<sup>28</sup> to form and belong to trade associations is distanced from decent work as advocated by the ILO. The four strategic objectives of decent work are illustrated in Figure 2.1:

**Figure 2.1: Paradigms of the Strategic Objectives of Decent Work**



**Source:** Author’s compilation

<sup>28</sup> See section 40 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended in 2011 which avowed that every person shall be entitled to assemble freely and associate with other persons, and in particular, he may form or belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of his interests.

## **2.7 Employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies**

No doubt, there are pockets of studies on trade union survival strategies. Yet, there is a dearth of literature investigating the nexus between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. Again, amongst the cohort of available studies on trade union survival strategies, hardly any of these studies combine and investigate the survival strategies adopted for this study. For instance, Betchoo (2013) investigates trade union survival strategies in the new employment relations climate of Mauritius. Tingo (2002) explores trade union survival strategies under globalisation amongst the National Union of Metal Workers in South Africa, while Cervino's (2000) study investigates trade union survival strategies towards atypical workers. However, a major distinction between Cervino's (2000) study and the current study is the examination of three distinct strategies<sup>29</sup> including total inclusion strategy, partial inclusion strategy, and exclusion strategy. Therefore, a clear examination of Cervino's strategy exudes a more traditional reaction of trade union to atypical work, portraying a weak commitment to the defense of these categories of workers.

Understandably, the advancement of economic globalization, aptly means that employment casualisation has become a deep-rooted seated phenomenon that can hardly be expunged as much as the world continues undergoing increased global changes. Consequently, however, trade union movements have come to terms with this development, and have been strategizing on the need to represent the interest of workers in non-standard employment, having realized the huge disquieting influence employment casualisation has on the growth and relevance of the trade union. Furthermore, with the understanding that the strategies identified by Cervino (2000) portends some spongy approaches to employment casualisation, the present study argues that, for the trade union movement to represent and revitalize the stalled interest of casual workers by increasing their sense of pride, a call for militant and vociferous strategies for adoption becomes sacrosanct. Therefore, this study considers the collective bargaining process, industrial strikes, trade union leadership activities and trade union education and (re) training programmes as more viable strategies required to lessen the high incidence of employment casualisation within the Nigerian labour

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<sup>29</sup> For a total inclusion strategy, the trade unions would apply the same intensity to the protection of atypical workers (casual workers) and non-atypical workers (permanent and standard workers). Partial inclusion strategy explains that the protection of atypical workers would mean a secondary function for trade unions; hence, the main priority of trade unions would be centered on the protection of its own members. For an exclusion strategy, the protection of atypical workers would not have a place in the policies of trade unions.

market, and the beverage sector in particular. These strategies are carefully selected and reviewed, considering the complex and flexible nature of the Nigerian labour market where vociferous strategies are required to change the existing *status quo* for a more humane and improved work life in general.

### ***2.7.1 Trade union collective bargaining strategy***

The world over, the origin and practice of collective bargaining is traced to the private sector organisations (Dumont, 2011; Anyim, Elegbede and Gbajumo-Sheriff, 2011). However, the contrary is evident in Nigeria, as the practice of collective bargaining only commenced with the public sector for reasons not unconnected to the non-presence of private sector organisations in the wake of the industrial revolution in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century (Fashoyin, 1992) and in particular, the inauguration of the provincial wage committee in 1937 witnessed the first proof of joint representation in the country. Specifically, the wage committee was composed of government representatives inaugurated to review wages amongst daily-paid employees of the public sector. Furthermore, a need arose for the inclusion of worker's representatives in the wage review committee, owing to the spontaneous dissatisfaction of workers with the award given by the committee of government officials. This account, for academic purposes, chronicled the commencement of collective bargaining in Nigeria (Fashoyin, 1992).

Similarly, the general strike of 1945 accompanied by the refusal of government in granting higher compensation as demanded by workers (Oyemakinde, 1975), partly explains the disappointing role of the provincial committee in abating the increased dissatisfaction of workers. In a bid to address this, the Whitley Council System was transferred to Nigeria in 1948 from Britain. As expected, the Whitley Council failed on many grounds<sup>30</sup>. Firstly, the system was conceived as a consultative body rather than serving the purpose of collective bargaining. Secondly, it was attached with a plethora of problems, including the challenge of representation and lack of government supports as well. Again, in 1974, the Udoji Commission was established because of the myriad challenges that have characterized the Whitley Council System, while other wage review committees were set-up between 1948 and 1974. With this, the Udoji Commission became more popular amongst other wage commissions, owing to the relevance of its recommendations. For the private sector,

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<sup>30</sup> The tradition of establishing wage commissions to review and recommend wages would invariably mean no meaningful bargain has been struck and is a clear indication of the absence of collective bargaining in the public sector (See Uvieghara, 2001)

collective bargaining became evident following the first establishment of negotiating machinery by the United African Company (UAC) in 1955. The practice of collective bargaining as at today has increase in momentum and coverage in many Nigerian private organisations (Anyim, 2014).

There is no ideal definition of collective bargaining, as there are varied connotations and understandings of the concept. Equally, within the context of Nigerian employment relations, there seems no statutory definition of collective bargaining. Hence, the right of workers' representatives to bargain collectively with their employers is a reflection of the right to freedom of association, as contained in the 87<sup>th</sup> <sup>31</sup> convention of the ILO (Anyim, 2014). Collective bargaining, therefore, explains the process of negotiating the conditions and terms of employment between an employer, a group of employers or employers' organisation on the one hand', and one or more employee representatives on the other hand with a view of reaching agreement on specific terms (ILO, 1960, p.3). The phrase 'reaching an agreement' as contained in the above definition, invariably makes negotiation equivalent to bargaining. In other words, no bargaining could have been said to occur if negotiation is not concluded with an agreement (Fajana, 2006). For Leibowitz (2004), collective bargaining entails a process wherein the trade union representatives and the employer's representative jointly determine the terms and conditions of employment as applicable to the workplace. In essence, the collective bargaining process entails joint negotiation on issues of interest to parties in an employment relationship. These issues include, but are not limited to equitable wages, hours of work, job specification, healthy and safe conditions of work, work that guarantees a sustainable livelihood, recognition of trade unions, and avoidance of unfair labour practices.

Furthermore, collective agreement connotes the acceptance of any collective bargaining. Issues collectively bargained on becomes a binding rule on parties in an employment relationship, and equally guides in the discharge of individual party obligations in the workplace. Aturu (2005) argues that collective bargaining explains the process of joint discussion or consultation with a view to arriving at a collective agreement for the regulation of employment terms and conditions. Aside from the function of negotiating on issues related to wage and conditions of employment, Bemardin (2003) highlighted that collective bargaining entails the ability of parties in an employment relationship to discuss issues related to the resolution of conflict, which unavoidably

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<sup>31</sup> See 1948 Convention 87 of the ILO on the freedom of association and protection of the right to organize

ensues in an employment relationship. Thus, the promotion of industrial peace and workplace democracy emanates from effective collective bargaining process. Again, collective bargaining remains one of the vibrant labour instruments, which the labour movement utilize to achieve a viable response to the agitations and yearnings of the working class. Given this, several of the bargaining outcomes in Nigeria, were related to the wellbeing of workers in general. Hitherto, they exists few writings on how collective bargaining has been helpful in improving the lives of non-standard workers specifically (Okene, 2010).

An examination of section 40 of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 as amended, and section 1 of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended both gave an account of the inclusion of all Nigerian workers, whether temporary or permanent, the right to bargain collectively with their employers on issues of employment conditions. However, in the context of Nigeria's employment relations, it is an undeniable fact that most organisations are repudiating casual workers' right to collective bargaining. To be sure, the study of Ibekwe (2016) on the legal implications of employment casualisation in Nigeria, amongst other constraints, shows that most organisations in Nigeria are negating casual workers' right to collective bargaining, even as this is enshrined both in the country's constitution and labour legislation respectively. Notwithstanding this, the study highlighted that the trade union movement of the Nigerian Oil and Gas sector through a series of negotiations with management, has successfully achieved the legal ground for casual workers to bargain collectively with management (Ibekwe, 2016).

Similarly, collective bargaining has been applied to counter the rising growth of employment casualisation in a few Nigerian organisations. For example, findings from the study of Odu (2011) reported that in 2002, the result of the many negotiations between trade union and selected Nigerian organisations led to a somewhat reduction of casual workers in these organisations. For instance, Paterson Zochonis (PZ) Industries converted 247 of its 495 casual workers to permanent; Wempco Group of Companies (WGC) converted 654 of its 1,004 casual jobs to permanent, while Sona Breweries regularized 136 of its 227 casual workers (Odu, 2011). Yet, the findings of Odu (2011) cannot be generalised to mean that collective bargaining has been effective in the rising scourge of employment casualisation, as it only represents an insignificant proportion of Nigerian organisations where casualisation is taking its toll.

In a report paper on organising in the Zimbabwean hospitality sector, Rusike and Chitambara (2012) confirmed that the scope of bargaining at the National Economic Council (NEC) covers all workers inclusive of casual workers. Hence, the collective agreement is expressly binding on all workers without segregation. This development depicts a different scenario in Nigeria, where collective bargaining for example, takes place mostly at the company and industry level, and workers outside the purview of standard employment are often exempted from the outcome of collective agreements. For Lee (2009), the many years of employment casualisation in the Zambian mining industry ended with intense and consistent negotiations, between the trade union movement and Chinese management. Findings from his study revealed that, although, this developmental milestone conveys several invidious challenges for casual workers, and the trade union respectively, yet the strength of negotiations involved in by both parties signals a respite from the many years of dreadful casualisation in the Zambian mine industry (Lee, 2009). Similarly Milner and Mathers' (2013) study investigated membership, influence, and voice of trade union renewal in France. Accordingly, the study conveys that bargaining strength and tactics of the trade union, had a significant influence on management in the struggle for ensuring better and sustainable working conditions for casual employees. The study further reveals that the potent force of trade union bargaining, saw a large number of postal workers in France being converted from casual to permanent employment; wherein the working conditions applicable to permanent employees were subsequently applicable to them.

In contrast to the above, McDonald, Bradley and Brown's (2009) study show that even with the efficacy of collective bargaining, Australian public sector casual workers still encounter unpalatable work conditions, including unhealthy workplaces, excessive workloads and a lack of opportunities for promotion. However, a more recent study depicts contrary findings. For instance, Schurman and Eaton's (2012) comparative study of German and Austrian trade unions, highlight that the trade union movement of both countries was successful in the defense for organizing casual workers through collective bargaining strategy, and the unions were subsequently successful in ensuring that collective agreement terms and conditions apply to both the permanent and causal workers respectively (Schurman and Eaton, 2012). In reality, the above success stories cannot be generalized. Perhaps, this achievement might be unconnected to an existing favourable political climate in these countries, which to an extent guarantees unhindered trade union activities, unlike in the case of Nigeria where trade union activities are hindered by various government policies.

Smit and Fourie's (2010) study examine perspectives on extending protection to atypical workers. One significant revelation from this study, explains that for the effective protection of workers outside standard employment, the trade union movement must intensify efforts through its collective bargaining machinery to address the needs of casual workers. Further, achieving this feat, trade unions must equally extend collective agreements to workers outside the confines of non-standard work arrangements, while bargaining on issues of representation and fair labour practices. A clear case in support of the above is the case of the National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG) in Nigeria, where industry-wide bargaining agreements were pushed to cover casual workers interest. While the remit of ensuring safe and improved work conditions for workers in casual employment does not foreclose the role of government, the government must ensure the creation of a playing ground where trade union struggle would seem unhindered (Smit and Fourie, 2010).

The Collective bargaining process for Kornelakis and Voskeritsian (2016), serves as one of the key trade union strategies to curtail the rise of casual employment. Their study highlights that the cankerworm of employment casualisation is becoming intolerable across industries around the globe. Therefore, for effectiveness in trade union bargaining strategy, there is a need for the trade union movement to form coalitions with policy-makers saddled with implementing labour policies such as legislators, labour institutes and the industrial court where redress can be sought for these sets of workers. As a note of caution, Kornelakis and Voskeritsian (2016) conducted their study in Europe, where most of the machinery implementing labour market policies are efficient. Expectedly, the call for collaboration between trade unions and labour policy-makers such as in the case of Nigeria might seem skeptical as the institutions regulating policies guiding the affairs of labour market are flooded with too many inconsistencies in their operations (Adewumi and Adenugba. 2010).

### ***2.7.2 Trade Union reactionary strategy of industrial strikes***

Industrial strikes entail the interruption of the existing employment relationship, owing to the inability of parties to fulfill their respective obligations within the conditions of the relationship. The utility of industrial strikes becomes desirable when other existing means of resolving industrial disputes no longer yields results. Broadly, it is the momentary stoppage of work for the need to achieve trade union demands (Hyman, 1972). In this contemporary employment relationship,

workers often embark on strike action to display their grievance in terms of work conditions, including a perceived authoritarian style of management, inhumane work conditions, unfair promotion system, poor wage system (Otobo, 2005), rising costs of living that do not dovetail with workers' income, and a deliberate refusal to recognize trade unions in an enterprise (Purcell, 1981).

For Anyim (2014, p. 176), strike action can be unearthed in varied circumstances and there are certain instances when each of the party may desire a strike. On the one hand, an employer might desire strike action to hamstring the activities of a union by avoiding the necessity of collective bargaining, while trade unions often initiate strikes in order to advance and better the working conditions of members on the other hand (Anyim, 2014). However, the frequency of strike action is keener amongst the labour movement. Industrial strike is a collective action tailored towards resisting the existing *status quo* for improvement in work conditions. For positive outcomes, the entire process must be seamless. Strike action usually evokes from collective feelings of dissatisfaction, a resolute activity and considered strategy initiated for the overall improvement of workers, rather than a personal feeling of specific grievance (Hyman, 1975).

The outcome of industrial strikes ensues with perturbing consequences for tripartite parties (workers, employers and the State) in an employment relationship. However, Trevithick and Mulvey (n.d) posit that the consequences, of strike are more daunting on the management. Hence, they bear more of the dire consequences, especially when the organisation is thriving, while workers, on the other hand, are hurt in terms of potential wage loss. In a lecture delivered on *strikes and lockout: a social-psychological analysis of their causes and effect* in 1982, Otobo identified three consequences of strike action, including socio-psychological, political and economic consequences. Importantly, for the economic consequences, the author comments that the deleterious consequences of general strikes that affects crucial sectors of the economy, such as the seaports and airports, cannot be quantified (Otobo, 1982). For example, the general strike action in Nigeria embarked upon by both the NLC and TUC in January 2012<sup>32</sup> because of the removal of the oil subsidy, possesses a more negative outcome for the economy at large. Nevertheless, the effect of this action would have been more lethal on the working population had it not been

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<sup>32</sup>The initial protest because of the removal of the oil subsidy by former president Goodluck Jonathan's administration formally burst into a nationwide strike led by the two central labour organisations. The strike action lasted from 9th-15th January 2012. The impact of the strike was fervent on the Nigerian economy as major seaport and airline operations were closed down

contested through strike action by the trade union movements. Thus, strike action is considered the last weapon at the disposal of the working class, to revert and change previously unpalatable working conditions to a more promising work life (Adewumi, 2013).

Industrial strikes, after all, other avenues have been utilized without further improvement, become the way of trade unions and are thus perceived as the most potent form of resisting any work degradation. Notwithstanding, the trade union strike strategy in Nigeria witnessed a low profile during the SAP of the 1980s, as a result of the debilitating economic situations of that period. Following this period, the striking profile has increased as a means of achieving trade union demands (Okafor, 2007; see Table 2.3). For example, in 2011 the NLC picketed the firing of 3,000 casual workers by Airtel Nigeria, with a demand to reinstate workers who were dismissed unfairly (Fapohunda, 2012). In contrast, Danesi (2011) contends that the strategy of strike picketing has not yielded success stories in curtailing the unending trend of employment casualisation in many Nigerian organizations. Rather, it has only roused the consciousness of many about the spread and growth of casualisation.

Similar findings from Atilola (2014) on protecting the right of casual workers in Nigeria depicts that, in spite of the many strike protest embarked upon by the Nigerian trade union movement, the upsurge of employment casualisation continues to flourish in major organisations in Nigeria. For the author, this assertion is linked to the high rate of unemployment forcing many unemployed to desire casual labour voluntarily (Atilola, 2014, p.6). On an international scale, Lee (2009) reveals that casual workers in the Zambian mining industry embarked on an industrial strike action without the approval of the central trade union for the overall improvement of their work conditions. In his findings, this struggle chronicled one of the most effective strategies to curbing employment casualisation even without the approval of a trade union (Lee, 2009, p.660). However, one wonders if casual workers in Nigerian organisations can embark on industrial strikes without the endorsement or support of trade union, for fear of victimization and compulsory lay-offs by management. Williams' (2003) study shows that the strategy of strike action, adopted by workers of the education sector in the United Kingdom was effective for dampening the dire effect of employment casualization, and aided the transition of casual workers into permanent employment status.

In Germany, Ferreira (2016) reveals that the need to embark on strike action, by the labour union as a means of attracting casual workers into permanent employment seems no longer fashionable. The author comments that, rather than relying on the militant approach of industrial strikes, trade unions should endeavor to lobby the government for favourable legislation wherein social protection can be extended to workers in the non-standard work arrangement. Loni's (2012) study shares similar findings with Ferreira's submission that the utility of strike action to employment casualisation has become less effective in recent times. Loni (2012) highlights that employers of labour have resorted to dismissing striking workers irrespective of their job category, while many casual workers are seen disassociating from joining a trade union association or being part of an industrial strike for fear of dismissal (Loni, 2012). For Adefolaju (2012), the new form of production system seen practiced by MNCs has engendered many precarious works that have hampered the potency of trade union strike action. In addition, the new production system is no longer centered on a single factory production of goods, hence MNCs have adopted the fragmentation of factory and workforce to countries with cheap labour, through different work practices. Specifically, employment casualisation stimulates more vulnerable workforce limiting the power of trade unions to question unfair labour practices, through collective strike action (Adefolaju, 2012).

The National Union of Petroleum and National Gas Workers (NUPENG) of the Nigerian Oil and Gas sector, appears more embroiled in the contest against employment casualisation why other unions are more or less seen paying lip service to the struggle. To be sure, in a recent study by Serrano and Xhafa (2016) on precarious informal employment to projected employment: the 'positive transitioning effect' of trade unions amongst selected countries shows that in Nigeria, the study showed that NUPENG has achieved incredible feats in their travails to reducing casual labour. The study further revealed that, although NUPENG has in recent times encountered enormous challenges, nevertheless, the recent strike action calling for the recognition and improvement in the work conditions of casual workers were very productive. The aftermath of the strike action initiated the recommendations of the Petroleum Industry Bill (PIB) which encompasses, amongst other features, casual workers' recognition right to form and belong to a trade union association, and the right to collective bargaining (Serrano and Xhafa, 2016). Importantly, through its series of strike protests. NUPENG has successfully organised casual workers into trade union structures and pushed for the establishment of a Technical Working

Group (TWG) on employment casualisation, saddled with guaranteeing the security of casual workers' jobs, among other features (Serrano and Xhafa, 2016). The question that rightly comes to mind is, what is the role and efforts of other trade unions organisations, the beverage sector as a case in point?

**Table 2.3: Frequency of Industrial strikes in Nigeria (1980-2007)**

Year	Frequency	Number of work stoppages	Workers involved	Total number of man-day lost
1980	355	264	221088	2350998
1981	258	234	323700	2218223
1982	341	253	2874721	9652400
1983	184	131	269177	404822
1984	100	49	42046	301809
1985	77	40	19907	118693
1986	87	53	157165	461345
1987	65	30	57097	142506
1988	156	124	55620	230613
1989	144	80	157342	579968
1990	174	102	254540	1339105
1991	204	117	460471	2257382
1992	221	124	238324	966611
1993	160	90	880224	6192167
1994	199	110	1541146	234307748
1995	46	26	193944	2269037
1996	29	24	19826	94664
1997	31	31	59897	359801
1998	16	11	9494	47631
1999	52	27	173858	3158087
2000	49	47	344722	8287733
2001	51	34	259290	4722910
2002	50	42	320006	5505322
2003	27	28	57	5690952
2004	36	26	32	2737399
2005	149	56	110	4308013
2006	189	63	79	7785995
2007	250	79	212	13227957

**Sources:** Federal Ministry of Employment, Labour and Productivity (Various Years); Fajana, (2006); National Bureau of Statistics, (2008)<sup>33</sup>

<sup>33</sup> Other recent unified industrial strikes in Nigeria were in 2016 and 2012 respectively. The former was initiated by the joint effort of the NLC and TUC for the removal of the oil subsidy by the former president Goodluck Jonathan led administration, while the latter was led by the central labour union opposing the hike in fuel prices and electricity tariffs

### ***2.7.3 Unpacking education and (re)training programmes strategy of trade unions***

The commencement of the trade union movement in the nineteenth century attracts several important factors needed for continued improvement in the conditions of work globally (Cunniah, 2007). One of the key factors is ensuring that the working population coalesces together and dialogue on the varied problems facing working people through trade union meetings, symposium, workshops, congresses and conventions tailored towards improving the human capacity of the working class (Cunniah, 2007). As a matter of fact, it is no longer strange that the trade union movement is besieged by the daunting influence of globalization, which has been promoting wide-range forms of non-standard employment, amongst other challenges. For Cunniah (2007), strategizing through effective labour education and training is a major indicator required to confront these challenges for continued growth and relevance of trade unions. A similar research finding by Anyemedu (2000), explains that considering the jinxed work environment the trade union movement is confined to, the remit of ensuring good and sustainable work conditions for workers are premised on the extent, and the skill development and training of union officials for effective negotiation. The result of Anyemedu (2000) study, further shows that the Ghanaian Trade Union Congress (GTUC) has recognized and successfully adopts the practice of effective education and training of its members to question the plummeting rate of standard employment in the country (Anyemedu, 2000).

Making sense from the above, labour education and training colleges saddled with education and (re) training of trade union members solely owned by the central labour organisations such as the NLC and TUC, are sparse in Nigeria. Although, the Michael Imodu Institute of Labour Studies (MIILDS), an initiative of the Federal Government of Nigeria, has been occasionally training trade union leaders. Yet, the task assigned to this institute has tended to lessen its effectiveness, is the only labour college in the country. Notwithstanding this, the NLC has been organising training programmes to stimulate and arouse workers towards increased labour market flexibility that has engendered varied forms of work arrangements (Fayankinnu, 2015). Again, according to Spencer (2007,p 11), labour education connotes sensitization in the form of education and training offered by the labour union to members on the one hand, or an educational institution on the other hand, for the overall capacity and human development of members.

The strategy of education and (re) training programmes explains a means of revitalizing the moribund state of the Nigerian labour movement, and a pathway for improving the conditions of its members in general. In essence, a well set out education and (re) training policies would go a long way in invigorating workers, thus positioning them with the enhancement of skills needed to surmount the plethora of challenges facing the working class (Anyemedu, 2000). Clearly, education and (re) training of trade union members are not limited to the confines of local organisations, since the challenge confronting the world of work is not peculiar to local industries, but a phenomenon possessing global image. For emphasis, Cairola (2007) argues that in the present day world of work, labour education and training are essentially positioned to support the international labour movement in the struggle to overcome the challenges of globalisation. Stroud and Fairbrother (2008) contend that globally, organisations are undergoing myriad restructuring motivated by economic globalization, and jobs are being reorganized to casual labour. The authors, therefore, argued that, in this era of changing the trend of work from permanent to atypical, it is imperative to awakened trade union strategy in the form of education and training in order to ascertain the prompt response of trade union movement to the corroding impact of employment casualisation on trade union relevance.

The study of Fayankinnu (2015) on trade union responses to neo-liberalism in Nigeria, explains that trade union officers have gained broad development in terms of capacity building capable of withstanding anti-labour policies in recent times. The author argued that the essence of investing in trade union human capacity development arose from the concerns of the various policies of the neo-liberalism, an economic policy that has no doubt convey the growth of labour flexibility. In contrast, the study equally shows that the practice of employment casualisation, has continued to flourish within the Nigeria labour market owing of the failure of trade union officials to transpose the acquired skills for the desired change in the world of work (Fayankinnu, 2015, p. 63). Aside from the factor of harnessing the benefits of education and training to a vast majority of union official and activists, the study of Stirling (2013) on power in practice: trade union education in Sierra Leone highlights that limiting education and training of union members to the confines of the classroom seems no longer fashionable. For effective result, Stirling (2003) advocated that education and training of union officers should be conducted outside the walls of classrooms. In addition, the corollary of such a result could become discernable on the labour movement by increasing their buoyancy to anti-management policy and exploitative inclinations of employers

of labour. In specific, conceiving labour education and training from the limitation of classrooms teachings has the potential of stimulating trade union activism needed to improving general working conditions (Stirling, 2013).

Findlay, Findlay and Warhurst (2012) posit that education and training are immensely common among the unionized workers, and sparse among casual workers. Although, the law in the context of Nigeria employment relations, does not foreclose casual workers from unionisation even has seen perpetrated by most Nigerian organisations. The authors report that casual workers in the United Kingdom are somewhat represented in the education and training programmes of the labour movement. Nonetheless, it is important to mention that casual workers having the high concentration of workers could contribute significantly to the grapple against employment casualisation, especially when their human capacity is enhanced through education and training programmes of the labour movement (Findlay, Findlay and Warhurst, 2012). To be sure, Gallin (2001) study investigated propositions on trade unions and informal employment in times of globalisation. The study confirmed that the Zambian Workers Education Association (ZWEA) has successfully marshal workers of the informal sector, in particular workers of the Lusaka Street Traders' Association (LUSTA) for intensive and up-to-date skills and capacity development through the initiative of the trade union education and training programmes, to keep abreast and confronts the dreadful challenges of the informal sector (Gallin, 2001).

The literature searches reveal that the significance of institutions of higher learning in the building of trade union capacity development cannot be overemphasized. For instance, Roberts and Marsh (2016) study in the United Kingdom explained that the higher education of learning in the United Kingdom has helped stimulates trade union movement understanding across varied issues such as economic, social and political through its education and training programs. The study further shows that the trade union body, with a deeper understanding of social context issues through higher institutions intensive training, have successfully combined and applied these gains to better improve the lives of the working people. Conversely, in relation to Nigeria where only one institution of higher learning offering training in trade unionism exist<sup>34</sup>, it is expected that the impetus needed for confronting the growth policies of the neo-liberalism, and improving the

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<sup>34</sup> The University of Ibadan is the only institution of higher learning in Nigeria offering training in trade unionism and the programme is only run on diploma level (see Fayankinnu, 2015).

working conditions of the working class would be at low ebb (Fayankinnu, 2015). Therefore, this study in attempts to empirically approve of this assertion or otherwise set out to establish the efficacy of trade union education and (re) training programmes to the growing trend of employment casualisation.

#### ***2.7.4 Trade unions leadership survival strategy***

The word ‘leadership’ undeniably is present in and affects every sphere of human endeavors. In fact, the absence of which most organisational goals and aims would remain unattained. The travails to arrive at a common definition of leadership seem an effort in futile, as the word possess different meanings according to the context within which it is applied. The word leadership, albeit is commonly used within the body of behavioural sciences, yet its utility differs among the cohort of other social sciences discipline. Drawing from the viewpoint of social psychology, Northouse (1997) argues that leadership is construed as influence evident within a group and it centers on influencing the group members for achieving a common goal. In addition, a common conception of leadership is the act to lead, while others follow towards the attainment of specific goals and objectives. However, in the context of the trade union, there would apparently be no much nuance in the meaning of leadership in comparison to the explanations above as trade union leaders exert influence for the sole aim of improving the working conditions of its constituents. Kelly (1998), although agrees with the general connotation of leadership. Still, the author argues that there is a distinction between the function of a leader in general, and that of a trade union leadership in particular. Supposedly, trade union leaders are activists who hearten the working class for counter-mobilization of management unfair labour practices, while working towards changing the existing *status quo* for a more humane work conditions (Kelly, 1998).

In Nigeria, the many years of military rule overwhelmed by the autocratic style of governance have hamstrung the activities of trade union leaders, in ensuring improved working conditions for the Nigerian workers. However, the ushering of Nigeria into democratic governance has revived the latent strength of trade union leaders for the need to mobilize workers and fight for the overall well-being of Nigerian workers (Nwagbara, Pidomson and Nwagbara, 2013). This is needless to say that, in this epoch of democracy the trade union leadership are somewhat more effective and workers interest are being represented (see Nwoko, 2009). Nkowo’s (2009) study established

similar findings with the previous studies such as the study of Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette. For instance, Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette (2001) argued that trade union leaders in the spirit of ensuring improved conditions of work are more likely to succeed in a democratic government than the military dictatorial government. The author contends that trade unions under a democratic regime, are in a better standpoint to convey alluring and complacent outcomes needed for the general growth of the working people, and the union in general (Barker, Johnson, and Lavalette, 2001). Interestingly, deducing from the above research findings, it is still unclear if the Nigeria trade union leaders have been able to achieve and utilized the benefits of the current democratic government to improve the conditions of the Nigerian working population.

In Nigeria, Anyim, Ilesanmi, and Alaribe (2013) investigated the diminishing and disappointing roles of trade unions in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The study explained that the Nigerian trade union movement, have displayed many disappointing roles in the fights against the growing trend of informalisation across Nigeria's industrial sectors. In essence, trade union leaders have been incapacitated in their quest to abate the unending employment casualization, as most trade union leaders are now under the sway of the employers, hence weakening the treasured trust workers have in the leadership of the trade union movement (Anyim, Ilesanmi, and Alaribe, 2013). To support this assertion, the recent dismissal of 280<sup>35</sup> workers in Nigeria by the telecommunication giants company, MTN has not yet roused any comments from the leadership of the Nigerian trade union, rather dismissal and abuse continues unabated. This scenario to an extent confirmed the lukewarm disposition of the labour union in ensuring robust protection of Nigerian workers.

In a study conducted at the Cornell University of Industrial Labour Relations, Hammer, Bayazit and Wazeter (2009) contend that trade union leadership power to serve the interest of the working population is the hinge on the functionality of external factors, such as the prevailing economic conditions. In other words, their study reiterates that to allow for more effectiveness in the functions of trade union leadership towards solving the plethora of problems facing the working people, and those outside the confines of protection, the interplay between effective trade union leadership and labour market conditions must be considered (Hammer, Bayazit and Wazeter, 2009). This is sufficed to say that the conditions of the labour market predict the strength of labour

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<sup>35</sup> Two-hundred and eighty (280) workers, representing 15percent of telecommunication giant, MTN Nigeria were sacked on the 28 April 2017

union to a great extent. For illustration, it would mean that if the rate of unemployment appears so nerve-wracking that people have to opt for available jobs such as casual work, then the trade union strength to reducing the upsurge of employment casualisation might achieve sparse positive results.

In a separate study, Solaja (2015) investigate labour casualisation and trade unionism in Nigeria. The study shows that the vociferous role of trade union leaders in the present-day industrial relations system is plummeting, especially in the struggle to organise workers in the non-standard employment category by ensuring they enjoy similar shield of protections. Accordingly, the above description is not far-fetched from factors such as non-compliance of employers with the conditions and policies of the Nigerian labour market, and feeble trade union leadership structure characterized with irregularities in its operation (Solaja, 2015). In other words, the failure by the Nigerian government to sanction adherent and promoter of non-standard jobs has tended to increase MNC's zeal for continuous adoption of employment casualisation.

The study of Crawford and Germov (2015) adopt workforce strategy to address academic casualisation in the University of Newcastle. Findings emanating from their study revealed that casual workers are traditionally disadvantaged among other cohorts of the academic workforce, lack recognition and are managing poorly by the institution. In contrary, the study shows that, the trade union leadership in order to recognise the onerous conditions of casual workers have been embarking on massive awareness and support programme that has polemically enhanced the knowledge of workers concerning the advances in casual work, which seems unfettered with the continuous growth of globalisation. By implication, the trade union leadership should always be in the mood of engaging civil society organizations in creating the desired awareness on the imminent danger of employment casualisation. In view of this, how can one relate the relationship between trade union leaders and civil society organisations as it concerns the snag of employment casualisation?

The relationship between trade unions and other civil society organisation in the quest for enhancing the conditions of workers is inevitable. Civil society organisations assist the trade union movement by way of forming a coalition and holding government accountable for the general welfare of the working people. Several of the protest and strike action embarked upon by the national labour movement in the struggle for improving the conditions of workers does not

foreclose the support of civil society organisations. For emphasis, the general protests and strike action of January 2012 on the removal of fuel subsidy in Nigeria were staunchly espoused by civil society organisations. In the same fashion, Estanque (2004) study shows that the travails of trade union leaders in coalescing with other civil society organisations as a strategy to address the proliferation of non-standard employment have produced much success in Portugal among the footwear worker's union (PFWU). Therefore, extending the struggle for abating employment casualisation to other civil society organisations, has the potent of swiftly changing the *status quo* (Estanque, 2004). In contrast, there is the rarity of evidence indicating that much has been achieved in Nigeria, even with several involvement of civil society organisations in most of the trade union struggle.

## **2.8 Trade union survival strategies: interrogating factors plaguing their effectiveness**

The world over, the labour movement is constrained by a constellation of factors in the discharge of its statutory duties. In specific, trade union strategies, although, has yielded few success responses in terms of effectiveness, however, many of these strategies have been stalled by factors either emanating within the ambit of the trade union movement or those influencing trade union activities externally. Notwithstanding this, the tussle for inclusion and improved working conditions for workers outside the purview of standard work arrangements has equally been characterised with debilities. Accordingly, while there are different strands of factors inhibiting trade union programmes and activities across countries, there seems no much nuance considering factors such as economic and political constraints; the challenge of internal democracy and the problem of rivalry among trade union leadership. In other words, this section of the study unearths and discuss constellation of factors limiting the effectiveness of trade union struggle for the realisation of decent work agenda.

One of the major factors that has incapacitated trade union strategies is the global phenomenon of economic recession. This phenomenon has accompanied global unemployment, which in turn is adversely affecting the fierce attributes of trade union including the need to swiftly change the unpalatable *status-quo* employment relationship (Anyim, Ikemefuna and Shadare, 2011). For instance, Anyim, Ikemefuna and Shadare's (2011) study identified that the bargaining power of Nigerian trade union in recent time, as a survival net to anti-labour policies has encumbered severe decline in the period characterised by economic recession. Interestingly, Fashoyin's (1980) study

had early identified the impact of the economic crunch on the effectiveness of trade union bargaining power. The author highlighted that as the wave of economic recession becomes more biting, the trade union movements have had to prioritize their demands by limiting their priorities to sustaining the jobs of rank-and-file members, rather than pursuing the economic improvement of workers in non-standard employment (Fashoyin, 980). By insinuation, it can be inferred that the economic constraints have shifted the interest of trade union afar from yearning for both inclusion and improvement of casual worker's conditions of work, for the need to sustain rank-and-file member's jobs.

Bhebe and Mahapa (2014) study conducted in Zimbabwe also identified the constraint of economic decline as a factor compelling trade union activities. For the authors, the economic decline has had a profound impact on trade union strategies of survival. For instance, the enormous retrenchment that accompanies economy recession has conditioned workers to consent to any work conditions they find themselves not excluding casualisation of labour. Further, the study showed that the trade union organising efforts of workers outside the standard employment relations has been halt by the country's economic situation, thus limiting the role of the trade union to a marginal stance (Behbe and Mahapa, 2014). Napathorn and Chanprateep (2011) study examined factors strengthening labour strategies in companies and State enterprise. The findings of their study revealed that the impact of economy constrain on trade union strategies can also be linked to the shortage of funds to establish educational training institute needed to sharpen the skills of rank-and-file trade union members, wherein they can match side by side with employers' of labour during negotiations. Anyim (2014) thus reiterated that economic recession no doubts have had a mammoth impact on trade union financial strength, a condition that has since inhibited the enhancement of trade union educational skills as a strategy required in this 21<sup>st</sup> century.

The political environment where trade unions operate is no less an important factor hindering the effectiveness of its activities and strategies. To be sure, Chen (2009) study on Union Power in China identified that the power of trade union has been hindered by governmental status, thus preventing the mobilizing and organising efforts of workers in general. Further, the study highlighted that by law, the political milieu of China prohibits the accountability of trade union to its rank-and-file members, and making claims on their behalf a violation of the country's constitution. Hence, trade unions are lured to be part of government machinery (p. 685). The main

contention for Chen is to disallow the Chinese trade union from agitating for workers improved conditions of work, including those outside the confines of social protection. In a similar line of argument, Chen (2009) assertion fittingly dovetail with the intention of the Nigerian government to weaken the trade union strike strategy by way of proscribing strike action as contained in section 31(6) of Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended<sup>36</sup>. Therefore, this political snag has increased the employer's strength towards exploiting the working people. For instance, in Nigeria, the industrial relations environment appears to be more arranged to the favour of employers as they are a scarcity of reports on how employers have violated the right of casual workers' in the workplace. In similar accounts, the study of Takupiwa and Ephraim (2012) argued that in most Africa countries, political constraints have been a major factor affecting the effective functions of trade union strategies. Takupiwa and Ephraim (2012) further revealed that the labour courts saddled with the trial of labour related issues have been subject to both governmental and political clout, thus making the industrial relations environment non-conducive for the preferment of collective bargaining.

Having established the constraint of political smack, it is still not erroneous to conclude that politics and trade union activities are inseparable, as most of the governmental policies and laws are to an extent influenced by the labour movement. Nonetheless, this submission, the acceptance of political appointment by trade union leaders has been recounted as a great decrease to trade union momentum and collective actions. Chen (2009) and Edward (2003) in their separate studies highlighted that the pursuit and lobby for political benefits and appointments by trade union leaders have greatly hindered successful mobilizing and organising efforts of the trade union movement. Importantly, Chen (2009) study echoed that upon integration and ushering of trade union leaders into politics, the union leaders unwittingly becomes both government and employers *tooth dog*, while neglecting the primary objectives of protecting the economic interest of members and ensuring the promotion of decent work for the pursuit of personal interest. A case in point is the Labour Party (LP) of Nigeria whose interest was clearly not for the gains of the general working class.

By extension, therefore, Edward (2003) thesis advocate for a separation between politics and trade union activities for the effective outcome of trade union strategies in improving the lives of the

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<sup>36</sup> Section 6 of the 2005 Trade Union Act stipulate that, no person, trade union or employer shall take part in a strike or lockout or engage in any conduct in contemplation or furtherance of a strike or lockout

working people, otherwise trade union enmeshing in politics would mean a less focused union encumbered with issues not related to worker's welfare. In other words, the lack of strong, focused and democratic trade union possesses a major implication for trade union contest against exploitative employers, thus portraying the union before the working population as being incapable of ameliorating the obliterating consequences of their work conditions (Nwoko, 2009).

The study of Adefolaju (2013), identifies the challenge of internal democracy as a major factor hindering the realisation of trade union objectives in Nigeria. Samples were selected from major trade union associations such as the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT), the Nigerian Union of Journalist (NUJ), the National Association of Nurses and Midwives of Nigeria (NANMN), the Nigerian Union of Civil Services Secretarial and Stenographic Workers (NUCSSSW), and the Nigerian Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE). According to the author, most trade unions association sampled were not committed to the ethos of democracy in the conduct of their affairs. The study further highlighted that the challenge of internal democracy has made trade union indifference to the realisation of trade union members' economic function and the goal of decent work (Adefolaju, 2013). While Godard (2003) study had earlier explained the importance of upholding democratic values for effective trade union functions in a previous study, the study thus emphasized that the need to strengthen trade union democratic values cannot be over-stretched because the goal of ensuring sustainable and enduring work life is firmly rooted in the ethos of democracy.

Again, the role of rivalry among the leadership of the trade union cannot be overstressed. Obviously, the desire for power among trade union leaders has engendered rivalry capable of endangering trade unions objectives in many instances. An example of this illustration is the recent split of the foremost NLC into two different factions. Precisely, issues attached to this occurrence are not far-fetched from the pursuit of personal gains. It is within these circumstances, that the Nigerian trade union movement has over-time been described as a movement lacking profound knowledge required to run the affairs of the working people with evidence of corruption sprawling through the conducts of its affairs. However, even though this *cliché* has not been entirely proven empirically by an appreciable corpus of studies owing to the structure of the Nigeria state, Adewumi (2007) study on *Unity and division: the dialectics of the Nigeria trade union movement is a testament to the dwindling state of Nigeria's labour movement*. For emphasis, the author

highlights that the challenge of rivalry among the leadership of Nigeria trade union has made it practically impossible for the attainment of unity needed to confront the owners of capitalist industry perpetuating employment casualisation across Nigeria's industrial sector.

To position neatly, the ascending case of rivalry between and among trade union movements depicts one of the fundamental problem limiting the effectiveness of trade union for the realization of decent work. For instance, how can the union leaders form a formidable and non-relentless force, against the tide of employment casualisation if internal grapple has been the order of the day in the day-to-day running of its activities? A similar study conducted by Rajesh and Manoj (2014) explicate that the incidence of rivalry among trade union associations in India has been identified as the chief factor deterring effective trade union functions. In essence, rather than acting as the mouthpiece of the working class through canvassing for workers improved working conditions, the labour movements have since been in an interminable competition for personal interests and self-aggrandizement (Rajesh and Manoj, 2014). This to an extent, exhumes an understanding of the myriads of factors influencing the growth and relevance of trade union globally. For sure, it has become an axiomatic verity that the trade union movement to a large extent has been dwindling in its functions globally.

The dearth of available studies on trade union survival strategies and employment casualisation aptly justified the need for this thesis. While the survey of literature has clearly exposed the rarity of literature on this *leitmotif*, few of the available studies have failed to interrogate how trade union survival strategies have been deployed to wither the continuous use of employment casualisation across Nigeria's industrial and services sectors. For instance, evidence from the literature reveals that within the Nigeria context, a good number of the existing but distinct studies include Fapohunda's (2012) analysis of employment casualisation and degradation of work in Nigeria, an assessment of the patterns of temporary employment in the food processing industry in Nigeria (Jawando and Adenugba 2014), the remuneration of casual workers in selected foreign-owned manufacturing industries in Nigeria (Adewusi 2015) as well as the study by Ajonbadi (2015) on the dynamics of policies and practices of labour contracting in the Nigerian Oil and Gas sector.

Other notable research includes precarious working conditions and exploitation of workers in Nigeria (Akinwale, 2014), casualisation and casual employment in Nigeria (Animashaun, 2007) and Fayankinnu's (2015) study on trade union response to neoliberalism in Nigeria.

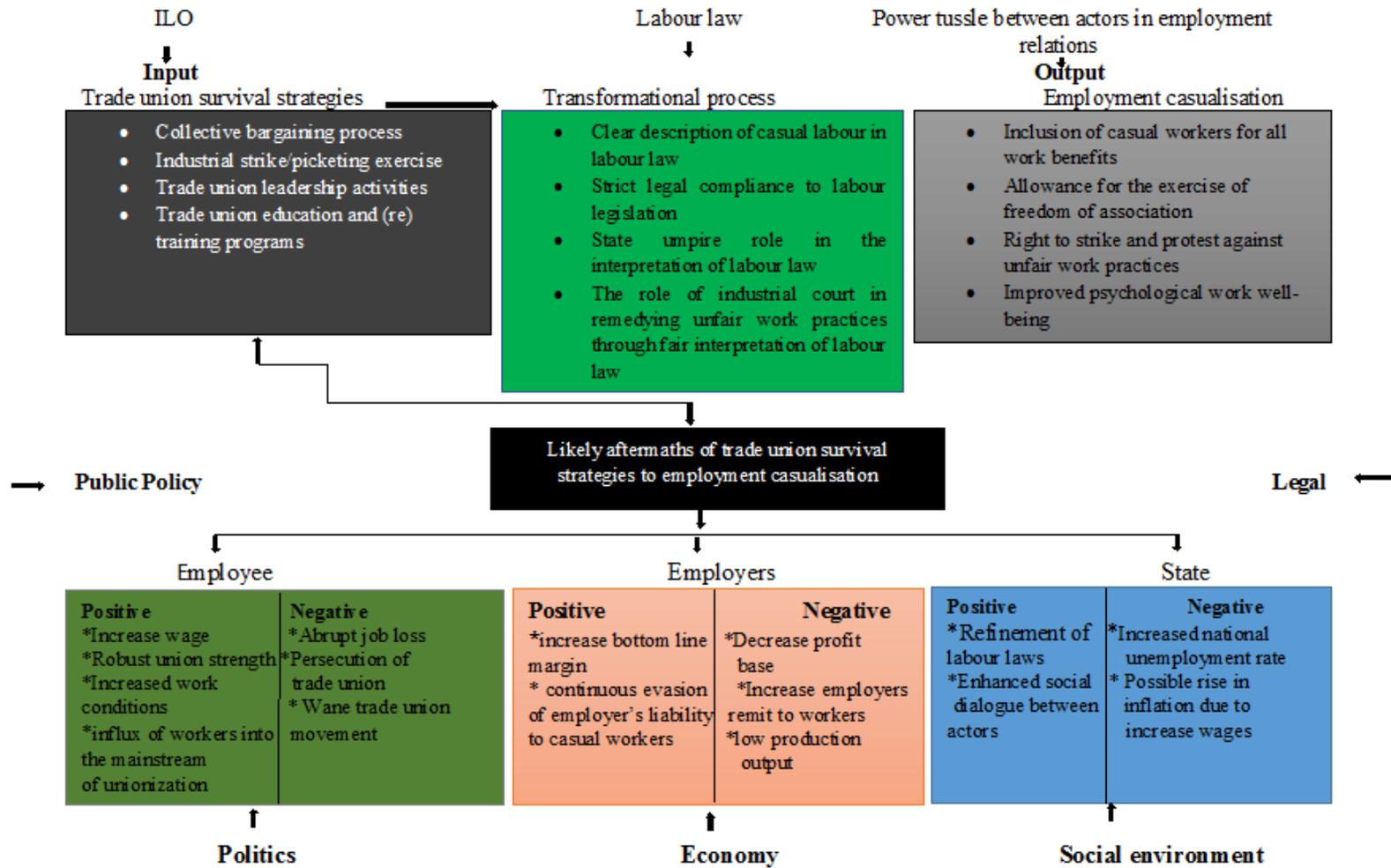
Correspondingly, away from Nigeria, similar studies on the theme of employment casualisation and trade union responsiveness included an assessment of trade union survival strategies towards atypical employment in Spain (Cervinco, 2000), an investigation by Tingo (2012) of South African trade union survival strategies to globalisation. Loni (2012) also considered trade union responses to casualisation of labour in South Africa, while Betchoo (2013) analysed trade union strategies in the new employment relations in Mauritius. Clearly, reflecting from Nigeria's experience, hardly any study has investigated the reactionary strategies of the trade union to employment casualisation, and more importantly an examination of the strands of reactionary strategies examined in this study with reference to the Nigeria Beverage sector. Again, although some studies conducted outside Nigeria's employment exudes a somewhat striking trajectory with the current study, yet there exist huge similarities between them. For emphasis, the present study examines four distinct trade union strategies including collective bargaining, industrial strike/protest, trade union leadership activities, and trade union education and training programmes. Therefore, this standpoint appropriately justifies the novelty of this study in the contribution of fresh perspectives on the ongoing treatise of employment and labour studies, by bringing onboard distinct measures intended for salvaging the workplace from the ascending growth of *indecent* and precarious jobs.

## **2.9 Conceptual framework of the study**

Fundamentally, conceptual framework explains the researcher understanding of not only how best the research problem can be reconnoitered but more importantly, the precise trend the research seeks to ensue and the relationship between identified variables in the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Again, a conceptual framework is best explained by Camp (2001) as a system of ideas, assumptions, and principles that supports and guides the entire research organisation. Thus, the structure of a conceptual framework usually assumes different arrangements highlighting the main variables, and how these variable are intertwined with narrations in the form of circles to express the significance and justification of the framework (Shields and Rangarajan, 2013). However, the conceptual framework for this study shown in figure 2.3 was developed from the review of the literature, intermingled with the modification of Dunlop (1958) System Model. The Dunlop (1958) System Model specifically seeks to understand the relationship between actors in an employment relationship, with the understanding of how external factors such as economy, legal, politics, public policy, and the social-environmental context influences the decision of each of these actors, and how much influence is conveyed to affect the existing tripartite relationship between actors.

The conceptual framework for this study, reveals an understanding of how external factors influence the formulation, implementation, and execution of trade union strategies and policies towards the realization of work devoid of unfair labour practices. Hence, the conceptual framework is interpreted based on the understanding that activities and the relationship between actors in employment relations are crucial indicators of how best decent work can become realizable. Furthermore, the conceptual framework is grounded on the notion that achieving effective trade union strategies to employment casualisation is not entirely based on the consideration of factors external to actors, but more closely on the need for a refinement of the existing labour laws. Albeit, the framework establishes that the outcome of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation possess both positive and negative consequences for actors in employment relations, yet it is theorized that employees are intensely niched at the receiving end of these consequences. Therefore an understanding of the influence of the various environmental factors as promulgated by the Dunlop (1958) System Model, and coordinated legal framework geared towards revitalizing the Nigeria's labour law for international best practices can aid in lessening the long years of inhumane conditions of work christened as employment casualisation (See figure 2.2 for explicit explanation of the framework).

**Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework of the study**



Source: Author's compilation (Elegbede, 2016; Dunlop, 1958).

## **2.10 Theoretical framework**

The preceding sections appraised literature on employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. Issues examined under this heading were those that aptly established the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. This present section of the chapter is devoted to discussions on the theoretical frame of analysis that guides the study, and consequently provides the basis for which the study is construed. However, before exploring further, it is imperative to examine the concepts of theory and theoretical framework respectively. Although, both concepts are derived from each other, yet, there exist a distinction in their respective meanings and applications. To begin, theories are conceived as an aid, needed for an adequate comprehension of problems and events in our everyday world.

Dunlop (1958) being one of the foremost scholars of industrial relations (now employment relations), offered one of the earliest definitions of theory as germane to the discipline of employment relations. The author identified that theories are essential tools required for explaining events, and observation both in the world of work and in our everyday world. For Dunlop (1958), the existence of problems in the discipline of employment relations are being interpreted with mere human wish and ignorance, thus for a holistic understanding of these myriads of problems, theories are desired to help interpret and explain them (Dunlop, 1958). Newman postulates another definition of theory(s) as applicable to the broad field of social sciences. The author explains theory as an interrelated construct that organises knowledge about the social world (Newman, 2007, p.24). For Corbetta (2003), a theory is a set of organically associated propositions positioned at a much higher level of abstraction, wherein empirical predictions can be made to solve the identified problem. In other words, theories serve the function of explaining and proffering answers to the question of what and why in our everyday existence.

Drawing from the above, a theoretical framework is no less a structure that embodies a group of theories. Eisenhart (1991, p.205), describes a theoretical framework as a structure constructed to guide the research process by way of applying a formal theory or theories built by assembling an established explanation of a certain phenomenon. Importantly, Grand and Osanloo (2014, p13) posit that theoretical framework comprises of a theory or set of theories that guide the researcher's thinking about the understanding of the research topic, concepts and definitions emanating from the theory as applicable and relevant to the topic under study. Although, there seems no entirely

right or wrong theory for a study; however, it is fundamental that the adoption of a theory or theories should dovetail with the general goal(s) of the problem of study. For instance, Grand and Osanloo (2014) contend that the adoption of a theoretical framework for a study provides detailed comprehension of the research problem, purpose, questions and significance. Put together, these four constructs must be linked for the framework to serve the goal of the research. Therefore, theoretical framework in the form of structure or foundation is needed in research not just to situate the research problem and questions, but also to inform the choice of research design, methodology, methods, and analysis respectively (Grand and Osanloo, 2014). Based on this conviction, the utility of the theoretical framework is vital in a research endeavor without which the goal(s) of the research would not be achieved. Accordingly, the usefulness of the theoretical framework in a study is likening to a house that cannot be built without a plan. To be sure, its adoption allows for a strong, structured and coherent research finding (Grand and Osanloo, 2014).

In this study, therefore, three distinct theories including the Neo-Liberal, Labour Market Segmentation (LMS) and Marxist Conflict theories are examined to address the research problem. For emphasis, these theories are identified and reviewed based on the conviction that a single theory might be too weak to address the problem under investigation. In other words, the utility of different strands of a theory is fundamental to understand and evaluate research problems emanating from two streams of the literature; employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies as evident in this study. For instance, from an economic point of view, proponents of the Neo-Liberal Theory advocate free market economy promote private investments. The theory's basic assumption is tilted for the abolition of government intervention to build a sturdy economic system through stiff market competitions. In line with this thought of argument, the neo-liberal theory is embraced to understand how the advocacy for a free market economy and government non-intervention in economic issues have promulgated the proliferation of different fashion of employment casualisation owing to the absence of market rules and regulation in the operation of the labour market.

The LMS theory is analysed for a fuller understanding of the operations and activities of the labour market. The theory hypothesized that the operations of the labour market are segmented into two distinct part; the primary and secondary labour market with varied work idiosyncrasies. On the one hand, the primary labour market possesses jobs with stability, relatively high wage, social

protection, and opportunity for growth, while the secondary labour market is typified with an instability of jobs, lack of social protection, low wage and limited or no opportunity for growth on the other hand. However, the classification of the labour force into segments with those in the primary market relishing protection, and those in the secondary market being unprotected and unprivileged explains the huge work challenges casual workers are daily confronted with and a constraint to effective trade union activities (Fajana, 2008). For example, the corpus of the working people is to a large extent concentrated in the secondary labour market as a result of the changing trend of work, and are often proscribed from participating in active trade union activities. In other words, the denial of these sets of persons to represent, and be represented in trade union activities not only explains dehumanization of labour, but makes effective trade union mobilization and organising difficult.

Lastly, the Marxist Conflict theory is profoundly positioned within the broad social sciences discipline, yet its utility has been embraced in other management related discipline to understand how conflict ensues in the world of work. The talking point of the Marxist Conflict theory shoulders that, conflict ensues when the interest of the trade union to protect the working people contrast with management exploitative inclinations. As applicable to this study, the theory is employed to explain both the strategies of the trade union and their effectiveness in protecting workers in the casual work arrangement.

Therefore, the necessity for the utility of the Neo-liberal, LMS and Marxist Conflict theories in this study are sacrosanct and fundamental. First, considering the different areas the study assumes, the utility of a single theory to address these many paths no doubt is improbable. Second, while the Neo-liberal theory is restricted to understanding the proliferation of various patterns and practices of employment casualisation, the theory is, however, inadequate to address the different challenges employment casualisation has engendered, thus a more fitting theory to understand these challenges discernably is the LMS theory. Similarly, while either of the Neo-liberal or LMS theories also portends inadequacies to suitably explain trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation, the Marxist conflict theory is justifiably sufficient to understand how trade union survival strategies have been deployed to address the growing concerns of employment casualisation. In so doing, the above theories are appositely explained with regard to their origin,

proponents and justification for development, explicit analysis of their assumptions, utility to the current study and as well as their limitations.

### ***2.10.1 Neo-Liberal Theory***

There are different perspectives on the emergence of the Neoliberal Theory. For instance, Thorsen and Lie (2006) documented that the *leitmotif* of neoliberal first appeared in a Ph.D. thesis on *Le néo-libéralisme' et la révision du libéralisme (Neoliberalism and the revision of liberalism)* in 1950 by Jacques Cros. For Willis (2005), the birth of neoliberalism was one of the many responses of the 1970's to the Keynesian economics, whose advocacy was hinged on State intervention for rapid rehabilitation of the economy, and as a pathway for employment creation. However, while the adherents of Keynesian economics system support social rights protection through social welfare State intervention, the Neo-Liberal theory, on the other hand, emerges with an ideology that the interference of the State could hamstring the growth of the economy.

For others, the concept of neoliberalism first surfaced in scholarly writing in the period between the first and second world wars. In specific, the uncertainty of these periods overwhelmed by inflation and depression championed the cause for a profound economic ideology, thus the birth of neoliberal theory where improved human well-being can be ascertained by abolishing government intervention in the economic affairs of the State (see Schultz, 2010; Akansel, 2016; Mammadov and Hasanov, 2016). Similarly, one significant account of the Neoliberal Theory was the modification of economic liberalism espoused by Adam Smith in his book titled *Wealth of Nations*. While Adam Smith proclaims that the highest economic decision should be the remit of the individual with limited government regulation and intervention, a major nuance between the economic liberalism and neoliberalism position is the total rejection of State regulation or intervention by neoliberalists (Jessop, 2002; Harvey, 2005).

From the foregoing, the assumption of the Neo-Liberal Theory centers on the belief that individual welfare can only be enhanced by advancing their entrepreneurial freedom through robust private property rights and free markets activities. Harvey (2005) explains that to ensure the individual is comfortable with the activities of the free market conditions, the role of the State should be limited to the protection of institutions such as the military, police and legal structures saddled to protect private property rights and smooth functioning of the market. In essence, beyond this jurisdiction,

the State should not intervene in the operations of the labour market. For emphasis, it is understood that the State cannot have more of the information needed to guide the operations of the labour market, and it appears that powerful interest groups have overthrown and hijack State intervention for their personal interest, especially in a democratic setting (p.3). Again, the supposition of the Neo-liberal theory stalwartly held on the ideology of promoting individual participation in all contexts of economic activities, by reducing the role of the State to that of a playing field wherein market competition can be determined by the forces of demand and supply (Adino and Nebere, 2016). Accordingly, the drive of the neoliberals is to ensure the economy is strictly determined and control by market forces by eliminating government involvement and embracing devaluation of currencies, privatization and emancipation of limits on market operations since the State controlled markets has resulted into immense economic failures (Adino and Nebere, 2016; Kelly, 1998).

Again, for neoliberal market advocate, the rationale for free-market competition is espoused by the affirmation that the entire economic conundrum including inflation, financial puzzles, and economic stagnation with their consequence on the well-being of the population, all accompany government intervention in the economic matters of the State (Due and Phong, 2010). Borrowing the words of Cohn (2004), the discourse of the neo-liberalist for rapid economic development is that nations are poor not because they are poor; rather they are poor because of too much government interference resulting from overprotective tariffs and import quotas, control of interest rates prices and state subsidies (Cohn, 2004, p.95). In a different contention, Chang (2001) argues that the talking point of the neo-liberal theory is premised on the erroneous assumption that describes the State as an unbiased guiding angel in the operations of the labour market. Rather, the State is conceived as an organization controlled by self-centered politicians, who are deficient in their capability to collect and collate information needed for effective labour market operations. By implication, the corollary of State failures ordinarily exceeds the failures of the market itself. Then, State intervention in labour market activities would tend to escalate the perturbing conditions of the labour market (Chang, 2001).

Neo-liberal theory suppositions are fundamentally argued for creating a competitive business environment, where people can strive and compete for profit maximization without external interventions. To achieve this, the theory held sway to the credence of privatization in creating an

open and fair playing ground for all investors. While sectors formally controlled by government are transposed to private ownership (Harvey, 2005), increased competition among private business for the overall growth of the economy becomes unprecedented on the other hand (Kalejaiye, 2014). The theory further contends the possibility to brook individual private investors the right to exercise their liberty of contract, that is, the right to choose their contracting parties and trade with them on any terms deemed fitting. A basic explanation of the right of individual private investor was further explicated by Roper, Ganesh and Inkson (2010). For these authors, the contention for individual private investor is connected to the possession of the freedom to make demand and supply choices as actors, having their own market rules which exclude government regulation and intervention (Roper, Ganesh and Inkson, 2010). In reality, therefore, the attainment of free market enterprise devoid of State control and regulation could rouse an unfair brand of influence among employers of labour, and many strands of unfair labour practices including contract labour and outsource employment could become evident.

Furthermore, with regard to the current study, the practice of free market enterprise would invariably mean an open market lacking rules and regulation, wherein employers having the rules of the market fixed themselves becomes desirable for non-standard work to permanent jobs to maximize profits by minimizing the costs of labour (Buchler, Haynes and Baxer, 2009). To put this in perspective, this assertion is no doubt likened to Nigeria with ensuing consequences after embracing the neoliberal policies of the 1980s. For instance, the lukewarm intervention, regulation, and monitoring by Nigeria's Ministry of Labour and Employment (NMLE) to oversee and set market rules have indubitably enhanced the precipitous spread of casualisation. Frankly, the MNC's and other indigenous organisations are becoming empowered to exploit the working people, owing to the absence of market rules, regulation and appropriate policy enforcement.

To supports the above contentions, studies have found that the assumptions of the Neo-Liberal Theory, rather than prospering the conditions of the labour market through its free-market policy, has increased the rate of dissident and basest individuals whose motive is to exploits the working people through the promotion of atypical employment practices. Gray's (2009) study, for instance, exudes that the argument for free market policy as a yardstick to increase competition among investors has engendered intense inequality in the form of material opportunities among the working population resulting in continued promotion of wealth inequalities.

Again, in a comparative study on *neo-liberal policy reforms and organised labour responses in Ghana and Nigeria*, Fayankinnu (2011) observed that the advocate for free-market competition by neo-liberalism has conveyed the flexibility of labour. By flexibility of labour, most traditional work arrangements, otherwise known as permanent employment have been almost perpetually replaced for non-standard work arrangement in most organisations in Ghana and Nigeria respectively. To be sure, the author argues that it would rather not be inaccurate to maintain that neo-liberal reforms policies, among its other mandate, were arrayed to weaken the effect of the strike and collective bargaining, by dividing the formidable strength of the labour union through the promotion of non-standard work pattern (Fayankinnu, 2011). In precision, a close observation of the trends and effectiveness of today's trade union organisation is not far-fetched connected to these presumptions. However, despite its widespread influence in many African countries, the Neo-Liberal Theory is not excused from criticisms.

To be sure, several pieces of research have documented the drawbacks of the Neoliberal Theory in both the economics and political science literature. From an economic standpoint, Simutanyi (2006) argues for the case of Zambia. The author through his study narrates when the country obtained a SAP loan with an undertone of neo-liberal policy including liberalization of exchange and interest rate, and the elimination of imports control duties. However, Simutanyi (2006) submits that the aftermath of neo-liberal reforms has brought an increase in the prices of foodstuff resulting in massive workers strike and abating standard of living. In addition, Harvey (2005) being one of the critics of neoliberalism argues in his thesis on *a brief history of neoliberalism* that the Neoliberal Theory position that compliance with the free market and individual freedom would invariably lead to economic prosperity and growth is an inaccurate submission. For the author, this assumption if anything to go by would mean that soon all economic life and institutions would be under the control of the small social class, otherwise called the capitalists (Harvey, 2005).

From the political stance, Bresser-Pereira (2009) championed a critic of the Neoliberal Theory postulations on the ground to upturn the clout of the market at the expense of weakening the State. This attempt tended to abuse the social and existing democracy of many countries. In addition, the assumptions of the Neo-Liberal Theory also places an attack on the labour market, because the absence of rules and regulation will recede its function in the broad society (p. 8). Hence, the contention of Bresser-Pereira centered on the notion that the neo-liberal position is aimed for a

weak State, that would permit the economies to become a playing arena for MNCs to perpetuate their business motives of excess profit accumulation (Bresser-Pereira. 2009).

Other scholars have equally resisted the position of the neo-liberal theory as weak and non-empirical (see Bourdieu, 1998; Biebricher, 2015; Jessop, 2002). For instance, Bourdieu (1998) claims that the neo-liberal development of the last decades has produced consistent inequality among working people. Bourdieu (1998) argues, that the neo-liberal economy has conveyed casualisation of employment as a new form of labour exploitation. In the analysis of Bourdieu (1998) on the impact of neo-liberal policies on the economy performance and general well-being of the working people in many African States, the author highlights that the demand for flexibility accompanying neo-liberal ideology, should be conceived as a platform to enrich the political interest group, rather than a means to prosper the economy.

Put together, the role of this theory cannot be overemphasized in this study. The theory is evaluated in terms of its utility in understanding how the advocate for a free market and individual freedom to make their own market rules has encouraged the adoption of different types of employment casualisation, while preempting the flourish of traditional permanent employment. In addition, the Neo-Liberal Theory is limited to the understanding of how non-market rules have birthed the proliferation of different patterns and practices of employment casualisation, while exuding insufficient proof to unravel the dares of employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies respectively. Therefore, the ensuing theories are aptly reviewed to address these sections of the study.

### ***2.10.2 Labour Market Segmentation Theory***

The LMS theory shared its utility among various management and social sciences disciplines such as labour and employment relations, human resource management, labour economics, industrial sociology and industrial psychology respectively. The emergence of the LMS theory dates back to the 1960's. Specifically, the LMS theory evolve as a critic to the shared assumption that, the operations and functions of a typical labour market is predicated on the individual educational skills and motivation to work (supply side of the market), rather than an understanding of employer's strategy of absorbing and classifying labour (demand side of the market). By extension, one noteworthy justification for its emergence was the increased level of inequality observed by a

group of American economists' such as Weisskoff, Bowles and Bluestone among the American working population (Reich, Gordon and Edwards, 1973). For these economists, a fuller understanding of the existing disparity between the rich, poor and disadvantaged Americans calls for the partitioning of the labour market into two disperse sectors with dissimilar job characteristics. In similar fashion, Cain (1976) reports that the challenge of unending poverty and unemployment among disadvantaged Americans resulting from the failures of the Neo-Classical Economic Theory saw the need for an economic theory, wherein the workings and problems of the labour market will be fittingly comprehended. During the reigns of the neo-classical, the American labour market witness an upsurge in the rate of unemployment and widespread poverty, notwithstanding the increase efforts of government with the introduction of economic initiatives such as poverty alleviation programs and education and training programmes (Cain, 1976).

While the Neo-Classical Economic Theory conceives that investment in education and training are pathways to reducing poverty and unemployment, where the level of education and skills an individual attains greatly determines the chances of securing better job for sustained living standard, proponents of the LMS theory on the other hand posit that a far more understanding of issues related to unemployment and poverty is connected to the characteristics of jobs available in the labour market, including jobs with adequate well-being that are capable of ameliorating poverty, and not the individual acquisition of skills and training. Nonetheless, the idea of LMS theory originally became popular with the work of Doeringer and Piore on *internal labour market and manpower analysis* in 1971. In an effort to understand the myriads of issues affecting the supply and demand functions of the labour market, the authors advocate for the stratification of the labour market into primary and secondary labour market sectors respectively (Doeringer and Piore, 1971), while Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) segment the labour market by sector, race and sex. For emphasis, it is not the intention of this study to give an account of segmentation by race and sex, rather emphasis would only be placed on segmentation by sector, as those related to race and sex does not capture the study objectives.

The main postulation of the LMS theory depicts that there exist different and non-competing groups in the labour market whose differences are not engendered by the level of skills and education, but by social and institutional factors predicting the functions of the labour market at large (Ryan, 1981). These factors as inherent in the market place, have brought about major

discrimination between the primary and secondary sectors respectively. The concepts of primary and secondary labour market seem to have now been conceived, as a more conventional way of describing the workings of the labour market. For instance, Jakstiene (2010) contends that the primary sector comprises of people working with secured and good conditions of work, high rates of unionization for the protection of workers interests, career opportunities and an increasing number of workers possessing educational skills. In contrast, the secondary sector is permeated with unsecured jobs; bad conditions of work and poor compensation system; unstable labour; the prospects of career growth are nonexistence, and low qualification necessities (Lordoglu and Ozkaplan, 2003). In addition to these, primary sector jobs come with social protection such as health insurance and paid leave, while the secondary sector jobs, on the other hand, are encumbered with waning social rights and absence of trade union representation (Elliott, 1997).

The disparity between the employment conditions of workers in the primary and secondary labour market has generated a somewhat contentious debate between the orthodox neo-classical and LMS theorists. As a case in point, proponents of the Neo-Classical Economy Theory posit that the overall intention of organisations to remain competitive is not distanced from the urge to maximize profits through the alignment of worker's pay with the quality of their human capital skills. Specifically, the differences in the wages of two sets of workers performing similar job functions, aptly explain the existing variance in their human capital skills. LMS economists, on the other hand, argue that the disparity in the wages of two equal productive workers explains a show of labour discrimination (Canterford, 2009). Correspondingly, it is imperative to note that labour market discrimination is not a function of the individual characteristics, such as possession of education and skill, but the nature, contents, and characteristics of the job they do according to advocates of the LMS Theory (Carnoy, 1994).

From the foregoing analysis, it is suited to assume that many workers, especially those in the non-standard employment category suffers discrimination and humiliation, not because of the lack of extolling human capital skills but rather, the nature and contents of the job they are engaged with. For illustration, casual workers are daily challenged with discrimination and often seen as second-class (secondary sector) workers by permanent workers of the same organisation. With this verity, there seems no correlation between human capital skills accumulation and labour market discrimination. In fact, a reasonable number of workers with high human capital skills, are

alternatively confined to casual labour since the motive of the employer is to attain the highest level of profit possible, while utilizing the best hands. Similarly, it would also be an erroneous assumption to conclude that, all employees' in the primary sector are having an appreciable level of human capital skills. This position is justified in a situation where an employer seeks to use more or less qualified hands in place of more qualified job positions, requiring little or no competency.

A more familiar assumption of the LMS Theory is that individual differences in terms of human capital development, as in the case of the orthodox Neo-Classical Theory do not determine the distinction between individual possessions of good or bad jobs; rather there exist other extraneous factors influencing how jobs are structured or segmented in the labour market. Factors such as managerial control strategies, and labour market regulation system have more sway on the differentiation of jobs based on wages, protection and working conditions (Leontaridi, 1998). Again, the assumptions of the LMS Theory deviate from the orthodox thinking of the Neo-Classical Theory that an individual is saddled with the free will of making job preference based on own predilection, qualities, skills and subsequently receive compensation incommensurate with their human capital attributes. As a point of departure, the LMS theory assumes that the labour markets cannot be considered a single competitive market, but composed of varied segments where compensation for human capital skills fluctuates and some segment of the labour market stalled from enjoying similar opportunities (Leontaridi, 1998).

The above assumptions therefore anchored on many of the challenges workers in the secondary sector of the labour market are confronted with. For instance, the conditions of casual workers appropriately describe the features of the secondary sector labour market including low wage, denial of representation right, and lack of social protection scheme. In addition, institutional barriers have confined many secondary sector workers the privilege of gaining access into the much alluring primary sector labour market. However, to place neatly, LMS Theory fittingly describes the operations of many labour markets. For instance, the operations of the Nigerian labour market can be aligned to the assumptions of the LSM where workers are segmented based on their job characteristics and not individual characteristics (Fajana, 2008). Therefore, LSM Theory as adopted in this study is utilized as a road map to uncover and understand the varied challenges of casual workers otherwise called secondary sector workers, and how the partitioning

of the labour market into primary and secondary labour market sectors with the latter having fettered trade union representation, has hamstrung the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies.

Many theoretical positions exist for the clarification of the LMS Theory. Scholars have acknowledged why, and how two unconnected segments are apparent in labour markets, and what factors engenders this division (see Gazier and Petit, 2007; Polavieja, 2003; Bauder, 2001). For instance, apologists of the LMS Theory held staunchly that the result of the inequalities among workers in the labour market of economies across the globe is not far-fetched from employer's desire to promote the wishful tendency of the capitalists, thereby weakening the potent of the labour movements. LMS Theorist further argued that they exist a monopoly of power at play in the workings of the labour markets, swelling the spate of inequality through partitioning of the labour market into primary and secondary sectors (Rubery, 2006; Bauder, 2001). A more elaborate explanation can be borrowed from the words of Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973, p.361) that employers actively and consciously adopted labour market segmentation in order to divide and conquer the labour force.

Studies have accompanied the utility of LMS theory. Polavieja's (2003) study on *temporary contracts and labour market segmentation in Spain* shows that the segmentation of the labour force has generated increase inequalities in the Spanish labour market, with several invidious challenges to temporary employees of the secondary labour market, at the expense of prospering permanent workers of the primary sector. In essence, the study further avers that the Spanish labour market, has become progressively precarious with casual jobs growing both in size and momentum (Polavieja, 2003). Pages and Stampini (2007) study investigates labour market segmentation among primary and secondary sectors workers. Findings from their study show that labour market segmentation is having a nasty effect in terms of wage disparity among workers of the primary and secondary sectors across Latin American countries. In regard to the ease of transition from one segment to another, Garz (2013) study highlight that there exist barriers in transposing from secondary to primary labour market because of lessened future employment prospects, yet, transition from primary to secondary labour market sector seem not almost impossible, but rather improbable. By implication, the emphasis on inequality in the theme of labour market

segmentation seems to be more evident among secondary sector workers, who are mostly constrained by social and institutional factors.

Unlike the Neo-Liberal Theory, the LMS Theory has been criticized on many grounds. Firstly, Erdal, Hisarciklilar and Iikkaracan (2010) argue that the proposition that the labour market need to be structured into segments for a holistic understanding of trends and events is not unconnected to an act capable of supplanting the key function of the labour market. For instance, the classification of workers into primary and secondary labour market sector might not actually occur as a random circulation reflecting the individual choice and motivation, to be stationed in a segment of the labour market at a particular point in time. Secondly, Leontaridi (1998) makes a case for the shortcomings of the LMS theory. He contends that the central issue of transition in the LMS Theory is flawed.

Accordingly, the theory has not been able to prove with substantive evidence how workers in the secondary labour market sector are constrained from transposing to the primary sector and has also remained weak to explicitly explain the cause for secondary sector worker's entrapment. Therefore, the LMS theory has failed to give a clear number of labour market segment (Leontaridi, 1998). For instance, Doeringer and Piore (1971) classify them as primary and secondary, while Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) profess segmentation by primary, secondary, race and age. Notwithstanding its denunciations, the LMS theory has continued to be an important frame of analysis in predicting, and understanding the trends and functionality of the labour market. Based on its assumptions, the LMS theory is no doubt a useful thesis in the current study especially as it relates to understanding the problems of employment casualisation for those entrapped in the secondary labour market sector, and the implication this pose for trade union mobilizing and organizing efforts. In other words, the theory is restricted to understanding the monstrous challenges of employment casualization, and inadequate to extend a fuller understanding of trade union survival strategies to employment casualization. Hence, the Marxist Conflict Theory is positioned and discussed below to mitigate this inadequacy.

### ***2.10.3 The Marxist Conflict Theory***

The crux of the study of labour and employment relations is no doubt predicated on the understanding of the employee-employer relationship. Expectedly, the success or otherwise of this relationship is hinged on how the party responds to ensuing conflict in the workplace, and the need to protect each party's interest makes conflict inevitable. To place fittingly, the nub of employment relations is not unconnected from the resolution of workplace conflict. While on the one hand, the preceding theories have aptly captured some aspects of the research problem; for instance, the Neo-Liberal Theory is spare for the explanation of the spread of atypical employment owing to the absence of market rules and State intervention in labour markets practices and policy formulation, the LMS frame of analysis congruently explains the myriads of challenges faced by workers segmented into the secondary labour market, and how trade union functions have become constrained by way of having partitioned the labour market. Hence, the Conflict Theory is positioned for the analysis of trade union survival strategies to the unending trend of employment casualisation.

The history of the Conflict Theory begins in Europe in the wake of the fifteen century, when the feudal society could no longer cope with the evolving economy of that period. For Savur (1975), this era was characterised by unprecedented growth of capitalism, and the glamour for political theory to antagonize the growing capitalism birthed the Conflict Theory. Although a significant portion of the assumptions of conflict theory was to the credit of Karl Marx (1818-1883), Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527) however remains the foremost conflict theorist (Savur, 1975). An Italian statesman, Machiavelli exudes a fierce approach to the birth of capitalism. His main argument centered on the claim that the disparity between the poor, and the rich do not justify a sane society. In essence, the desire for domination and exploitation of the weak by the powerful, and the corresponding resistance by the weak often times result in conflict.

Proponents of Conflict Theory conceive of the organisation as comprising of sectional groups, with varied values and interests. On the one hand, the employees possess values and ambitions unrelated to that of management which apparently are in contrast to the aims and objectives of the organisation (Chidi and Okpala, n.d p.265). Rose (2008) recognizes that management desire has always been established on the need to achieve a surplus at the peril of labour. On the same line of discourse, exponents of the Conflict Theory consider the trade union as a legitimate contender

of managerial prerogatives, and dominations on the other hand (Rose, 2008). By implication, it is acknowledged that trade union as an organization of the working class, are capable of influencing management decisions. Otopo (2005) argues from the fact that employers' perception of labour as a commodity, stems several of the fundamental workplace conflicts. Otopo (2005) contend further that the wages and conditions of work, which the workers often time seek as a pathway to decent work life, portrays both costs and threats to employers profits, and are naturally resisted by employers.

The intention that employers always regard labour as a cost to be minimized predicts that the presence of such an employee in an employment relationship, only depicts that it is profitable and convenient for the employer to do so (p. 67). This analogy, aptly explains that the job security of an employee is positioned to the clemency of economic and technological advancement. For instance, a plummet in demand for the goods and services produced or the production of more cheap, and profitable goods with the invention of new techniques would invariably mean increased incidence of atypical employment and job loss (Otopo, 2005). Consequently, in a typified capitalist industry, workers are treated less as individuals with diverse needs and aspirations. The value of their education is somewhat portraying them as useful to the eyes of the employers. In the absence of their instant use, they become trifling and additional to requirements. By so doing, the drive and desire of a capitalist would require that they perform work that is strenuous, dehumanizing, obliterating and far from deriving meaning and satisfaction (Otopo, 2005).

For Abbott (2006), the basic tenets of the conflict theory with an excerpt from the writings of Marx, is that capitalist societies are branded by class struggle. Firstly, Marx alleged that the need for struggle is roused by inequalities in the distribution of wealth among the constituents of society. Secondly, on the one hand, the wealth and property ownership are concentrated in the hands of a small fraction of the society (the bourgeoisie/management), while on the other hand, the enormous of the proletariat (workers) live in poverty with perturbing conditions of work. Abbott (2006) recapitulates that the capitalists with the might of dominating both the economic and political power of the society are forced to exploits the working class. Yet, the increased spate of exploitation of the working class is not isolated from the high level of competition between the capitalists. Marx in his writing asserts that the competitive drive among the capitalists has yielded

the need to cut down workers' wages, and subsequently reduce their conditions of work (Abbott, 2006 p. 194).

Therefore, with reference to workplace conflict, the basic assumption of the Conflict Theory would mean that the expanding and continuous privation on workers will ultimately stir them to identify the oneness of their class interest, leading them to organise and question the growing influence of capitalist exploitation. The overwhelming induction of Marxian Conflict Theory to the study of employment relations exceeds the oeuvre of Marx himself (Ogunbameru, 2004). For instance, an apologist of Marxist, Hyman (1975) submits that the unending power struggle for control between the owners of production and labour is the fundamental *motif* of employment relations. Accordingly, the capitalist desire to purchase labour at the very lowest price by depriving them social benefits including medical, housing and retirement plans. In defense, therefore, the workers through the mouthpiece of trade union association, strive to ensure the continued existence of the working people and struggle to improving working conditions (Hyman, 1975). Accordingly, the Marxist perspective exemplifies the workplace as a replication of the growing societal inequalities, and the unavoidable mien of this in the workplace (Chidi and Okpala, n.d p.265).

The assumptions of the conflict theory include that units operating in a social system, continually reveals that conflict of interest represents an upshot of unequal distribution of the existing scarce resources (Akinwale (2014, p.95). In other words, conflicts become bi-polar involving the exploitation of the majority by a small powerful minority. In the description of Marx's thesis, the awareness and feelings of relative deprivation are the fulcrum of conflict initiation. Hence, the foci of Marx's discourse reflect that the feelings and awareness of deprivation are the fundamental changes that would lead the working class to the realization of changing the existing *status quo*. By implication, two conditions must be attained to bring about the desired changes. These include, the feelings that workers in atypical employment feel deprived of certain employment benefits in comparison to permanent workers, and the feelings that the trade union association recognize that the increased growth of employment casualisation is waning the strength of the union. For emphasis, without the placement of these feelings, the tendency and zeal to question the exploitative inclination of the capitalists would ordinarily not be initiated.

Anyim (2009) summarizes that the evidence of conflicts, in any employment relations is based on diverse and conflictual nature of interest between the parties and seem diametrically opposing to each other. However, a major factor promoting the state of the capitalist economy that has accompanied strands of inequality between the employee and management is the State. For illustration, the State has always been positioned for the support and protection of the activities of the bourgeoisie, and is thus perceived as a coercive instrument of the ruling capitalists (Anyim, p.42; Hyman, 1975). In view of this standpoint, Hyman (1975) reiterates that the control of work by management conveys workers into conflicts with them, and cogitates the State as a mere influencing perpetrator to promote the selfish inclinations of the capitalists. Therefore, the contention of the Conflict Theory according to Marx is that human existence hinges on conflict; an outcome of the strong rich exploiting the poor-weak, wherein the weak and oppressed groups in a capitalist economy retort in a destructive way with little or no room for cooperation (Yakkaldevi, 2014). Therefore, a more viable solution to the exploitative tendencies of the capitalist is a call for workers' revolution to bring about cessation, to both the political and economic domination of the capitalists (Yakkaldevi, 2014 p. 13). In other words, the working class must be available and involved in the revolution to change the *status quo* of long working hours, inhumane work conditions and a low wage which appropriately describes basic features of employment casualisation.

No doubts, based on the principles and assumptions of the conflict theory, the theory hypotheses are a useful construct in the current study as regards the survival strategies of a trade union. Trade union strategies including industrial strike, collective bargaining, education and (re)training programmes and leadership strategy cannot be separated from the suppositions of the Conflict Theory. For instance, the inability of parties in an employment relation to reach a compromise often results in conflict such as the declaration of an industrial strike. In addition, the impasse of collective bargaining for parties to reach collective agreement also ends in conflicts. Put together, the conflict theory deductions aid in understanding the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation practices. Nevertheless, having recognized the sway of conflict in the workplace, especially as a weapon of the trade union to revert an existing *status quo*, the theory also owns its drawbacks.

According to Anyim (2009), the apologists of Conflict Theory are rather too ideological than practical. For instance, a major criticism of the theory is the absence of consideration to non-unionized organisations, where conflicts barely occur. For this set of workers, the provocation of conflicts can only be initiated by a recognized trade union association so as to convey a more pronounced negotiation outcome. Adewumi (2007) acknowledges that some organisations would rather go into agreement with employees to avert the intent of forming trade union association by way of meeting up with few demands of the workforce. In effect, conflicts of interest would hardly be visible in this instance, because of the absence of a formidable trade union association (Adewumi, 2013). Therefore, it is evident that the supposition of the Marxist Conflict Theory is limited to uncovering and assessing the efficacy of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation, while lacking substantial verities to uphold other issues discussed in this study. With this in mind, other considerable theories were carefully reviewed and discussed to address this shortfall. For clarity, Table 2.4 explains the nexus between the three theoretical frameworks and research questions.

**Table 2.4: Link between adopted theoretical frameworks and research questions**

S/N	Research questions	Theories	Phases of research addressed by theories
1.	What are the patterns and trends in the growth of employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector?	Neo-liberal theory	Arrangement and growth of employment casualisation
2.	What are the challenges of employment casualisation for workers and trade union of Nigeria's beverage sector?	Labour market segmentation theory (LMS)	Problems and challenges associated with employment casualisation
3.	How do trade unions react to the increasing challenges of employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector?	Conflict theory	Trade union reactionary strategies to the unending trend of employment casualisation
4.	What is the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in ameliorating the effect of casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector?	Conflict theory	Efficacy of trade union response to employment casualisation
5.	In what ways are trade union strategies constrained by a constellation of factors in minimizing the effect of employment casualisation on workers of Nigeria's beverage sector?	Labour market segmentation theory (LMS)	Constraints of trade union survival strategies in reducing the rising influence of casualisation

**Sources:** Author's compilation

## 2.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, the *leitmotif* of employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies and other related concepts were reviewed using empirical evidence. Firstly, it was analysed that a detailed analysis of employment casualisation cannot be intellectualized without having it surveyed through the lens of globalisation, a development that undeniably changed the traditional employment relationship globally. However, to appositely have a fuller understanding of the phenomenon of employment casualisation, it became highly imperative to position for the review of the positive and undesirable impact of globalisation on work. Similarly, drawing from the various academic debates reviewed in this chapter, it was engendered that the intensification and interconnectedness of major MNC's have greatly affected the growth of standard employment relations (SER). In other words, it is obvious and self-sufficient to contend that globalisation and all its features have come to stay, thus, it is only a common knowledge that the proliferation of employment casualisation would flow with the advancement of globalisation. However, the chapter argued that the wave and conditions of work in employment casualization, does not merge with the hope globalisation has for the working population. As some writers have rightly attested, the growth and expansion of globalisation have correspondingly increased employers' adoption of employment casualisation.

Secondly, the chapter identified and reviewed three comparable but nuanced patterns of employment casualisation including contract staffing, outsourcing, and part-time employment. However, the debates in the literature uncover that these three strands of employment casualisation have lost their original intentions. For instance, contract work that was designed for augmentation in the exigencies of production has become a norm in recent times. The reviewed academic debates position that there exists a level of agreement, in terms of the enormous challenges encountered by workers in these three different work components. Similarly, while there were some commentaries on the benefits of employment casualisation to the organisation and the individual worker, in particular as a cushion to the prevalence of unemployment, studies in this regard were lacking empirical justifications. Therefore, the spotlights of empirical research exhuming the challenges of employment casualisation in this setting were those that are espoused vehemently with empirical evidence.

Thirdly, the main talking point of this review is the rarity of research establishing a robust link between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. To be sure, most of the available studies reviewed in this chapter, have only captured the single variable of either employment casualisation or trade union survival strategies, as there is hardly any study that has investigated the combined variables of employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies, with a distinct focus on the strategies adopted for this study. Therefore, the identification and review of collective bargaining processes, industrial strikes, and trade union education and (re) training programmes, and trade union leadership activities is a pointer to the shortage of existing research on this discourse. Most of the discussions reviewed show that most studies were conducted outside the shores of Nigeria, and have equally investigated other types of trade union survival strategies different from those investigated in this study.

Likewise, there are hardly studies on trade union survival strategies in Nigeria that have examined trade union survival strategies as a measure of the endless growth of employment casualisation in the Lagos State Beverage sector. While major shortcomings of the review were identified by uncovering the originality of the study, the chapter also positions the study on a conceptual framework with explicit explanations of variables measured. The conceptual framework was developed from issues and themes discussed in the review, with the modifications of the Dunlop (1958) System Models. No doubt, the utility of the Dunlop (1958) System Models shows how external factors (economy, legal, politics, public policy, and the social environment) influence the relationship between actors in employment relations. The model is mainly extended to unravel how these factors influence or constrict the execution of effective trade union survival strategies policies and programmes for the attainment of decency in the workplace.

Furthermore, the chapter also explored and discussed relevant theoretical frameworks related to the study. These theories were carefully examined and discussed considering the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies, and the underlying research questions of the study. Each of these theories was appropriately applied to explore and address different issues in this study. For instance, the assumptions of Neo-Liberal and LMS theories were identified as instrumental in achieving some aspects of the research questions (see Table 2.5). Equally, the suppositions of the Marxist Conflict theory were also considered relevant to explaining other strands of the research questions (see Table 2.5). According to the Neo-Liberal

theory, market freedom without restriction and stiff regulation is a major pathway to enhance an individual's general well-being and State welfare. Market freedom without State intervention will prosper the economy, and subsequently create the needed platforms where investors can strive competitively for the overall growth of the economy. In contrast, the study highlights through the theory, major implications of abolishing State involvement in the activities and operations of the labour market.

The question is what ensues in the absence of regulating and monitoring of labour market activities as a check for fair labour practices? To fittingly address this question, it was analysed that instead of prospering the conditions of the market, the elimination of State involvement as advocated by neo-liberalists, has exposed the labour market to the opportunities of perpetrators to conduct their selfish capitalist practices by hijacking the forces of the market for profit maximization, through dehumanizing and replacing the traditional work pattern with employment casualisation.

Two distinctive segments of the LMS labour were examined in this theory: the primary labour markets characterized with *good* jobs and secondary labour market considered as *bad* jobs<sup>37</sup>. The theory captures that workers in the secondary labour markets are more positioned at the receiving end of the labour market, where the meaning of work is depleting with diverse forms of work features. Therefore, the idiosyncrasies of the secondary labour market were aptly positioned for understanding the diverse challenges confronting casual workers. The suppositions of the Marxist Conflict Theory, unlike the preceding theories, took a different path in this study. The theory explains the inevitability of conflict between parties in an employment relationship. By implication, an individual or group of persons with different and incomparable expectations would tend to be in conflict with each other, especially in an employment relationship where an individual party is wrestling for the interest of its constituents. Although management is always positioned to exert influence on the working people, and subsequently exploits and manipulates them for profit, the theory posits that there is a threshold at which the working people will no longer tolerate any form of exploitation, and the initiation of conflicts and revolution against management in the workplace becomes desirable.

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<sup>37</sup> The nomenclature of *good* and *bad* jobs describes the job characteristics of the primary and secondary labour market sector. The former captures jobs with long duration, social benefits, structured wage system and formation of trade union association, while the latter depicts jobs lacking sustenance and proscription of trade union association

The Conflict Theory is thus relevant in assessing how the trade union movements have been responding to the perturbing state of employment casualization, and the effectiveness of their strategies in particular. Finally, this chapter attempts to ratify the reality of the research problem and gap in the literature, especially with its adoption of a mixed methods methodology which is evidently sparse among other related studies, while also contributing substantially to the entire body of knowledge.

## CHAPTER THREE

### EVOLUTION OF TRADE UNION AND THE BEVERAGE SECTOR IN NIGERIA

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter is sectionalised into three distinct sections. The first task explores Nigeria's labour market and the growth of employment casualisation. In a bid to engender precise accounts of trends and activities in Nigeria's labour market, the chapter highlights and establishes a clear cut dichotomy between the formal and informal labour market sectors. Importantly, the aim is to capture the narratives of events and activities that have engulfed the operations of Nigeria labour market. Reflecting through these descriptions, the chapter presents an intellectual debate of how the function of the Nigeria labour market has been dwindling, while the flourish of non-standard employment continues unceasingly. Of course, it is interesting to know what conditions and factors are precipitating these developments. In light of this, the chapter presents a flawed institutional framework and the bane of unemployment among others as factors altering the functionality of Nigeria labour market.

Furthermore, the chapter traces the historical evolution of the trade union in Nigeria. Essentially, it examines activities that have evolved over time, and grow into trade union recognition in Nigeria. In addition, it addresses the question of ideological orientations and unceasing trend of factionalisation upon which trade unionism is laid in Nigeria. In considering the above, the chapter evaluates whether this development holds any serious implications for trade union functions and protections for the working population, particularly those concentrated in the non-standard employment category. To assess these responsibilities, the chapter discusses salient trade union functions including the economic, social and political functions. However, pertinent among these various functions is the need to examine how the economic function has improved the interests of the working people. Similarly, there is also the imperative to understand trends in the Nigerian beverage industry through the lens of the Lagos State beverage sector, with an exposition of major economic performance indicators. Thus, five selected organisations sampled from the available seven beverage companies in Lagos State are discussed in this chapter, including Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Guinness Nigeria Plc, Nigeria Breweries Plc, Seven-Up Bottling Company, and the Nigeria

Bottling Company Limited<sup>38</sup>. The selection of these organisations is staunchly predicated on their trade union and workforce strength among other organisations (Chidi, 2014)<sup>39</sup>. Therefore, the chapter describes the history, development and the assortments of brands produced by these organisations, while also explaining their trade union structures and formations.

### **3.2 Nigeria labour market and the growth of employment casualisation**

The labour market operates to monitor the allocation of wages and employment by engaging the functions of demand and supply for a possible contract of employment (Fajana, 2008). The activities of the labour market serve as an important factor for the sustained growth of any economy, and its functionality connotes several insinuations for the well-being of those employed and the unemployed respectively. This is sufficient to argue that the operations of the labour market can either better the lots of the employed, or stalled the prospects of absorbing the unemployed through its various institutions and regulatory frameworks. Unlike any other labour market, particularly in Africa, the Nigerian labour market is highly saturated with people who are willing and qualified to work but could not secure jobs on the one hand, and those lacking the market-driven qualities, yet are able to secure jobs on the other hand. In essence, a fuller understanding of issues in Nigeria labour market cannot be separated from the need to understand the high incidence of unemployment (Gbosi, 2005), and lack of effective institutions and regulatory frameworks (Folawewo, 2015).

A cursory examination of Nigeria's economy depicts that unemployment has been a well-known trend in Nigeria's saturated labour market (see table 3.1). The Nigerian economy has been affected by several shots of decline in the prices of oil globally, with attendant challenges for the effective operation of the labour market (Onwioduokit, Adamgbe and Buno n.d). The global fall in oil prices in 2016 indubitably launches Nigeria into an economic recession in the last quarter of 2017, with an unemployment rate index of 18.8 percent (NBS, 2017). However, prior to this period, the phenomenon of unemployment has been a re-occurring issue in Nigeria since the economic slump of the 1980s (Gbosi, 2005). Precisely, the failure of SAP economy policy by the International

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<sup>38</sup> It is important to note that aside the verity that five of the available seven organisations have robust trade union strength, they are equally affiliated members of both the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB) and the National Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE)

<sup>39</sup> Particularly, the other two are not only lacking commendable workforce sizes and formidable trade union strength but are not affiliated to either FOBTOB or NUFBTE. In essence, this reflects a departure from the goal of the study on trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation

Monetary Fund (IMF)- World Bank in many African countries, inclusive of Nigeria seems unconnected with the incidence of the high rate of unemployment (Akinwale, 2014), although with intermittent decline and rise (see table 3.1)<sup>40</sup>. Furthermore, one major consequence of the IMF-World Bank economy policy is affirmed from the drastic retrenchment in both the public and private sector of Nigeria's economy, an occurrence resulting from government inability to continue the sustenance of her enormous workforce, and private employers need to reduce their workforce as a cautionary measure to remain in business (Gbosi, 2005).

The institutional frameworks of the labour market are saddled with the regulation of employment relationship such as a legal structure for the standard at work, minimum wage and recognition of trade union. Albeit, the institutional framework is more of the outcome of government policy, yet workers organisations influence the outcome of this policy to a great extent. In a paper presented in Germany on institutions, regulatory frameworks and labour market outcomes in Nigeria, Folawewo (2015) argued that it is no doubt that unemployment has remained a major barrier to the effective functioning of the Nigerian labour market, yet, the puzzle of ineffective and failure of institutions and regulatory frameworks cannot be overemphasized. The author comments that institutions and regulatory frameworks position for the formulation and implementation of labour market policies have failed to revitalize the moribund position of the Nigerian labour market. By implication, labour market institutions and regulatory frameworks such as the trade union movements, and the Nigeria Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment (NFMLE) have not been able to stem the tide of the many inconsistencies in the operation of the Nigerian labour market (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). Rather than serving as a protective net for workers, including those outside the purview of standard employment relations, the Nigerian labour market institutions and regulatory framework have become a phenomenon of fragility, whose policies and rules are considered weak and incapable of promoting decent work (Folawewo, 2015, Okoronkwo, 2008).

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<sup>40</sup> Unemployment rate from the table below recorded an increase rate of 2.3 percent between 1986 and 1987, these periods chronicled harsh economic effect on many Nigerian accompanied by the introduction of the SAP economy policy. Similarly, the scenario of unemployment was no better with the world financial crisis of 2008. Beginning from this period, the Nigeria labour market has been permeated with an alarming rate of unemployment recording a total of 10.2 % increase in 7years (from 14.9 % in 2008 to 25.1in 2014).

Therefore, the enigma of unemployment and ineffective institutions and regulatory frameworks cannot be excused from factors promulgating a high rate of employment casualisation in the Nigerian labour market. For a case in point, the high profile of unemployment can be a motivating force for an individual, who is previously unemployed to be attracted to non-standard jobs for survival needs. Similarly, profit-driven employers in both the industrial and service sectors of the Nigerian economy, are hotly taking advantage of the high incidence of unemployment to launch and promote all sort of work arrangement that does not promote international best practices as endeared by the ILO. In fact, the unemployment situation in the Nigerian labour market apparently displays a daunting mindset for entry job seekers, for fear of being victims of labour casualisation.

In addition, lack of sound and effective institutions and regulatory framework can invariably be conceived as a catalyst, and indubitably a means through which employers of labour have become more empowered to adopt more of labour casualisation practices to accumulate more profit. Drawing from the above, the widespread adoption of employment casualisation is not unconnected with the challenge of unemployment and failed institutions and regulatory frameworks as evidence in the operation of the Nigerian labour market (see Gbosi, 2005; Folawewo, 2015). Therefore, for a clearer understanding of trends and events in Nigeria's labour market, the formal and informal sectors of the labour market are explored in the ensuing section. This necessity no doubt will niche the Nigeria labour market discourse within a rich context by harnessing its activities, policies, regulation, and framework for a robust conceptual understanding of the subject under investigation.

**Table 3.1 A chart of Nigeria’s unemployment rate from 1986-2017**

S/N	Year	Unemployment rate in percentage
1	1986	5.3
2	1987	7.0
3	1988	5.3
4	1989	4.0
5	1990	3.5
6	1991	3.1
7	1992	3.4
8	1993	2.7
9	1994	2.0
10	1995	1.8
11	1996	3.8
12	1997	3.2
13	1998	3.2
14	1999	8.2
15	2000	13.1
16	2001	13.6
17	2002	12.6
18	2003	14.8
19	2004	13.4
20	2005	11.9
21	2006	12.3
22	2007	12.7
23	2008	14.9
24	2009	19.7
25	2010	21.4
26	2011	23.9
27	2012	27.4
28	2013	24.7
29	2014	25.1
30	2015	17.4
31	2016	13.9
32	2017	18.8

**Source:** National Bureau of Statistics various years’ unemployment rate

**3.2.1 An exposition of the formal and informal sectors of Nigeria’s labour market: what are the implications for workers?**

An all-inclusive understanding of events in the Nigerian labour market, cannot be established without an exploration of activities in the formal and informal sectors of the Nigerian economy. In essence, a typical labour market functions from two components; the formal and the informal sectors respectively (Fajana, 2008). Firstly, the formal sector as a segment of the labour market comprises of economic activities that are structured and based on viable economic policies. Activities in this sector greatly depend on the presence of MNC’s, availability of huge capitals

flows, trade union presence and the tendency for workers to enjoy long work duration characterised by permanent and full-time employment (Fajana, 2008). Notwithstanding the alluring features of this sector of the labour market, the formal sector is characterised with entry difficulties and stiff competition among competitors; reliance on imported materials for production; the use of huge capital for investments and employees need to acquire competent education and training skills to compete effectively, while the entire market operations are protected by laws (Egharevba, 2008). The contrary is discernable in the informal sector. Therefore, the formal sector can be termed the “*decent economy*” on the one hand, and the informal the “*indecent economy*”<sup>41</sup> on the other hand. From the above analogies, caution should be observed that the formal economy cannot be conceived as an entirely decent economy. Reasons alluded to this claim are not far-fetched as activities in this sector, also include varied employment practices lacking decent work qualities such as perpetuated by both the indigenous private organisations and other MNC’s.

The informal sector is conceptualised as all economy activities operating outside the confines of standard wage and social protection employment, specifically practiced by self-employed persons (Egharevba, 2008). However, studies have shown that activities of the informal sector no doubt portend a significant growth path for any economy (see Egharevba, 2008; Okafor, 2012a). A similar study has been reported by Abolade, Adeboyejo and Ogini (2013). Abolade, Adeboyejo and Ogini’s (2013) study examined the contributions of urban informal enterprises to the economy of Nigeria with three thousand, four hundred and forty-four (3444) operators of informal enterprises in Ibadan, Nigeria. Findings from their study show that activities in the informal sector of the economy are increasing in recent times, and have been a survival option for many because of the debility of the formal sector to generate formal and continuous jobs. For instance, the informal sector has over time been able to provide a safety net for the increased number of unemployed Nigerians and contributes a total of 58 percent to Nigeria’s economic growth in terms of GDP index (Nigeria Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning-NFMBNP, 2017). To support the above assertion, the Nigeria economy despite the troubled days of the SAP, still did not collapse owing to the robust support of activities in the informal sector (Abolade, Adeboyejo and Ogin, 2013). In contrast, Egharevba in his PhD thesis on neo-liberal socio-economic policy

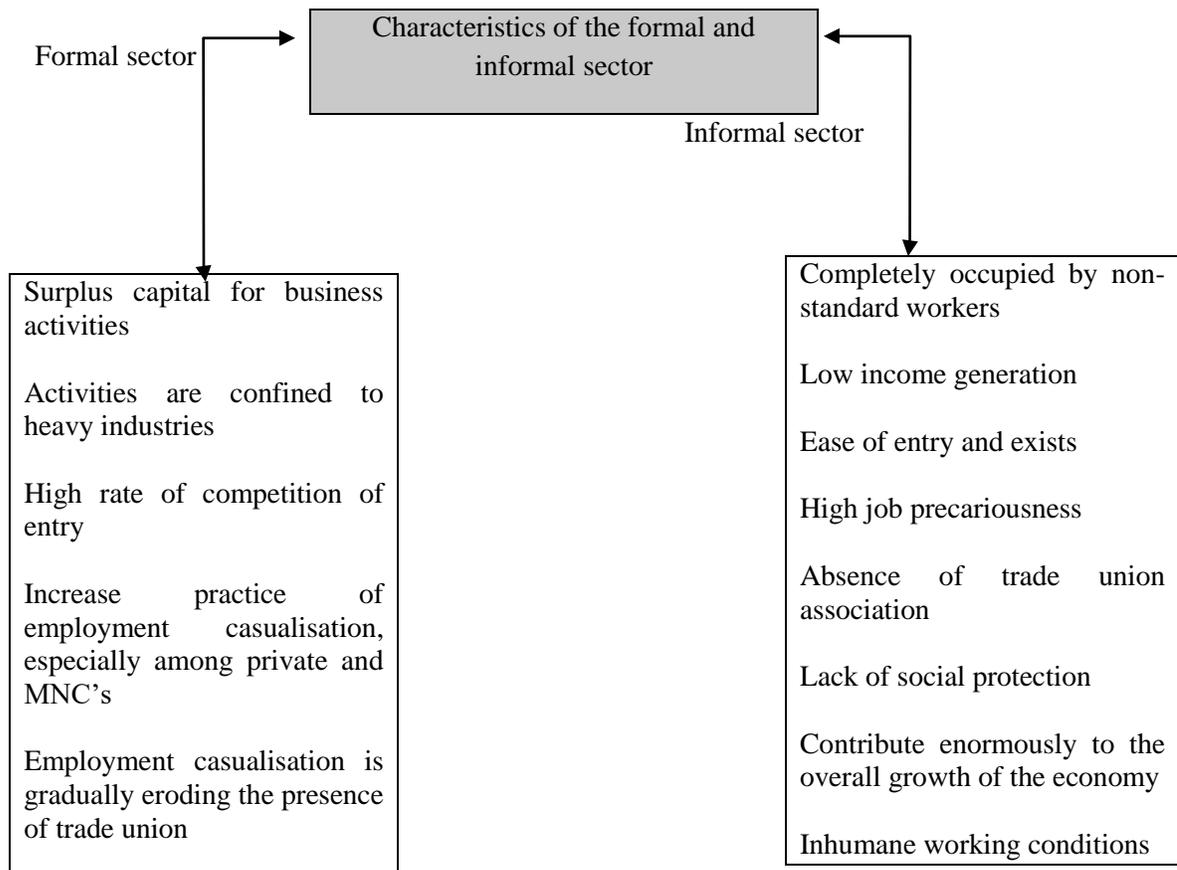
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<sup>41</sup> Decent economy is used to denote economy activities that seeks to promote decent work for the working population such as equitable wage and social protection net, why indecent economy is conceptualise to mean economy activities that foreclose decency such as those lacking social protection

and human development in the informal sector of Lagos State contend that albeit, the informal sector has been a safety net by generating jobs for the unemployed, yet activities and practices in this sector are not unconnected from issues relating to lack of protection, low and inequitable income, institutional failures and absence of trade union association (Akinwale, 2014), and characterized with perturbing and precarious work in recent times.

For Nwaka (2004), the environment and working conditions of informal workers convey invidious challenges to their health and overall well-being. In light of this discourse, the formal and informal sector possesses two edges of the sword. Firstly, the formal sector is characterised with standard and full-time employment with the likelihood of long duration. Regrettably, the MNC's since the advent of globalization, have been promoting quite an alarming rate of employment casualisation with corresponding consequences for workers. In fact, unfair labour practices are the regular norm in MNC's (Okafor, 2012a). On the other hand, the informal sector is no better option after all with numerous work challenges for the individual worker such as low pay, denial of social security protection, and the right to form and belong to trade union association (Akinwale, 2014), insecurity of jobs and non-provision of human capital development necessities. Aptly, the above discussion neatly cements with the assumptions of the LMS theory employed in this study. In other words, these verities validate the LMS theory as a useful thesis for exploring the challenges of employment casualisation. Figure 3.1 explicates the major features of the formal and informal sector.

**Figure 3.1 A summary of work features of the formal and informal sectors**



**Sources:** Author's compilation (Akin wale, 2014; Chen 2007; Fajana, 2008; Nwaka, 2004).

### 3.3 Development of trade union in Nigeria

The exact origin of trade union in Nigeria remains a debate of confusion, especially as there exist different explanations and perspectives as to how the formation of trade union emerged. However, a well-known account of trade union history in Nigeria, is traced to the formation of associations such as the guilds, mutual aid societies and the carpenter unions (Siebel, 1973). On a contrary account, Fajana (2006) professed that these associations were existing prior to the advent of colonization as such, there were merely regulating entry into their professions and responsible for conducting and imposing levies on members, and cannot be considered a trade union association as there were not in wage employment; a far more reaching condition that gave recognition to trade union formation (see Fajana 2006; Otopo, 1987). In Nigeria, the first recognized trade union was the Southern Nigerian Civil Service Union established in 1912 and later named the Nigeria Civil Services Union (NCSU) in 1914 shortly after the amalgamation of the Southern and Northern Protectorates. Again, in 1931, two additional trade unions were established (Otopo, 2005); there

were the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT), and the Nigeria Railway Workers Union (NRWU) championed by the late Pa Micheal Imoudu. Prior to the formation of these two trade unions, the NRWU was a faction of the NCSU before it broke off owing to perceived dissatisfaction in the running of union activities. Between 1912 and 1931, there were massive agitations for increase wage and the need to indigenize several of the posts held by the British and the results of these agitations led to the emergence of other trade union associations (Ananaba, 1970).

An interesting turn to this history was that the three trade unions established between 1912 and 1931 (NCSU, NRWU and NUT) were without an appreciable number of members, and the milieu of their operations tend to be local. Although, the unions were hotly positioned for safeguarding the interest of their members (Adefolaju, 2013), yet there were less effective and lack the legal recognition to bargain collectively with their employers (Anyim, 2014). In 1938, the trade union ordinance was legislated granting the existing trade unions legal recognition by allowing more than five persons to form a trade union association, while it was subsequently increased to fifty by Decree 31 of 1973.

For the record, the fact that any five persons could form trade union has been re-counted as one of the factor that has led to the proliferation of trade unions in Nigeria, with many having a feeble structure of organisation (Fashoyin, 1980; Adefolaju, 2013). This development, weak structure of operation, has consequently promoted unhealthy trade union association with increasing divisive and rivalry challenges within the Nigeria labour organisations at large. With this recognition, by 1975 trade unions in Nigeria had increased to over 1,000 mushroom unions (Alhaji, 2013). Regrettably the over 1,000 mushroom unions were not adequately managed, and as result, members were reluctant in remitting their membership check-off dues, necessitating frequent and consistent trade unions demand financial aid from foreign trade unions (Fajana, 2006). In specific, the enactment of the 1938 trade union ordinance established the *modus operandi* of the trade union, including the mode of registration which spelled out the right and obligations of the employees, and employers in an employment relationship (Oikelome, 2014).

The NRWU apparently became the first registered trade union under the ordinance. Nevertheless, the General Defense Regulation of 1942 that proscribed industrial lockout intricate the existing relationship between workers and the colonial government at this time, and consequently resort to workers guiding against overturning their new organisations (Jawando, 2009). Interestingly, this

development led to the collaboration between the trade union movements with other Nationalists in a bid to salvage the fragile trade union organisations (Jawando, 2009). Again, this account chronicled the interests and fierce contributions of Nationalists to many of the trade union struggle, in Africa and Nigeria in particular. However, the proscription set out by the General Defense Regulation that was to introduce some element of intimidation, conversely turned out as an instrument that prompted the drive and growth of trade unionism in Nigeria (Jawando, 2009; Oikelome, 2014). In other words, the headway gained by the workers of the Railway Workers Union, supposedly became the push factor for workers in other professions to align with the need of forming their own association.

The period between 1953 and 1959 witnessed the creation of more factional trade union including the All Nigerian Trade Union Federation (ANTUF), National Council of Trade Unions of Nigeria (NCTUN) and the Trade Union Congress of Nigeria (TUC). For Oikelome (2014), these periods being the post independent era ushered Nigeria trade unions into a state of political and ideological confusion, which has indubitably dampen the relevance of trade union hitherto. Subsequently, this muddle led to a stiffer competition among the Labour Unity Front (LUF), United Labour Congress of Nigeria (ULCN), Nigeria Trade Union Congress (NTUC), and the Nigerian Workers Council (NWC) who were all defunct central labour organisations recognized at the end of 1975 (Anyim, 2014). From this period, the Nigerian trade unions have been experiencing major restructuring by successive government.

As at today, the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended has now given legal recognition to TUC as an additional central labour body to the existing Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC). Recently, the United Labour Congress (ULC) led by Comrade Joe Ajaero broke off from the NLC because of major dissatisfaction that ensues from the National convention held in March 2015. Summarily, this and many more internal squabbles, account for one of the challenges facing the growth of trade union in Nigeria. While this section has clearly made a case for the development of trade union in Nigeria, the succeeding section of the chapter explores the objective and functions of trade union association. This position is useful to establish a ground on how the trade union movements have been responding to the welfare and advancement of her members. Table 3.2 shows major events ensuing the development of trade union in Nigeria.

**Table 3.2 Major events in Nigeria’s trade union history**

<b>Date</b>	<b>Major events in the history of Nigeria’s trade union movements</b>
1912	The first trade union (Nigerian Civil Services Union) was formed
1931	Two additional trade union, the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) and Railway Workers Union (RWU) were formed
1938	The trade union ordinance was enacted in Nigeria
1975	Restructuring of trade union into four central labour organisations
1975	Trade unions associations increased to over 1,000 mushroom unions
1976	The Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) was formed and inaugurated in Ibadan in 1978
July 1994	The Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) declared a nationwide strike in solidarity for the June 12 annulled the general election
August 1994	The military detained trade union leaders for the nation-wide strike
June 1998	Detained leaders of trade union released and government initiated a non-interventionist policy in the affairs of the trade union
1999-2007	Adams Oshiomole reigned as NLC president after a successful career as the former president of National Union of Textile Garment and Tailoring Workers of Nigeria (NUTGTWN)
2005	The Trade Union Congress (TUC) of Nigeria was given legal recognition as an additional central labour organisation with the enactment of Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended
9 <sup>th</sup> January 2012	The national strike by the NLC and TUC for the removal of oil subsidy by the former president Goodluck Jonathan led administration
2007-2013	Peter Esele reigned as the president of TUC after serving as a former president of Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria (PENGASSAN)
2007-2015	Abdulwaheed Omar reigned as NLC president after his successful reign as the president of Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT)
2013-Date	Bobboi Kaigama elected the new president of TUC from being a former president of the Association of Senior Civil Servant of Nigeria (ASCSN)
March 2015	The United Labour Congress (ULC) split from the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC)
2015-Date	Ayuba Wabba elected as the new president of NLC after successfully serving as a former president of the Medical and Health Workers Union of Nigeria (MHWUN)

**Source:** Adapted from Oikelome, 2014, p. 96.

### ***3.3.1 Objectives and functions of trade unions***

The trade union movement functions as the powerhouse of the working class in general through harnessing and utilizing its clout for the improvement of the working people, including the resolution of the diversity of problems confronting the working population (Fajana, 2006). Thus, the trade union movement functions in varied forms through different conduits for the overall interest of members and the association at large. Fajana (2006) advised that it would rather seem erroneous to generalize the function of trade unions, as they are a disparity between the obligations of trade unions leaders, and the various rank-and-file memberships. Nonetheless, the general functions of trade unions include, but not limited to economic, social and political functions (Anyim, 2014; Fajana, 2006).

### **3.3.1.1 *Economic function***

Without much argument, the most important function of the trade union movement is a negotiation to increase economic benefits of members through an increment in wages across the board. By implication, the trade union body pursues a commensurate pay for workers in line with the prevailing economic realities (Anyim, 2014). The economic function is to ensure members are able to afford and attain a befitting living standard for themselves and family. To achieve this function, the trade union leaders periodically lobby the employers for a better condition of work, and in some instances conflicts ensue owing to non-compliance on the part of employers. As a case in point, several of the increase in minimum wage in Nigeria was centered on the need to improve members living conditions because of the constant rise in the prices of the commodity in the market. For example, the NLC President, Ayuba Wabba recently argue for an increase in the minimum wage as the current #18,000 naira<sup>42</sup> is longer justified owing to the high rate of the commodity in the market, and the general increase in living conditions.

### **3.3.1.2 *Social function***

Although, the economic function of trade union indubitably is the most important function of the trade union, yet, the utility of economic function cannot be effective without other strands of trade union functions. Thus, social function connotes the facilitation of social interactions among trade union members through seminars, symposia, conferences and workshop on human capital development (Fajana. 2006). Trade union social function also extends to the provision of welfare in the form of scholarships and grants to the children of members, whether living or deceased. Akin to the social function, the unions are frequently involved in the establishment of co-operative society and transportation welfare scheme, printing press and travel agency. This is in a bid to extend its investment base while cushioning the impacts of low income on the living standards of members, and for the pursuit of a common purpose needed for the realization of their corporate existence (Anyim, 2014, p.57).

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<sup>42</sup> Naira denoted by the sign # is Nigeria's legal currency

### **3.3.1.3 Political function**

It is often argued that politics and trade union activities are inseparable as most trade union leaders are directly or indirectly involved in the political affairs of a country. In fact, trade unions are mostly involved in shaping the polity of the State as related to workers and other political matters as they were. This assertion is not far-fetched, as trade unions periodically wrestle to achieve their aims by way of involving in political discourse. The trade unions political function includes lobbying the state for favourable legislation (Fajana, 2006). For instance, the Nigerian central labour organisation in 2016 demanded a review of the minimum wage from #18,000 to #56,000, as it was argued that #18,000 minimum wage does not longer dovetail with the present economic reality. Trade union also function politically by actively engaging and venting their views on issues affecting the state of the nation such as insecurity, unemployment, and the fight against corruption (Anyim, 2014). Therefore, it is not strange to see trade union leaders, filling positions within the legislative and executive arm of government owing to their active involvement in government. For example, Adams Oshiomole became the executive governor of Edo State after his reign as the president of the NLC with his erstwhile political party, Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN).

## **3.4 The Nigerian beverage sector at a glance: a focus on Lagos State**

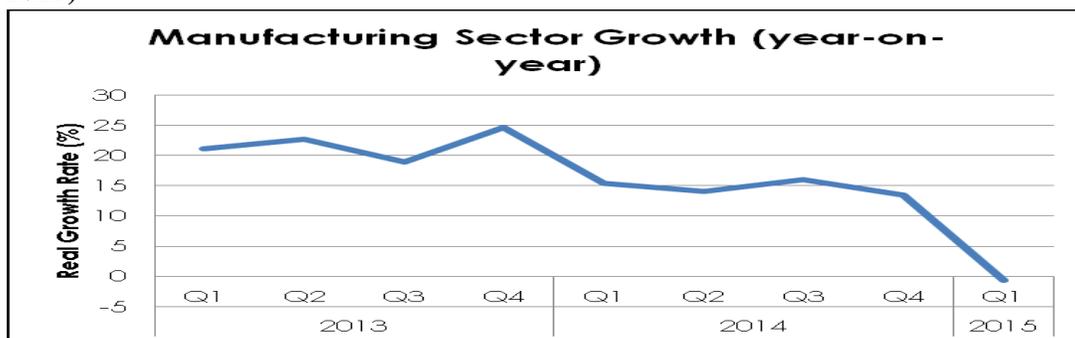
The Nigerian beverage sector is an arm of the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry<sup>43</sup>. The main business activities of the beverage sector include the production of beverages such as alcoholic, non-alcoholic and malt-drinks. As of 2012, the average production capacity of the beverage sector stood at 1.1 billion liters. Recently in 2016, the volume of production increased to an unprecedented figure of 1.3 billion liters (FOBTOB, 2016). In contrast, this achievement has been hampered by truncated purchasing power and the high cost of operation induced by inflation that has been brawling with the Nigerian economy in recent time (Nigeria Breweries and Beverages Industry Report, 2017). The sector has approximately 18,100 distribution outlets spread across the country; thus this feat has positioned the sector as one of the major employers of labour in Nigeria, generating a total of 1.5 million jobs, representing 5 percent of Nigeria's total workforce (NBS,

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<sup>43</sup> The Nigerian beverage sector as a cog of the Food, Beverage and Tobacco industry is particularly entrenched in the production of beverages in alcoholic and soft drinks content. While the focus of this study is limited to the beverage arm of the industry, other components of the industry such as the Food processing and Tobacco sectors are restricted to the production of consumables and tobacco products respectively. However, it should be known that although these sectors are distinct sectors, yet their employment and labour related activities are regulated by a seamless trade union body- the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB)

2016; Okafor, 2016). To have a fuller understanding of trends in the beverage sector, economic activities of the broad Nigerian manufacturing industry showed an impressive growth contribution of 15 percent to Nigeria’s GDP in the last quarter of 2014 (see figure 3.1). However, the recent economic downturn accompanied by global fall in oil price in 2015, has seen this industry record a decreased GDP with a contribution of less than 1 percent as at the last quarter of 2015 (see figure 3.1; Okafor, 2016).

**Figure 3.1 Growth indices of Nigeria’s manufacturing industry (growth in GDP terms 2013-2015)**



**Source:** Adopted from Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report, 2015

Furthermore, the beverage sector is practically dominated by global brands such as Cadbury Nigeria Plc; Nigerian Breweries Plc; Seven-Up Bottling Company; Nigeria Bottling Company and Guinness Nigeria Plc<sup>44</sup>. Carbonates drinks own the largest production volume of the sector, with a production output of 49 percent sales of all brands of soft drinks (Industry Report, 2016). Companies in the Nigerian beverage sector have had to contend with the incessant microeconomic challenges facing Nigeria. For instance, since 2015, the Nigerian economy has been experiencing a continuous devaluation of the Naira, and an upsurge inflation rate which has affected real-time investment growth of the sector. To add, the current 45 percent hike in power supply charges poses serious drawbacks to beverage sector investors’ growth in the Nigerian financial market (Industry Report, 2016). To abate this ugly trend, the level of competition among key players in the beverage sector has since increased over the years, with increased competition in the use of different strategies such as the sales of soft drinks, and other beverages in cans and plastic bottles; making it more attractive and feasible to sale in traffic (FOBTOB, 2016).

<sup>44</sup> The global affiliations of these brands in the ascending order are Cadbury International Schweppes Plc (England), Heineken N.V of Netherlands (Netherlands), Peppi International (United States of America), the Coca-Cola Company (United States of America), and Diago International (England).

As at the time of this study, there are seven (7) beverage companies in Lagos State with trade union presence (FOBTOB, 2016). However, this study identifies and sampled five (5) of these companies. A profound justification for selecting these organisations is not distanced from being major players in the industry with potent trade union structures (FOBTOB, 2016; details of these companies are explain below). Again, the beverage sector, much like other sectors of the Nigerian manufacturing industry has a strong and effective trade union structure in comparison to other sectors of the Nigerian economy (Chidi, 2014). Albeit, the spread of labour casualisation is not limited to the beverage sector, yet the sway of beverage sector trade union is more striking in ensuring the realization of decent and sustainable work (Chidi, 2014). In contrast, with the presence of robust trade union formation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, the sector being one of the lead in the manufacturing industry is not excuse from the prevalence of employment casualisation as most of the non-core tasks such as production and packaging are externalized and executed through casual labourers (Chidi, 2014). This is sufficient to place that, the pervasiveness of employment casualisation is having its stronghold in the Nigerian Beverage sector, where statistics have shown over time that the number of casual workers surpasses the total number of permanent staff in the majority of the organisations in this sector. To make it clear, table 3.3 exude the prevalence of casual employment in the five selected organisations for this study.

**Table 3.3: Statistics on the prevalence of employment casualisation in selected organisations of study**

S/N	Organisation	Number of Staff	Number of Casual/ contract/outsource Workers	Number of casual Workers in percentage
1	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	270	34	13.10
2	Guinness Nigeria Plc	500	408	81.60
3	Nigeria Breweries Plc	550	259	51.80
4	Seven-Up Bottling Company	605	317	52.48
5	Nigeria Bottling Company	1031	737	71.48

**Source:** Nigeria Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees, 2016

N.B: The statistics are based on the number of employees within the Lagos State Beverage sector only

### **3.4.1 Cadbury Nigeria Plc**

Cadbury Nigeria Plc is jointly owned by Cadbury International Schweppes Plc and other individual and international shareholders in almost equal proportion. For instance, as at 2015, Cadbury International Schweppes Plc owns 50.02 percent, while other individuals and corporate organisations own 49.98 percent of the company's share respectively (Cadbury Nigeria Annual Report and Account, 2015). The origin of Cadbury Nigeria Plc is traced to the '60s when it was first initiated to extract cocoa beans from Nigeria to other parts of the world. Specifically, in January 1965, the company was incorporated and became a full-fledged manufacturing company with the display of manufacturing facility on a 42-hectares of land in Agidingbi area of Ikeja, Lagos, Nigeria, with a staff strength of 50 (George, Kuye and Onakala, 2012). With the enlisting of Cadbury Nigeria Plc on the Nigeria Stock Exchange (NSE) in 1976, the company was quoted 10 among 258 quoted equities as at the end of 2007 on the NSE (Nigerian Stock Market, 2008).

The company has two production subdivisions including the confectionary and food drinks on the one hand, and the cocoa product division on the other hand. The company's first production being Bournvita, accompanies a staff strength of 50 and was launched in 1965. Subsequently, another production including Goody-Goody was launched in 1966, Tom-Tom in 1970, Trebor Buttermint in 1976, Malta in 1979, Eclairs in 1989, Trebor Luckies in 1989, Trebor Koffsticks in 1989, Trbor Peppermint in 1989, Richoco in 1996, and while entering into the new millennium, other products were launched such as Trebor Koffsticks in 2000, Trebor Celebrations in 2003, Halls Ahomka Ginger in 2004, Bubba Bubble Gum in 2004, Choki in 2004, Tom-Tom honey lemon, Tom-Tom Strawberry among others in 2013 and 2014 respectively (Cadbury Nigeria Handbook, 2008).

The Cadbury Nigeria Plc has a chain distribution network of over 70 distributors across Nigeria and exports some of its products to various countries in Africa and Europe (Cadbury Nigeria Handbook, 2008). Over the years, the company has been able to distinguish itself from other industry competitors with a focus on well-established brands, restricted to its core business activities by way of providing outstanding benefits to its consumers and by extension, participating in the corporate social responsibility (CSR) of its host communities<sup>45</sup> (George, Kuye and Onakala,

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<sup>45</sup> In giving back to its host communities, Cadbury Nigeria Plc in 2016 supply its Agidingbi host communities piped borne water running through the year in addition to the participation of its employees in the 2016 Lagos State Blood Committee (LSBTC) Voluntary Blood Donation Campaign

2012). In regard to the trade union structure of the organisation, there exist two strands of trade union association. On the one hand, is the junior trade union association; NUFBTE an affiliate of NLC and FOBTOB a member of TUC.

For emphasis, most members of NUFBTE are prominently placed on contract and outsourced jobs, while this does not exclude the fact that other senior staff is not either contract or outsourced staff, albeit majority lies among the junior staff (Chidi, 2014). For issues related to negotiation, the NUFBTE, otherwise categorized as plant unions are only allowed to negotiate with management on issues related to company bus and overtime allowance on behalf of its members, while those hinging on salary are on the exclusive list of the industrial union. Unlike NUFBTE, FOBTOB otherwise called the industrial union equally negotiate directly with management, but on more advanced issues such as those hovering around subscription for car loans, mortgage, annual salary increase and other crucial conditions of employment (George, Kuye and Onakala, 2012). In other words, both NUFBTE and FOBTOB still have to contend with the growing tide of casualisation, as most senior staff such as line managers are seldom employed on contract without basic work benefit.

### ***3.4.2 Nigerian Breweries Plc***

The Nigerian Breweries Plc was incorporated in November 1946 as a limited liability Company and in June 1949, the first production of Star Lager was announced in its Lagos headquarters production plant. In 1973, the company transforms into a public limited liability company with its first enlistment on NSE. Currently, the Nigeria Breweries Plc has grown to become the second largest capitalized stock on the NSE with a growing market capitalization of ₦1.2 trillion as at the end of 2016 (Nigeria Breweries Plc Annual Reports and Accounts, 2016). Following the first production of Star lager beer in its inception in 1949, other market-driven brands have equally been launched including Gulder lager beer in 1970, Maltina in 1976 comprising of three different brands as of today (Maltina classic, Maltina Strawberry and Maltina Pineapple). Others include Legend Extra Stout launched in 1992, Amstel Malta in 1994 and the introduction of Heineken lager beer into the Nigerian beverage market in June 1998 (Nigeria Breweries Annual Reports and Accounts, 2016).

Historically, as at inception, the Nigeria breweries Plc was 100 percent foreign-owned. However, the compulsory indigenization policy of the 1970's for transfer of shares to locals mandated the transfer of 40 percent of the company's equity share to indigenous shareholders. Today, the Nigerian Breweries Plc is 60 percent foreign and 40 percent indigenous owned (Nigeria Breweries Annual Reports and Accounts, 2016). The company has over the years maintained a rich culture of sophisticated alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks cutting across Nigeria beverage market. Most of the recent products launched into the beverage market include Star Radler, Star-lite, Goldberg and Trophy. Although the majority of these brands are exported to other countries, Nigeria however, remains the largest consumer markets of alcohol in Africa (Nigeria Breweries Annual Reports and Accounts, 2016).

In a bid to expand its production base in Nigeria after its first appearance in Iganmu, Lagos, Nigeria, several production plants were established across the country. For instance, in 1957 the second production plant was incorporated in Aba, Abia State Nigeria, Kaduna brewery plant commissioned in 1963, and Ibadan brewery equally commissioned in 1982 to offset the heavy production output of Iganmu, and meet the increasing demands of south-west consumers. Consequently, the Ama brewery was commissioned in the coal city of Enugu, Enugu State, Nigeria which as at today remains the biggest plant in Nigeria with modern and sophisticated brewing technology. Similarly, Nigerian Breweries Plc have extended its chain of network distributor, sales offices, and depots across the breadth and length of Nigeria. For instance, the Nigerian Breweries Plc is currently in charge of about two-thirds of beverage alcoholic drinks in Nigeria (Nigeria Breweries Annual Reports and Accounts, 2016). In 2014, the acquisition of Consolidated Breweries Plc was sealed by Nigerian Breweries Plc, and the company has equally acquired three additional brewing outlet stationed in Imagbon, Awo-omamma and Makurdi respectively to ease the spread of its products across the country. No doubts, the Nigerian Breweries Plc has been taking the lead in terms of giving back to its various host communities through adequate corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives<sup>46</sup>.

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<sup>46</sup>An example of this gesture is the annual Creative Writing Workshop where youth are empowered through talents development to become national assets in the near foreseeable future. Education development is another way of Nigeria Breweries Plc giving back to its host communities. In 2012, the company built new and refurbished old classrooms blocks in Lagos, Aba, Abeokuta, Kaduna, Enugu and Ibadan. Also, the Beyond the School project is an initiative to tilt towards exposing public secondary students to various career options and help shape their orientation towards career choice after school

A major distinction between the trade union structure of Cadbury Nigeria Plc and Nigeria Breweries Plc is that, for the former, some members of NUFBTE or FOBT OB are contract or outsourced workers, while for the latter, no category of contract workers are allowed in either NUFBTE or FOBT OB as they all exist without a representative voice. Therefore, while NUFBTE only comprises of junior staff, FOBT OB encompasses senior staff; hence contract or outsourced workers are not represented in either of these associations. Similarly, issues related to overtime bonus, transport allowance and canteen facilities are exclusively the remit of NUFBTE to bargain with management on behalf of the junior staff, while FOBT OB negotiates with management on salary increment, housing and car loan, as well as other important employment conditions (George, Kuye and Onakala, 2012).

### ***3.4.3 Seven-Up bottling company Plc***

Established in June 1959 and christened Seven-Up limited by a Lebanese business mogul; Mohammed El-khalil. The company has undergone many structural changes since her establishment culminating in name changes over the years. For instance, it was changed to Seven-Up Bottling Company limited on the 16 May 1960. Subsequently, it became a public company and the name changed to Seven-Up bottling company Plc in 1978. Seven-Up bottling company Plc is the second largest manufacturer of non-alcoholic beverage in Nigeria after the Nigerian Bottling Company Limited Plc (Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association, 2016). October 1st, 1960 signaled the first production from its Ijora production plant in Lagos, Nigeria. As at today, the company has been reckoned with as one of the largest producers of carbonated soft drinks in Nigeria. In a bid to spread its product throughout Nigeria, the company commissioned two additional plants in Ibadan, Oyo State and Ikeja, Lagos State respectively in the 1980s. Currently, Seven-Up bottling company Plc has its presence in three African counties including Nigeria, Tanzania and Ghana, and operates manufacturing plants in Kano, Aba, Benin, Kaduna, Ilorin, Enugu, Abuja and Uyo being the recently commissioned in 2007.

Seven-Up Bottling Company Plc presently operates with over 200 distribution outlets spread across the country. Currently, the company produces a range of non-alcoholic beverage drinks including Pepsi, 7up, Miranda, Teem, Mountain Dew, and Aqaufina. Pepsi been one of the fast selling products of Seven-Up bottling company is no doubt an internationally recognised brand, among other cohorts of carbonated drinks. Pepsi was first produced in 1898 by a North Carolina

Pharmacist. However, there have been a different variant of Pepsi since its first production in 1898. For record, presently two variants dominate the Nigeria carbonated beverage industry (Pepsi-Cola and Pepsi-Light) containing carbonated water, high fructose com syrup, caramel colour, sugar, phosphoric acid, critic acid among others. 7up being another major fast selling product of Seven-Up bottling company was first launched in 1920 by Charles Grigg. Since this period, 7up has undergone several changes with the production of varied brands. Thus, presently there exist two different brands in Nigeria's carbonated beverage sector including 7up free and 7up H2O. The company has been performing remarkably well among other players in Nigeria's carbonated beverage sector in recent years.

As a case in point, the company recorded a striking turnover growth of 12 percent with a corresponding revenue of NGN33.825bn in the third quarter of 2016 against an abated turnover growth of 6.5 percent, culminating in NGN 15.6 billion revenue in the last quarter of 2016 (Seven-Up Bottling Company Earnings Update, 2016). This performance is not unconnected to its strategic position in the carbonated beverage sector, and intense corporate social responsibilities<sup>47</sup> initiatives by way of giving back to her host communities (Seven-Up Bottling Company Earnings Update, 2016). For the composition of the trade union, there is basically two component of the trade union in Seven-up bottling company; FOBTOB and NUFBTE. In this organisation under review, the mammoth of the working people works as casual labourers. For instance, outsource workers are proscribed from non-unionisation, while the majority of the contract staff are seldom allowed to unionize either. The former represent senior staff association, while the latter represent junior staff association. The duo bargains directly with management represented by the Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employers (AFBTE). For Seven-Up Bottling Company, FOBTOB bargains on more advanced issues such as review of salary every two years as agreed in the companies' procedural rules for collective bargaining, loan for mortgage and cars, among other issues on the one hand. On the other hand, NUFBTE also bargains on salary review

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<sup>47</sup> Among other competitors in the Nigeria's beverage sector, Seven-Up bottling company has contributed immensely to his various host communities. As a medium to give back, the company often engages in donations and gifts to communities and other charitable organisations for construction of block of classrooms and minor construction of community bridges in addition to the popular sponsorship of Pepsi Football Academy through which talents have been identified thereby bringing to reality the dreams of many young Nigerians

and other issues related to the canteen, health, and safety, provision of transport allowance or its subsidy among other issues.

#### **3.4.4 Guinness Nigeria Plc**

Guinness Nigeria Plc is one of the prominent producers of alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks in Nigeria, and in the ‘stout’ segment in particular. The company was incorporated on 29 April 1950 as a trading company to import Guinness stout from Dublin under the name Guinness Nigeria Limited. Subsequently, the company commenced its first production in Nigeria in 1963 in Ikeja, and became enlisted on the NSE in 1965 (Guinness Nigeria Issuer Rating, 2015). The company predominantly is a producer of alcoholic and non- alcoholic beverages ranging from Stout, Lager, Malt, Flavoured Alcoholic Beverages, Spirit and Bitters. Some of the company’s best brands considered as movers of the Nigerian beverage industry for the Beers component include Guinness Extra Smooth, first launched in Nigeria in 2005, Dubic Extra Lager re-launched in Nigeria in 2012, Harp Premium Lager first brewed in Nigeria in 1974, and Satzenbrau re-launched into the Nigerian market in 2006. For the spirit segment, they are Ciroc Vodka launched in 2003, Baileys launched in 1974, Orijin Bitters launched in 2013, Masters Choice launched in 2013 among others. For the strand of Non-Alcoholic Drinks, they are Malta Guinness launched into the Nigerian market in 1990, Malta Guinness Herbs Lite launched October 2016, Dubic Malt launched in 2013 to add to the glamour of existing brands of Malt drinks.

All of these products are sold in over 130 distributors in Nigeria, and one in the United Kingdom. Diageo, a world-leading manufacturer of beverages and alcoholic brands spanning across beers, wines and spirits owns a total of 54.32 percent of Guinness Nigeria Plc equity share through her major subsidiaries like Guinness Overseas Limited (46.48 percent) and Atanlanta Limited (7.84percent), while the balance of 45.68 percent is shared by individuals and corporate organisations (Guinness Nigeria Plc Issuer Rating, 2015). As at the year ending 2016, Guinness Nigeria Plc possesses a total of ₦132.3 billion as its assets base, and an impressive profit after tax of ₦7.8 billion during the financial ending 2016 (Guinness Nigeria Financial Statement, 2016), hence the need for massive investment in corporate social responsibility projects<sup>48</sup>. Having attained

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<sup>48</sup> One of the lauded corporate social responsibilities of Guinness Nigeria Plc was the launch of the safe water and improved sanitation and Hygiene (SWISH) project in 2015 currently supplying pipe borne water to rural communities of Abi, Bekwarra and Obaniku Local Government Areas of Cross River State. In the area of education Guinness

a brand name in the larger beverage market with its finest Stout production, the Nigeria Guinness Plc saw the need for expansion to meet the increasing market's demands. For instance, one of its moves for expansion was the building of additional brewing across Nigeria. In 1974, the second brewery plants were built in Benin, Edo State, Nigeria to commence the production of Harp lager beer. Although, the brewing was later expanded to accommodate the production of Stout.

Similarly, in 1982 the Ogba brewing plants were commissioned in Lagos State for the production of Harp lager and were subsequently expanded to produce Guinness Stout, and other brands such as vodka and spirit drinks. In 2004, in her continuous efforts to expand the base of production, a fourth brewery plant was built in Aba, Abia State, Nigeria for the production of Guinness Stout and other major drinks, solely to take care of the South-East market. The structure of the trade union of Guinness Nigeria Plc, unlike other companies in the Nigeria beverage sector, operates in two folds. As it is in other similar organisations in the Beverage sector, the Cadbury Nigeria Plc also has a large chunk of casual labourers who are positioned for the execution of jobs related to production and packaging. As obtainable in other companies in the beverage sector, FOBTOB representing the senior staff association bargains with management represented by AFBTE on issues related to salary increment, housing, loans for cars, provision of fitting health facilities and other issues as contained in the procedural agreement. NUFBTE representing the junior staff association equally bargains with management on issues of salary increment, health and safety concerns, subsidized transportation and canteen meal for members.

### ***3.4.5 The Nigerian Bottling Company Limited***

Nigerian Bottling Company Limited is the bottler of Coca-Cola, the best-selling beverage drink in Nigeria. The company commenced its operation on the 22nd of November, 1951, with the production of Coca-Cola and Fanta Orange during which it was incorporated as a subsidiary of A.G Leventis Group, and subsequently became a public company and have its shares traded in 1972 on the floor of the NSE. Formerly as a family business, Coco-Cola has metamorphosed into a compound name among manufacturers of beverage drinks with the recent record of attaining the manufacturing and sales of over 33 different brands of beverage non-alcoholic drinks. Coca-Cola

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Nigeria has continue to empower young Nigerians through their various scholarship scheme. Presently, 18 young Nigerians are undergoing trainings in their various chosen fields across Nigerian universities. For health, 3 eye care hospitals have been built in 3 cities in Nigeria to take care of host members with eye challenges for free including giving out eye glasses when required

and Fanta Orange being the first two productions were produced in its Ebute-Meta bottling facility, Lagos State in 1953. Presently, the company has reached a total of 13 bottling facilities with over 80 distribution warehouse spread across Nigeria (NBS, 2016).

With this growth and expansion, the company has attained a landmark achievement in both Nigeria and Africa, with the recent attainment of 1.8 billion bottles sold per year making it the largest and second in Nigeria and Africa beverage sector respectively (NBS, 2016). Having attained the finest producer of non-alcoholic beverage company, the Nigerian Bottling Company Limited has continued satisfying the interest of its mammoth customers with variety of other brands such Sprite launched in 1995, Coca-Cola zero launched in 2005, Coca-Cola diet introduced in 2005, Schweppes Soda, Schweppes Tonic and Schweppes Lemon all launched into the Nigerian beverage market in 2006. Equally, other brands include Fanta Apple and Fanta Pineapple launched in 2006, Coca-Cola C2, Coca-Cola orange, and Coca-Cola vanilla all launched in 2004 and 2007 respectively among others.

With intense market penetration and increased demand, the company established its second bottling plant in 1961 in Ibadan, the largest city in Nigeria by geographical area (NBS, 2016). Presently, the company operates production plants spread across the country. The increase commissioning of production plants was to satisfy the demand of Coca-Cola products in other sections of the country. For instance, in 1970 the Benin plant was a commission to cushion the demands of South-South customers. Till date, this plant is responsible for the production of Coca-Cola, Fanta, Sprite, Schweppes, and Five Alive juice drink. Subsequently, in 1972, 1973 and 1975, the Jos, Port-Harcourt and Enugu plants were established respectively for the production of Coca-Cola, Fanta, Sprite, Schweppes, and Five Alive. While in 1978, the Ikeja and Kaduna bottling plant were commission with the mandate to produce all the Coca-Cola brands, 1982 and 1983 saw the Owerri, Asejiri and Maiduguri production plants commissioned in Imo, Oyo and Borno States of Nigeria respectively to address the demands of its customers in South-East, South-West and North-East sections of the country. The recent plant commissioned was in 2006 seated in the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja, Nigeria (FCT). This plant like every other plant was equally established to produce all Coca-Cola brands. Like any other company in the Nigerian beverage

sector, the Nigerian Bottling Company has been actively involved in corporate social responsibility by way of giving back in various ways to its host communities<sup>49</sup>.

Similarly, two segments of trade union association equally operates in the Nigerian Bottling Company. Each component of these trade union associations either represents the senior or junior staff association. For instance, the senior staff trade union association is FOBTOB. Consequently, FOBTOB bargains with management represented by AFBTE on issues of salary review, loans for members to incur property and cars and human capital development where necessary among other issues on the one hand. On the other hand, the junior staff association represented by NUFBTE equally bargains with the representative of management on salary increment, provision of staff bus to ease staff conditions of work, provision of the canteen for worker's healthy work life and other related issues. Table 3.4 shows the Fourty-four (44) branch association of FOBTOB spanning across Nigeria's thirty-six (36) states with the five selected beverage sector organisations for this study from the Lagos State arm of the association highlighted.

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<sup>49</sup> As one of its corporate social responsibility exertions, the Nigeria bottling company in 1984 established the Cocola foundation as a separate registered charitable organisation to liaise and intervene with meeting up with the needs of its host communities. The foundation since 2007 has been engaged in the supply of pipe borne water, sensitization on health talks and women empowerment. Aside, the need to attain healthy living through sustained nutrition, the health talks also extend to sensitization on HIV/AIDS treatment and preventions for members of host communities.

**Table 3.4 Branch Association of the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association**

S/N	Organisations	City/Factory	State
1.	Ajeast Nigeria Limited	Agbara	Ogun State
2.	Allied Atlantic Distilleries Limited	Agbara	Ogun State
3.	Bendel Breweries Limited	Benin City	Edo State
4.	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	Ikeja	Lagos State
5.	Champion Breweries Plc	Uyo	Akwa Ibom State
6.	Cocoa Product (Ile-Oluji) Limited	Ondo	Ondo State
7.	Crown Flour Mills Limited	Warri	Delta State
8.	CWAY Foods and Beverages Company Nigeria Limited	Sango	Ogun State
9.	Dangote Flour Mills Plc	Apapa	Lagos State
10.	Deli Foods Nigeria Limited	Isolo	Lagos State
11.	De-United Foods Industries Limited	Ota	Ogun State
12.	Dufil Prima Foods Plc	Port Hartcourt	Rivers State
13.	Euro Global Foods and Distilleries Limited	Ota	Ogun State
14.	Fan Milk Plc	Ibadan	Oyo State
15.	Flour Mills of Nigeria Plc	Apapa	Lagos State
16.	FrieslandCampina WAMCO Nigeria Plc	Ogba	Lagos State
17.	Guinness Nigeria Plc	Ikeja	Lagos State
18.	Intafact Beverages Limited	Onitsha	Anambra State
19.	Intercontinental Distillers Limited	Ota	Ogun State
20.	International Breweries Plc	Ilesa	Osun State
21.	International Tobacco Company Limited	Ilorin	Kwara State
22.	Maiduguri Flour Mills Limited	Maiduguri	Borno State
23.	Nestle Nigeria Plc	Ilupeju	Lagos State
24.	Niger Biscuits Company Limited	Apapa	Lagos State
25.	Niger Mills and Company Limited	Calabar	Cross River State.
26.	Nigerian Bottling Company Limited	Iddo	Lagos State
27.	Nigerian Breweries Plc	Iganmu	Lagos State
28.	Nigerian Distilleries Limited	Ota	Ogun State
29.	Nigerian Eagle Flour Mills Limited	Ibadan	Oyo State
30.	Northern Nigeria Flour Mills Plc	Kano	Kano State
31.	OK Foods Limited	Ilasamaja	Lagos State
32.	Olam Sanyo Foods Limited	Apapa	Lagos State
33.	Pabod Breweries Limited	Port Harcourt	Rivers State
34.	Perfetti Van Melle Nigeria Limited	Agbara	Ogun State
35.	Pharma Deko Plc	Agbara	Ogun State
36.	Pladis (A & P) Foods Limited	Ikeja	Lagos State
37.	Promasidor Nigeria Limited	Isolo	Lagos State
38.	Ragolis Waters Limited	Ikorodu	Lagos State
39.	Savannah Sugar Company Limited	Numan	Adamawa State
40.	Seven-Up Bottling Company Plc	Ijora	Lagos State
41.	Sosaco Nigeria Limited	Ilupeju	Lagos State
42.	UTC Foods Foods	Anthony	Lagos State
43.	Vital Products Limited	Ogba	Lagos State
44.	West African Seasoning Company Limited	Apapa	Lagos State

Sources: Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association, (2016); Author's compilation

### **3.5 Conclusion**

The chapter has clearly presented a cursory exposition of the Nigerian labour market in the face of growing labour market flexibility. Labour market flexibility was argued as a substantial subject required for understanding the trends and growth of employment casualisation. The chapter acknowledged the challenges of unemployment and fragile labour market institutions, and regulatory framework as relevant indicators enhancing the continuous growth of employment casualisation in the Nigerian labour market. The chapter also discussed several contentions for the formation and development of trade unions in Nigeria. However, unlike the popular shared assumptions that the commencement of trade unionism predates industrial revolution, the chapter makes a contrasting case that the development of trade unions in Nigeria only commenced with the initiation of the first wage employment. Again, we can conclude that it is so improbable for trade unionism to have commenced in the pre-industrial revolution epoch when in fact trade union activities are centered on the relationship between employers and employees in wage employment. In addition, various arguments were equally established for the evolution of the first trade union in Nigeria. While several of these contentions garner support for the guilds, mutual aid societies, and carpenter unions, evidence-based claims established in this study contradict this assertion by concluding that trade union development only begins in Nigeria with the NCSU in 1914.

For the Nigerian beverage industry, discussion of this chapter reveals that the consistent economic downturn in Nigeria, have had a great wreck on the Nigerian beverage industry with dwindled performance in terms of GDP contribution in recent times. While this is recognised, major performance errors have overtime seen the sector reducing its workforce strength for continued competitive advantage. In fact, issues discussed in this chapter uncovered that the prevalence of employment casualisation practices were unrelated to the need to minimize costs in the face of hard economic challenges. Interestingly, a contrary argument was positioned that although it is clear that the effect of economic decline is becoming severe, the justification for the utility of casualisation remains unclear. Lastly, the chapter has appropriately untied the history, development and activities of the sampled organisations (with a survey of their trade union formation) and structures respectively. In the discussion of trade union formation and structure, the chapter contends that contract worker's interests are represented by either FOBTOB or NUFBTE, although more keenly by FOBTOB in Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Seven-Up Bottling Plc, Guinness Nigeria Plc and the Nigeria Bottling Company. Contract workers are completely

disallowed from representation in Nigeria Breweries Plc. Again, this demonstrates the nuances with regard to trade union activities of the various organisations in the Nigerian beverage industry.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

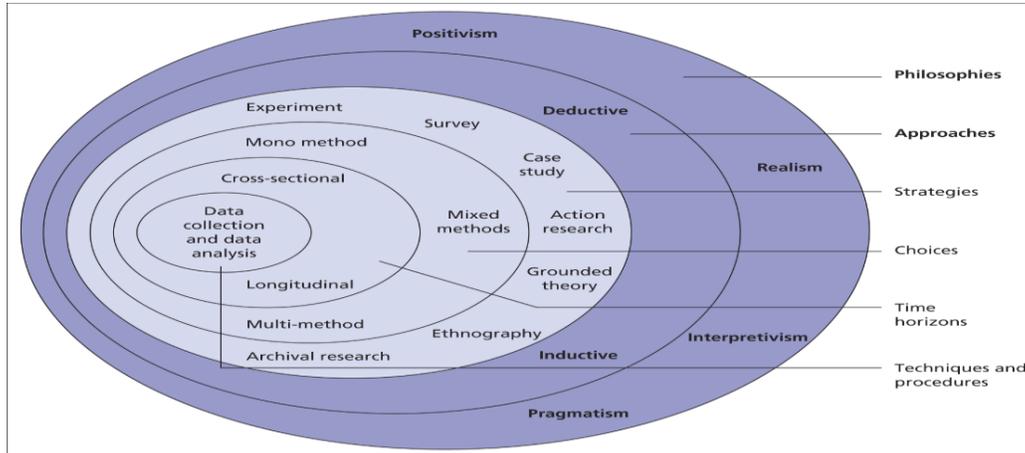
#### 4.1 Introduction

The methodology and methods adopted to examine the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies are explained in this chapter. To begin, caution must be observed that there is a distinction in the meaning and application of research methodology and methods, as both terms serve separate purposes in the study. Therefore, highlighting and understanding the shades of difference between them is imperative. The meaning and usage of these concepts no doubt remain a subject of contention. For instance, many peer-reviewed journals have been identified using the methodology in place of methods, while others replace methods for methodology. Research methodology encompasses the systematic process by which research should be undertaken. For example, it refers to the theory of how research should be investigated (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis, 2009). On the one hand, research methodology highlights issues of research design such as the adoption of survey and case study design for this study. It addresses the question of what, when and how the researcher intends to justifiably address the research problems. On the other hand, research methods refer to the systematic procedure and techniques employed to collect and analyse research data. It deals with both the statistical and non-statistical tools utilized in eliciting and analysing research data. For example, the use of the questionnaire and statistical tools for quantitative research methods, and interview and content analysis for qualitative research methods respectively.

However, to establish and capture suitable explanations for issues related to the methodology and methods employed in this study, this chapter is compartmentalized into research philosophies; research approaches; research design; data collection techniques; time horizon; the population of study; sample size and sampling techniques. Similarly, this chapter describes the research instruments; and procedures used in ensuring the reliability and validity of adopted instruments; procedures for data collection (both the quantitative and qualitative data); various steps and methods employed for data analysis; ethical considerations; and major challenges encountered during data collection. Therefore, the above themes are positioned to uncover the overall activities provoked for answering the research questions. To do this, the conceptualisation of issues under

this chapter looks closely at Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill's (2009) research onion, as shown in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1: Research Onion**



Sources: Adapted from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.108.

## 4.2 Research philosophies

Research philosophies refer to the varied types of beliefs or worldviews adopted for a particular study which informs the choice of research design, strategies, techniques and analysis to be adopted (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Philosophical assumptions assist in conceptualising what we intend to investigate, and how we intend to go about investigating it by leading us to a more comprehension of issues in a specific way (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Therefore, this study explicitly discusses four distinct research philosophies (positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism) in line with Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill's (2009) research onion, and clear justifications were proffered from the most appropriate in subsequent paragraphs.

### 4.2.1 Positivism

Researches in this setting are inclined towards observable social reality, wherein the end products will identify with making generalisation such as those of the physical and natural sciences (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). For Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the world according to the positivist functions by laws of cause and effect, and this can only become apparent when we adopt a scientific approach to investigation. Frankly, the positivist main research strategy is experimentation and survey design, where cause and effect relationship is established between variables through manipulation of the independent variable (s). Therefore, findings in this research

philosophy are highly objective and the quantitative research methods are appropriately utilized (Bryman and Bell 2011). Although, the assumption of the positivist research philosophy accurately captures the quantitative strands of this study, where the views of participants of the five selected organisations were elicited through questionnaire and data subjected to statistical measurement, yet it cannot be adopted as a single research philosophy, since the research problem is fittingly addressed with quantitative and qualitative research methods (mixed research methods).

#### **4.2.2 Realism**

Realism as a philosophical assumption is tied to the belief in external reality and objective truth (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). As in the case of positivist, realists refute the assertion that external reality can be measured objectively for cause and effect relationship by professing that understanding reality is a function of certainty. Furthermore, Sekeran and Bougie (2016) acknowledge that the measurement of constructs in research are all subjectively biased. As such, measurement of constructs that entails the eliciting and analysis of data are vastly flawed with intrinsic biases (Sekeran and Bougie, 2016). In essence, since this current study in line with the research questions explicitly expresses the collection of both numerical and non-numerical data to make meaning of the research problem, indicating a great departure from the understanding of reality, the realism philosophy stance is refuted for this study.

#### **4.2.3 Interpretivism**

In contrary view to the positivists' tradition whose argument centers on the establishment of cause and effect relationship, the interpretivists perspective takes a different path, and contend that a more profound understanding of events in our everyday life ordinarily deviates from making laws and generalisation of research findings (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Rather than refuting or accepting claims for generalisation as the case for the positivist, the philosophy of the interpretivist advocates the need for the researcher as the social actor to exude some form of sympathy, in a bid to deeply understand their research participants (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Precisely, the need to explore and interprets the social world of participants as professed by the interpretivists for a fuller comprehension of events in their world explicitly captures the qualitative strand of this study, where the perceptions of trade union officials of FOBTOB were unearthed through semi-structured interview. Yet, this study being a mixed research methods study

cannot adopt the interpretivist philosophical assumption as a standalone research philosophy. For instance, the goal of applying statistical analysis and making inferences ordinary deviates from the suppositions of the interpretivists.

#### ***4.2.4 Pragmatism***

In conventional management and social science research, choosing a research philosophy for a study rests between the positivists and interpretivists (Creswell, 2009). Whilst the former captures the measurement of a construct to establish cause and effect relationship between variables (quantitative), the latter depicts a deep exploration of the social world (qualitative). However, the nature of research questions raised in a study can necessitate the combination of both the positivists and interpretivists philosophical assumptions refer to as pragmatism (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Pragmatist contention does not hold sway on which of the philosophical assumption is best for a study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Creswell, 2009), but conceive that research possessing both objective and subjective connotation can engender a more valuable knowledge outcome (Sekaran and Bougie). Again, pragmatists appreciate the universe as a diverse phenomenon requiring mixed solutions to its myriads challenges (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This submission appropriately captures the need to adopt multiple techniques for collection and analysis of data. Therefore, pragmatism is not devoted to any philosophical assumption, rather it aims to solve human problems with varied approaches. The advocacy for the utility of multiple methods for improved research outcomes by the pragmatists suitably describes the adoption of mixed research methods to investigate a study.

#### ***4.2.5 Justification for the research philosophy adopted***

Having examined the various research philosophies, this study comprehensively adopts the pragmatism philosophical position. In consideration of research questions, the adoption of mixed research methods (quantitative and qualitative methods), becomes appropriate to investigate employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. To be sure, with the knowledge that the pragmatist research philosophies embraces diverse measures to solve an identified research problem, this study employs the integration of two research philosophies (positivism and interpretivism). For the latter, quantitative data were gathered from the survey of respondents to unravel the views of participants of the sampled organisations on how trade union strategies have been employed to employment casualisation through questionnaire administration, and responses

quantified through appropriate statistical analysis tools. Similarly, the semi-structured interview guide was employed to retrieve qualitative responses from trade union officials of FOBTOB, where their perceptions on trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation were equally uncovered and analysed with the qualitative content analytical tool. To put this in perspective, the integration of two research philosophies in this study to proffer answers to the research questions, neatly cement with the intention of the pragmatist research philosophy, and the goal of mixed methods adopted in this study where both the numeric and non-numeric data were gathered.

### **4.3 Research approaches**

Research approaches are partitioned into two distinct types: the deductive and inductive approaches (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The adoption of either approach for a study, depends greatly on the philosophical assumption upon which such investigation rests. For instance, the positivists' assumptions lean keenly to deductive research approach, while the interpretivists suppositions are particularly predictive of the inductive approach (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009). This suffices to argue that, the deductive approach is skewed towards the objective measurement of construct on the one hand (quantitative), and the inductive approach is intensely supported by subjective exploration of the research problem (qualitative) on the other hand. However, these two research approaches are explained in detail below:

#### ***4.3.1 Deductive approach***

The deductive approach has its root in the discipline of natural sciences, based on the objective investigation of existing knowledge for hypotheses formulation, collection and statistical analysis of data to either refuse or accept the formulated research propositions (Bryman and Bell, 2011). One of the major characteristics of the deductive approach is the need to establish a causal relationship between two or more variables. To achieve this, the variables to be examined will thus be a reflection of the stated hypotheses, while the collection of quantitative data will correspondingly aid the testing of these hypotheses (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). For Minner, Levy and Century (2010), formulating research hypotheses does not appear by fluke, rather it entails a critical review of the literature to identify gaps in order to formulate testable research hypotheses. Deductive approach enjoys inferential statistical testing of hypotheses for generalisation of findings. The problem of employment casualisation and trade union survival

strategies is a global phenomenon; hence, findings emanating from this study will become generalizable to another context, with the application of the assumptions of the deductive research. In other words, deductive approach aptly supports the quantitative strand of this study where numeric data were elicited, and further statistical estimations is shown to measure variability between variables.

#### **4.3.2 Inductive approach**

The inductive approach explicitly describes the explanation of observations in their real world (Lancaster, 2005). For instance, an investigation seeking for an in-depth understanding of the why and how of an occurrence will have its emphasis placed on the inductive exploration of the problem, rather than investigating the problem statistically (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2008), submit that the focus on specific context would require a small sample size in contrast to a large sample, as is the case for the deductive approach. In like manner, as evident in this study, a small sample of trade union executives are interviewed for detailed exploration of the phenomenon under study. The inductive approach tends to be result oriented where participants are enquired about their perception concerning a research problem. For example, the exploration of trade union reactionary strategies outcome to employment casualisation in the Beverage Sector of Lagos State, Nigeria. Thus, contrary to the deductive approach, the inductive approach is subjective because of the deep involvement of the investigator at the point of data collection and interpretation (Johnson and Onwuwgbuzie, 2004).

Having considered the strength and weakness of both approaches, this study adopts the integration of inductive and deductive suppositions to collect quantitative and qualitative data, while employing corresponding data analysis respectively. This standpoint is also in line with the pragmatist philosophical assumption embraced for this study. Conceptually, deductive approach supports the collection of quantitative data through the administration of questionnaire on employees' of the sampled organisations, while inductive approach embraces a semi-structured interview with trade union executives respectively. Therefore, the mixed methods research adopted in this study, clearly supports the integration of both the deductive and inductive research approach, where quantitative and qualitative data were collected to answer the varied research questions. Table 4.1 explicates the difference between the deductive and inductive approach to research.

**Table 4.1 Difference between deductive and inductive approaches to research**

<b>Deductive approach</b>	<b>Inductive approach</b>
Emphasizes the scientific principle in its inquiry	Emphasis is on gaining deeper meanings from a phenomenon
Establishment of casual relationship between two or more variables	Establishment of law and cause-effect relationship
Largely depends on the collection of numerical data	Data collection is strictly non-numerical data
The investigator is excluded from the context of what is being researched	The investigator is part and intensely embroiled in the entire progression
Data are subjected to statistical analyses and generalisation or inferences are being deduced	Qualitative data are not subjected to rigorous statistical analysis and findings are explained with a single phenomenon without which generalisation or inferences is made
Heavily depends on the utilization of large sample size in order to generalize research findings	It attracts small sample size without the need for generalization
Research instruments are tested for reliability and validity to ascertain results emanating from their use are objective	Human involvement can engender subjective research findings

**Sources:** Author's compilation (see Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p. 127).

#### **4.4 Research design**

Research design or strategy entails the overall strategy adopted in a study, wherein the research problem and questions can be effectively addressed. Specifically, it captures the entire blueprint upon which the research is construed. Different types of research design exist. While some reflect the assumptions of the deductive (quantitative) research approach, others mirror the inductive (qualitative) research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). However, it is crucial to highlight that no research design is grander or important than the other, rather the goal of selecting a design is justified by its appropriateness to explicitly provide answers not only to the research questions but correspondingly aid in realizing the aims of the study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Therefore, the following research design/strategies are discussed with justifications for selecting those that suitably address the research questions including experimental research design, survey design, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research.

##### **4.4.1 Experimental design**

Whereas, the vast number of experimental research is stoutly concentrated in the natural and biological sciences, yet, its utility is apparent in social sciences research such as psychology. The *foci* of experimentation are borne on investigating casual relationship between two or more variables by manipulating the independent variable (IV) and study the variation of this

manipulation on the dependent variable (DV). Experimental design can be performed either in a laboratory (artificial environment) such as those in the pure and natural sciences, or field experiment (natural environment) such as those in the discipline of psychology (Quinlan, 2011). One common characteristic of experimental design is the division of participants into the control and treatment groups. The idea here is to observe the level of variations evident in the former as a result of the manipulations in the latter. Sekaran and Bougie (2016), argue that experimental design is a much stronger research design, and its utility is not accepted in applied research interests such as those related to solving workplace problems. To put this in perspective, the goal of this study does not support the intention of experimental design by allotting participants into groups of an experiment, rather emphasis was the survey of participants through questionnaire administration, hence the rules of experimentation is not fit with the research goal.

#### ***4.4.2 Survey research design***

Survey research design traditionally dovetails with the assumptions of deductive research approach (Wilson, 2010). It is a more prevalent research design in the discipline of management and social sciences (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Its application in a study allows for the collection of the large pull of data from a study population through the administration of a questionnaire (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Predominantly, survey design is often employed in a study involving a large population of people, events, or objects by collecting data from a sample population (Odetunde, 2011). For instance, this study elicits responses from the sample population of participants through questionnaire administration and their views further subjected to statistical analysis, interpretation, and generalisation. In other words, survey enabled the possibility of sampling identified participants of Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Guinness Nigeria Plc, Nigeria Breweries Plc, Seven-Up Bottling Company, and Nigeria Bottling Company Limited respectively, while findings emanating from this sample were generalized on the entire Lagos Beverage sector.

#### ***4.4.3 Case study***

The case study research design is particularly aimed for retrieving information concerning a specific object, business unit or organisation (Yin, 2003). In a case study research, the case in point is the individual, organisations or specific organisation the researcher is fascinated to investigate (p. 78). Although, the utility of this type of research design spans across both the quantitative and

qualitative research, however, it is more profoundly used in the qualitative study where data collection are confined to personal observation, documentary analysis, and interview (Flyvbjerg, 2006). For this study, the case study design is employed to clarify the assumptions of existing theories. Further, for a holistic understanding of issues in case study research, Sekaren and Bougie (2016) argue that the examination of the research problem must be conceptualised from a diverse range of perspectives, using either the multiple cases or a single case study of an organisation. For multiple cases, the rationale is to ascertain how findings emanating from the first case corresponds to findings in other or similar cases, while findings in a single case study are limited to the study of a single case organisation respectively (Wilson, 2010). Again, for the present study, the single case study design is adopted where the responses of the trade union executives of the FOBTOB to employment casualisation were unearthed with a focus on the beverage sector of the association.

#### **4.4.4 Action research**

Action research as the name connotes is deeply concerned with the identification and solution of organisational issues with the involvement of the person(s) who identified such problems. Here, the investigator is an active member of the context or organisation under study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). For example, the identification of staffing problems and its effect on productivity by a staff of the organisation under study. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016, p. 98), the researcher begins with the already identified problem and gather the required data to produce a hypothetical solution to the problem. Thereafter, the solution is executed with the intention that there may be an unpremeditated outcome as a result of the first execution (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

In the above analogy, the effect or outcome of the staffing problem undergoes continuous re-evaluation and diagnosis until a lasting solution is identified. In like manner, the emphasis of action research is hinged on ‘action’ for the promotion of change within an organisation, and the strength is acknowledged based on the modification and re-evaluation of the research problem, until a permanent solution is arrived at (Schein, 1999). However, the goal of this study does not connect with the assumptions of the action research design since the researcher is not an employee of any of the organisations under study, and does not intend to continuously evaluate or diagnose a research problem.

#### **4.4.5 *Grounded theory***

The utility of the grounded theory is keenly applied in the construction of theory (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005), and more intensely in the prediction and explanation of behaviour (Goulding, 2002). In grounded theory design, the association between variables are better explained by the development of a theoretical framework. Unlike the preceding research designs where theories are formulated before the collection of data to either confirm or refute their positions, a grounded theory first seek to build theories with the collected data (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). This type of research design is better to explain as theory building approach through inductive strategies to explore, understand and explain human behaviours. Hence, the basic principle of grounded theory is to explain a phenomenon with theory building.

However, the intent of this study is not for theory development, rather it is to empirically test the assumptions of theories with both numerical and non-numerical data gathered through questionnaire administration, representing the quantitative strand, and semi-structured interview signifying the qualitative component of this study respectively. That is, theories are formulated before the collection of data which contrast the tenets of grounded theory, where data are collected prior to the design of a theoretical framework.

#### **4.4.6 *Ethnography***

Ethnography as a research design is resolutely rooted in the discipline of anthropology and sociology, though more firmly entrenched in anthropological studies (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005). Its usage is aimed at spending long duration watching and listening to people about their ways of life and general doings, with the overall goal of uncovering and understanding them as a social group (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005). In other words, the culture of the participants under study becomes reveal from an insider point of view. Ethnographic studies occur more in a naturalistic setting with the collection of data through participants observation (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). As a departure, this study does not consider the study of people in their natural setting through participants observation, rather the goal is to measure quantitatively the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies on the one hand, and qualitatively explore the efficacy of trade union survival strategies to employment

casualisation on the other hand by surveying respondents of the selected organisations and employing semi-structure interviews with members of FOBTOB.

#### ***4.4.7 Archival research***

Archival research strategy entails the retrieval of administrative documents in form of data from the museums, archives, libraries or other private or public organisations (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). Its emphasis is on secondary sources of data collection and encompasses careful and detailed scrutiny of documents and records concerning incidents of the past (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). This strand of research strategy is particularly employed by historians to explore and understand past events, and the changes that have accompanied these events. In essence, it consents basically with research questions reflecting past antecedent to be answered either in descriptive, exploratory or explanatory forms (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

However, archival research is encumbered with few renunciations. For instance, the researcher's capability to clearly answer the research questions can be constrained by the nature of the available administrative documents (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). In addition, even where these documents are immediately available, they may be lacking the exact evidence needed to answer the research questions, and it is also likely that gaining access to either the museum or archives might be restricted for reasons unconnected to confidentiality of information. As expected, this study relies heavily on the collection of primary data through questionnaire administration and semi-structured interview which both explains a departure from the thinking of archival research strategy.

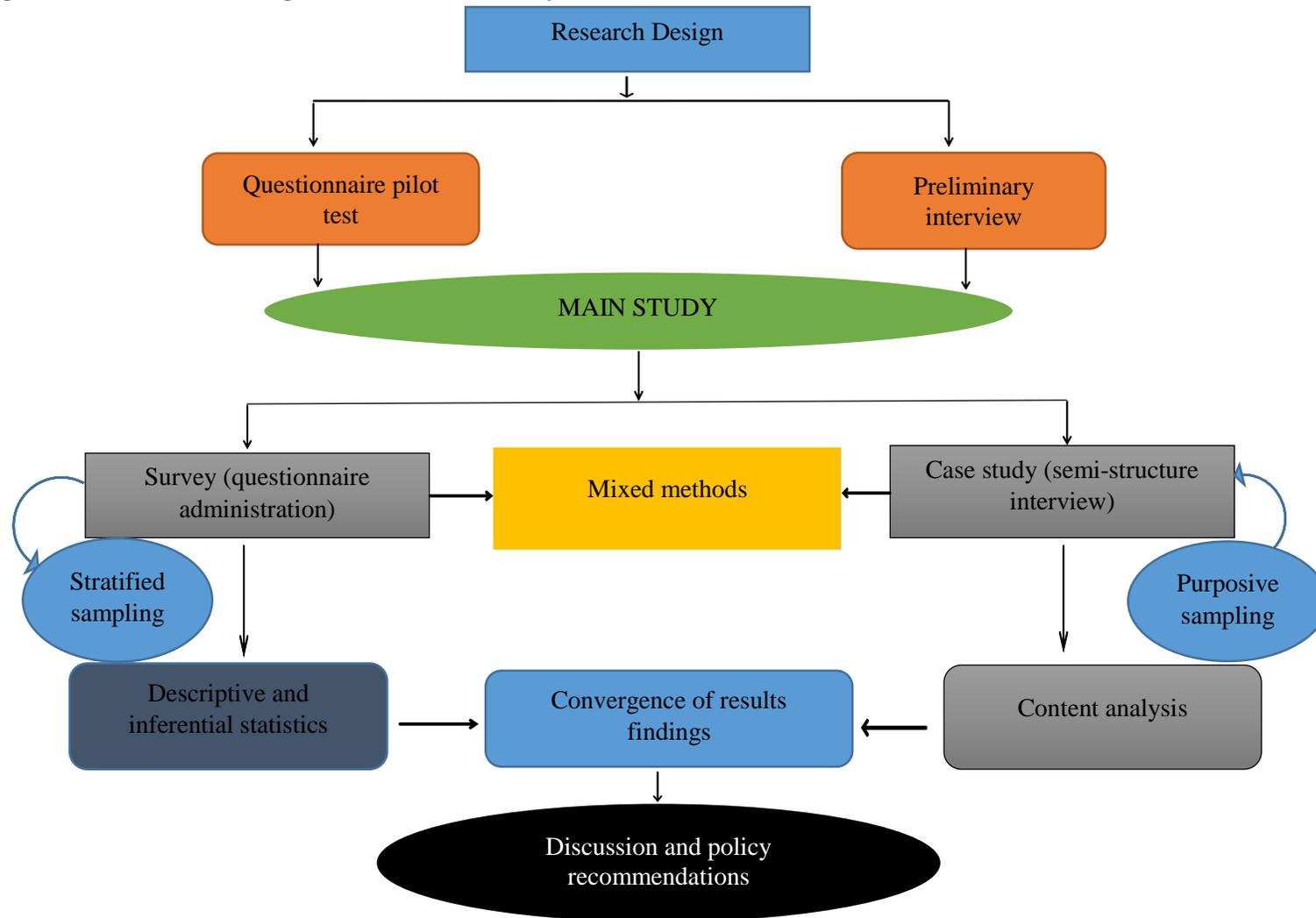
#### ***4.4.8 Justification of selected research design***

The preceding paragraphs aptly discussed the various types of research design by highlighting their assumptions, strength and major drawbacks. However, to achieve the objectives of this study, both the survey and case study research designs were adopted. It is essential to mention that these two research designs having separate connotations, appropriately merge with the traditions of both the quantitative and qualitatively studies upon which the methodological approach for this study rest. Firstly, survey research design allows for the use of a representative sample to make generalisation on the larger population. For instance, the current study cannot cover the entire participants of the various organisations selected for this study; as a result, survey research becomes appropriate wherein data are collected from a selected sample and generalisation

engrossed on the larger population of study. Secondly, the choice of the survey research design, being a quantitative research approach is justified to enable the measure of correlational relationship between the different constructs of the independent variables including (collective bargaining process, industrial strike, trade union leadership activities and education and (re) training of trade union members, and employment casualisation being the dependent variable, through the administration of questionnaires on research participants without which answers to the quantitative research questions as contained in chapter one will not be feasible.

In addition, the case study research design (a variant of the qualitative method), is also adopted and justified to enable a detailed qualitative understanding of the research problem. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995), argue that the case study research design entails an in-depth and systematic study of small respondents. In agreement with this submission, the case study design is justified to understand and explore the responses of trade union leaders of the beverage sector to employment casualisation, particularly as a small unit of respondents by providing empirical answers to the qualitative research questions. Therefore, the choice of both the survey (quantitative) and case study research designs (qualitative) were intended to provide richer and comprehensive data to compare and corroborate the quantitative and qualitative findings. This supposition lends credence to the adoption of mixed research choice for this study as discussed below. (See figure 4.2 for the research design matrix).

**Figure 4.2: Research Design Matrix for the study**



**Source:** Researcher's compilation

## **4.5 Research choices/ Data collection techniques**

Research choices explain the various types of techniques employed in the eliciting and analysis of research data. As highlighted in the research onion in Figure 4.1, the authors distinguished between three types of research choices in which other sub-types are derived. These include the mono method, multiple methods, and the mixed methods research choices. Each of these data collection techniques is fittingly explained in the ensuing paragraph, with the adoption of the most appropriate that best answer the study research questions.

### ***4.5.1 Mono method***

In mono-method research choice, data are collected through a single technique and a conforming data analysis technique is applied (Saunders, Lewis and Thronhill, 2009). For instance, in this strand of data collection technique, the data collected can be a reflection of either a quantitative or qualitative research, where data are collected with either one of quantitative research instruments such as a questionnaire or one of qualitative research instrument such as an interview. However, the mono-method research choice is not suitable for this current study. This submission is not far-fetched since the research questions stated are reflective of both quantitative and qualitative research methods, and the goal to measure the variables under study (quantitative strand) and explore the research problem (qualitative strand) will not be achieved with the adoption of a mono-method research choice.

### ***4.5.2 Multiple methods***

The multiple methods unlike the mono-method research choice, where one of either the quantitative or qualitative research method is employed, advocates for more than one data collection technique within a single study. For example, a quantitative study whose approach is multiple methods can adopt the questionnaire and observation as data collection techniques, whilst a qualitative multiple studies can employ semi-structured interview and focus group discussion (FGD) as data collection tools (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). The main point of the multiple methods is that the collection of more than one type of data for a study is restricted to either the quantitative or qualitative study. Therefore, this study does not adopt the multiple method research choice since the methodological aim is to collect both numerical and non-numerical data, to suitably answer the research questions by applying the corresponding data analysis techniques.

### **4.5.3 *Mixed methods***

The merger of both numerical and non-numerical data in a single study commenced with the work of Jick (1979 cited in Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). For example, quantitative researcher investigates social phenomenon through quantifiable evidence, and often rely on statistical analyses to bring about objective, valid and reliable research findings, while qualitative researchers deal with exploring and understanding the meaning individual attached to social problems on the other hand (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). In this study, quantitative approach is employed to quantify respondents' (workers) view on trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation through a self-administered questionnaire, whereas the qualitative phase explores the experiences and perceptions of trade union leaders to employment casualisation through a semi-structured interview.

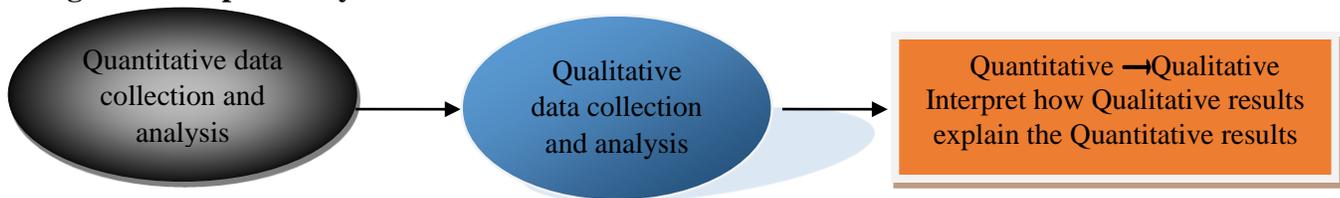
Thus, a mixed research approach is embraced and justified for this study since the quantitative method enables the gathering of data from a large population of respondents of the beverage companies under study, while qualitative method unearths elaborate and in-depth responses from a small sample of trade union leaders. Similarly, the acceptance of mixed methods for this research does not only support the need to answer the quantitative and qualitative research questions (see chapter 1) but also connects with the necessity to create more understanding by gaining deeper insight into the research problem with the combination of both methods (Creswell, 2014). In other words, to collaborate and compare results from two different methods. Nevertheless, there exist different types of mixed methods design and their application greatly depends on the preference of the researcher, and particularly the imperative of the study; they include explanatory, exploratory, embedded and convergent parallel/concurrent mixed methods (Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

#### **4.5.3.1 *Explanatory mixed methods***

The explanatory mixed method design is the most direct of all the mixed methods research and its utility is established on the clarification of quantitative findings with qualitative results (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The main talking point of this design is that quantitative studies offer a more wide-ranging picture of the research problem, whereas qualitative enhances the general picture (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006). Basically, data in this mixed method's type are collected and analysed in two dispersed phases. Firstly, quantitative data is collected and analysed

and thereafter, qualitative questions whether in the form of interview or FGD are derived from the results of the quantitative phase, and data collected and analysed correspondingly. Hence, the goal of the explanatory design is the researcher remit of interpreting quantitative findings with qualitative results. In other words, qualitative results are used as a complement or follow-up of the quantitative findings (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). See figure 4.3 for illustration of the explanatory mixed method.

**Figure 4.3 Explanatory mixed method**

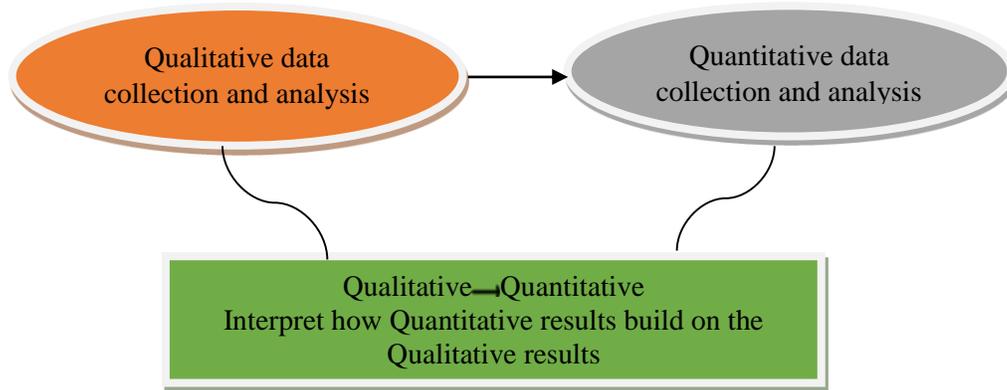


**Sources:** Adapted from Ivankova, Creswell and Clark, 2011

#### 4.5.3.2 *Exploratory mixed methods*

This design is mostly utilized when a research problem has to first be explored qualitatively before the application of quantitative measurement, or when a researcher does not know how to measure identified constructs in a study (Morgan, 1998). Unlike the explanatory mixed method where quantitative data is first collected and analysed, qualitative data is first collected and analysed during the first phase of exploratory mixed method research (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). The idea is to identify themes from the qualitative findings and utilize the same for developing measuring instruments for a quantitative study (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). Therefore, while the explanatory design interprets how qualitative results explicate quantitative results, the exploratory design explains how quantitative results builds on qualitative results (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). See figure 4.4 for illustration of the explanatory mixed method.

**Figure 4.4 Exploratory mixed method**

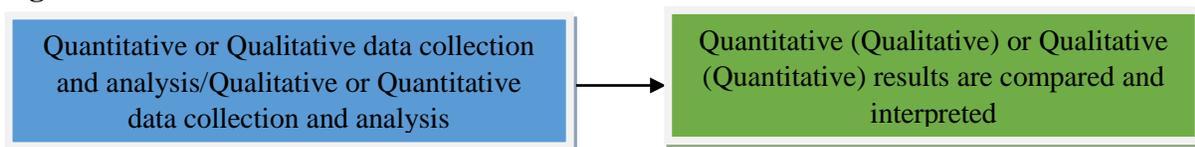


**Sources:** Adapted from Ivankova, Creswell and Clark, 2011

#### 4.5.3.3 *Embedded mixed method*

The usefulness of this component of mixed method type is appropriate when a researcher seeks to answer a secondary research question that is dissimilar but connected to the primary research question by embedding one type of data with another type within a single study (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). Hence, the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data are done within a traditional single quantitative or qualitative study (Wilson, 2010). For instance, the investigator may add a qualitative component within a quantitative design such as a case study or employ a quantitative component within a qualitative design such as experimentation. A major advantage of this design is the collection and embedding of two types of data simultaneously and the embedded data tends to enrich the overall design (p. 72). In contrast, the collection of supplementary data could introduce bias into the primary data set (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). Figure 4.5 explains the embedded mixed method.

**Figure 4.5 Embedded mixed method**



**Sources:** Adapted from Ivankova, Creswell and Clark, 2011

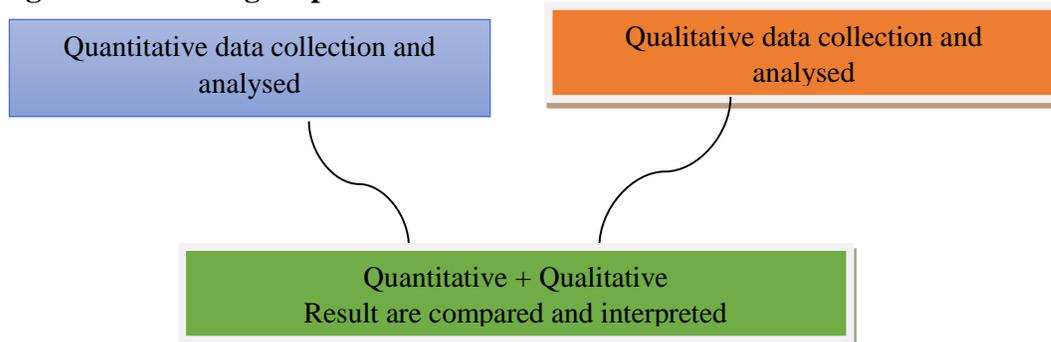
#### 4.5.3.4 *Convergent parallel/concurrent mixed method*

In the preceding mixed methods types discussed, data are collected and analyzed at separate phases of a study. In contrast, data collection and analysis are done concurrently in the convergent parallel

mixed method. The utility of the convergent parallel mixed method is predicated on the appropriateness of the research questions to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data, in order to ascertain if the numeric and non-numeric data converge or diverge (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). However, in this method, equal priority is given to each strand of either quantitative or qualitative method and the mixing of findings are ensured during the discussion and interpretation stage of the research (Wilson, 2010).

For instance, in a single study, a researcher might collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently to answer the different research questions with the utilization of research instruments such as questionnaire for the quantitative and semi-structured interview for the qualitative methods respectively (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). This design can be completed in less time than other types of mixed method design, and more appropriate to combine two types of data in a study for rich and robust research findings (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). See figure 4.6 for a presentation of the convergent parallel mixed method design.

**Figure 4.6 Convergent parallel/concurrent mixed method**



**Sources:** Adapted from Ivankova, Creswell and Clark, 2011.

#### 4.5.3.5 *Research choice/data collection technique appropriate for this study*

Having carefully examined the assumptions of the various mixed methods types, this study adopts a convergent parallel/concurrent mixed method design. Firstly, the intent of this study is not to explain quantitative findings with qualitative results. Secondly, the importance of this study is not related to qualitative exploration of the research problem before the application of quantitative measurement and also, the methodological focus is not to embed or add a supplementary data to the primary data sets, rather this study collects, analyse and interpret quantitative and qualitative data concurrently. Therefore, one major justification for adopting this design is the allotting of equal priority to both the quantitative and qualitative data (Hanson *et al.*, 2005). Again, the choice

of this design is premised on the freedom for separate analysis of quantitative and qualitative data, whereas, the analysis of quantitative is used to explain qualitative findings, and qualitative used to build quantitative findings in explanatory and exploratory designs respectively. In other words, convergent parallel emphasizes two separate analysis without the interference or building up of one with another as obtained in other types of mixed method designs.

Furthermore, another justification for adopting the convergent parallel is to compare two types of data for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study (Sekaren and Bougie, 2016). The pragmatist philosophical position for understanding a research problem from diverse worldviews suitably connects with the adoption of convergent parallel design for this study. For this method, two separate and equal data collection approach was employed to understand and expand the frontiers of the research problem. Specifically, on the one hand, is the administration of questionnaire on respondents of the sampled organisations, and a semi-structured interview with trade union officials of the FOBTOB on the other hand. As it applies to this study, some research questions are only answerable with quantitative methods (questionnaires), while others with qualitative methods respectively (semi-structured interview). Again, a more profound justification is the need to harness the strength and weakness of quantitative (large sample size and generalisation of findings) and qualitative research methods (small sample size and in-depth exploration of research problem).

#### **4.6 Population of study**

A population is defined as the total number or group of people, events or events that a researcher seeks to study in order to make an inference based on the selected sample (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). It refers to all sets of elements in a given research study through which a phenomenon will be examined (Sekaran, 2003). Wilson (2010) explains the population as a defined group of cases, wherein a researcher can draw sample elements. For emphasis, this explanation is profound as it captures the need to draw a sample from defined cases. The quantitative population for this study comprises of employees of the 5 selected beverage companies in Lagos State, while the qualitative population encompasses officials of FOBTOB with a specific focus on the beverage component of the association. In all, there are seven (7) beverage companies in Lagos State with trade union presence including Guinness Nigeria Plc, Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Nigeria Breweries Plc, Seven-Up Bottling Company, Nigeria Bottling Company, Ragolis Waters Limited RWL and Vital Product

Plc (FOBTOB, 2016). However, employees of five (5) of these companies, representing 71 percent of the beverage companies with trade union presence in Lagos State forms the population for this study (See table 4.2).

This selection is justified because these organizations represent key players in the beverage sector with effective trade union activities (Chidi, 2014); and equally, have enough staff strength that can adequately strengthen the response rate of this study<sup>50</sup>. The population of workers (including both management and junior staff) of the five (5) selected organisations is contained in table 4.2:

**Table 4.2: Study population**

S/N	Company	Staff Population
1	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	270
2	Guinness Nigeria Plc	500
3	Nigeria Breweries Plc	550
4	Seven-Up Bottling Company	605
5	Nigeria Bottling Company	1031
	<b>Total</b>	<b>2956</b>

**Source:** Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association, 2016

#### 4.7 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of a population and includes some elements selected randomly from a population (Sekaran, 2003). Specifically, findings emanating from the study of a sample is generalised on the entire population of interest (Sekaran, 2003). It is impracticable to survey the entire population of this study, especially as the population spreads across 5 major industrial organisations in Lagos metropolis. Thus, it is important to adopt or select a representative sample, wherein findings emanating from this study become generalizable to the entire population of study. To do this, the sample size for this study is thus determined with the Yamene (1967) statistical formula expressed below:

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<sup>50</sup> Ragolis Waters Limited and Vital Product Plc were intentionally left out of the study because of their weak trade union structure and sparse number of employees. In fact, it was confirmed that the production site of these organisations are located outside the shore of Lagos State leaving the administrative offices to Lagos State with few number of persons, thus the location of production site outside Lagos State ordinarily falls out of the scope of this study being Lagos State

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n= sample size

N= The total population; **2956**

1= Constant

e= limit of sampling error= **0.05**

This is computed as follows:

$$n = \frac{2956}{1 + 2956(0.05)^2} = \frac{2956}{8.39} \quad n = \mathbf{352}$$

From the above computation, the total sample size for the quantitative phase of this study is **352**. To ensure equal allocation to each of the five (5) organisations based on their respective population, the Bowley (1926) proportional allocation formula is further applied. The formula is express as:

$$n_1 = n \left( \frac{n_1}{N} \right)$$

Where n= sample size i.e 352

n<sub>1</sub>= population of each organisation i.e 270, 500, 550, 605 and 1031

N= Total population i.e 2956

n<sub>1</sub>= Cadbury Nigeria Plc

$$\frac{352(270)}{2956} = \mathbf{32}$$

n<sub>2</sub>= Guinness Nigeria Plc

$$\frac{352(500)}{2956} = \mathbf{60}$$

n<sub>3</sub>= Nigeria Breweries Plc

$$\frac{352(550)}{2956} = \mathbf{65}$$

$$n4 = \frac{\text{Seven-Up Bottling company}}{2956} = \frac{352(605)}{2956} = 72$$

$$n5 = \frac{\text{Nigeria bottling company}}{2956} = \frac{352(1031)}{2956} = 123$$

See table 4.3 for the sample size of individual organisation.

**Table 4.3: Sample size based on individual organisation**

S/N	Company	Staff Population	Sample Size
n1	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	270	32
n2	Guinness Nigeria Plc	500	60
n3	Nigeria Breweries Plc	550	65
n4	Seven-Up Bottling Company	605	72
n5	Nigeria Bottling Company	1031	123
	Total	<b>2956</b>	<b>352</b>

**Sources:** Researcher’s compilation

For the qualitative section, a sample of 10 executive members of FOBTOB was purposively selected for semi-structure interview. Guest, Bruce and Johnson (2006) argue that this sample size is sufficient to understand commonalities within a homogeneous group of trade union leaders. Moreover, qualitative study unequivocally enjoys a small size for in-depth exploration of a research problem.

#### 4.8 Sampling techniques

Sampling techniques are divided into different parts; the probability and non-probability sampling techniques (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The probability sampling allows all elements in a given population, the same probability of inclusion as a member of the entire population. It enjoys true representativeness of the population and a wider generalisation of the findings are made to the population through statistical estimations (Goodman, 2011). For the non-probability sampling, not all elements that constitute a population have an equal chance of being a representative sample, and research questions that rely on statistical inferences are not answerable under this technique (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). The following research strategies are categorized with the probability sampling including the simple random, systematic, and stratified sampling techniques

while the non-probability consists of quota, convenience, and purposive sampling respectively (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

#### **4.8.1 Probability sampling**

##### **4.8.1.1 Simple random sampling**

In simple random sampling, every element in the population have an equal chance of being selected for a study, as no element is either intentionally selected or otherwise except in an occurrence of chance (Odetunde, 2011). For instance, a researcher might be interested in picking his desired sample from a basket containing all the elements in a population. He could also pick his desired sets of the sample from the list of workers in an organisation to avoid bias. As a case example, if a study is designed to survey 125 samples from a population of 500, the probability of having an equal selection from the elements of the population can be express as (Odetunde, 2011):

$$P(\text{inclusion}) = \frac{\text{sample size}}{\text{Total population}} = \frac{125}{500} = 0.25$$

From the above, the probability of selecting a sample from the elements of the population is given as 0.25; that is, 1 sample from the counts of every 4 elements until the desired 125 sample size is attained (Wilson, 2010). However, one major drawback of simple random sampling can be affirmed from the inability to ensure a good representation of sample from the population, since selection greatly depends on luck and a comprehensive lists of elements may not always be available to select randomly from (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

##### **4.8.1.2 Systematic random sampling**

The systematic random sampling is a variant of the simple random sampling, otherwise called interval or counting-off sampling method (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Here, samples are drawn from a population-based on the *n*th interval, and it greatly relies on the arrangement or order of the population either serially or alphabetically before the selection of samples at regular intervals (Wilson, 2010). For illustration, a researcher might desire 100 samples from a population of 1000. Firstly, he obtains his *n*th interval by dividing 1000 by 100 to obtain 10 as the interval. Secondly, to select his sample from the elements in the population, he begins by counting from the first element in the population up to every 10<sup>th</sup> element to get his sample size of 100. In this instance,

it would mean that every 10<sup>th</sup> element in the population such as 10<sup>th</sup>, 20<sup>th</sup>, 30<sup>th</sup>, 40<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup> etc will constitute his sample (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Much like the simple random sampling, systematic sampling can be of great importance in a study having a vast number of participants, and also has the likelihood of introducing bias into a study with the possibility of drawing incorrect sample as the scope for selecting sample through intervals could mean the selection of inappropriate sample for a study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

#### ***4.8.1.3 Stratified random sampling***

The stratified sampling is employed when there is a number of subgroups in a population, within each of which it is required that there is a full representation (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). In this sampling method, the population of the study is divided into strands of heterogeneous and non-overlapping groups called strata. Thereafter, an independent sample is selected from each stratum through simple random sampling (Maree and Pieterse, 2011). The aim is to ensure that every element in the population, irrespective of their stratum being wage earners, salary earners, junior or senior worker are selected as a representative of the entire study population. For instance, the population for this study is stratified into different heterogeneous groups such as wage and salary workers, and administrative positions of junior and senior workers respectively. Importantly, the equal allocation was considered in the selection of samples from each of these strata irrespective of their differences in the entire population.

Having stratified the entire population along different strata, the desired sample size was selected through randomization. To achieve this, for instance in the case of Guinness Nigeria Plc where 32 sample size is expected to be selected from a population of 270 participants, the researcher adopts the random generator method by assigning unique numbers to members of the population ranging from 0-270 digits<sup>51</sup>. Thereafter, the computer-based random number generator software was employed to recruit the required sample size of 32. It was however ensured that each digit number selected has no connection with the preceding or succeeding digit number. One major advantage

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<sup>51</sup> The researcher was given lists of all member's in each participating organisations where the unique numbers was assigned. Personal information of participants was however not taken note of as this negates ethical standards. Repeatedly, this same process was conducted for all other participating organisations in order to select the appropriate sample size from each population

of this sampling method is that each section of the population is likely to be a representative of the population, while different information is attained from each stratum (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

#### ***4.8.2 Non-probability sampling***

##### ***4.8.2.1 Quota sampling***

The quota sampling ensures that all identified groups are represented in equal proportion through the assignment of quotas to each independent group (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Unlike the stratified sampling, the quota sampling is based on selecting a sample from desired characteristics of the population (Creswell, 2009). The distinction between them is clearly that in the former, samples are selected randomly from each stratum whereas, samples are selected non-randomly from identified quota in the latter (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The utility of quota sampling is more familiar with a study of a large population of respondents involving sets of ethnic groups, where samples are drawn from each quota or ethnic groups to form the study population. Quota sampling is less costly and samples from each quota can be selected very quickly. In contrast, a major pitfall is that results engendered from the use of the quota sampling are restricted to the quotas and not generalizable on the entire population of study (Creswell, 2009).

##### ***4.8.2.2 Convenience sampling***

In this sampling technique, samples are selected based on conveniences or availability during the study (Guest, 2011). The selection of samples in this method is selected haphazardly without a predetermined means of selection. The haphazard selection of samples, however, continues until the required sample is attained from those available at the time of the study. One pertinent gain of this sampling method is that it allows the researcher to select a sample based on availability and convenience, and tends to be less costly and cumbersome a process. In contrast, it is prone to introduce bias into the results of a study that is beyond the control of the researcher since the samples appearing in the study are obtained owing to the ease of obtaining them (Guest, 2011).

##### ***4.8.2.3 Purposive sampling***

This sampling method is adopted in a study when the information required, specifically are confined to a set of small respondents or individuals who are possessing or are in the best position to give such information (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The responsibility of the researcher is to

locate these individuals, who in his best knowledge are capable of releasing the needed information for the study. For example, the purposive selection of trade union leaders in understanding and exploring their views on trade union strategies to employment casualisation. In other words, the purposive selection of respondents is hinged on the judgment that responses selected will adequately aid in addressing the research objectives, and as well answer the research questions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p. 237). Although, the appropriateness of purposive sampling can be examined from the fulcrum of assessing and gathering relevant information from a specific set of persons, yet, the challenge of generalizing results from the small sample selected to the entire population remains questionable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

#### ***4.8.2.4 Sampling techniques appropriate for this study***

With intense considerations of the strength and weakness of the various types of sampling techniques discussed above, this study adopts the stratified and purposive sampling techniques with each representing the probability and non-probability sampling respectively. It is needful to highlight that the basic assumptions of stratified and purposive sampling aptly relate to the assumptions of the quantitative and qualitative research methods employed in this study. The stratified sampling as related to survey research design was adopted to answer quantitative research questions, and purposive as applicable to a case study with small sample respondents was employed to answer qualitative research questions. Furthermore, there are other varied justifications for the adoption of stratified random sampling in this study. Firstly, it is adopted because the population under study differs in heterogeneous characteristics such as wage earners, salary earners, junior and senior staff respectively, such that stratification ensures that each stratum of the population are represented in equal proportion.

Thus, respondents were selected from each stratum such as those on a daily wage, particularly casual workers on the one hand, and those on salaries on the other hand. To do this, respondents were identified based on their wage structure and the desired sample was gathered from each of these strata. Similarly, selection of respondents was also done in line with the respondent's level of seniority in the organisations sampled. For instance, the strata of seniority were compartmentalised into junior staff represented by casual workers and member of the National Union of Beverage, Food and Tobacco Employees (NUBFTE) and senior staff ably represented by members of the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Senior Staff Association (FOBTOB). Put

together, qualities such as wage and level of seniority were the two main stratum from which respondents were selected for this study across the five selected organisations sampled for this study.

Secondly, it helps in producing more accurate and concise information about a sample size by treating each stratum of the population fairly and in equal proportion. For instance, to produce an accurate estimates of the overall population, each stratum in the population of this study was given equal consideration in the numbers of questionnaires administered. Similarly, stratified sampling provides more statistical accuracy of the survey results, because the unevenness within a stratum is less momentous than the disparity when considering the entire population (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2009). Therefore, the utility of stratified random sampling is requisite in this study especially as the population of the study is heterogeneous in nature.

In addition, the utility of the purposive sampling technique in this study can equally be unearthed from different points of view. Firstly, having used stratified random sampling to survey participants of the five selected organisations, the purposive sampling was adopted to purposively select and explore trade union leaders' perception and responses to employment casualisation. This is predicated on the need to assess their knowledge for first-hand information and disinter deep exploration of the research problem (Smith, Colombi and Wirthlin, 2013). In other words, participants for the semi-structured interview were solely identified with regard to their ability to understand the research problem on the one hand, and the need to proffer robust responses to the various questions raised during the interviews. Secondly, as a complement to the stratified random sampling, the purposive sampling is justified in as much as the trade union leaders are in a better position to explain their role in the wrestle for reducing the continuous growth of employment casualisation. In other words, participants were selected purposively with preference to their knowledge on the subject matter.

#### **4.9 Research instruments**

The structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview were employed to elicit responses from respondents and each of these instruments was arranged for answering specific research questions (see Appendix C and D). For instance, the structured questionnaire was designed for achieving quantitative research questions by surveying respondents of the five selected organisations sampled for this study, while the semi-structured interview was employed to achieve the

qualitative research questions by interviewing trade union leaders of the beverage sector. In other words, the combination of these research instruments appropriately justified the adoption of convergent parallel mixed methods for this study. The research instruments are explained below:

#### **4.9.1 Questionnaire**

A structured research questionnaire connotes a written set of questions to which respondents provide answers in a closed or open-ended alternative (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). As fitting for this study, the questionnaires were personally administered to respondents in each of the participating organisation (see 4.12 for an explanation on data collection procedure). For instance, when a study involving survey is restricted to selected organisations, and the management of these organisations are interested in assembling identified respondents, a more appropriate way to elicit a response is to administer the questionnaire personally (Creswell, 2009).

All inquiries on the questionnaire were phrased with a clear reflection of the study research questions and hypotheses. This is necessary to further stimulate respondents interest in giving appropriate, and accurate responses to the main questions contained in section B of the questionnaire in order to avoid double-barrelled questions, and ensure clarity of the questions to respondents (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The questionnaire contained a total of 59 items apportioned into two sections (see Appendix C). Section A captures questions on respondents gender, age, marital status, employment status, the name of trade union affiliation, work experience, monthly income, and educational qualification. However, these items are imperative to understand the trend of employment casualisation, for instance by classifying respondents based on their employment status, trade union membership and particularly, to understand the disparity between the monthly income of permanent and casual workers (see Appendix C).

Section B of the questionnaire were all self-developed by the researcher with clarity showing the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. The lists of items, were, however, found usable after conducting the Cronbach Alfa reliability test (see section 4.11 and Table 5.1). The Likert 5-point rating scale developed by an American psychologist, Rensis Likert in 1932 was employed in the categorisation of responses on the questionnaire (Copper and Schindler, 2008) The classification of responses were sorted between 1 (strongly agree) and 5 (strongly disagree). The adoption of Likert rating scale is to allow for ease of categorisation, and analysis of responses (Jankowicz, 2005). While items 11 to 19 elicit questions

on the patterns and trends of employment casualisation, items 20 to 30 explores challenges of employment casualisation (see Appendix C). Similarly, items 31 to 59 were designed to draw responses on trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation including collective bargaining, industrial strike, education and (re)training programmes of trade unions and trade union leadership activities respectively (see Appendix C ). The choice of the questionnaire in a study, no doubt explains it as the most cost-effective data collection instrument mainly for a large sample as evident in this study (De Vos *et al.*, 2006). However, one major drawback is the enormous time to be invested in the distribution and coding of the various responses.

#### **4.9.1.1 Pilot testing**

In order to ensure items on the questionnaire do not appear vague to the participating audience, a pilot study was conducted with 40 prospective samples drawn from the various target population<sup>52</sup>. This number is justified in line with Copper and Schindler (2008) submission that a range of 25-100 respondents depending on the population of the study is appropriate for designing a pilot study. Importantly, it guarantees the opportunity of reducing the ambiguity of wording, and any form of misinterpretations so as to increase the quality of data collected. For Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009), pilot testing exercise provides the privilege of ascertaining the reliability of the questionnaire, wherein the information collected from the pilot phase can be used to improve the questionnaire before the commencement of the main administration. Similarly, discarding or rephrasing any word from the questionnaire greatly depends on the outcome of the content validity as peruse by experts in the field of employment and labour relations, and the outcome of the reliability index in particular. The pilot study was conducted for two weeks before the actual survey (see section 4.12 for discussion of pre-fieldwork), after which the Cronbach Alfa was employed to test the appropriateness of the items to either modify or remove vague question (s) if the coefficient is less than the required (see section 4.11 for discussion on reliability and validity of instruments for accepted reliability coefficient).

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<sup>52</sup> For the purpose of the pilot study, 8 prospective respondents were sampled in each of the 5 selected organisations to make up 40.

#### **4.9.2 *Semi-structured interview***

An interview allows for a purposeful discussion between two or more persons concerning the exploration of an issue. There are different strands of the interview including the structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, and the adoption of any of these greatly depends on the need of the research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Wilson, 2010). This study approves the semi-structured interview to explore trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation in the Beverage sector of Lagos State. Similarly, it is needful to mention that this type of interview allows for the exploration of supplementary questions during the interview to suit the purpose of the research questions, where deviations are observed in the responses of the interviewees. An interview guide containing lists of questions was adopted to guide the flow of questions during the interview, and to ensure the same questions were posed to respondents as the interview unfolds (see Appendix D). However, the interview guide was not meant to confine the researcher and respondents as the researcher had the liberty of probing beyond the lists of questions contained in the guide for a fuller grasp of respondent's views. Nonetheless, this probe does not necessarily mean a change of question different from what is contained in the interview guide, but a follow up to bring about lucidity to identified ambiguous responses.

The range of interviewees selected across the different portfolio of trade union executives of FOBTOB was to better enrich and proffer a deeper understanding of the research problem from different individual perspectives. The length of each interview lasted between 35-60 minutes, while the responses were all recorded with a digital voice recorder in order to allow the researcher to concentrate on the interview as it unfolds. In addition, the researcher engaged in note taking during each interview with a distinct identification given to each interviewee. This is necessary to increase the reliability of the audio record interview in the event that some portion of the audio was not clear enough for transcribe. One major drawbacks of the interview is that information collected can be incomplete and flooded with respondent's bias, especially to falsify information to the advantage of the respondents (Wilson, 2010; Smith, Colombi and Wirthlin, 2013). Thus, the concern to lessen the effect of this bias, explains one of the need to combine both numeric (questionnaire) and non-numeric (semi-structured interview) data collection in this study.

#### **4.10 Reliability and validity of research instruments**

The issue of reliability and validity in research are no less imperative for producing a high-quality research outcome. In fact, the extent to which a research instrument is reliable and valid determines the credibility of research findings (Odetunde, 2011). Although as the case for this study, most researchers might be bent on constructing their own independent research instruments when none is available to measure the variables identified in a study (p.118). While the need to construct individual research instrument does not foreclose the conduct of pilot study with a relatively small sample from the study population to ascertain the validity and consistency of the instruments, this study ensured the validity and reliability of the structured questionnaire and interview as discussed in the ensuing paragraphs. The Cronbach Alpha index was employed to ascertain the reliability of the research questionnaire with the 40 pilots study conducted prior to the commencement of the survey. Several debates on the accepted Cronbach index value as the threshold of reliability have surfaced in the literature. Pallant (2011) for instance contends that index value above 0.7 is acceptable, while Konting (1998) argues that the coefficient value from 0.6 is reliable and accepted. For the purpose of this study, the reliability coefficient above 0.6 is considered reliable and acceptable (see Table 5.2 for the Cronbach alfa index of the research instrument).

For the purpose of this study, content validity was adopted to validate the research questionnaire. Thus, the content of the research questionnaire was validated in three different phases to ensure the items cover the domain of constructs under measurement. Firstly, the researcher supervisor validated the questionnaire through face validity, and some items were rephrased to aptly capture the construct under measurement. Secondly, the reviewer(s) of the proposal for this study also highlighted some concerns on the research instrument through face validity, and all were looked into and necessary amendments made. Thirdly, the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) prior to the approval of this study raised a concern on the age range of respondents and other issues therein in the questionnaire (see Appendix B). Equally, these concerns were revised accordingly.

Together, all these were to ensure that the research questionnaire adequately covers the various constructs sets out to be measured in the study. Of course, the preceding descriptions all explained how the research questionnaire was validated and tested for reliability. Nonetheless, ensuring the reliability of qualitative instrument such as interview shoulders a different swathe. Consequently,

the trustworthiness of quantitative research is religiously addressed by positivists; perhaps because their perceptions of validity and reliability cannot be conceived in a similar manner with qualitative research doctrines (Shenton, 2004). However, qualitative researchers have offered explanations to how validity and reliability can be ensured in qualitative studies (see Guba, 1981; Kvale and Brinkman, 2009; Trochim and Donnelly, 2007), the foremost of these researchers being Trochim and Donnelly (2007).

In particular, the reliability of the qualitative research instrument for this study was achieved with Trochim and Donnelly (2007) four indicators of reliability and validity of qualitative research instruments. These indicators include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Firstly, credibility was ensured by adequately reflecting participant's opinion in the qualitative results of this study, by reporting the participant's actual language in verbatim from their real world. Secondly, transferability was ascertained by ensuring that the qualitative results are transferable to other or similar context through generalisation of research findings. Thirdly, dependability was attained by following and observing appropriate ethics on secrecy and accuracy of information gathered. This further explains the anonymity of respondents and storing of the interview information under lock and key to averting a possible breach of ethical standards. Lastly, conformability was ensured through consistency of results by giving both the interview scripts and interpretation of findings out for stakeholder's checks to assess the consistency between the interview scripts and interpretation of results, in order to ensure that the study conclusion was drawn from the data reported (Nieuwenhuis, 2011).

#### **4.11 Data collection procedure**

No doubt, the data collection exercise of a study embroils several procedural steps to ensure desired and meaningful data are retrieved from respondents. However, this does not exclude the need to understand the organisation (s), and the nature of respondents being studied. In this study, three distinct procedures were followed including pre-fieldwork, administration of research questionnaires and the conduct of interviews respectively. Although a gate keeper's letter was obtained prior to the commencement of the study, the researcher had to revisit the headquarters of FOBTOB in Lagos State, Nigeria for a formal introduction to the trade union branch chairmen of the respective organisations (see Appendix A). Upon arriving these organisations after appointments have been sealed with each branch chairman, the researcher reiterates the goal of the

study to each individual branch chairmen of the selected organisations. Thereafter, forty (40) copies of the questionnaire were distributed among selected members of the organisations to test for the reliability of the research instrument<sup>53</sup>, an exercise that lasted for weeks (see section on the pilot study for details and Table 5.1 for reliability index).

Immediately after the pre-field exercise, the researcher with the assistance of three research assistants<sup>54</sup> approached the individual organisations for onward distribution of the research questionnaires to respondents. Prior to the commencement of this exercise, each branch chairmen mandated that the researcher is acquainted with the organisation(s) human resources policies by having to introduce himself to the head of human resources. Nevertheless, while the various heads of human resources departments were indifferent to the research having understood the problem of investigation, the branch chairmen showed keen interest and provided necessary assistance all through the fieldwork exercise, but however, warned to abide by the human resources practices of their organisations.

Following from this, the researcher agreed to come for a briefing before the commencement of questionnaire administrations. On a separate day, the researcher alongside the research assistants booked an appointment with each branch chairmen, wherein members were briefed about the goal of the researcher<sup>55</sup> spanning through another two weeks. As the briefing exercise unfolds, the researcher and field assistants made the prospective participants understand clearly, that the exercise in its whole is for academic purposes and there is no implication whatsoever on how and what they feel about the items in the questionnaire. In addition, the attached consent forms were explained to them for signing, indicating an interest to participate and the freedom not to participate or decline as the research unfolds (see Appendices C, D and section on ethical consideration in

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<sup>53</sup> Eight questionnaires were distributed in each of the five organisation culminating in a total of 40 for this exercise. Also, the reliability index score for all construct variables were all considered reliable having exceeded the threshold of 0.6

<sup>54</sup> The three research assistants were selected among the final year students of the Department of Employment Relations and Human Resource Management of the University of Lagos (UNILAG). These students over time have demonstrated quality research skills and were recommended by the Head of the Department. Prior to the commencement of field work, a 3-day training was organized by the researcher to acquaint the research assistants with the relevant skills needed for effective field work exercise. Among other things was the need to be ethically conscious of participants' privacy and confidentiality

<sup>55</sup> Briefing of the participants was held during lunch time in staff assigned canteens and staff relaxation center respectively with the permission of the branch chairmen of the union

4.14). With this persuasion, few of the respondents were reluctant to fill the consent form indicating they understood the terms, but would rather participate anonymously.

The proper administration of the questionnaires began shortly after the briefing together with the three research assistants. The researcher and the field assistants proceeded to administer the research questionnaire on respective respondents in line with the number of sample size apportioned to each individual organisation (see Table 4.3 sample size based on individual organisation). For some organisations, few of the respondents who were identified to be occupied with official work collected copies of the questionnaires, and requested for another appointment, wherein they can deliver upon attending to the questions; while for the large chunk of respondents, the research questionnaires were administered and consequently returned filled the same day. In specific, for one particular organisation having the highest number of sample size, the branch chairman requested for the questionnaire to be administered by himself since the researcher, and his field assistants have done the required introduction and explanations.

However, one major disadvantage was the need to constantly remind few of the respondents that suggested another date for collection, and the trade union chairman who volunteered to distribute the questionnaires among members of his organisation (see section 4.15 on problems encountered during data collection). After a long wait, a total of 291 copies of the questionnaire were retrieved from the 5 surveyed organisations representing 81 percent of the total 352 sample size (see table 5.1 on the distribution of retrieved questionnaire based on individual organisation).

Furthermore, for the interview section, the researcher accompanied by three researcher assistants visited the headquarters of FOBTOB located at 32, Isaac John Street, Off Ikorodu Road, Fadeyi, Lagos, Nigeria, wherein the highlight of the interview was clearly explained to the General Secretary, and a copy of the interview schedule handed to him to peruse. There are about ten senior staff executive members excluding the confidential secretaries of the association domiciled in the headquarter house of the association. Therefore, since the focus is to uncover the reactionary strategies of trade union leaders to employment casualisation, it is expected that a handful of these senior staff members participate in the interview. However, while one of the senior executive members of the association was unavoidably absent due to a training schedule in Pa Micheal Imodu Institute of Labour Studies (MIILS), Ilorin, Kwara State Nigeria, the number of interviewees who participated in the interview were reduced to nine senior staff executive. For emphasis, the small

number of senior staff members interviewed is aptly justified with the tenets of qualitative studies, where small sample size is encouraged for in-depth exploration of research (Creswell, 2012).

The entire interview was structured into segments with different appointment dates for each interviewee. On individual interaction before the commencement of the interview, the researcher explained the goal of the research to each identified respondent's and advised them of the need to perceive the interview questions strictly for research purposes and respond in the same light. The researcher presented a consent form to each respondent to specify their voluntary preparedness to participate in the research, a willingness not to participate or decline as the research unfolds (see section on ethical consideration for a fuller explanation). The interview questions were directly enquired by the researcher in a corresponding manner as contained in the interview guide, and follow up questions were employed to clearly uncover issues till saturation was reached for all participants. Two of the research assistants recorded the interview as its progressed with two different recording gadgets so as to have a back-up in the event that some portion of the interview is not clear in one of the gadgets. This does not exclude other administrative remits the research assistants' were engaged with to ensure a successful data collection exercise. Similarly, to ensure further back-up, the researcher put down some notes considered important for the research from each individual interviewee, with a symbol used to denote them. In all, the entire data collection exercise commencing from the pre-fieldwork to the actual field work (administration of questionnaire and interview) lasted between 13th August 2017 and 15th December 2017, culminating in a total of four months.

## **4.12 Methods of quantitative data analysis**

### ***4.12.1 Descriptive statistics***

Descriptive statistics were employed in this study to analyse section A of the questionnaire comprising of respondents' age, gender, marital status, employment status, trade union membership, experience on the job, monthly income and educational qualifications. In other words, the utility of descriptive statistics in this study is merely to summarize a set of observations on a sample without further inferences or generalisation. As applicable to this study, the summary of descriptive statistics such as means and percentages are only to describe the number of occurrence of the different categories of respondent's demographic details.

#### **4.12.2 Inferential statistics**

The usefulness of inferential statistics specifically hinges on the test of hypotheses where the significant relationship can be established between variables. However, different types of inferential statistics are employed in a study depending on the nature of the hypotheses. With regard to establishing relationship between employment casualisation (dependent variable) and trade union survival strategies (independent variable with the following constructs; collective bargaining process, industrial strike, trade union leadership activities and education re (training) programmes of trade union members), the study adopts the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Multiple Regression Analysis to test the stated research hypotheses. Details and justifications for the adoption of these statistics are discussed below:

##### **4.12.2.1 Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (PPMC)**

The coefficient of the PPMC relationship is usually denoted by letter  $r$ , and can assume any value between the range of -1 and +1 (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). By implication, a value of -1 and +1 represents perfect negative, and positive relationship respectively. As reflected in the hypotheses stated for this study, the relationship is to be established between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies. To achieve this, the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable (casualisation), and trade union survival strategies (independent variable) is confirmed with PPMC via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Among all known inferential statistics such as PPMC, Chi-Square, T-test analysis and Analysis of variance, the PPMC being a correlational statistical test is considered most suitable to test the extent and strength of the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

##### **4.12.2.2 Multiple regression analysis**

Unlike the PPMC, multiple regression analysis is a multivariate analysis use in examining the relationship between several independent variables, and a dependent variable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Odetunde, 2011). The multiple regression model is denoted by  $r^2$ , and can assume any value ranging from 0 and +1 in measuring the proportional variations in a dependent variable that can be explained statistically by the independent variables (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2009). Thus, the coefficient shows the extent of the relationship between each of the independent

variables and the dependent variable respectively. In the context of this study, it is hypothesized that variance in employment casualisation (dependent variable) can be explained by four independent variables (trade union survival strategies including collective bargaining, trade union leadership activities, industrial strike action and trade union education and (re) training programmes (see chapter one). These principal independent variables are regressed against the dependent variable via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 to explain the degree of variance in it (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). The multiple regression models are expressed below:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1(X_1) + \beta_2(X_2) + \beta_3(X_3) + \beta_4(X_4) \dots \text{ (See Sekaran and Bougie, 2016, p. 352)}$$

Where Y= dependent variable (employment casualisation)

$\alpha$ = constant

$\beta$ = coefficient of X

X= Independent variable (trade union survival strategies)

X1= collective bargaining process; X2=industrial strike action; X3= trade union leadership activities; X4= trade union education and (re) training programs.

#### **4.13 Method of qualitative data analysis**

##### ***4.13.1 Content analysis***

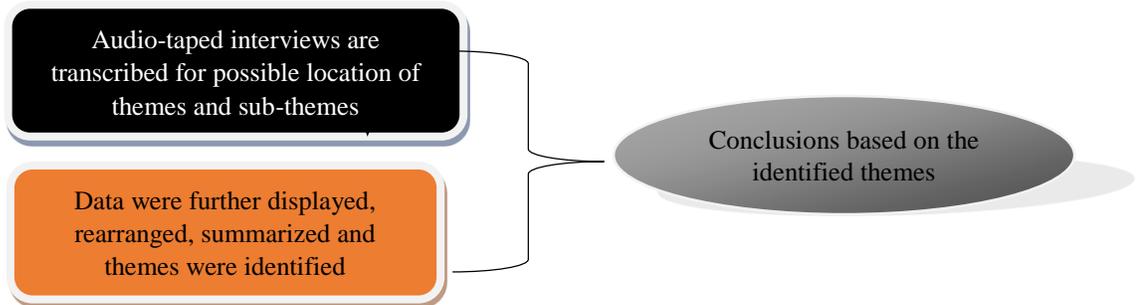
Content analysis entails the systematic gathering and analysing of the content of a text, language, themes, and phrases (Newman, 2007) including transcripts, news reports, and other written documents in a qualitative study (Nieuwenhuis, 2011). The kernel of analysing the context of a document is to survey, understand and draw themes from qualitative data such as interview (p.101), while the occurrence and frequency of themes emanating from the interview transcripts are analysed to answers the research questions (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). In the spirit of this study, content analysis is utilized to interpret qualitative data by looking out for recurrent themes that suitably address the research problem. Specifically for this study, the identification of themes from the transcripts and analyses were done manually. This support Creswell (2012, p.240) recommendation that analysing qualitative data manually is more fashionable and guarantees

effortless tracking of themes from the transcripts, than the adoption of qualitative software such as Nvivo or Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), especially when the pages of the transcript is less than 500 pages. To be sure, the recognition of errors can be guaranteed more easily when coding is done manually (Yin, 2016). Nevertheless, the overarching problem of accuracy in analysing and interpreting human communication (Newman, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009), content analysis still engenders deep insight into understanding research problem and the incorporation of quantitative data in this study has the potential of lessening the subjective inclination that human communication could engender (Sekaran and Bourgie, 2016).

The analysis and presentation of qualitative data in this study mirror Miles and Huberman (1994) three steps of analysing qualitative data including data reduction, data display, and drawing conclusions. Firstly, the large amount of digital audio recorded interview with trade union leaders were all transcribed. Thereafter, the data were reduced and re-arranged with the intention of coding, and subsequently identifying relevant themes and sub-themes with repeated gazing of the transcripts to appropriately locate patterns in the data, and draw themes that appositely address the research questions. However, reducing the vastness of data through identification of themes does not mean relevant data are left out, it was ensured that texts speaking indirectly to the research questions were equally considered.

Secondly, the reduced data were logically arranged and displayed in a summarized manner, in the order of frequently mentioned phrases as contained in the transcripts. Thirdly, conclusions were drawn from the identified themes by critically examining what each observed themes stand for and providing appropriate explanations as they relate or connect to the research questions. Figure 4.7 diagrammatically shows the flow of qualitative analysis. The two arrows explain the need for repeated scrutinizing of the first and second phase until appropriate themes are all identified.

**Figure 4.7: Matrix of analysing qualitative research data**



**Sources:** Researcher's compilation

#### **4.14 Ethical considerations**

Among the ethical standards considered in this study was ensuring strictly, that both the methodology (how the research was undertaken) and methods (tools used for gathering relevant data and their corresponding analysis techniques) follows suit with conventional research ethical standards. In addition, the research appropriately follows with the University of KwaZulu-Natal Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee ethical guidelines, and a full ethical clearance certificate with protocol reference number HSS/0809/017D was issued dated 5th July 2017 (see Appendix B). Further, among other issue was the granting of official permission in the form of a gate-keepers letter from the umbrella trade union association of the organisations surveyed, while all effort was ensured by the researcher not to disclose names of participants in this study, and any traceable comment to their anonymity was hotly avoided.

Similarly, items contained in the questionnaire and interview schedule were phrased in such a manner that would not violate the respondent's privacy or exhume responses not in tandem with the aim of this study. Prior to the commencement of administering the research instrument, participating members were fully briefed about the goal of the study, and were subsequently advice to sign a consent form indicating their willingness to partake in the study. This was to ascertain that participants have a fuller understanding of what they were participating in, and an appeal was subsequently made known that participants can also choose not to participate or discontinue their participation even as the research unfolds. Lastly, more robust confidentiality of the research data was ensured by storing both the questionnaire and audio-taped interview under lock and key to be monitored by the research office of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) in guiding against unauthorised access of persons to the information contained therein.

#### **4.15 Problems encountered during data collection**

The facet of challenges encountered in the course of gathering data for this study is enormous. Firstly, during the pre-fieldwork, FOBTOB an umbrella trade union association of workers in Nigeria's Food, Beverage and Tobacco industry initially denied the researcher access to conduct this study upon perusing the topic. The researcher was explicitly told that Nigeria's National Assembly (the Senate and House of Representatives) have both ordered that issues of employment casualisation should be relegated for now across Nigeria's industrial sector, hence they cannot grant the researcher access to conduct research on the same subject. This follows several efforts of convictions that the study is ethically worthy, and such would be expressly followed as the investigation unfolds before a gate-keepers letter was finally issued, with a condition that a copy of the thesis should be submitted to the trade union association after completion.

Secondly, as the fieldwork progresses, the majority of the participant's exhibits a somewhat indifferent attitude to accept being part of the research, even after presenting a gate-keepers letter issued by the headquarters association, and explaining the goal and need for the study. To mitigate this challenge, the branch chairmen have to intervene by assuring the anonymity of their persons. Consequently, retrieving the administered questionnaires were no small task as the researcher had to send in several emails, and phone calls reminding each chairman that the research is a time constraint. In actual fact, the body language of the participants was not distanced from the fear of identity disclosure, however, with persistence explanations by the researcher this problem was overcome. This no doubt decelerated the entire research process of administration and retrieval of the research questionnaires.

Thirdly, in the case of the interviews with senior staff executives of FOBTOB, some members of the association were not immediately available for the interview, as virtually all of them missed their individual appointment for the interview necessitating the rescheduling of other dates. No doubt, this dragged the entire research process culminating in additional time to complete the field work. Similar hurdle was re-counted in the use of a befitting academic facility for this study. For instance, the University of Lagos, Nigeria, a University based in the researcher's home country was under lock and key for several months owing to the intermittent industrial action embarked upon by both the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and Non-Academic Staff Union of Universities (NASUU). As a poser, therefore, the postgraduate research library of the University

that was strategically positioned in a location, wherein the researcher can sort administered and retrieved questionnaires, and use same for other academic work was equally restricted to user access.

Finally, the financial burden of this Ph.D. programme was entirely the remit of the researcher except for the scholarship award by UKZN in form of tuition fee, otherwise, every other expense including air-ticket and accommodation incurred for traveling to and fro the Republic of South Africa were strictly footed by the researcher. Specifically, the financial constraint was encountered while the field work unfolds, especially the need for several visits to the five selected organisations of study, including the headquarters association office which is all located in different strategic locations of Lagos State, Nigeria.

#### **4.16 Conclusion**

This chapter has explained the methodology and methods employed in this study. While the chapter has been able to explicate a deep-rooted discussion on the different strands of research philosophies, their major strength and weakness were as well uncovered with detailed and explicit justifications provided for the adopted research philosophies. Similarly, with the verity that this study seeks to answer research questions reflecting two research methods by collecting quantitative and qualitative data, necessitate the use of two different research designs; the survey and case study research designs respectively. While the former was applied to survey quantitative data in the five selected organisations of study, the latter was justifiably utilized for the qualitative aspect with FOBT OB as a case study. Therefore, a mixed research method with convergent parallel/ concurrent mixed method type was aptly adopted and justified where numeric and non-numeric data were concurrently collected to suitably answer the research questions.

The sample size was appropriately determined with the Yamene (1967) statistical sample size determination formula, while the Browley (1926) proportional allocation formula was further employed to determine the sample size of each participating organisation. Since the population of each participating organisation varies, the sample size for each participating organisation equally varies. However, to appositely justify the selection of respondents from the sample size, the stratified sampling techniques (probability sampling) and purposive sampling (non-probability) were both utilized. To be sure, while the stratified sampling justified the selection of respondents stratified into heterogeneous groups including wage, administrative positions, and job

segmentation with the aid of simple random techniques, the purposive sampling serves the function of selecting trade union leaders with requisite information on the phenomenon of study for the qualitative aspect of the study. Nonetheless, a well-designed, piloted and reliable questionnaire and semi-structured interview were respectively employed, to elicit numerical and non-numerical data to serve the purpose of mixed research methods.

Accordingly, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was employed to test the four research hypotheses based on correlational relationship and Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA), was used to regress the four independent variables on the dependent variable on the one hand, while content analysis was correspondingly applied to analyse the qualitative data on the other hand. Lastly, the chapter enumerated the procedure for collecting research data commencing with pre-fieldwork to the actual field work. However, the problems encountered were clearly narrated and clear narratives of ethical standards were enumerated. The next chapter exudes analysis of the research data.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents analyses and interpretations of the quantitative and qualitative data employed in this study in order to uncover the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies in the Beverage sector of Lagos State, Nigeria. The quantitative data were gathered through a survey of five (5) selected companies in the Lagos State Beverage sector, while the qualitative data were congregated via a semi-structured interview of members of staff of FOBTOB. The descriptive statistics, with the aid of frequency and percentage distributions, were utilized to analyse respondent's demographic data and subsequently to provide answers to the itemized research questions. Similarly, in an effort to establish the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies, two strands of inferential statistics were employed; the Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the Multiple Regression Analysis at 0.05 level of significance via the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 21.

Considering the quantitative component of this study, a total of 352 copies of questionnaires were administered on participants of the five (5) selected companies of the Lagos State Beverage sector. However, a total of 298 were returned and only 291 representing 82 percent response rate were found usable for analysis (see table 5.1 for distribution of response rate based on each participating organisation). Equally, for the qualitative component, a total of 10 trade union officials were identified for semi-structured interview, however, as the interview progresses one of the trade union officials was unavoidably absent limiting the participants to 9. The discussion in this chapter is partitioned into two segments. First is the quantitative component explaining the respondents' demographic characteristics to familiarize the readers or audience with vital information on participants that participated in this study while the study research questions and hypotheses were also analysed and interpreted. The second section aptly presents the qualitative component with the identification and analysis of themes via content analysis to engender qualitative answers to the research questions.

**Table 5.1: Distribution of response rate based on participating organisation**

S/N	Company	Population	Sample Size	Retrieved Response	Percentage
1	Cadbury Nigeria Plc	270	32	25	78
2	Guinness Nigeria Plc	500	60	51	85
3	Nigeria Breweries Plc	550	65	53	81.5
4	Seven-Up bottling company	605	72	64	88.9
5	Nigeria bottling company	1031	123	98	79.7
	<b>Total</b>	<b>2956</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>82</b>

Source: *Field Survey, 2017*

## 5.2 Assessing the reliability of the research instrument

Reliability of an instrument measures how stable, dependable, trustworthy and consistent a test is in measuring the same thing over repeated times (Worthen, Borg and White, 1993). The reliability of the measuring instrument for this study was evaluated with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient through statistical software programs SPSS version 21. The Cronbach's Alpha is a consistency coefficient that assesses the extent to which items contained in a measuring instrument are positively correlated. For George and Mallery (2003), alpha coefficients of 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9 and above falls within the confines of a satisfactory, good and excellent coefficient in line with the rule of thumb. In contrary, Konting (2004) asserts that a reliability coefficient higher than 0.60 is considered useable. The alpha coefficients presented in Table 5.2 ranges from .601 to .870 which judging from the rule of thumb implies that the internal consistency of the measuring instrument is adequate and therefore considered acceptable, good and useable.

**Table 5.2. Table showing the reliability of the research instrument utilized in this study**

Reliability Statistics		
Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Items
Patterns and trends in the growth of casual employment	0.763	9
Challenges of casualisation of labour on workers and trade union	0.601	11
Collective bargaining process	0.869	9
Trade union leadership activities	0.766	7
Industrial strike	0.812	7
Trade union education and (re) training programme	0.870	6
all items on questionnaires: 49		Cronbach $\alpha$
		<b>0.808</b>

Source: *Fieldwork, 2017*

Again, with the adoption of Likert 1-5 scale of measurement, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient shows the internal consistency and reliability of all items covering employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies variables. Put together, all items contained in the questionnaire

exude a high coefficient of 0.808 indicating that questions reflecting on patterns and practices in the growth of employment casualisation, challenges of employment casualisation, collective bargaining process, trade union leadership activities, industrial strike and trade union education and (re) training programs all possess high internal consistency with corresponding inter-item reliability coefficient of 0.763, 0.601, 0.869, 0.766, 0.812 and 0.870 respectively.

### **5.3 Analysis of quantitative data**

This section explains the quantitative analyses of the study. Particularly, respondents' demographic characteristics and the stated research questions were analysed using appropriate statistical tools.

#### ***5.3.1 Analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of respondents***

Table 5.3 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of participants included in this study. The results as presented reflects demographics such as gender, age, marital status, employment status, union membership, union affiliation, work experience, monthly income, and highest educational qualification attained. Data gleaned from these constructs provides an insight into understanding participants' basic profiles. On gender, 54.6 percent of the respondents are males, and 45.4 percent represent female participants. The fact that a large chunk of male participants dominates the study population partly explains the dehumanizing conditions attached to casualisation, which are sometimes perceived as a work arrangement basically for the male gender. Of course, an advance reference of 45.4 percent of the female gender is also an indication that even with the horrendous conditions of employment casualisation, the female gender is having a robust representation as a result of the non-availability of decent jobs. The age composition of respondents revealed that respondents between 20-29 years represent 16.5 percent of the entire sampled population, 30-39 years were 48.1 percent, 31.3 percent for respondents between 40-49 age group, while those constituting 50 years and above were only represented by 4.1 percent. This result indicates that participants within the age range of 20-39 represented by a total of 64.6 percent dominate the study population. A fairly objective conclusion can be avowed from this result that the large portion of Nigerian youth are more confined to casual employment owing to the scarce availability of standard jobs and increase biting rate of unemployment, specifically in an economy chronicling 18.8 percent of unemployment rate as at the third quarter of 2017 (NBS, 2017).

The distribution for marital status from Table 5.3 shows that 50.9 percent were married, 41.9 percent of the respondents being single, 4.5 percent representing those who are divorced and those who have lost their spouse constitute a meagre fraction of 2.7 percent. These statistics clearly indicate that majority of the participant are married. However, if the large portion of the study population are married, then, it can be assumed that a sizeable number of them are concentrated in casual employment arrangements. Again, this clearly explains the untold level of hardship married employees under casual employment go through, especially if the family have children who they still look out for. For employment status distribution, Table 5.3 reveals that 59.8 percent are employed on permanent employment characteristics with standard work conditions, while those employed on casual employment features with accompanying non-standard work conditions are represented by 40.2 percent.

A note of caution should be observed here that few of the respondents classified under permanent employment are on contract terms. In other words, it would seem difficult to have them categorized under casual employment since they enjoy similar benefit with permanents workers and the majority of them sometimes enjoy trade union protections. Therefore, if this caution is carefully observed, it would mean that the number of casual workers would either equal or outweighs the number of permanent workers in the selected companies of study. Specifically, the crux of this study is to assess the survival strategies of the trade union to employment casualisation, precisely those in permanent employment. Notwithstanding this, the opinion of casual workers is equally fundamental in understanding their challenges and how the trade union has been responding to these challenges.

On the basis of trade union membership, 47.4 percent indicated that they belong to trade union association, while 52.6 percent indicated they do not belong to any trade union association. These statistics support one of the conditions foisted on casual workers not to either form or belong to any trade union association. Among the categories of respondents who indicated they belong to a trade union association, 23.0 percent were of FOBTOB, 24.4 percent were of NUBFTE while a large portion of the respondents represented by 52.6 percent correspondingly was not a member of either FOBTOB or NUBFTE. The fact that the large portion of the respondents does not belong to either the staff senior or junior trade union association further narrates the denial of the fundamental right of the individual worker as enshrined in section 40 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended.

In classifying respondents on job experience, Table 5.3 equally exudes that 26.1 percent belong to the cohort of respondents with less than 3 years on the job experience, respondents having between 4-6 years of experience represent 38.5 percent, respondents with 7-9 years of experience were represented by 18.6 percent and those with 10 years and above experience constitutes 16.8 percent of the entire study respondents. Furthermore, distribution from Table 5.3 shows that 3.1 percent earns below ₦ 20, 000<sup>56</sup>, respondents earning between ₦ 20,000 and ₦ 49, 000<sup>57</sup> were represented by 36.4 percent, those earning monthly income between ₦ 50,000<sup>58</sup> and ₦ 99,000<sup>59</sup> had 12.4 percent, between ₦ 100,000<sup>60</sup> and ₦ 149,000<sup>61</sup> monthly income earners were represented by 28.9 percent, and 19.2 percent earns a monthly income of ₦ 150,000<sup>62</sup> and above.

From the above distribution, although the composition shows that a very trivial fraction (3.1 percent) earn below the national minimum wage of ₦ 18,000; while a good representation of the respondents (36.4 percent) earn an income not up to ₦ 56,000. Together, 39.5 percent earn a monthly income not equal or equivalent to the proposed new minimum wage of ₦ 56,000. Without mincing words, casual workers as religiously dominated among the cohorts of workers described in the preceding paragraphs indicate a clear case of enslavement in an economy where the prices of household and food items and other miscellaneous expenses are consistently rising.

In explaining respondents' educational attainment level, Table 5.3 reveals that 1.0 percent are holders of first Leaving Certificates, Secondary School Certificate holders are represented by 12.1 percent, those possessing Ordinary National Diploma/ National Certificate Examination were 29.6 percent. Furthermore, holders of Higher National Diploma/ Bachelor's Degree were represented with the highest number of the frequency being 46.0 percent, and Master's Degree holders constitute 11.3 percent. This distribution contradicts the old fashioned shared assumption that first school certificate holders are more entrapped in casual employment. If this is anything to go by, these results depict that casual workers are robustly distributed within holders of Secondary school certificate, Ordinary National Diploma/ National certificate examination and Higher National

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<sup>56</sup> As at the time of this study, ₦20,000 is equivalent of 57 US dollar (where 1 US dollar is equivalent of ₦350)

<sup>57</sup> ₦49,000 is equivalent of 140 USD

<sup>58</sup> ₦50,000 is equivalent of 147 USD

<sup>59</sup> ₦99,000 is equivalent of 283 USD

<sup>60</sup> ₦100,000 is equivalent of 286 USD

<sup>61</sup> ₦149,000 is equivalent of 426 USD

<sup>62</sup> ₦150,000 is equivalent of 429 USD

Diploma/ Bachelor's Degree with the possibility of more concentration among holders of HND/Bachelor's Degree having the highest frequency.

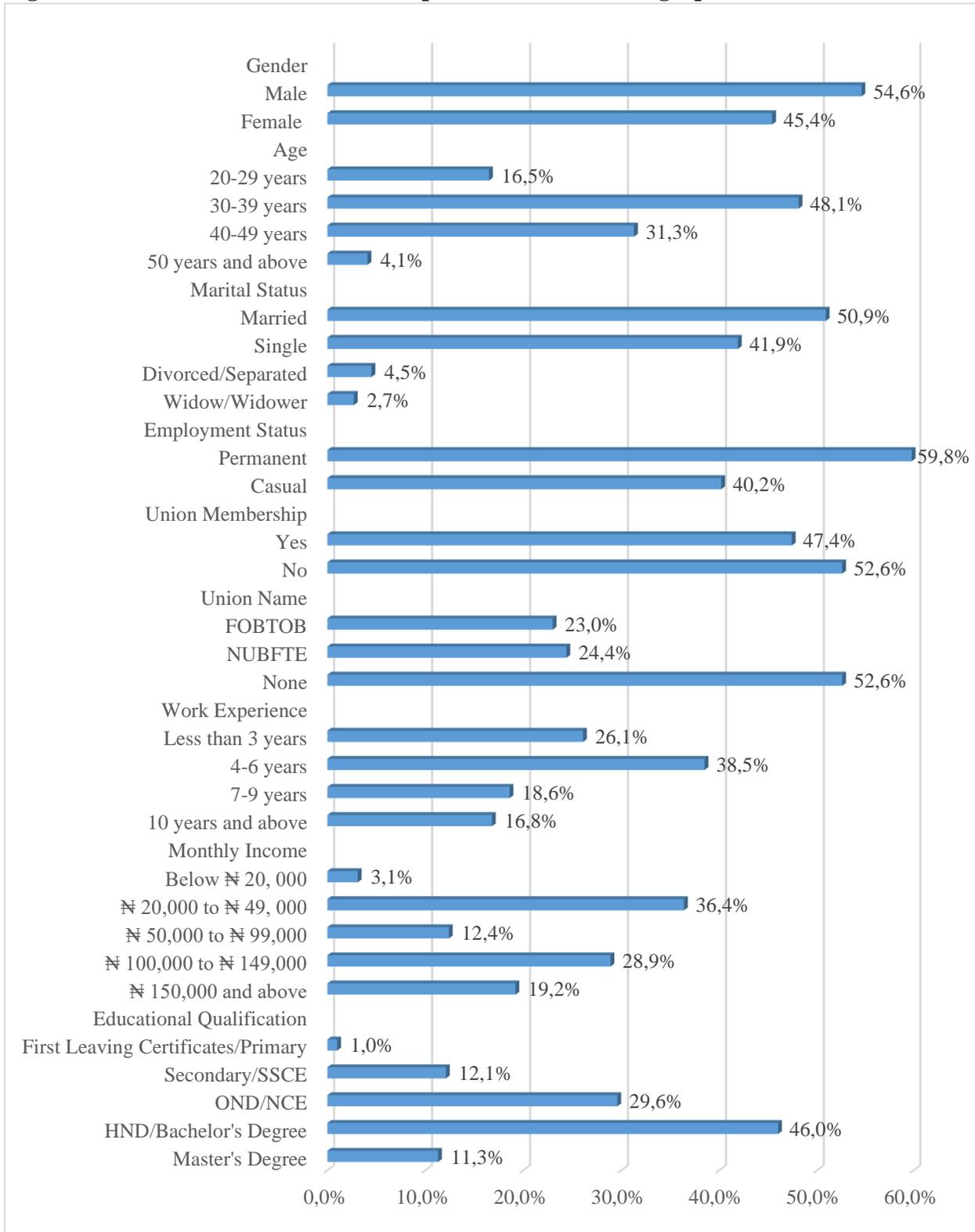
**Table 5.3: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents**

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	159	54.6
Female	132	45.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Age</b>		
20 to 29	40	16.5
30 to 39	140	48.1
40 to 49	91	31.3
50 and above	12	4.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Married	148	50.9
Single	122	41.9
Divorced/Separated	13	4.5
Widow/Widower	8	2.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Employment Status</b>		
Permanent	174	59.8
Casual	117	40.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Union membership</b>		
Yes	138	47.4
No	153	52.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Name of union</b>		
FOBTOB	67	23.0
NUBFTE	71	24.4
None	153	52.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Work experience</b>		
Less than 3 years	76	26.1
4-6 years	112	38.5
7-9 years	54	18.6
10 years and above	49	16.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Monthly Income</b>		
below ₦ 20, 000	9	3.1
₦ 20,000 to ₦ 49, 000	106	36.4
₦ 50,000 to ₦ 99,000	36	12.4
₦ 100,000 to ₦ 149,000	84	28.9
₦ 150,000 and above	56	19.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Highest Educational Qualification</b>		
First Leaving Certificates/Primary	3	1.0
Secondary/SSCE	35	12.1
OND/NCE	86	29.6
HND/Bachelor's Degree	134	46
Master's Degree	33	11.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2017*

For the purpose of clarity, the percentage distribution of respondents' demographics displayed in Table 5.3 are further rehashes in Figure 5.1

**Figure 5.1: Bar-chart illustration of respondent s' socio-demographic characteristics**



Source: Field Work, 2017

### **5.3.2 Analyses of research questions**

This section of the chapter provides a descriptive statistical analysis to answer the research questions. To do this, percentages and frequency distributions were engendered from the data sets to explain each of the research questions with the corresponding implication (s). In addition, the analysis was further presented in tables and histogram to show the trend of data, especially as they apply to each research question.

#### **5.3.2.1 Patterns and trends in the growth of casual employment**

Respondents were enquired to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the patterns and trends in the growth of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. The Likert 5 rating scale was utilized in the rating of the patterns and trends of employment casualisation. Hence, the frequency counts reflecting each rate groupings were further conveyed as percentages representing the total number of respondents who are in agreement, are undecided or in disagreement with the inquiry (see Table 5.4). From Table 5.4, 73.9 percent remarked that the trends and practices of casualisation are increasing in the Beverage industrial sector. For others, a slight 6.9 percent had an indifferent view, while 19.3 percent of the respondents did not support the assertion that employment casualisation is becoming an emergent trend in the Beverage industrial sector. This result is a reflection of employers' strategies to cut costs and avoid being liable for workers on the one hand, and the waning and ambiguous nature of Nigeria's labour laws, on the other hand, are clear factors advancing the increase adoption of casual employment practices.

With regard to the proportion of casual workers that work on contract basis, 67.6 percent indicate that their job as a casual worker is predicated on contract, 7.9 percent were unsure and 24.4 percent indicated a contrary opinion that casual workers do not work on contract basis. This distribution can be explained by the fact that the majority of the casual workers have their job fixed for specified contract duration. However, this does not follow that a vast number of them are converted to permanent employees after working as casuals for a specific period of time. For example, the three-month probation period as provided for by the Nigerian Labour Law are expressly ignored in this context (see section 7(1) of the Labour Act of 1974). In fact, the common trend is prior to the expiration of the constitution allowed period, their contracts are automatically renewed to avert the possibility of conversion on the part of employers. Table 5.4 also established the number of

casual workers who are recruited through external outsourcing firms. An impressive 65.3 percent of the respondents confirmed that they are recruited to work as casual workers for their organisations by outsourcing firms. A meager 8.9 percent could not specify, while 25.8 percent revealed that they were hired directly by their organisations as a casual worker and not through an external outsource firm. The large number of 65.3 percent indicating that they are externally recruited by outsourcing firms neatly connects with the growth of outsourcing firms who are contracted by organisations to recruit workers for their use. Again, this result explicitly reflects the evasion of employer's responsibility to the employees and the freedom to terminate their services at will through the outsourced firms, since they are not hired by them and also do not have an identity of the organisations they work for.

To answer the question on the prevalence of employment casualisation among the high-skilled workers, 54 percent affirmed that employment casualisation is more dominant among the cohorts of high skilled workers. Only 16.8 percent of the respondents could not tell by indicating 'undecided' and 29.2 percent signify that they disagreed with the fact that employment casualisation is ubiquitous among workers possessing high skill competency. A clue from this distribution explains some of the contention reviewed in this study where most casual workers are now confined to jobs of high technicality. In addition, the result reflects other cogs of arguments that most of the jobs being executed by casual workers are important drivers of organisational growth. For example, in the context of the Beverage sector under study, most of the jobs relating to high technicality such as production are achieved by casual workers, while a majority of the administrative jobs are the remit of permanent workers.

To address whether casual workers are inadmissible to forming or joining a trade union association in the Beverage sector, Table 5.4 shows that 48.8 of the respondents admitted that casual workers are prohibited from trade union organisations. Albeit, a moderately low number of 12.4 percent felt indifference to this inquiry. A reasonably high number of 38.8 percent of the respondents claimed casual workers are not barred from either joining or forming trade union association. The revelation that 38.8 percent felt otherwise is surprising, as most casual workers are restrained from joining trade union associations in Nigeria, although with the exception of National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG) who have recently organized casual workers into trade union lines. Again, there could be some variances to these opinions because respondents are

representing different employment status such as casual and permanent employment arrangements. As such, it is reasonable enough to have some permanent workers with a divergent view on this inquiry. Surprisingly, the distribution exposes that 46.1 percent agreed that the mainstream of casual employees works as part-time workers; 17.5 percent are represented by those who felt unsure about this question; while 36.4 percent rejected this assertion. Interestingly, this result could mean that the large number of respondents who express concerns that majority of the casual workers work as part-time employees is mirrored by the fact that they are mostly outsourced to work for an organization. In other words, they are ordinarily not working full-time but part-time for the organisation since they are not part of the organisations they work for.

On the question of whether there is no expiration to casual work in the Nigerian Beverage sector, 56.3 percent indicated that the labour of casual workers is not expiration bound; 18.9 percent were not sure, while a relatively high 24.7 percent of respondents completely disagreed that casual work has an expiration in the Beverage sector. Similarly, interpreting this distribution would mean that casual workers are employed with the intention of continuity by employers of labour, without the need for expiration. Conventionally, the continuity is to help achieve the desire of attracting cheap labour for profit maximization. Little wonder why some casual workers have been on their job for various lengths of time without expiration. Yet, this result negates the intention of casual work where people are supposed to be employed to work for specific periods of time, specifically a period characterized with excess production requiring more hands at that point in time.

Table 5.4 shows respondents' distribution with respect to whether the prevalence of employment casualisation is now deep-seated amongst individuals possessing considerable educational qualifications. In responding to this, 56.7 percent agreed that casual employment is now more embedded amongst workers having a somewhat higher educational qualification. In addition, a fraction of 16.5 was undecided, while a total of 26.8 percent could not confirm this statement. The distribution of 56.7 percent that agreed that the majority of casual workers are concentrated amongst holders of appreciable educational qualification is not far-fetched. For example, it is practically not impossible to see holders of first working in casual employment after several years of searching for standard employment without any success. To elaborate this, the high unemployment rate in Nigeria (18.8 percent as at the third quarter of 2017, see NBS, 2017) has further limited the possibility of graduates being hired on standard employment, as companies are

now taking advantage of the rising unemployment puzzle to casualise desperate job seekers. The distribution on the inquiry that most workers on casual work arrangements are not on the payroll of the organisation they work for is not strange after all. An overwhelmed rate of 59.7 percent remarked that casual workers are not featured on the payroll of the organisation they are working for, 14.4 percent are not sure, while 25.8 percent gave a contrary view that casual workers are represented on the payroll of the organisation they work for. This distribution is equally not unbelievable. Expectedly, as earlier proved that majority of casual workers are outsourced by a third party organisation, it is not still strange to expect that such group of workers is not featured on the payroll of the organisation they are working for, but are rather paid by the outsourcing firm. Again, this explains the emergent trends and patterns in the practices of employment casualisation where employer's liability to workers are completely been circumvent. Table 5.4 shows the distribution of the patterns and growth of employment casualisation.

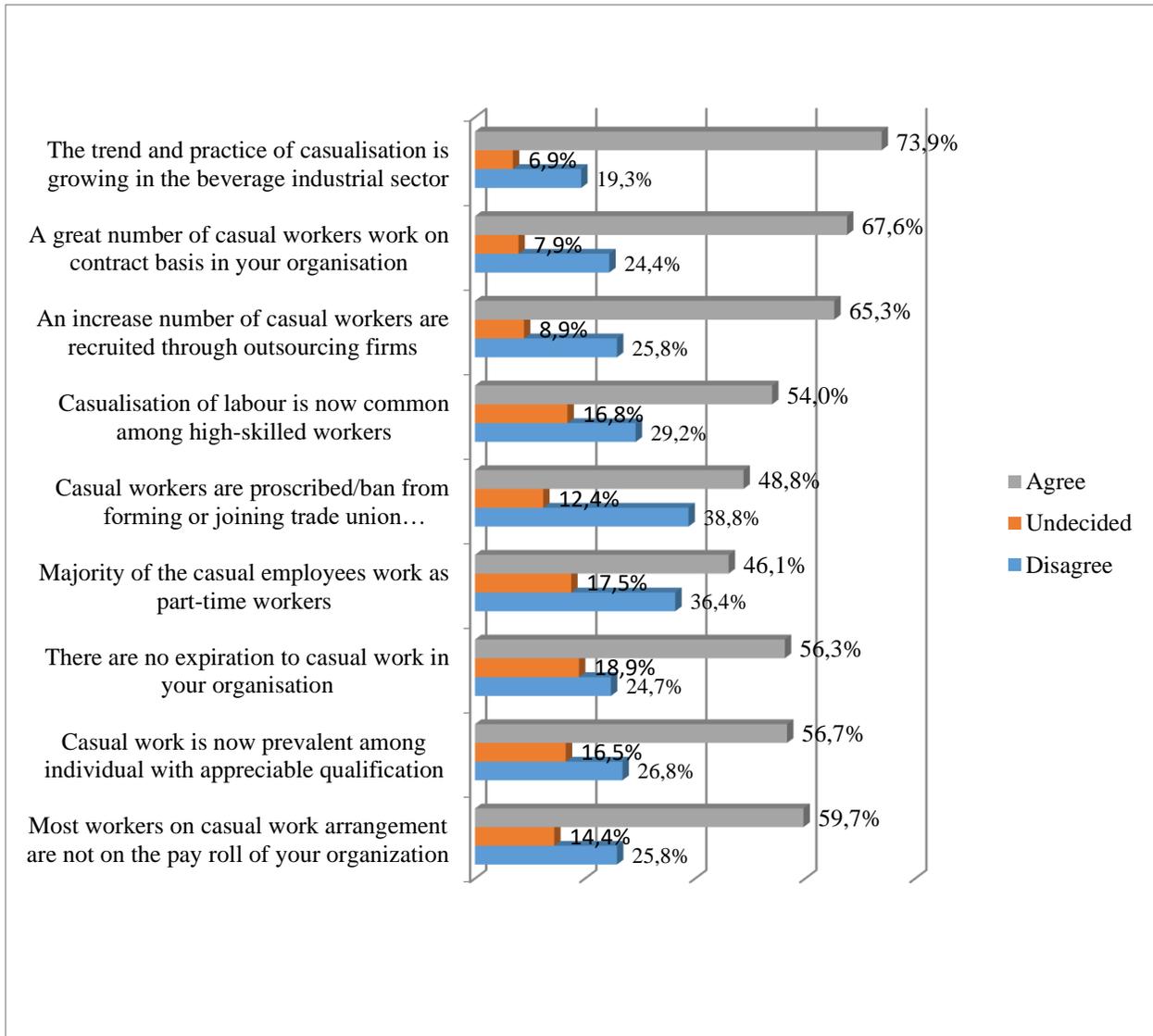
**Table 5.4: Responses on the patterns and growth of casualisation**

Response	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
The trend and practice of casualisation is growing in the beverage industrial sector	105	36.1	110	37.8	20	6.9	25	8.6	31	10.7	291	100
A great number of casual workers work on contract basis in your organisation	79	27.1	118	40.5	23	7.9	33	11.3	38	13.1	291	100
An increase number of casual workers are recruited through outsourcing firms	86	29.6	104	35.7	26	8.9	47	16.2	28	9.6	291	100
Casualisation of labour is now common among high-skilled workers	68	23.4	89	30.6	49	16.8	64	22	21	7.2	291	100
Casual workers are proscribed/ban from forming or joining trade union association in the beverage industry	57	19.6	85	29.2	36	12.4	79	27.1	34	11.7	291	100
Majority of the casual employees work as part-time workers	54	18.6	80	27.5	51	17.5	78	26.8	28	9.6	291	100
There are no expiration to casual work in your organisation	53	18.2	111	38.1	55	18.9	53	18.2	19	6.5	291	100
Casual work is now prevalent among individual with appreciable qualification	56	19.2	109	37.5	48	16.5	59	20.3	19	6.5	291	100
Most workers on casual work arrangement are not on the pay roll of your organisation	79	27.1	95	32.6	42	14.4	41	14.1	34	11.7	291	100

**Source:** *Field survey, 2017*

For clarity, the percentage distributions of the various responses on the patterns and trends in the growth of casualisation in the Nigeria beverage sector as indicated in Table 5.4 above are presented in Figure 5.2:

**Figure 5.2: Bar-chart illustration of patterns and trends in the growth of casual employment**



**Source:** Field survey, 2017

### 5.3.2.2 Challenges of employment casualisation

Respondents were presented with statements explaining the various degrees of challenges of employment casualisation on workers of the Beverage sector by indicating the extent to which they agreed, are unsure and disagreed with some of the challenges highlighted under this heading with the Likert rating scale employed as a yardstick for measurement. The frequencies represented by each category of the statement were further converted to percentages representing the total number of respondents that either agreed, are undecided or disagreed with each statement under

this inquiry (see Table 5.5). Reflecting from Table 5.5, a total number of 74.9 percent reveal that a majority of casual workers have worked for long years without considering them for permanent employment status; 10 percent were unsure, while 8.2 percent disapproves of the statement. This distribution therefore appositely explains the challenge of working so long a time on casual work without the hope of conversion to permanent employment status in many of Nigeria's industrial sectors (see Jawando, and Adenugba; 2014; Fapohunda, 2012; Danesi, 2011).

It was also established from the distribution that 63.9 percent representing a number far above the average of the entire respondents confirmed the claim that casual workers right are grossly infringed upon by employers; 14.1 percent indicated not sure and 22.0 percent respondents disagreed with this claim. Explaining this distribution further, a large number of respondents confirming that casual workers' rights are religiously denied by employers negates the fundamental freedom right of every human to either join or form a trade union association. Specifically, it also contradicts section 40 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended that every person has the right to assemble freely and associate with other persons, and in particular, may form or belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of his/her interests.

Furthermore, with regard to whether casual workers enjoy benefits in the Beverage sector; 46 percent acknowledged that casual workers enjoy work-related aids in the Beverage sector; 14.4 percent of the respondents were undecided, while 39.5 disagreed that casual workers enjoy work benefits in the Beverage sector. This distribution shows a shred of rather shocking evidence as a majority of casual workers are ordinarily secluded from work benefits such as pension, gratuity, medical and leave allowances (see Anugwom, 2007; Barrientos, *et al.*, 2011). Yet, this unanticipated revelation could also be explained by the fact that respondents constitute two employment status, including casual and permanent workers. Hence, it is predicted that some persons in the permanent employment status would ordinarily skew the statement in order to justify the actions of employers. Conventionally, therefore, work benefits are religiously excluded from the benefits of casual workers. Similarly, 60.1 percent of the total respondents agreed that employment casualisation has increased job insecurity; 13.1 showed undecided and 26.8 percent disagreed. Justifying this distribution, the job of a casual worker is highly insecure as they are liable to dismissal without prior notice. Most often, employers disengaged them when they

observed a trend of agitation for better work life. In a similar trend, a large number of the respondents represented by 55 percent, confirm the inappropriate dismissal of casual workers where 16.8 percent were not sure and 26.8 percent having a contrary opinion. Put together, it is established from the distribution that casual work is highly insecure with an unprecedented rate of unjustifiable dismissal. In establishing casual worker's conditions and environment of work, 42.6 percent of the respondents remarked that the work environment of casual workers is highly unsafe; 19.2 percent had an indifferent opinion, while 38.1 percent were of the view that the work environment of casual workers is not unsafe. With this distribution, it is not intellectually erroneous to assert that the work environment of casual workers, who expressly work as second-class labourers would be distanced from being safe. For example, most factory compositions and settings in Nigeria are not entirely safe for casual workers, as most lost their limb or fingers in the process of executing their job tasks (Odu, 2011).

In terms of flexibility of work, 48.8 percent of the respondents established that the job description of casual workers is not flexible; while 18.3 percent are not sure, and a total of 33 percent avowed the contrary. However, drawing from this distribution, it is not outlandish that most casual workers work in a negation of the constitutionally allowed 8 hours in Nigeria (8 am to 4 pm), as their work time is unregulated, especially where most work in the factory as applicable to the context of this study. Still talking about the inflexibility of work, casual workers are known to work extra-hours, sometimes without extra pay, including on National public holidays as the case may be (see Odu, 2011).

The distribution on whether casual workers are enlisted for training and career development shows that 55.7 percent indicated that employees on casual work arrangements are not conscripted for training and development programmes of the organisation, 17.2 percent of the respondents reflect unsurely and 27.1 percent disapproved that casual workers are constricted from training. Among other challenges of employment casualisation reported in the literature, denial of training and development forms the front-liner as someone whose job remit is entirely limited to the factory would not be justified for the need to acquire training by profit-driven employers of labour. Reporting on the distribution on wage differentials between casual and permanent workers, 63.9 percent agreed that employees on casual work received low wages even when they have the same work output with those on permanent work status. While 20.3 percent of the entire respondents

indicated undecided, a fraction of 15.8 percent disagreed. Expectedly, the untold justification for casualisation by employers is to maximize profit, thereby having a reasonable number of people on casualisation where they offer pay not commensurate with work input.

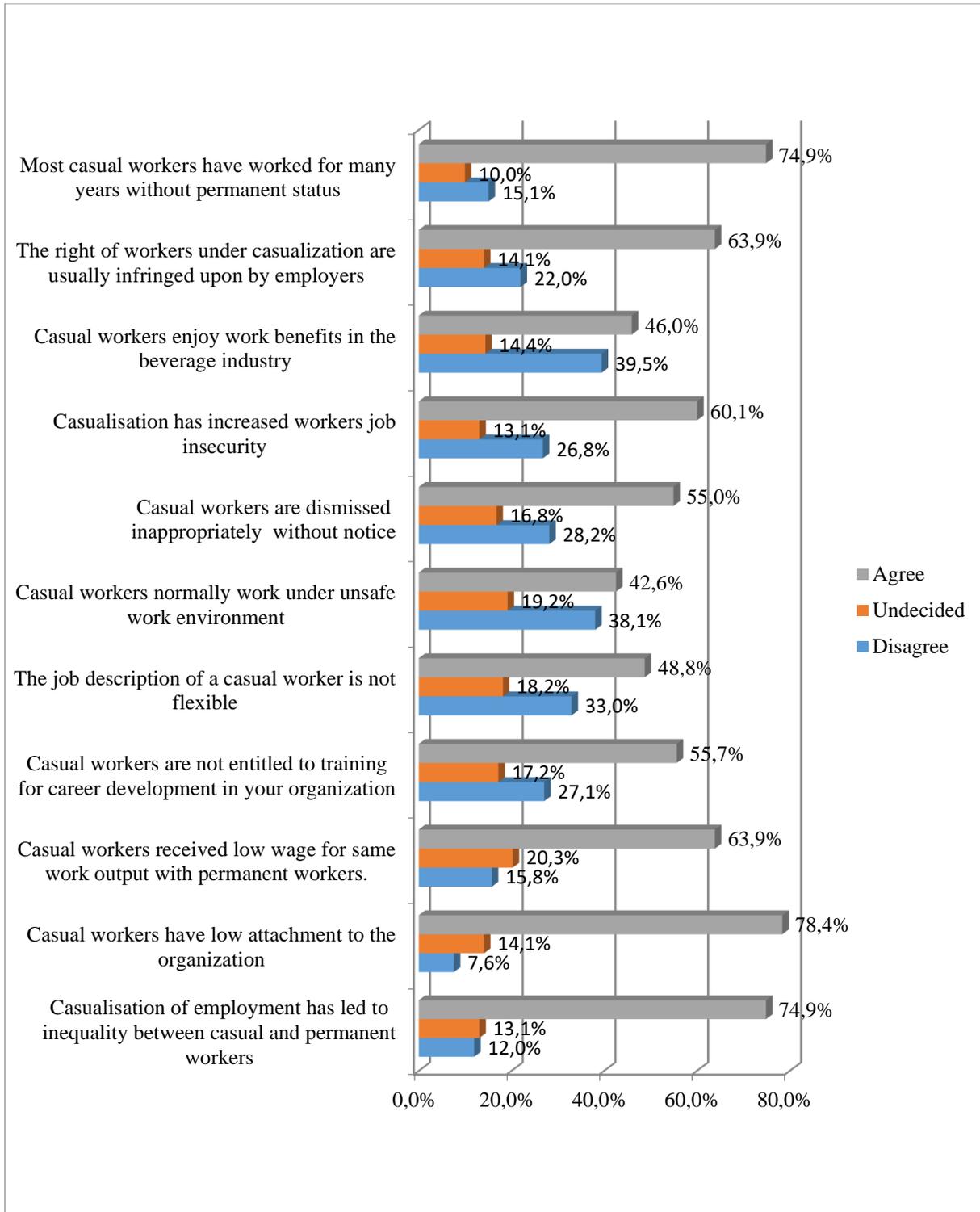
Table 5.5 also reveals that 78.4 percent approves that employees on casual work arrangements have low connections to the organisation, 14.1 percent were indifference and a somewhat little fraction of 7.6 percent represented reject that casual workers possess low attachment to the organisation. Deducing meaning from this distribution, workers who are not regarded as part of an organisation they work for and denied several workplace rights are expected to engender low attachment with corresponding withdrawal tactics that could cumulate to other psychological workplace and social relation problems (see McGann, White and Moss, 2016). Reporting whether casualisation of employment has engendered inequality between casual and permanent workers, 74.9 percent agreed that there is a disparity between casual and permanent workers; 13.1 percent of the respondent was not sure; while 12 percent reveal that employment casualisation has not stimulated discrepancy between the duo. This result is a testament to the varied discriminatory challenges casual workers are daily confronted with. Reasons not far-fetched are that they are regarded as second-class workers whose presence is often not valued by employers of labour. (Table 5.5 shows the distribution of respondents on the challenges of employment casualisation).

<b>Table 5.5: Responses on the challenges of employment casualisation</b>												
<b>Response</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>		<b>Agree</b>		<b>Undecided</b>		<b>Disagree</b>		<b>Strongly Disagree</b>		<b>Total</b>	
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Most casual workers have worked for many years without permanent status	104	35.7	114	39.2	29	10	20	6.9	24	8.2	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
The right of workers under casualisation are usually infringed upon by employers	59	20.3	127	43.6	41	14.1	38	13.1	26	8.9	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers enjoy work benefits in the beverage industry	49	16.8	85	29.2	42	14.4	71	24.4	44	15.1	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casualisation has increased workers job insecurity	71	24.4	104	35.7	38	13.1	51	17.5	27	9.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers are dismissed inappropriately without notice	67	23	93	32	49	16.8	59	20.3	23	7.9	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers normally work under unsafe work environment	48	16.5	76	26.1	56	19.2	81	27.8	30	10.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
The job description of a casual worker is not flexible	41	14.1	101	34.7	53	18.2	80	27.5	16	5.5	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers are not entitled to training for career development in your organisation	59	20.3	103	35.4	50	17.2	60	20.6	19	6.5	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers received low wage for same work output with permanent workers.	71	24.4	115	39.5	59	20.3	41	14.1	5	1.7	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers have low attachment to the organisation.	54	18.6	174	59.8	41	14.1	13	4.5	9	3.1	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casualisation of employment has led to inequality between casual and permanent workers	118	40.5	100	34.4	38	13.1	23	7.9	12	4.1	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2017*

For explicit clarifications, the percentage distributions of the responses on challenges of employment casualisation on workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector indicated in Table 5.4 are further presented in Figure 5.3:

**Figure 5.3: Bar-chart illustration of challenges of employment casualisation**



**Source:** Field survey, 2017

### **5.3.2.3 *Reacting through collective bargaining to employment casualisation***

Respondents were asked to indicate how they agree or disagree with the statements on survival strategies of collective bargaining to employment casualisation. The Likert 5 rating scale was employed in the categorisation of the various statements. The frequency counts of each statement were further represented with percentages to explain the total number of respondents that either agreed, are undecided or disagreed with the statement (see Table 5.6). On whether the collective bargaining agreement (CBA) covers casual workers, 57.8 percent agreed that collective bargaining agreement covers employees on casual work arrangement, while 12 percent were undecided, 30.3 percent disagreed with this claim. This result is in contrast with the prevailing themes in the literature that casual workers are predominantly excluded from the benefits of a collective bargaining agreement. However, the large number of 57.8 percent respondents confirming this claim could mean that although the National Bargaining Agreement (NBA) is not expressly applied to casual workers, the company sometimes uses whatever agreement they had with the union as a measure of how they are to improve the conditions of casual workers.

The inquiry on whether collective bargaining benefits extend to casual workers confirms the fact that some organisations use what they bargained with the union as a benchmark for casual workers. For instance, a larger number of the respondents represented by 51.9 percent admit that collective agreement benefits extend to workers on casual work arrangement, while 12.7 percent had an indifference conception, 35.4 percent disproved the claim. Table 5.6 also exudes that 52.2 percent of the respondent's support that trade union often bargain on behalf of casual worker's interest, 23.7 indicated undecided and 36.1 percent refuted the claim. Similarly, in regard to whether trade union religiously relies on collective bargaining agreement to enhance casual worker's welfare, 183 respondents representing 46.4 percent agreed, 18.6 percent reflecting 54 respondents depicts undecided, while 35.1 percent invalidate the statement. Although, the large chunk of the respondent is a tilt towards agreement, yet this does not translate to the effective utility of the collective bargaining process by the trade union to improve the conditions of casual workers. In fact, most collective bargaining processes are basically arrayed for workers on permanent employment status. In other words, 46.8 percent accept that employers always refute the need to bargain for casual worker's welfare, 21.0 and 32.3 percent were undecided and refute the statement respectively. This distribution echoes that since the majority of the casual workers are outsourced

externally, employers always justify the need not to bargain with them. In reality, employee's place of work should be liable to bargain with them on any terms of employment conditions; sadly the contrary is what is evident in Nigeria's labour market.

Table 5.6 also indicates that a total of 49.8 percent, admit that impasse always ensues from the inability of management to bargain with the trade union in the interest of casual workers; 24.4 percent were unsure and 75 respondents represented by 25.8 percent negate the statement. This result to an extent explains one of the several exertions of the trade union movement in organising casual workers, although which has been constricted with many bottlenecks. From the survey, a little above average (53.6 percent) of the respondents debunk that collective bargaining is binding on all workers, (23.4 percent) indicated that they are not sure while (23 percent) affirm this statement. As previously avowed, the outcome of the National wide bargaining does not cover the interest of casual workers, but only arranged for employees on permanent employment status, hence in regard to protection, casual workers are entirely excluded. This is sufficed to admit from the above distribution that collective bargaining is binding only on standard employment workers with the exclusion of those on casual work arrangements.

The last inquiry under this heading was posed to probe whether collective bargaining is effective for the collective interest of all workers. An appreciable number of respondents (59.4 percent) controverted the effectiveness of collective bargaining for combined workers interest, 22.7 percent were undecided and 17.8 percent acknowledged that it has been effective. The result of this distribution should not occur as a surprise. After all, many of the industry wide bargainings in Nigeria's industrial sector has not been effective for permanent categories of workers not to mention of casual workers. (Table 5.6 illustrate the distribution of respondents on survival strategies of collective bargaining to employment casualisation).

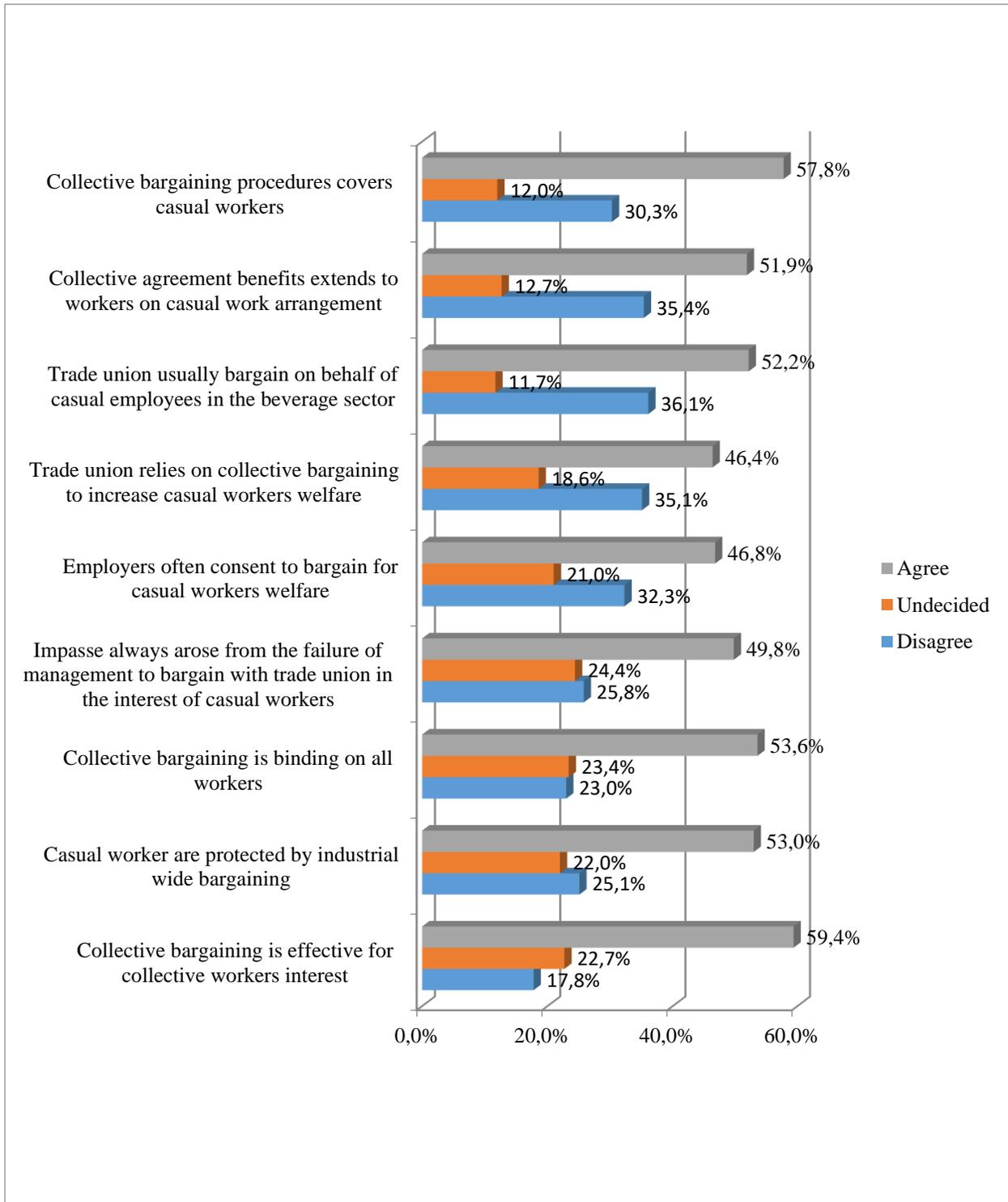
**Table 5.6: Responses on survival strategies of collective bargaining to employment casualisation**

Response	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Collective bargaining procedures covers casual workers	66	22.7	102	35.1	35	12	59	20.3	29	10	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Collective agreement benefits extends to workers on casual work arrangement	59	20.3	92	31.6	37	12.7	70	24.1	33	11.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union usually bargain on behalf of casual employees in the beverage sector	63	21.6	89	30.6	34	11.7	69	23.7	36	12.4	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union relies on collective bargaining to increase casual workers welfare	52	17.9	83	28.5	54	18.6	70	24.1	32	11	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Employers often consent to bargain for casual workers welfare	50	17.2	86	29.6	61	21	64	22	30	10.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Impasse always arose from the failure of management to bargain with trade union in the interest of casual workers	65	22.3	80	27.5	71	24.4	53	18.2	22	7.6	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Collective bargaining is binding on all workers	44	15.1	112	38.5	68	23.4	62	21.3	5	1.7	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual worker are protected by industrial wide bargaining	54	18.6	100	34.4	64	22	57	19.6	16	5.5	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Collective bargaining is effective for collective workers interest	55	18.9	118	40.5	66	22.7	33	11.3	19	6.5	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2017*

The distribution presented in Table 5.6 is further explained in Figure 5.4 showing the percentage of responses on survival strategies of collective bargaining to employment casualisation in the Nigeria beverage sector.

**Figure 5.4: Bar-chart illustration of survival strategies of collective bargaining to employment casualisation**



Source: Field survey, 2017

#### ***5.3.2.4 Trade union leadership activities as a reactionary strategy to employment***

##### ***casualisation***

For this theme, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions on trade union leaders' activities to employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Frequency emanating from each statement were further converted to percentages to represent the total percentage of respondents who agreed, are unsure or disagreed with each corresponding statement (see Table 5.7). Table 5.7 reveals that 57.4 percent of the respondents agreed with the fact that trade union leaders are advancing in their efforts to improve the lives and work conditions of casual workers, 14.1 percent could not tell if the trade unions are actually leaving to the expectations of improving casual workers work life; while 26.5 percent disprove this statement. This distribution explicitly narrates that respondents were of the view that trade union leaders are making efforts to carve a better work-life experience for casual workers. However, the result emanating from this distribution is questionable as many of the trade union leaders' activities have not yielded much success stories in Nigeria, otherwise, the incessant adoption of casual workers in Nigeria industrial sectors, and the Beverage sector, in particular, should have plummeted as the case may be.

A total number of 58.8 percent averred that they are encouraged with the role of trade union leadership in ensuring both casual and permanent workers have a better sense of work life; 10 percent were undecided and 31.6 percent disagreed with the role of trade union leadership to ensuring better and improved work conditions for workers. Again, this distribution could also be rather surprising, yet it might not with the fact that respondents are selected from both the casual and permanent employment status, hence the permanent workers are automatically members of trade union association, especially the National Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees (NUFBTE) who could be positioned to idolized the efforts of the trade union leadership. However, many of the roles of trade union leaders have not been encouraging in ameliorating the horrendous work conditions of casual and workers in general (see Adewumi, 2007). An inquiry into how often trade union leaders engage management for improving work conditions of casual workers, shows that an enormous 58.1 percent agreed that the trade union leaders have been prompt in engaging management to improve general working conditions of workers, 13.4 indicate undecided and 28.6 expressly disagreed with this statement. Again, this distribution could mean a reflection of how trade union leaders have been engaging management on behalf of their constituents, as many of

these engagements have not translated to improving the lots of workers in casual employment status. 48.8 percent accept that casual workers are benefiting from the leadership efforts of the trade union in the Beverage sector, 14.1 were unsure while 37.1 percent refutes. Arguing this distribution further, if the benefits are truly existent, then the obliterating conditions of work experienced by casual workers as chronicled in the literature would have been lessened.

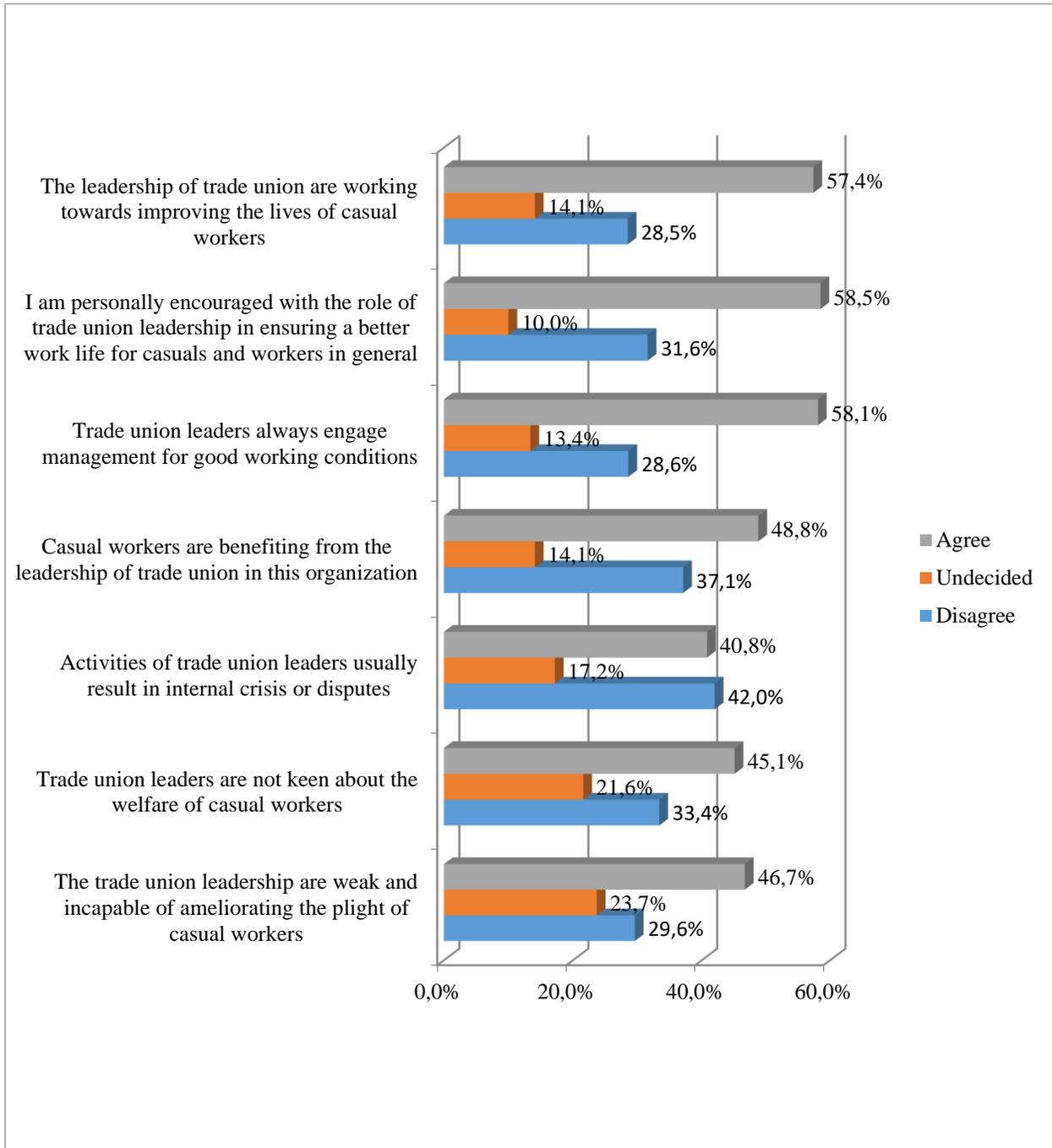
A total of 42 percent acknowledge that trade union activities usually result in an internal uproar, 17.2 percent reflected not sure and 40.8 percent invalidate the statement accordingly. The enormous number of respondents indicating the presence of internal trade union crisis corresponds with many of the internal puzzles such as rivalry, wrestle for power and pursuit of personal advances constraining trade union exertions in achieving better work life for the working population (see Rajesh and Manoj, 2014; Adewumi, 2007). Similarly, 45.1 percent admit that trade union leaders are not profoundly concerned about the welfare of casual workers, 21.6 percent say undecided and a cumulative 33.4 percent overturned the statement accordingly. In establishing if the position of trade union leadership has been feeble and inept in suppressing the quandary of casual workers; 46.7 percent staunchly agreed and confirm the weak stance of trade union leaders; 23.7 percent indicated undecided and 29.6 percent held a contrary view. This distribution confirmed many of the disappointing roles of the Nigerian trade union movement to carve a niche where workers can enjoy a sense of belonging and pride of work. (Table 5.7 explains respondents' responses on trade union leadership and employment casualisation).

<b>Table 5.7: Responses on trade union leadership activities to employment casualisation</b>												
Response	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
The leadership of trade union are working towards improving the lives of casual workers	74	25.4	93	32	41	14.1	53	18.2	30	10.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
I am personally encouraged with the role of trade union leadership in ensuring a better work life for casuals and workers in general	70	24.1	100	34.4	29	10	56	19.2	36	12.4	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union leaders always engage management for good working conditions	71	24.4	98	33.7	39	13.4	54	18.6	29	10	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Casual workers are benefiting from the leadership of trade union in this organisation	52	17.9	90	30.9	41	14.1	75	25.8	33	11.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Activities of trade union leaders usually result in internal crisis or disputes	45	15.4	74	25.4	50	17.2	93	32	29	10	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union leaders are not keen about the welfare of casual workers	47	16.2	84	28.9	63	21.6	82	28.2	15	5.2	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
The trade union leadership are weak and incapable of ameliorating the plight of casual workers	42	14.4	94	32.3	69	23.7	59	20.3	27	9.3	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2017*

The distribution of trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation presented in Table 5.7 above are further displayed in Figure 5.5 for a fuller understanding of the distribution trends.

**Figure 5.5: Bar-chart illustration of trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation**



Source: Field survey, 2017

### ***5.3.2.5 Trade union reaction of industrial strikes and protest actions to employment casualisation***

For this inquiry, respondents were presented with a statement to uncover their views on the efficacy of industrial strikes to employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. The various categories of responses were spread on the Likert 5 rating scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (see Table 5.7). While seeking to understand the efficacy of industrial strikes to the realization of casual workers' demands, a cumulative 39.1 percent of the respondents agreed that industrial strikes have been effective for achieving the demands of casual workers; 11.3 percent were undecided if it has truly improved casual workers demand. Respondents also show general disagreement that industrial strike has been effective for the realisation of the demands of casual workers following support from 49.5 percent of the respondents. From this distribution, it is obvious that much has not been achieved in terms of improved work life for casual workers with survival strategies of trade union strikes, even with the recent protests and picketing embarked upon by the NLC.

Furthermore, with regard to understanding the frequency of industrial strikes, a vast 46.4 percent of the respondents refuted that they have been a record of industrial strikes to halt the unfair wage system of casual work and a somewhat few respondents representing 13.1 percent indicating irresolute and 40.5 percent supporting the statement. The enormous number of respondents that disproved this statement should not come as an astounding result; rather, this distribution can most undoubtedly be expounded by the fact that the nature and composition of the Nigeria labour market, with increasing job seekers, can be positioned as constraints to these efforts where people would rather prefer the meager casual work pay than having nothing. Hence, trade union embarking on industrial strike on their behalf would mean the possibility of losing their jobs. Similarly, the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector does not always embrace the need for strikes, particularly on behalf of casual workers of the sector. This was supported by 41.9 percent, rebutted by 41.3 percent and 16.8 percent of the respondents seating in-between the fence. The disparity between those who agreed and disagreed with this statement explains one of the tactics of the trade union movement in portraying itself as fit for the revitalization of the declining meaning of work. In reality, the question is, if a reasonable number of 41.3 percent affirms that trade union always embrace the need for industrial strikes for the interest of casual workers, what

then has this push engendered in recent time? Distribution from the table also explains that the trade union movement has not had enough protests and picketing to ensure employers incessant adoption of casual workers is curtailed. To confirm this, 32.6 percent agreed, 24.4 percent specify there are not sure while 43 percent of the total respondents reveal that the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector would ordinarily not embark on protests and picketing to canvass for a reduction in employer's use of casual workers. To ascertain whether management often utilized lock-out strategies in refuting trade union entreaty, 35 percent of the respondents acknowledge that trade unions have always encounter lock-out as a way of preventing them to present their demands to management; 18.9 percent had an indifferent opinion and 46.1 percent disproved the statement. However, the respondents clearly remarked that trade union has been rather docile in presenting the need for organizing and demand for improved working lives for casual workers as supported by the distribution that they often experience lock-out from management whenever their request is presented.

The statement on the occurrence of internal disputes for non-recognition of casual workers had a distribution of 36.1 percent who vehemently agreed, 16.8 percent having an indifferent perception and 47.1 percent disagreed that internal tussle between trade union and management is not connected to management failure to recognize casual workers. Therefore, many of the internal wrangling between the trade union and management according to the large portion of respondents are not in the interest of casual workers. This clearly means that trade union has not been doing enough to ensure casual workers are organized along trade union lines (Table 5.8 reports respondents' distribution on industrial strike and employment casualisation).

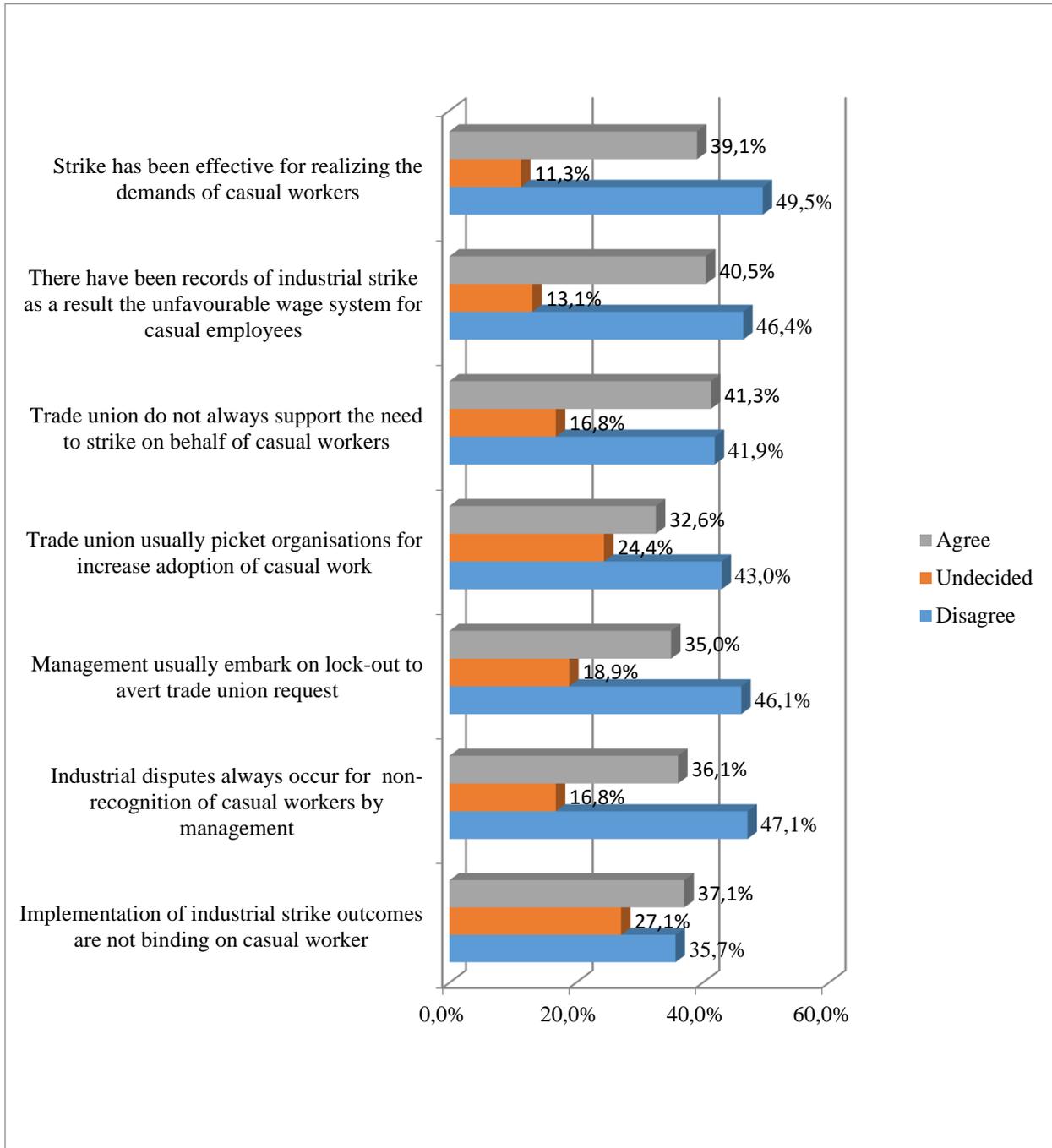
**Table 5.8 Responses on industrial strike/protest actions to employment casualisation.**

Response	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strike has been effective for realizing the demands of casual workers	51	17.5	63	21.6	33	11.3	101	34.7	43	14.8	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
There have been records of industrial strike as a result the unfavourable wage system for casual employees	51	17.5	67	23	38	13.1	91	31.3	44	15.1	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union do not always support the need to strike on behalf of casual workers	47	16.2	73	25.1	49	16.8	85	29.2	37	12.7	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Trade union usually picket organisations to increasing adoption of casual work	40	13.7	55	18.9	71	24.4	86	29.6	39	13.4	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Management usually embark on lock-out to avert trade union request	45	15.4	57	19.6	55	18.9	100	34.4	34	11.7	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Industrial disputes always occur for non-recognition of casual workers by management	38	13.1	67	23	49	16.8	93	32	44	15.1	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>
Implementation of industrial strike outcomes are not binding on casual worker	39	13.4	69	23.7	79	27.1	79	26.8	26	8.9	<b>291</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field survey, 2017*

Table 5.8 conveying responses on industrial strike and employment casualisation is further transmitted into Figure 5.6:

**Figure 5.6: Bar-chart illustration of industrial strikes/protest actions and employment casualisation**



Source: Field survey, 2017

### ***5.3.2.6 Reacting to employment casualisation through trade union education and (re) training programs***

The Likert 5-point rating scale was employed to understand respondents' views on how trade union education and (re) training programmes have been marshaled against employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Each statement was categorized to elicit responses from respondents with respect to whether they agreed, are unsure or disagreed with the various inquiry (see Table 5.9). For the statement on whether workers are frequently sensitized through various workshops and seminars on the emergent trends and changes in the world of work, 45.7 percent confirmed the prompt sensitization of trade union members through workshops and seminars to acquaints workers with the evolving workplace changes, 35 respondents with a cumulative 12 percent were undecided about this statement and 41.9 percent disagreed that there are frequent workshops and seminars arranged for sensitizing the working people about the changes in the world of work.

However, on the question of training and (re) training of trade union members to withstand anti-management policies, 42.9 percent approved that trade union members do receive robust training to guide against unfair management policies in the workplace; 14.4 percent could not tell either way, while 42.2 percent of the respondents repudiate that members promptly undergo training and (re) training programs as a check to management excesses. With reference to this distribution, the confirmation that the Beverage sector trains and retrains members to empower them for challenging exploitative inclinations of management still have not transmuted the world of work as management exploitation and abuse of the working people continues unceasingly. In other words, many of the knowledge gained through such training has not really empowered the working class to question the existing *status quo* as evidenced of exploitation of labour abounds in the Nigerian labour market and the beverage sector in specific.

The existence of a strong culture of educating trade union members was upheld by 39.5 percent of the respondents. While 18.2 percent rather choose to be indifferent, 42.3 percent debunk the existence of a strong culture of training and education programs. This position neatly contradicts the earlier claim that some members of the union are promptly arranged for training and (re)training sessions. For instance, the non-availability of strong training and education culture could disrupt the entire process of ensuring trade union members are thoroughly updated with

prerequisite training and education skills. Table 5.9 also reveals a slightly above average of 52 percent of the respondents indicating that they have profited from the literacy programmes of a trade union as a member of the organisation; 21 percent shows they are unsure while 47 percent of the respondents professed they have not been a beneficiary of the literacy programmes. This finding is a marker that the majority of the workforce has benefited from the available training opportunities either through on-the-job training or off-the-job training. The right question to ask from these findings is what has ensued from these benefits? Sadly, the answer is apparent as the workplace has not witnessed the desired change needed to awaken the latent unionism for an appropriate check on management immoderations.

In terms of evaluating how education and (re) training programmes of a trade union have been effective for plunging the consequences of employment casualisation, a cumulative of 30.5 percent uphold the fact that education and (re) training programs have helped curtail the tide of employment casualisation in the Beverage sector. When probed further, 27.5 were not sure about the statement, 42 percent differs that education and (re) training programs of the trade union have inhibited increase adoption of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. In connection with this, the need to enhance workers' knowledge have not met with appreciable education training programmes. For instance, 37.8 percent disagreed that education and (re) training programs have improved organisational members' knowledge, 34.3 agreed and 28.8 percent could not tell as they indicate undecided. To interpret this distribution appositely, although it was established that majority of the respondents indicated they have benefited from the training programs of the union as earlier shown in the second paragraph under this heading, yet the conundrum as revealed in this paragraph is that such benefits have not translated to the acquisition of enhanced knowledge. Therefore, the possession of knowledge is key to address issues wrestling with trade union relevance and the general workplace in this era of job automation (Table 5.9 reports the distribution of respondents on trade union education and (re) training programmes and employment casualisation).

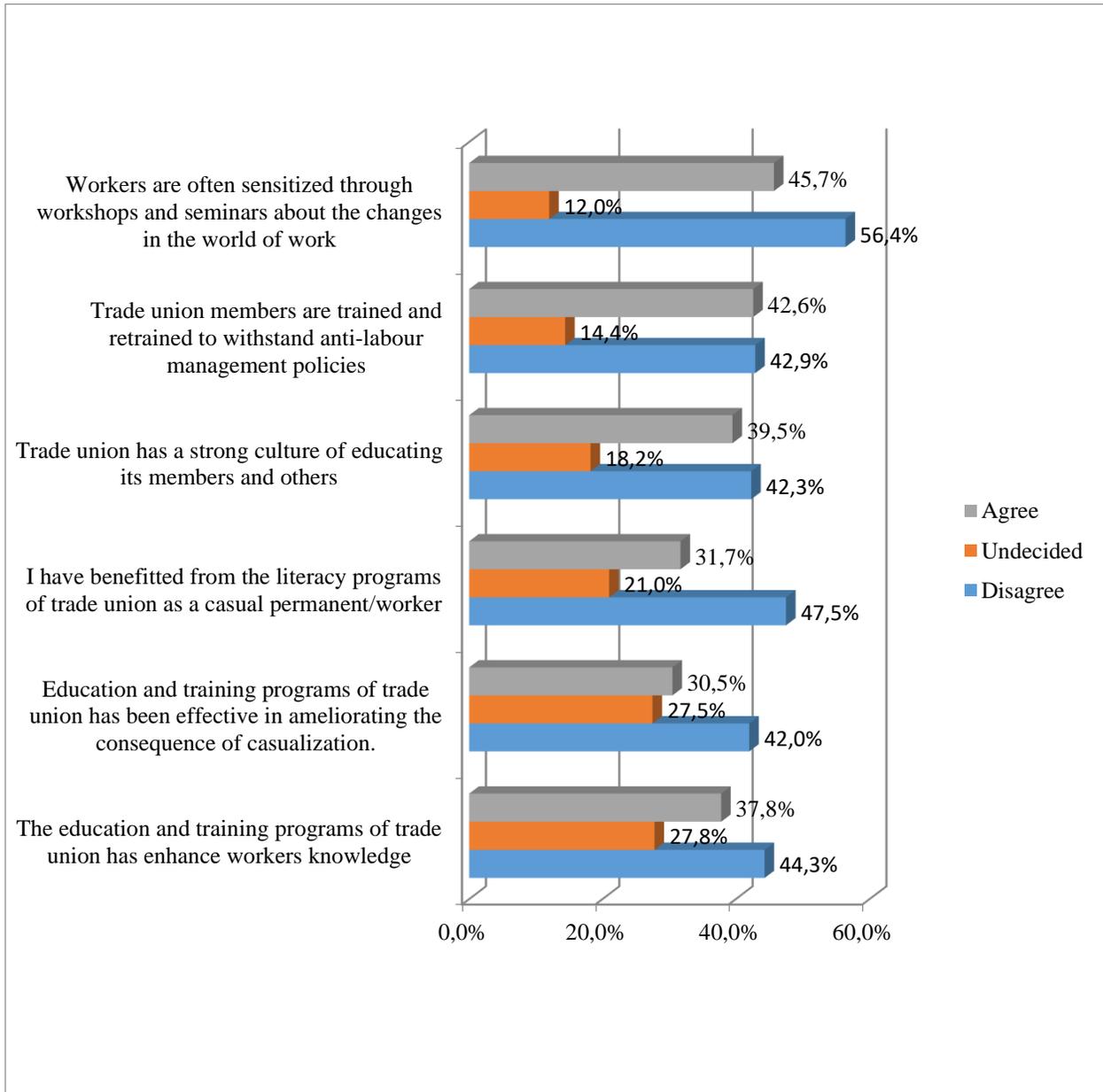
**Table 5.9: Responses on trade union education and (re)training programs to employment casualisation**

Response	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Workers are often sensitized through workshops and seminars about the changes in the world of work	56	19.2	77	26.5	35	12	81	27.8	42	14.4	291	100
Trade union members are trained and retrained to withstand anti-labour policies	50	17.2	74	25.4	42	14.4	81	27.8	44	15.1	291	100
The trade union has a strong culture of educating its members and others	42	14.4	73	25.1	53	18.2	91	31.3	32	11	291	100
I have benefitted from the literacy programs of the trade union as a casual permanent/worker	31	10.7	61	21	61	21	91	31.3	47	16.2	291	100
Education and training programs of the trade union have been effective in ameliorating the consequence of casualisation.	26	8.9	63	21.6	80	27.5	93	32	29	10	291	100
The education and training programs of the trade union have enhanced workers knowledge	48	16.5	62	21.3	81	27.8	67	23	33	11.3	291	100

**Source:** *Field survey, 2017*

Figure 5.7 further explicate respondents' distribution on trade union education and (re) training programs as depicted in Table 5.9.

**Figure 5.7: Bar-chart illustration of trade union education and (re) training programs to employment casualization**



**Source:** *Field survey, 2017*

## 5.4 Test of research hypotheses

In this section, the hypotheses stated in chapter one of the study are empirically tested against the statistical table value to form the basis for either accepting or rejecting the null/alternative hypotheses. As appropriate, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was utilized to test the significant relationship between each constructs of the independent variable and the dependent variable, while the Multiple Regression Analysis was employed to predict the effect of the combined constructs of the independent variable on the dependent variable with an alpha ( $\alpha$ ) level of 0.05 significance respectively. Being that this study clearly deals with human participants, for instance, 0.05 significant level indicates that only 5 percent of the data is expected to occur by chance hence one can be established that the relationship between the variables in this study are 95 percent assured (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). In contrary, 0.01 indicating only 1 percent error chance is common with research involving animal subjects, and not fitting for human participants as we cannot plausibly ascertain that the relationship between variables is 99 percent certain. Therefore, all the relationship established between variables in this study is explained based on 95 percent (0.05) certainty.

### 5.4.1 Research hypothesis one

The first research hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector was empirically tested with the Pearson correlation via IBM SPSS version 21. The Pearson correlation coefficient detailed in Table 5.10 exhibits the strength and direction of the relationship between the two variables.

<b>Table 5.10: Correlation of the relationship between the collective bargaining process and casualisation</b>			
		Collective bargaining	Employment casualisation
Collective bargaining process	Pearson Correlation	1	-.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.622
	N	291	291
Employment casualisation	Pearson Correlation	-.029	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.622	
	N	291	291

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.10 above shows the correlation coefficient between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector ( $r = -0.29$ ,  $N = 291$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This result indicates a negative and weak relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation. However, to examine the significant relationship between collective bargaining process and employment casualisation, the p-value of 0.622 as shown in Table 5.10 above is greater than the significant value of 0.05 ( $p > 0.05$ ). Clearly, this result explains that there is no significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Again, it is not only established that there is no significant relationship between collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, but it is also equally shown that the relationship is both a negative and weak one where the correlation coefficient is indicated by  $r = -0.29$ . This result does not seem entirely astounding as many of the respondents have earlier indicated in the frequency distribution (see Table 5.6) that collective bargaining has not been utilized for casual workers' interest as most collective agreement in the Nigerian Beverage sector is tilted for the interest of permanent workers.

#### 5.4.2 Research hypothesis two

To test the research hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation, the Pearson correlation via IBM SPSS version 21 was equally employed. The strength and direction of the relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation are shown in Table 5.11.

<b>Table 5.11: Correlation of the relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation</b>			
		Trade Union Leadership Activities	Employment casualisation
Trade union leadership activities	Pearson Correlation	1	.225**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	291	291
Employment casualisation	Pearson Correlation	.225**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	291	291
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)			

Table 5.11 above shows the correlation coefficient between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector ( $r = 0.225$ ,  $N = 291$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). This result exudes a weak and positive relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation. However, to ascertain if the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship

between trade union leadership activities should be supported or rejected, the p-value of 0.000 as shown in Table 5.11 above is far less than the significant value of 0.05 ( $p < 0.05$ ). Hence, it is interpreted that there is a significant relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. The relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation although reflects a positive relationship, it is equally a weak relationship with correlation coefficient indicated by  $r = 0.225$ . This result is suitably interpreted to mean that, notwithstanding the fact that the activities of trade union leadership have been positive towards plummeting the influence of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, such activities have not been potent enough.

### 5.4.3 Research hypothesis three

The third research hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between industrial strikes and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector was tested with the Pearson correlation via IBM SPSS version 21. Details of the Pearson correlation coefficient showing the strength and direction of relationship between the two variable are shown in Table 5.12.

<b>Table 5.12: Correlation of the relationship between industrial strikes and employment casualisation</b>			
		Industrial Strike	Employment casualisation
Industrial Strike	Pearson Correlation	1	.148*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.011
	N	291	291
Employment Casualisation	Pearson Correlation	.148*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	
	N	291	291
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The Pearson correlation in Table 5.12 shows the correlation coefficient between industrial strikes and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector ( $r = 0.148$ ,  $N = 291$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). The correlation coefficient depicts a weak and positive relationship between industrial strikes and employment casualisation. However, the correlation coefficient has limited influence in determining the significant relationship between the two variables. Therefore, to ascertain whether there is a significant relationship between trade union industrial strikes strategy and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, the p-value of 0.11 as shown in Table 5.12 above is greater than the significant value of 0.05 ( $p > 0.05$ ). In other words, it is interpreted that there is no significant relationship between the industrial strike and employment casualisation in the Nigerian

Beverage sector. This result does not only reflect that there is no significant relationship between the two variable, rather it also indicates a very weak inference since the correlation coefficient is indicated by  $r = 0.148$ . Previous frequency distribution results (see Table 5.8) have also shown that several of the industrial protests embarked upon by trade unions were not in the best interest of casual workers, as many of the picketing and industrial protests led by the two central labour organisations in Nigeria have really not yielded substantial influence on employment casualisation.

#### 5.4.4 *Research hypothesis four*

The fourth and last research hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between trade union education and (re)training programmes and employment casualisation in the Nigeria beverage sector. The Pearson correlation was equally utilized to test the strength of the relationship between these two variables via IBM SPSS version 21 as shown in Table 5.13.

<b>Table 5.13: Correlation of the relationship between trade union education and (re)training programmes and Employment casualisation</b>			
		Trade Union Education and Training Programme	Employment casualisation
Trade Union Education and Training Programme	Pearson Correlation	1	.154**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009
	N	291	291
Employment casualisation	Pearson Correlation	.154**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	
	N	291	291
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The result in Table 5.13 above explains the correlation coefficient between trade union education and (re) training programs and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector ( $r=0.154$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), with a weak but positive relationship. The test of the significant relationship between the two variables to either confirm or reject the hypothesis is established with the p-value of 0.009 being less than the significant value of 0.05 as shown in Table 5.13 ( $p<0.05$ ). From this result, it is clear that there is a significant relationship between trade union education and (re) training programmes and employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Interpreting this result would mean that, although the training and education programmes of trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector is positive, however, such education and training policies have not been well structured to ensure workers are adequately sensitized and positioned to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills required for confronting the rising exploitations of management and the upsurge of employment casualisation in particular.

**Table 5.14: Summary of hypotheses tests and decisions**

Proposed Hypothesis	Hypotheses	p-value	Significant table value	Decision
There is no significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage sector	H1	0.622	0.05	Accepted
There is no significant relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage sector	H2	0.000	0.05	Rejected
There is no significant relationship between the industrial strike and employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage sector	H3	0.11	0.05	Accepted
There is no significant relationship between trade union education and (re)training programs and employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage sector	H4	0.009	0.05	Rejected

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2017*

Note: the hypotheses were all stated in null forms. Therefore, the acceptance of a null hypothesis implies the rejection of the alternative hypothesis and vice versa.

Table 5.14 provides p-value coefficient for H1, H2, H3, and H4 respectively (see Tables 5.10, 5.11, 5.12 and 5.13 respectively). The supported hypotheses are H1 and H3 with p-values of (0.622;  $p > 0.05$ ) and (0.11;  $p > 0.05$ ) while the refuted hypotheses are H2 and H4 with p-values of (0.000;  $p < 0.05$ ) and (0.009;  $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, the collective bargaining process (H1) and industrial strikes strategy (H3) are not significantly related to employment casualisation in the Beverage sector of Nigeria. In essence, these two variables have not been appropriately utilized by trade unions as strategies for addressing the scourge of employment casualisation. With respect to trade union leadership activities (H2) and trade union education and (re) training programmes (H4), the p-values reflect that the two variables are significantly related to employment casualisation with a fairly robust utility to ensuring the impact of employment casualisation are lessened on the working people.

#### 5.4.5 Multiple regression analysis

The Multiple Regression Analysis was further employed to predict the influence of each constructs of the independent variable including the collective bargaining process, trade union leadership activities, industrial strikes and trade union education and (re) training programme on employment casualisation. The regression coefficient of the influences of the different constructs of the independent variable on the dependent variable are detailed figure in 5.15

**Table 5.15. Multiple regression of trade union survival strategies predicting employment casualisation**

Model Summary							
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Standardised Beta Value	T	Sig.
Constant	.308 <sup>a</sup>	.095	.082	7.472		10.783	.000
Collective bargaining process					-.150	-2.476	0.14
Trade union leadership activities					.239	3.946	.000
Industrial strike					.112	1.952	0.52
Trade Union education and (re)training programme					.129	2.237	0.26

a. Dependent Variable: Employment casualisation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Collective bargaining Process, Trade union leadership activities, Industrial strike, Trade union education, and (re)training programme

To confirm the various results of the Pearson correlation, the Multiple Regression Analysis is conducted on the four research hypotheses as shown in Table 5.15. The result of the multiple regression analysis indicates that trade union leadership activities and Trade union education and (re) training programs predicted employment casualisation far more than the other two constructs with 0.239 and 0.129  $\beta$ -value respectively. Although, industrial strike somewhat predicts employment casualisation with a less  $\beta$ -value of 0.112 compared to the first two constructs, however collective bargaining process with  $\beta$ -value of -0.150 does not predict employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. With this result, we can conclude that trade union leadership activities and trade union education and (re) training programs jointly predicts employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector having shown the highest standardized  $\beta$ -values respectively.

For hypothesis one, questions 21 to 29 on the questionnaire were transmuted into collective bargaining process signifying the independent variable. The Multiple Regression Analysis was tested considering employment casualisation as a criterion variable and collective bargaining process as a predictive variable to determine the significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation. Thus ( $\beta = -0.15$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) indicates a weak and negative statistical relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation. Accordingly, this result reflects that the collective bargaining process does not predict employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Similarly, the result provides empirical support to McDonald, Bradley and Brown (2009) study that the efficacy of Australian public sector collective bargaining process has not helped improve the horrendous work conditions of casual workers of the sector. Similarly, Smit and Fourie (2010) study conducted in Nigeria contrasts this result by establishing that industrial wide collective bargaining agreement has been extended on casual workers of NUPENG.

Again for hypothesis two, questions 30 to 36 on the questionnaire were transformed into trade union leadership activities indicating the independent variable. The Multiple Regression Analysis was tested considering employment casualisation as a criterion variable and trade union leadership activities as a predictive variable to determine the significant relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation. Hence ( $\beta = 0.24$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) indicate a weak and positive relationship between trade union leadership activities and employment casualisation. In essence, trade union leadership activities significantly predict employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. For instance, the more organized and coordinated the activities of trade union leaders are, the less the upsurge of employment casualisation and visa-viz. Crawford and Germov (2015) study confirm this result that one of the exertions of academic arm of trade union leaders of the University of Newcastle in ensuring sustainable work conditions for casual workers was attained through massive awareness and support programme of trade union leaders to enhance workers knowledge on the imminent dangers of employment casualisation.

Further, questions 37 to 43 on the questionnaire were represented by industrial strikes indicating the independent variable. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between industrial strikes and employment casualisation shows ( $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) indicating a weak and positive relationship between the industrial strike and employment casualisation. Though the

correlation coefficient shows a weak but positive relationship, yet it is concluded that industrial strikes do not effectively predict employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Therefore, the more trade union intensify on the industrial strike strategy, the possibility that the growing influence of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector would greatly be minimized. Otherwise, a slow pace of industrial strike outbursts could engender more adoption of casual work arrangements by employers of the Nigerian Beverage sector as the case maybe. Similar but nuance study conducted by Serrano and Xhafa (2016) in the Nigeria Oil and Gas sector support this result. Other studies including Danesi (2011) and Atitola (2014) confirmed the weak effect of industrial strike embarked upon by the Nigerian trade union movement in ensuring the protection of casual workers.

Lastly, questions 44 to 49 on the questionnaire capture the fourth hypothesis. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between trade union education and (re) training programmes and employment casualisation shows ( $\beta = 0.13$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), indicating both weak and positive relationship. However, notwithstanding the fact that the coefficient relationship between trade union education and (re) training programmes and employment casualisation indicates a weak one, it is clear that trade union education and (re) training programmes positively predicts employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Interpreting the outcome of this result, it is clear that a well-structured and organized education training and retraining programmes would not only enhance and sharpened trade union member's employment relations knowledge but also positioned them for questioning and changing the prevailing employment order characterized with high growth of non-standard work arrangement across the Nigeria industrial sectors and the Beverage sector in particular. Roberts and Marsh's (2016) study fittingly supports this empirical result by affirming that trade union capacity development cannot be overemphasized for a fuller understanding of social context issues plaguing the lives of the working people, especially the puzzle of employment casualisation that is currently having an upsurge effect on the lives of the working people.

## **5.5 Analysis of qualitative data**

This section presents the non-numerical data garnered through semi-structured interview representing the qualitative component of this study. Respondents' biographical information was not required under this heading since the interviewee was initially part of the 291 respondents surveyed for the quantitative strand of this study. Hence, their biographical information has been previously captured, presented and explained in this chapter. It must also be borne in mind that the 9 respondents constituting the qualitative strand are members of the individual companies surveyed. For instance, one of the respondents for the in-depth-interview (IDI) occupying a strategic position in FOBTOB works with one of the companies surveyed. Again, it is appropriate that for a mixed method study, the quantitative and qualitative samples should be drawn from the same population in order to corroborate and compare data for convergence or divergence of data trends. For instance, Creswell (2009) highlighted that in mixed method research, it is important that qualitative samples are drawn from the larger quantitative sample since the goal is to make a comparison between the two data, hence the more similar the results, the easier the comparison. Accordingly, respondents are represented and identified each with a symbol, code and year of interview. For instance, respondent one is represented as (IDI/P1/2017). In the following analysis, the various themes, interview responses and analyses are represented.

## **5.6 Nomenclatures and practices of employment casualisation**

Employment casualisation no doubt is mounting in an exceptional proportion in both Nigeria's industrial and services sectors. However, the classification and practices of this work arrangement differ across these sectors. For instance, in a study conducted in selected Banks in Nigeria, a clear description of employment casualisation is often referred to as contract work (Fapohunda 2012). This description notwithstanding negates the fact that most of the workforce referred to as contract workers in the Banking sector are outsourced externally and not hired on contract by the Banks as the case may be. In the contrary, employment casualisation is practiced and addressed in two distinct nomenclatures in the Beverage sector of Nigeria as applicable to this study: outsourcing and contract work with dissimilar conditions of work respectively. The conditions attached to each pattern of work clearly explain the nature and source of employment. Although, the FOBTOB members interviewed revealed that outsourcing is the most practiced type of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, yet they shed light on the distinction between

outsource and contract employment as practiced in the Nigerian beverage sector. According to them, whatever names or practices attached to employment casualisation are immaterial as the end result is to accrue more profit and increase the employer's bottom line margin.

Precisely, outsource employment is arranged by a third party organisation where workers are employed to work for an organisation who has no liability for their general well-being. It is essentially a sort of work arrangement controlled and managed by the outsourcing firms irrespective of the fact that workers are recruited to work for a secondary organisation. The main justification for the utility of outsourcing workers by employers of labour is to focus more on imperative organisational task while outsourcing the peripheral task. Majority of the respondents interviewed established a case for outsourcing employment as the lead strand of employment casualisation with its accompanying work conditions below:

*Well, the one I am aware of now is this outsourcing. They outsourced staff with no pension, no gratuity.... They call it a clear wage by just giving you a basic salary and you are not entitled to anything. You are not entitled to medicals... so it is pathetic (IDI/P1/2017).*

Another respondent speak about the patterns of employment casualisation below:

*I know about outsourcing. And one thing I can say is because management does not want to pay that is why we have people under this work arrangement, and as outsource workers, they do not give you benefit, it is only based on salary. They pay you and you go (IDI/P3/2017).*

Another respondent identifies with outsourcing as the most common type of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. In addition, the respondent submits that employers should be liable for whatever happens to the outsourced workers in terms of workplace injury and other industrial challenges since they provide the services and not the third party as the case may be:

*You see in the Beverage sector, the common language is outsourcing and as I said, outsourcing is by third party Company; they provide the staff to a company for services, but the company that provides the services has nothing to do with the workers they provide. In fact, they do not have any work benefits for them. They are just there, they work and go without anything. But we are trying to treat this case because if I work for you and you discipline me before you start calling my employer, but when it comes to liability you deny me that I should go back to my employer. It's a matter we are looking at because we believe the place they provide the services should be responsible for whatever happens instead of pushing them back that go back to your employer (IDI/P5/2017).*

Apart from the growing presence of outsourcing employment with its corresponding work conditions in the Nigerian beverage sector, other respondents argued that contract employment is no less prevalent in this important sector of the Nigerian economy. However, in establishing a nuance between these two types of employment casualisation, the majority of the respondents professed that the prevalence of outsourcing employment is religiously common among NUFBTE being the junior trade union association in the Beverage sector while contract work is synonymous with FOBTOB representing the senior trade union association in the Beverage sector. Similarly, while outsourcing is entirely perpetuated by erstwhile HR human resources managers who now manages outsourcing firms, on the one hand, contract workers are clearly recruited by management on the other hand. Importantly, unlike outsourcing employment, contract workers emerge in exceptional circumstances. For instance, it was gathered that people are not ordinarily recruited and placed on contract work except in an instance of redundancies and the management have known that some of the laid-off workers possess expert skills are re-employed and placed on contract for a specified period of time. The above was confirmed by one of the respondents:

*Contract employment in our own context like I said, there have been several redundancies in the Beverage sector in the last one year, but some of these people who are laid off who have specialized skills, the management need them and they negotiate the terms so we call them contract staff, so they are not coming from third party company, it is you and the management, these are the ones we call contract staff in our industry. What they earn is called clean wage, everything total including medicals but they are not pensionable (IDI/P8/2017).*

Another respondent reports that aside from the case of redundancies, many contract workers are products of compulsory retirement age. However, upon retirement management deem it fit to recall some of them who have been occupying a strategic position that cannot be immediately occupied in the organisation for a specified period of the contract. Specifically, the aim is to transfer knowledge and expertise to workers coming up to assume their roles in the organisation. According to the respondent:

*The Nigerian Beverage sector, particularly the industry I belong to, I can say we are practicing more of outsourcing of jobs which are basically held by erstwhile HR managers. These HR managers are the once granted recruiter's license by Ministry of Labour and Employment to outsource casual and contract workers. We also have contract workers. We call these set of worker's professionals. For*

*instance, maybe they have been handling a particular job for the company and they have gotten to the level of retirement and the company felt they do not have a replacement for them; they might ask them to stay on the job for a contract basis, like two years in order to train people that will take over from them. While on the job, they enjoy work benefits, except that there are not pensionable (IDI/P9/2017).*

Reflecting from the analysis above, the majority of the respondents interviewed admit that they are more familiar with outsourcing employment involving the external recruitment of workers for a third party company. On the other hand, contract employment was equally identified by few respondents as the second type of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. In other words, it was revealed that organisations are not liable to outsource workers but liable to contract workers to a great extent. For instance, some of the respondents affirmed that outsource workers are only placed on salary without any allowances including medicals, gratuity and pension as the case may be. Interestingly, the work conditions of contract workers are somewhat different from that of the outsourced workers. It was reported that contract workers enjoy all other benefits including health and other fringe benefits except that they are excluded from pensions and gratuity allowance. Therefore, it can be established that since organisations do not deal with outsourcing workers directly, it is expected that their conditions of work would be so lethal than that of contract workers who apparently are beneficiary of some workplace benefits.

## **5.7 Challenges of employment casualisation**

The second research question is laden with much information as issues emanating from this theme affect both the working population on the one hand and the trade union movement as an association on the other hand. Therefore, analysis of qualitative results under this heading are organized into two segments; the challenges of employment casualisation on the working people and the trade union movement as an association of the working people. This is fundamental in order to ensure responses analysed appositely provide clear answers to the research question(s).

### ***5.7.1 The working people and the challenges of employment casualisation***

The goal of this question was to uncover potential challenges faced by workers in casual employment arrangement. Several workplace challenges were reported by respondents including the denial of fundamental right of association, good and healthy work environment, pay commensurate with work input, no compensation for injury sustained in the course of executing their job function, lack of medical allowance and attention, overtime work without pay, denial of

social benefit such as pension and gratuity and unfair dismissal. The respondents interviewed reveal that most casual workers are no doubt dwelling in poverty since most times their take-home pay does not apparently take them home, not to talk of guaranteeing food on their table.

The disparity between casual and permanent work is obvious that the latter is not considered as being part of the organisation growth and are treated as such. Basically, the sense of feeling and belongingness as a worker is greatly cramped by employers as the majority of the respondents described casual workers as second-class workers who have no voice to air any of their grievances to management. However, in the event that they make exertions to address their working conditions, they are dismissed unfairly. Accordingly, it was reported that the dreadful conditions of work for casual workers are not in any way improving as effort to organize these categories of workers have become more problematic as many would rather decide to take whatever comes out of the casual work than agitate for improved work conditions and be dismissed, especially as there are no readily available jobs to turn to. One of the respondents, a senior staff of FOBTOB expresses his concern as regards the enormous challenges confronting casual workers, and in particular how people are now used as slaves in their fatherland in the disguise of working for a living:

*You see this question has its obvious answer. What else should one expect from people that are being treated like slaves in their own fatherland? For sure, they lack good working conditions and do not have any health or medical allowance in case they fall ill. So it is terrible. How can someone be working and the employer cannot provide medical or health facilities to take care of them when they are sick? To make matter worst, even the take home they pay casual workers cannot take them home not to talk of putting food on their table for them and their family. There is one common slang among casual workers, we call it 'come as you go'. This means that you are not entitled to pension or gratuity as applicable to all other Nigerian workers. So it is sad and disturbing. But an average Nigerian will tell you it is better I have this job than sitting down at home. So now how do you explain this? One fundamental right of every person to join an association is denied them. You see the list is endless (IDI/P9/2017).*

In terms of liability, the Employee Compensation Act of 2010 (ECA)<sup>63</sup> expressly stipulates that every worker shall enjoy compensation for the injury sustained in the course of executing the employer's job. In contrast, another respondent specifically recalls among other challenges an ordeal where casual workers are not enlisted for compensation in an instance where they lost either their limb or leg in the course of executing the job of their employers. For this respondent, this is nothing short of dehumanization of the human person:

*As a casual worker, you have nothing. You cannot boast of any benefits... so whatever they tell you is what you do. So if you make any move say okay this is how I'm supposed to get this, you will be shown the way out or maybe you are working in a factory now as casual worker and something happens to you maybe machine cut off your hand or accident in the workplace, no compensation, nothing because there is nobody to fight for you, so you cannot fight for yourself. So if you have an accident and your hand or leg cut off, nobody will compensate you. You see casual workers are going through a lot of things in this our industry that I know of. Their health-wise, they have no access. You are not entitled to anything unlike permanent workers who have access to clinic including their families, casual workers do not have access not to talk of their families (IDI/P1/2017).*

A similar sentiment was shared and expressed by another respondent that one of the major puzzles the human person can be entrapped with is the denial to belong or form an association. Majority of the respondents attest that although the constitution and other labour legislation did not expressly deny any person from forming or belonging to any association, in reality, casual workers are denied this fundamental right. In a similar account, respondents recount that the many workplace challenges plaguing casual workers cannot be exhausted:

*Basically, they do not have a voice because casual workers are not entitled to join a trade union, they work in a dangerous work zone without appropriate benefits. Though on paper it is expected that they should join the union, in practice, it is a different ball game in Nigeria. You know the Federal Ministry of Labour licensed the outsourcing company to actually carry out their assignment. So it is regrettable they don't follow the rule and so the policy to be followed to get the desired result is not there because basically there are being supervised by the Ministry of Labour so which to me the supervision is not even there and the outsourcing company are*

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<sup>63</sup> The ECA being one of Nigeria's social protection law is particular about the legislation and interpretation of compensation for employees for all cases of illness, injury or other industrial accidents. The Act itself makes case for the compensation of all categories of employees. For instance, Section 73 of the ECA defines an employee as a person employed by an employer under oral or written contract of employment whether on a continuous, part-time, temporary, apprenticeship or casual basis and includes a domestic servant who is not a member of the family of the employer including any person employed in the Federal, State and Local Government, and any of the government agencies and in the formal and informal sectors of the economy. In other words, compensation for injury or accident should be grossly applied to all sets of workers.

*just at liberty to do what the like (IDI/P8/2017).*

From the above, the majority of the respondents' submission reveals that the discourse of employment casualisation possesses a horrendous and dehumanizing threat to the individual worker's health and general well-being. Apart from the fact that work should engender the individual self a good source of income commensurate with their input to fulfill the human needs, work also should be able to provide the individual worker a safety net. However, as reported, casual work arrangement does not provide the individual worker desired social benefits such as pension, leave allowance and health insurance benefits. Under this work category, people are arranged to work and they are paid as they work without the provision of other workplace benefits as applicable to other segments of the working population. The individual worker fundamental right as enriched in Nigeria's Constitution to join and belong to any trade union association is all proscribed by the employers of casual workers.

### ***5.7.2 Employment casualisation: the skepticism of the relevance of trade union***

The incessant increase of employment casualisation has dealt a great blow on both the membership growth and continued relevance of the trade union movement. Prior to the emergence of globalisation, the trade union movement possesses a robust and fierce attribute for improving the conditions of work. However, the emergence of globalisation has welcomed many work arrangement tilt towards replacing the human effort with automation while both the membership structure and potent of trade union are becoming waning. For instance, for organisations to remain competitive and achieve a surplus, they resort not only to cutting down the number of their workforce but likewise adopt different strategies and practices of casualisation in order to circumvent been liable to workers. Correspondingly, potential trade union members are employed on casual arrangement and disallowed to form or join trade union association and other permanent workers are consistently laid off by management only to be reemployed as casual worker without the prior benefits they enjoy but also restricted from partaking in trade union activities.

No doubt, membership growth is a justified measure of a growing trade union association and affords hasty respond to changing the *status quo*. Some of the respondents interviewed narrate their views on the influence of employment casualisation on trade union membership. It was explained that the growing surge of employment casualisation has reduced the strength of trade union structure in the Nigerian Beverage sector and averred that in no distance time trade union

might go extinct if this trend persists. In their explanation:

*Well, it has done great damage to us because lots of workers out there are no longer full staff as they are being casualised. They work for a particular month and they laid them off, your work is finished. So it is a big slap on us because when you go to a company and you see a lot of people working in a factory and you asked them if they are staff, they say they are not that they are casual and the management only pay them peanut for their take home. What they take home is not even enough for them to feed and enter transportation talk of clothing and shelter and even plan for marriage. So casualisation has declined trade union membership because a lot of casual workers cannot join the union, that if they join the union or bring any union they will be fired so they are not even interested in joining the union... so casualisation has a negative impact on the trade union and this could mean the gradual extinction of trade union in the shortest possible time as it were (IDI/P2/2017).*

Another respondent have the following to say:

*Well, I cannot deny the fact that we are losing members day by day as a result of this employment casualisation. We have seen cases where our members are laid off during redundancy and in no time reemployed by the same organisations under the disguise of casualisation. So the problem is that they come back as casuals, and management would out rightly tell them they cannot join trade union association through a covenant agreement signed by both parties. So the bane of employment casualisation on trade union membership is very significant. So the membership of our union is reducing on a quarterly basis as long as people are laid off and re-employed as casuals and contract and you know the strength of the union is in its membership size. So definitely this thing has come to stay with their negative effect on trade union. Either outsourcing or contract work, they have come to stay. Trade union is to find a way to form an alliance with the Ministry of Labour, so when the recruiters get there to obtain recruiting license, they should give them a condition that the workers should be organized. The reason why they are not unionizing these categories of workers is because of some HR managers, so by the time they get to the ministry, they know how to play their HR politics (IDI/P7/2017).*

The challenge of employment casualisation obviously is not limited to the individual worker. The trade union movement unarguably has had its share of the pie. Trade union strength is predicted from the number of its constituents, and how far a union can go in achieving the goals of improving the working conditions of its members is equally not unconnected to the structure and number of its members. Explicitly, employment casualisation has waned the membership structure of the trade union by proscribing potential union members. The respondents interviewed established a position that the potent strength of trade union is not what it used to be especially with the growing influence of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. For instance, the majority

of the respondents narrate how employers of labour in the disguise of redundancy have captured most of their members into the non-standard work arrangement rendering the trade union to a feeble worker's association. The respondents, however, revealed that for the continued relevance of the trade union movement, the union must live up to its expectation to ensure that the growing influence of employment casualisation is curtailed in the Nigerian Beverage sector.

### **5.8 Grilling probable factors spurring the unceasing trend of employment casualisation**

Several labour studies literature have reported the emergence of economic globalisation as the lead cause of employment casualisation across industrial and services sectors respectively. Globalisation has increased the frontier of exploitation by investors and has subsequently ushered in fewer restrictions for employers to thrive with their selfish penchants while private sector ownership has now become more encouraged than ever. The private investors aim of achieving surplus value has engendered massive insecurity and loss of jobs, and while the traditional standard employment is increasingly being replaced by contract and outsource employment, the remit of employers to employees is also constantly being diminished. There was a consensus among respondents that the mammoth of freedom attached to private business ownership has promulgated and enhanced casualisation of labour owing to the weak institutional enforcement policies. In essence, globalisation has heralded freedom to perpetuate non-standard employment to maximize profit at the expense of the working people.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents interviewed confirm that employment casualisation practices has been growing proportionately in Nigeria's labour market with an increased trend of globalisation. Similarly, it was avowed that the practices of employment casualisation is more prominent among organisations present in Africa than the Western world where globalisation purportedly emerged from, and Africa has always been the niche to be the bearer of the enormous consequences ensuing from globalisation. For instance, Nigeria has been referred to as the 'throwing ground' where ill-fated features of globalisation could thrive. Similarly, it was explained that globalisation with its hope of improving and sustaining the economies of major African countries has alluded more treacheries with corresponding *indecent* work types, particularly for the case of Nigeria. A clue from the above was narrated by one of the respondents while making comparison in the level of acceptance between Ghana and Nigeria:

*Yes, employment casualisation is spreading because of the management and investors who brought their money to invest in Nigeria because of this globalisation of a thing. In their countries they are not practicing that. It is like they are exporting it to Nigeria so they are bringing it to all companies in Africa. So it is only in Ghana I heard that maybe if you are bringing it in that they tell you we do not allow casuals here so if you do not want to have a permanent staff do not even set up the company so I think theirs is even better. But in Nigeria there is nothing like that... ..so people go behind and do all sorts of things and at the end of the day, they have their way and people suffers (IDI/P1/2017).*

Again, one of the respondents explained that the lack of political will to check the excesses of investors and employers of labour is a strong indicator why casualisation of labour is still prevalent in Nigeria even when other country such as Ghana have built a strong protection against it through various labour legislation. It was gathered that the Nigerian lawmakers are wrestling for the interests of investors by prioritizing the soft-landing of employers in exchange for the general welfare of Nigerian workers. The respondent recount in one of his experience in a Senate committee on labour that the political will to enact sanctions through labour legislation by Nigerian lawmakers have been religiously absent and most times the legislators are blatantly rebuking the efforts of the trade union movement when confronting anti-labour policies of profit-driven employers. In other words, the Nigerian lawmakers' responsibility of ensuring a safety net for the working people is being jeopardized for selfish aggrandizement. Taking a glimpse from this, the inert role of the Nigeria lawmakers is a testament to the continuous spread of employment casualisation in Nigeria as reported by the majority of the respondents. The ensuing response averred by a respondent suitably reflects the above narrative:

*You see the people behind this thing are very powerful. In Nigeria, the political will to deal with employment casualisation is dead. Our lawmakers are not even interested. It is like they enjoyed Nigerian workers going through these sufferings. Let me tell you one of our experiences why I said our lawmakers are not interested in ameliorating the suffering of casual workers and workers in general. During the former president Goodluck Jonathan administration there was a committee of the Senate on casualisation. We were there, the chairman and other committee members told us: look you people in the Beverage sector, your trouble is too much, people are bringing in their money and you are disturbing them with your labour laws that we should go and sit down. These are our own Senators. So how do you now want the foreigners to treat us if we can treat ourselves like this? Let me tell you something, some of these investors do not have any ulterior motives as they come here with clean minds. They tell them no our people don't want this we know how to deal with them. There are so many instances we have seen, that is the truth. Some Managing Directors who are expatriate, you can see the genuity that this*

*person does not have bad intentions. There are even some, the company respects our labour law, but our people usually divert them (IDI/P5/2017).*

Economic factor was equally expounded as impelling the adoption of casual labour by a vast majority of the respondents interviewed. One of the respondents explained how this factor affects the individual job seeker to accept any job without considering its conditions for survival sake, especially where standard jobs are non-existence. To place appropriately, many of the victims of casual labour are those categorised as prolonged job seekers who after several attempts could not secure a befitting job while they passionately opt for the alternative as this often times becomes the most desirable. However, the escalating and fervent economic conditions of the country have equally placed the desperate job seekers to a parlous stance. For instance, the increasing hardship sprawling from biting unemployment rate cannot be distanced to reasons why people choose any strands of jobs just to attain the survival threshold. For emphasis, an immense fraction of respondents explicitly affirmed that it is not possible for people to be idle and not gainfully employed especially those that have family responsibility even if it would mean receiving peanut at the end of the day.

Therefore, accepting an offer of employment for survival without considering its conditions owing to the non-availability of standard jobs is argued as one of the factors promoting employment casualisation. Similarly, for another respondent, it was argued that the declining economic growth in Nigeria has warranted many investors the necessity to cut costs by adopting casual workers for competitive advantage. For instance, it was sighted that the escalating costs of raw material and other costs of maintaining the business would ordinarily prompt employers to adopt a cost cutting strategy in the form of having some segments of the workforce casualised while avoiding the need to be liable to employee's social benefits costs. The extracts from respondents fittingly explain these contentions:

*Well outside globalisation, taking Nigeria as a case study, everybody tends to complain about the economic situation of the country, and in the process of trying to survive, they feel they have no other option than to do such. The option I mean to take up any job just to meet up with certain needs. So with this, there are more or less encouraging the continued growth of employment casualisation at the gains of the employers (IDI/P7/2017).*

*You see, the desire to make more money on the part of the employers and the harsh economic situation of Nigeria are critical factors why casualisation is growing in our sector. You know having come to think of it, the employers are not finding it easy because of the harsh economic situation in Nigeria. So the instinct to survive is there, so they have to look for means to survive and one of this means is through casualisation and contracting staffing. So they embark on it basically to reduce their costs. So it pays them to use one machine then more men and that is why we always have recurrent issues of redundancy. Of course, the employers use of casual workers as a result of the harsh economic is not justified, even we as a trade union understands the harsh economic, so we have always look for a way to assist our employers in terms of their business survival (IDI/P6/2017).*

The contents and composition of Nigeria's labour laws have become so obsolete that provisions contained therein do not dovetail with international best practices. Sadly, major provisions enshrined in Nigeria labour laws does not measure up to the present economic reality where an employer contravening provisions of sections of the law is given a fine option of ₦300 or 3months jail term. Thus, respondents contend that it explicit enough to assume that employers are seen relenting on these loopholes to perpetuate the proliferation of casualisation for self-gains. The lacuna in the Labour law is equally related to the ambiguous roles of the Ministry of Labour and Employment and other department and inspectorate division in ensuring a safe and decent work for the working population. For instance, neglect on the part of the ministry is no doubt encouraging employer's preference for more casual workers. One of the respondents narrates how the moribund and lack of strict adherence to the provisions of the law has wittingly upturn casual employment adoption by most Nigerian employers of labour in the ensuing lines below:

*The increased use of casual labour is about the moribund state of our labour laws. Nobody is following the provisions of the law, even when those that are supposed to ensure strict adherence to the law are not leaving up to expectations. Let me give you an instance, in a factory they are supposed to be factory inspection, that particular department is dead in Nigeria's ministry of labour. That is why someone can lock up workers in Ikorodu, Lagos, Nigeria and they all died. So the department of inspection in the ministry is zero. And when they want to enforce laws, the political-will will not allow them, when you have an Honourable (politician) on the board of a company, that place becomes a no go area because as there are entering, they are putting calls to Abuja and everything is settled. So this alone is a key consideration why the increased usage of casual workers is escalating in Nigeria and here in our industry (IDI/P4/2017).*

The above factors were identified by the majority of the respondents interviewed as factors influencing the upsurge adoption of employment casualisation in the Lagos State Beverage sector and in Nigeria at large. For some, the emergence of globalisation has opened up previously closed borders and restrictions are being lessened. In the absence of strict restrictions, respondents argued that employers of labour transpose the existing traditional standard work arrangement to non-standard work solely for increasing their bottom line margin. Similarly, the majority of the respondents argued for the lack of political will on the part of Nigeria lawmakers in doing the needful for the realization of decent work for all across Nigeria's industrial and services sectors. Other factors identified by respondents are not limited to the antediluvian nature of Nigeria's labour laws and the cruel prevailing economic conditions of the country where job seekers are positioned to accept any job without considering its conditions. While economic factor is not peculiar to the individual worker alone, respondents contend for employer's use of casual workers as a safety net for survival amidst the declining economy.

### **5.9 Coping and responding to employment casualisation through trade union strategies**

Trade union survival strategies are tactics employed by the trade union movement in canvassing for the overall well-being of its constituents and those outside the purview of employment protection and in particular, those concentrated in non-standard work category as applicable to this investigation. It explicitly addresses the utility of trade union programs, policies and reactions to ensuring the working people attain maximum and productive meanings from work. However, the central aim of this theme is to understand how and what strategies are being employed by the trade union of the Lagos State Beverage sector to the mounting challenges of employment casualisation. To neatly address this, respondents were presented with four major trade union strategies reviewed in this study including collective bargaining process, trade union leadership activities, industrial strike/picketing actions and trade union education and (re) training programs.

Overall, the research agenda is to establish a position of how each strand of these strategies have been utilized by the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector to curtail the growth and challenges of casualisation on the working population. To justify the appropriateness of these strategies, respondents were encouraged to provide responses to each component of the identified strategies, especially on how they felt it has well been utilized by the trade union in addressing the dares of casualisation in Nigeria's Beverage sector. The various responses and arguments averred

by majority of the respondents interviewed are captured below:

### ***5.9.1 Reacting to employment casualisation through the collective bargaining process***

Collective bargaining entails the process of negotiation between workers' representatives on the one hand and employer's representatives on the other hand in terms of employment conditions. Most of the issues negotiated between parties in a negotiation relate to economic and social needs including wages, hours and conditions of work, recognition of workers in the workplace and deterrence of any unfair labour practices that can jeopardize the aim of attaining decent work. The vast number of respondents interviewed avowed that although, in principle, any agreement reached during negotiation should be expressly applied to all workers irrespective of their job status since no labour legislation explicitly created a dichotomy between casual and permanent workers. In contrast, it was equally submitted that in reality, it is a different contention entirely as employers of labour perpetually do not categorize or address those in the confines of non-standard work as 'workers'.

Therefore, agreements reached between workers' representatives and employers' representatives from any negotiation are deliberately excluded from casual workers as they are not classified among the cohort of workers by management, and particularly since they do not have anybody representing their interests. For example, one of the respondents commented that the collective bargaining agreement is solely for those employees who have representatives to bargain on their behalf and not casual workers who are just in the hang without representation. While probing further, it was posed that since there is no clear definition of casual work in Nigeria's labour legislation, and the definition of a 'worker' has contained in Section 54 of the Nigeria Trade Union Act 2005 as amended explicitly captures all strand of workers either permanent or contract. As a result, any collective bargaining agreement reached between parties in employment relations should equally be engrossed on all workers whether permanent or casual.

Similarly, although, a somewhat vast number of the respondents attest that in as much as casual workers are not the direct beneficiary of the collective agreement reached between parties, they nevertheless enjoy fair benefit as some employers in the Beverage industry extract from whatever was agreed in a negotiation to improve casual workers' conditions of service. However, one of the respondents equally professed and debunks the insinuation that what qualifies someone as a worker is not entirely enshrined in Section 54 of the Trade Union Act of 2005. For instance, it was avowed

by the respondent that a more befitting claim is a proof of employment letter which casual workers are not entitled. Thus, the claim that both casual workers and permanent workers should enjoy similar collective agreement benefits remains contentious. The preceding arguments are aptly justified in the claims that:

*See, collective bargaining will help casual workers if they are able to be represented. The whole essence of entering into a collective bargaining agreement is that you are able to represent. So how do you have a collective bargaining agreement (CBA) on their behalf? So it has not helped them in any way, I mean casual workers. The only time it can help them is by resisting an employer from using casual labour. So it is only when they have a framework and come under the union by having representation that collective bargaining agreement can be applied to them. So we do not give CBA to people who are not been represented (IDI/P6/2017).*

From the perspective of another respondent, the following were chronicled:

*Casual workers do not benefit from collective bargaining directly, but organisations can use whatever was agree on to improve their own conditions of services as well, but directly they have nothing to benefit because negotiations are for permanent and not for casual workers. Fine, you argued that there is no place in our labour legislation where casualisation is explicitly defined; rather the definition has been 'workers' in general. However, I will remind you that what qualifies someone as a worker is the letter of employment and casual workers do not have a formal letter of employment and majority of the outsourced workers too do not have a formal letter of employment and in their employment letter, it has shown that their period of employment is temporary, so am sure the labour law will not recognize somebody that has a contract of two months as a worker. So it is only when you have a letter of employment that you can claim you are a worker even if you take your employer to court, you need to present your letter of employment and this is the meaning of casual workers. People will just be gathered, you are going to work in so so location and we are going to pay so so amount and after the expiration, you do not have any letter to show that you are a worker. So the labour law is very straight, the rules are for workers and the only evidence to show you are a worker is a letter of employment. So how do we explain extending collective bargaining agreement to people who are not classified as workers in the first place? It is difficult and not possible I must tell (IDI/P7/2017).*

### **5.9.2 The role, influence and activities of trade union leadership**

The trade union leadership unarguably represents the mouth piece of the working people. They represent the interest of the working people by garnering influence towards ensuring a sustained, decent and reasonable work for all. In other words, they exert influence through various activities by engaging management on issues of employment conditions and general well-being. For

instance, the entire working population cannot be represented in a dialogue with management but rather be represented by the leadership of the union at a particular point in time. In fact, many of the awards of minimum wage increase in Nigeria were avidly championed by the leadership of the trade union. Again, many of the exertions of the trade union leadership during the despotic military rule in Nigeria still remains indubitably unmarred; although, this does not foreclose many of the tenuous attributes displayed towards safeguarding and guaranteeing a meaningful work for all in recent times. Recently, the large chunk of trade union leadership roles towards its constituent have become blurred as many of such roles have been diverted for self-aggrandizement, especially those unconnected to the pursuit of personal aspirations among the leadership of the central labour bodies.

To uncover and understand how the trade union leadership have been responding to the pursuit and wrestle for befitting conditions of work for workers in the non-standard employment category, a vast majority of the respondents posits that several of the trade union efforts in seeing to organizing casual workers have met with consistent bottlenecks and are becoming more difficult for the labour body especially as they are not being represented where their concerns can be fittingly channeled and addressed. Yet, in the contrary, an overwhelming majority of respondents established that the roles of trade union leadership in itself have not been vociferous enough, as many of their roles and efforts are religiously taunted with insincerity. One of the respondents alleged the following:

*See there is nobody fighting for them so they belong to nobody there are just there on their own. It has been very difficult helping these sets of workers. It has been very difficult to be sincere. We have had lots of meetings to organize these people, it has become so difficult because anytime you look into organizing them, the next thing they sack them and employ new people.....so if you are not there, you won't be talking about the union. So this even made them be scared not to even want to join the union. You know when you are not a member of the association, there is nothing we can do. It is only when you have decided to join the union that you can be helped. Also, the type of trade union leaders we have these days cannot be trusted because only a few are strong and have sympathy for the working people. So if you bring issues, they go behind and do another thing and you won't get a result and that will be the end of the show. So we have some union leaders that cannot be trusted. The role of trade union leaders is going backward. See the NLC (Nigeria Labour Congress) for instance with two factions and now the union does not have one voice, so the role of trade union leaders in helping the workers is diminishing, in fact, it has diminished (IDI/P1/2017).*

Similarly, it was acknowledged by other respondents that the meager compensation/pay that casual workers receive could have been a major factor disheartening trade union leaders to enthusiastically channel necessary efforts towards organizing them. For instance, it is unrealistic that casual workers who earn skimpy amount will be willing to pay a fixed percentage as check off dues even when eventually organized along trade union lines. However, the bane for the trade union is the possibility to cover the interests of workers who apparently are not contributing to its financial strength. If this is clear, yet other respondents reiterated that the leadership of the trade union have not been keenly interested in organizing casual workers into trade union structures. This is sufficed to contend that trade union activities have been consciously programmed to exclude other segments of the working people who are wittingly exempted from their fundamental rights of association owing to the inclinations of employers of labour. A clear case of this scenario was reported by one of the principal officers of FOBTOB:

*I must be frank with you; the trade union leaders have not really been showing concern. Those we are concerned about are the full-time staff. Also, maybe the trade union leaders have not really seen the need because somebody that is collecting ₦20,000<sup>64</sup> as a monthly payment for instance and you want to deduct 3 percent of his pay for trade union check-off dues, how do you factor this out? He will say the money is not enough and you still want to remove union dues. So in order not to have so much crisis with them, so that is why they are left like that. But I think based on what you are saying now, the trade union leaders should see to cover their interest irrespective. But if we want to cover their interest, they also must be ready to be part of the union. But sincerely, the leadership of the union has done very little in organizing casual workers (IDI/P3/2017).*

An extract was taken from the above in regard to the tepid attitude and concerns of trade union leaders of the Beverage sector to ensure casual workers of the sector have an improved working life. However, most of the respondents interviewed were further interrogated to ascertain if this trend is familiar with other sectors of the Nigeria economy where casual workers are left to religiously go through debilitating work experience without appropriate efforts being put in place by the leaders of the union. Fascinatingly, one of the respondents acknowledges that there is a disparity between the activities and efforts of trade union leaders of the Beverage sector and the Oil and Gas sector as a case example. It was reported that unlike the Beverage sector, the Nigeria Oil and Gas sector have achieved the great feat in organizing casual workers into the mainstream

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<sup>64</sup> ₦20,000 Nigeria naira as at the time of this study is approximately 57 US dollar

of trade union. In other words, evidence abounds that the trade union leaders of the Beverage sector have done little or nothing to seeing to the plight of casual workers as the case may be. The fuller response is captured in the lines below:

*Well in our industry, the leadership of the trade union has not been able to record any success stories as we have not been able to organize any casual workers because it has not been so easy for us here. But union like the National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG), there are doing fine. They have 80 percent of their workers as casual and outsourced, yet these people are part of the union. But in our own industry it has become difficult, so we do not have any success story for now (IDI/P7/2017).*

### **5.9.3 Reacting through industrial strike/picketing strategy to employment casualisation**

The discipline of employment relations is closely knitted with industrial strike/protest actions especially when all other means of reaching agreements between parties proved unsuccessful. Several of the trade union demands in an employment relationship are attained with intense strike actions and protest unarguably the most fervent weapon at the disposal of the trade union to changing previously undesirable employment conditions. With the knowledge that the growing influence of employment casualisation across Nigeria's industrial sectors and the Beverage sector, in particular, has eroded trade union membership and deter potential membership, it is indisputable to assume that the trade union industrial strike strategy will be astutely positioned and applied to ensure a sustained trade union workforce devoid of consistent membership lost. Similarly, while it is important that the trade union movement uphold a growing membership structure capable of guaranteeing robust trade union strength, it is equally imperative that casual workers benefit from trade union industrial protests and picketing exertions geared towards improving their work conditions.

Taking a glimpse from the above, the concerns of this theme is to explore and gain a deeper knowledge of how trade union industrial strike and protest actions have helped improve casual workers' conditions of work in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Majority of the trade union official interviewed admit that the efforts of the central labour body in ensuring workers in the non-standard work arrangement enjoy befitting work conditions across the board are yet to yield positive outcomes. Particularly they avowed that the trade union movement needs to invest more on its strike and picketing strategy; otherwise the incessant utilization of casual workers in Nigeria

industrial and services sector will someday erode the relevance of trade unionism in Nigeria. However, the recent picketing and protest exercise embarked upon by the central labour movement has been described as politically motivated to score cheap political points on the part of the central labour leaders. In fact, one of the respondents particularly narrates that several of the picketing exercises by the NLC are all reflection of politics and not in the best interests of the Nigerian workers. According to him/her:

*Let me tell you, those days the NLC will come and lock up the companies maybe after some time few people will be migrated from casual to permanent staff and others will still be there. But the situation has not been the same, so it has not helped. So all the picketing by the NLC has not yielded any fruits. So in terms of quantifying the success rate, I will say 10 percent so it has not really benefited the casual workers. They don't even have the right to strike if they are even planning it just a matter of informing the security to lock the gate and not allow these people to come in....and they have lost their jobs that day they go and employ new people because there are lots of people looking for a job waiting outside. So if I want to give a clue of the effect of the strike on casualisation to the extent of how it has helped, I will say it has not because if it has in the real sense casualisation will not be rampant as we have it today. Finally, I will say all these protests and the rests are juts politics. They are playing politics with Nigerian workers I must tell you (IDI/P4/2017).*

It was further unearthed that record has it that the NLC has attained some success stories in the past with intense strike and picketing activities where casual workers were converted in large numbers to permanent work status. Interestingly, one of the respondents admitted this and narrates how the NLC strike and picketing strategy has worked in one of the companies of the Beverage sector he currently works where the majority of casual labourers with intense picketing and protest actions were converted to permanent staff. Fast forward to this present epoch, he professed that no meaningful efforts seem to have ensued afterward as the rate of casual labourers is increasing in an unprecedented proportion with strenuous work conditions. Therefore, it is intellectually correct to allude that the potency of the trade union strike action is declining, especially as the Trade Union Act of 2005 has recently proscribed industrial strike action as illegal in Nigeria. The following lines are detailed by one of the respondents on the utility of trade union strike and protests actions to employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector:

*The event of the NLC picketing you mentioned happens sometimes in 2002 when the NLC actually came out it worked then because I have an instance. For illustration, in my own place of work, most of the casual workers then were staffed,*

*but since then what has happened? There has not been any other push. You know, so the labour union in Nigeria needs to do more, the labour center we have in Nigeria both the NLC and TUC needs to do more with serious picketing and protests. The above achievement I mentioned happens during the era of Comrade Adams Oshiomole as the president of the NLC then, but since then what has happened? The event has overtaken it and we are back to where we actually started from. More casuals have been employed than ever before and no deliberate efforts on the part of the labour centers to actually fight this casualisation with their strike and protests weapons. So that is the problem. So the strike strategy is not helping matters at all. So the lack of willpower on the part of the labour leaders to take up this challenge is another thing (IDI/P8/2017).*

#### **5.9.4 Probing the importance of trade union education and (re)training programs**

Central to this theme is the need to unravel the significance of trade union education and (re) training programs in raising the consciousness of the trade union movement to challenge several anti-labour policies of the Beverage sector. Essentially, trade union education and (re) training programs possess important attributes that could increase the clout of trade union bargaining skills and other workplace knowledge. It is a fundamental and sacrosanct factor required to uphold trade union power. For instance, the more exposure to useful education and training tips, the more empowered the various constituent of the union becomes in positioning its self for gainful agitations with the owners of production. Consequently, a well-structured and articulated trade union education and (re)training policy would not only rouse workers' consciousness but equally niche them with the required skills and competence needed to triumph over many of the workplace challenges. In proffering responses to this salient theme, the majority of the respondents interviewed assert and endorse that the Nigerian Beverage sector has a well-planned culture of education and (re)training programs where members have gained knowledge on issues not only confined to employment and labour relations, but those that neatly connects with other work place issues.

Particularly, respondents acknowledge that education and continuous training programs of the sector have indeed improved their skills and understanding to surmount both present and future workplace struggle. Precisely, one of the respondents submits that the continuous education and training programs routinely organized by the trade union movement of the Nigeria Beverage sector have greatly sharpened and enhanced his organizing skills, especially in the area of organizing workers in the non-standard employment category. To add, he confirmed that the Beverage sector

specifically has a budget set aside for the education and training of its members so they could be updated with trends and best practices in the global labour movement. As the interviewee claims:

*Generally, I know we normally set up 10% for our training and education yearly. You see we always argued that the struggle continues. The struggle has not ended because we are catching up with management as a result of advances in the training and education of our members. I was in a training this year and it was very useful. The training has to do with organizing because these days, organizing is not easy. Unlike those days when you hear of union and people are readily interested to associate. So there was a lot of eye-opener in the training I went for and the skills I acquired has become useful for me in my organizing efforts and how to penetrate and address some of the issues you have been raising (IDI/P4/2017).*

In reaffirming the commitment of Trade union movement of the Nigerian Beverage sector to education and (re) training programs, another respondent reiterates that the need to educate and train workers to brace up against workplace challenges spans across both the male and female gender. He remarks that apart from the yearly international exposures, selected female trade union members are consistently sent for local training in the Pa Micheal Imodu Institute of Labour Studies, Nigeria to ensure gender equality and in particular to build a collective labour movement capable of sanitizing the workplace free of unfair and dehumanizing labour practices.

*You see the union is not joking with training at all. Just last week, we sent about 13 ladies to Kwara State for training so we can give them the required skills to be able to handle issues. Especially this trend of casualisation is a major threat to us, so we are also deploying our members for training on how to fight back by being able to organized casual worker. Also not forgetting that even with the knowledge and trainings it is still somewhat difficult to convert casual workers to permanent. But with time, we would be able to achieve our aim as a union even though we are still behind now (IDI/P7/2017).*

#### **5.10 An account of trade union survival strategies: grilling evidence for effectiveness**

Trade union survival strategies are intended plans and actions set out by the labour movement in challenging an existing *status quo*. Basically, these strategies are structured towards ensuring workers have a better and increased sense of work life. Several of the trade union strategies have really not engender the envisioned results as workers are becoming more dehumanized in this epoch of increase job flexibility. Globally, the mammoth of workers in the non-standard work category is becoming helpless and defenseless. In Nigeria for instance, there has been clear neglect by the central labour bodies to ensure these sets of workers enjoy protection through appropriate

application and utility of trade union programs and policies. Again, it is not strange to see trade union leaders avowing that casual workers explicitly do not fall within their constituents and as such they have limited clout to ensure there are organized and enjoy unabated protections.

In hindsight, many of Nigeria's labour legislation in principle does not make provisions for casual workers neither do they recognize the casual labour nomenclature as seen perpetrated by employers of labour. In fact, the definition of a worker in section 54 of the Nigeria Trade Union Act 2005 as amended explicitly captures all strand of the working people whether contract or permanent without further dichotomy. Clearly, the trade union movement has a remit of committing herself to address the various challenges plaguing the non-standard workers. Regrettably, the most vociferous of the strategies explored in this study were found not effective to addressing the menace of employment casualisation. Specifically, one of the respondents interviewed narrates that the trade union body has not properly channeled its strategy towards ameliorating the plight of casual labours. For instance, rather for the effectiveness of these strategies to be evident on the work conditions of casual workers, the reverse has been the case with increased work conditions characterized with the highest level of human slavery possible.

Similarly, it was processed by another respondent that trade union strategies have failed beyond expectations in addressing the issue of casualisation in both the Beverage sector and in Nigeria's labour market at large due to failed institutional frameworks saddled with the remit of monitoring employment and labour markets activities in Nigeria. As a case example, the moribund nature of Nigeria's labour laws has cramped the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies by proscribing trade union strike action as illegal among other factors. Their submissions clearly reflect the above descriptions:

*See, if all these strategies are put together in the right way, it should have brought about improvement, but it has not been working. To be sincere it has not been working and casual workers are suffering. It is like they are in a second phase of slavery in their country because these people who brought in money do not really care, they are after their money and anything outside their profit they don't take it serious. So the trade union strategies have failed. It's a failed strategy. The trade union people that are supposed to protect the casual workers are not applying these strategies effectively enough. Because I cannot really point to any of these strategies that have been useful to casual workers. It is the NLC that are supposed to take this fight because anybody that is a worker belong to the NLC, but it has not really helped because even the NLC currently have a divided house, so when there is a divided house nothing good can come from there, so they have not been able to*

*organize their selves to fight for the workers (IDI/P1/2017).*

*I will conclude on this by saying these strategies have not been effective because everything connects to our labour laws and ineptitude of Nigeria's ministry of labour. For instance, how can we say strike can be effective when the law has proscribed the need for a strike as illegal? Also, how can we say there are effective when the strength of our members that are supposed to make these strategies effective are reducing, when in fact the Nigeria labour law has made the trade union association voluntary. So for us to conclude if these things are effective or not, we must look at the situation of our labour laws (IDI/P5/2017).*

### **5.11 An Exposition of factors cramping the efficacy of trade union survival strategies**

Having identified the feeble utility of trade union survival strategies in addressing the concerns of casualisation from the above submissions, this theme seeks to enquire potential factors plaguing the effectiveness of trade union strategies to appropriately position for representing the interests and improving the work conditions of casual workers. Several factors ranging from political, economic, incoherent labour legislation, corruption, rivalry and leadership tussle among rank-and-file trade union leaders are expressly narrated as factors affecting effective trade union struggle. However, in the course of this study, it was revealed that the Federal Government of Nigeria is the chief promoter of casualisation by issuing outsourcing license to organisations without adequate follow up to ensure rules and regulations spelled out in their conditions are followed to the latter. Again, several of government policies relating to labour in Nigeria posits threat for the sustenance of trade union strategies, a case in point is the proscription of strike as illegal and trade union membership being voluntary in Section 31(6) and Section 12(4) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended respectively.

To be sure, strike being the most effective strategy of the trade union has become clearly feeble. Furthermore, aside from the puzzle of unfriendly Government policies, several of the snags limiting the effectiveness of trade union strategies are not unconnected to unpatriotic dispositions from trade union leaders as many have now deviated from the remit of addressing workers concerns to the pursuit of personal interests. For instance, the goal and pursuit of personal gains have recently split one of the central labour body into factions while the strength and power of the union is gradually deteriorating. To put in perspective, many of Nigeria's trade union leaders are not agitating for the interests of the working people as it were as self-aggrandizement has become the order of the day in the everyday dealings of the trade union movement. Recounting the

unwholesomeness attitude and neglect of the Nigeria Government, one of the respondents interviewed narrates how Government has religiously made organizing casual workers a stressful adventure for the labour union:

*To me, the only factor is the political factor because the only thing that will make these strategies to be effective is when Government makes it very clear that if you want to outsource staff to any beverage sector company, they must belong to a union even before they give them their recruiting license. There is something they call recruiters license, if they make it compulsory say okay before we give you this recruiter license you agreed to this terms that people must belong to an association without that we are not going to issue the license, except the government does this, anything outside of that, it will not work (IDI/P4/2017).*

To reaffirm the enigma of governmental policy and implementation, another respondent reported that the lack of supervision on the part of the government in checking the activities of outsourcing companies would continue to reflect as a major factor constraining the efficacy of trade union strategies in their efforts to achieving decent work for all. The respondents reported below:

*You see, the factor for me, I will look at it from the angle of government. The government needs to do more in terms of their supervision and the policy structure has to be re-defined to actually give an enabling environment for labour to actually operate. For instance, we are talking about casualisation and the Government is the one giving out license coupled with the absence of effective supervision. So the government has not been helpful so far. There is no policy that has rebuked casualisation as far as I am concerned. So, how then do you want all of these strategies to be effective? (IDI/P3/2017).*

In addition to the above opinions, for many of the respondents interviewed, it was narrated that the trade union movement needs to put its house in order by displaying a high sense of patriotism and do away with rivalry activities capable of waning the struggle of achieving decent work agenda. Working towards collective gains of the working people should be the most imperative venture occupying the focus of the union house rather than the pursuit of individual gains. The trade union movement has been divided in recent time than ever because of the juicy roles been offered government while substituting the responsibility of protecting member's interests for self-ambition. Specifically, an overwhelming majority of respondents interviewed submits that one crucial factor inhibiting the efficacy of trade union strategy towards curtailing employment casualisation is not distanced from the union itself. The explanation below explains the opinion of one of the respondent:

*Am sorry to say, in Nigeria now we really do not have unions that have a passion for trade unionism, people just want to be there and make a name, am so so in that union and their position to open any door they want to open. They are not going there to discuss issues of workers, so it is a sad story like I said. So the factor constraining the effectiveness of trade union strategies is a problem within the union and it is unfortunate we do not have people that have that enthusiastic trait. Today, when the unions go for meeting with the government officials, they come back with a divided house. You have the union person and the government person. Also, you see union go for delegate conference and they come back with different factions. We just have delegate conference and two months down the line now the Federal Government has taken over the union because we have two factions. So it has been a fight all for selfish desires. So how can we achieve cohesion in this struggle if we are so divided (IDI/P5/2017).*

Similar but nuance sentiments were expressed by other respondents. For instance, the snag of corruption among rank and file trade union members have long been identified as a major factor restraining effective trade union activities for the overall interest of the working people. In this context, corruption is not restricted to the embezzlement of trade union commonwealth which has over the years restrain how far the trade union movement can go in ensuring the working people have a befitting sense of work life but has also extended to issues of electoral frauds while seeking to elect trade union executives. A clear case of this claim was manifested in the last NLC executive's elections conducted in March 2015 which were highly marred with electoral fraud and inconsistencies. This similar narrative was shared by one of the top executives of the FOBTOB below:

*For me, trade union strategies have long been affected by several factors. But you see, one common factor I see is the issue of rivalry and corruption among our union. You can take it or leave it, the question of rivalry is now more common among trade unions as now observe that most people do not even go for elections because there is a way they do their arrangement and just come up with a consensus candidate. In most unions, you cannot rule out corruption. As you are aware that corruption is prevalent in our country at this time than ever, so also is the experience in our union and the central labour unions in particular. So if this is the case, how do we expect trade union leaders to be serious about what they were elected to do? It is just so sad I must tell you (IDI/P4/2017).*

The above responses aptly capture many of the problems fettering the labour union to chart a path towards achieving decent work agenda as promulgated the ILO. Expectedly, one of the major snags highlighted by the majority of the respondents is the ineptitude and insincerity of Nigeria's Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment in ensuring the practices of employment casualisation are adequately checked and controlled. While it is unavoidable to accept the fact that outsourcing and contract employment have come to stay as a result of the increase penetrations of globalisation across countries, yet the government through its various labour ministries should bear the remit of ensuring best practices are achieved. Again, a spotlight was placed on the issue of patriotism where the majority of the respondents avowed the jettison of trade unions leaders' responsibilities of protecting the working people for self-acclaimed goals. Other concerns raised by respondents neatly address the bane of corruption not peculiar to the trade union movement, but corroborate with the highhandedness in the management of the Nation's commonwealth. In specific, respondents contend for the case of the Nigeria trade union movement where the incidence of corruption has cramped trade union struggle for realizing the goal of safe and conducive work for the working population.

#### **5.12 Comparison of research findings from the quantitative and qualitative data**

Recall that this study robustly adopts the convergent parallel/convergent mixed research methods where the emphasis is strictly on collecting both numerical and non-numerical data separately and merging both data set to comprehend the trend of convergence or divergence of research findings. Table 5.16 depicts the separate findings of the quantitative and qualitative data with their corresponding union showing how they either converge or diverge.

**Table 5.16 Comparison of the quantitative and qualitative research findings in line with convergent parallel/ concurrent mixed research methods**

	<b>Research questions</b>	<b>Quantitative results</b>	<b>Qualitative results</b>	<b>Decision on convergent/divergent of research findings</b>
1	What are the patterns in the growth of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector?	The large fraction of respondents indicated that outsource and contract employment are the two dominant types of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector with supportive evidence of 67.6 and 65.3 percent of the respondents upholding this claim respectively. Although, a significant number of 45.7 percent make a case for the presence of part-time work, yet the overwhelming frequency distribution support that outsources and contract employment are the two most utilized strands of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector	Two variant patterns of employment casualisation were uncovered; outsource employment and contract work among workers of the Nigeria Beverage sector. While it was revealed that outsource employment is profoundly utilized than contract employment where the former possess more strenuous conditions of work than the latter, yet qualitative findings revealed that the nomenclature is inconsequential as the aim is to improve employers bottom line margin	Results from the quantitative and qualitative findings show the convergence of research findings. Outsource employment and contract work were identified from both the quantitative data and qualitative data as the two most prominent patterns of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector
2	What are the challenges of employment casualisation on workers and trade union of Nigeria Beverage sector?	Major challenges identified through the survey are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Casual workers work for many years without the hope of conversion to permanent status</li> <li>• They work under unsafe working conditions</li> <li>• They are dismissed unfairly by employers without notice</li> <li>• They do not enjoy workplace benefits such as pension and other fringe benefits</li> <li>• Workers are mainly denied exercising their fundamental human right of association</li> <li>• They have a poor remuneration package not commensurate to their work input</li> </ul>	The chief challenges of employment casualisation on the individual worker uncovered through semi-structured interview are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of good working conditions</li> <li>• Work in a dangerous setting without appropriate benefits</li> <li>• Denial of the fundamental right to join or form a trade union association</li> <li>• No social benefits such as pension and gratuity and other fringe benefits such as medical allowance</li> <li>• No compensation for an industrial injury sustained such as amputation of leg or hand</li> </ul>	In terms of the challenges of employment casualisation, there is a high level of convergence between the quantitative and qualitative findings. Issues raised as challenges of employment casualisation in the survey neatly identifies with those highlighted in the interview responses. While the issues identified in the quantitative findings were categorised on a measuring scale, respondents express the qualitative responses through semi-structured interview respectively.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No access to human capacity development while on the job</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>They are laid off at employers will without notification</li> </ul> <p>Challenges for the trade union movement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Loss of membership and potential members of the trade union</li> <li>Gradual extinction of trade union in as much as employment casualisation continues to strive</li> </ul>	
3	How do trade union react to the increasing challenges of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector?	<p>Four dissimilar trade union reactions/strategies were identified as plausible contender of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Collective bargaining strategy by enmeshing casual workers in the collective bargaining agreement reached between trade unions and the employers of the Nigeria Beverage sector</li> <li>Intense and robust activities of trade union leadership in ensuring casual workers relish an appropriate sense of work life</li> <li>Consistent and effectual declarations of industrial strike/protests/picketing of organisations</li> <li>Organizing prompt capacity human development and (re) training programs for trade union members</li> </ul>	<p>Interview with respondents revealed the following trade union reactions to the increasing problem of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reacting through inclusion of casual workers in the National industrial collective bargaining agreement</li> <li>Consistent and intense activities of trade union leaders</li> <li>Industrial strike and picketing options</li> <li>Trade union education and (re) training programs to acquaint union members with global trends in employment relations practices</li> </ul>	<p>For trade union reactions to the upsurge of employment casualisation, four different strategies including collective bargaining strategy, trade union leadership activities, industrial strike/picketing and education and (re) training programs strategy were identified with the quantitative measuring scale on the one hand. On the other hand, the qualitative findings suitably converge with the quantitative findings by also exuding same trade union strategies as appropriates measures to address the increase growth of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector</p>
4	What is the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in ameliorating the effect of employment casualisation on workers of the Nigeria Beverage sector?	<p>Findings from the test of hypotheses reveal the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Collective bargaining strategy is not significantly related to</li> </ul>	<p>Findings from the semi-structured interview with respect to the efficacy of trade union strategies to employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector reveals the following:</p>	<p>Collective bargaining strategy and industrial strike strategy correspondingly synchronizes as non-effective strategies to employment casualisation in both the quantitative and qualitative</p>

	<p>employment casualisation. Thus, this strategy is not effective in abating the prevalence and effect of casualisation by including casual workers in the industry wide collective agreement of the Nigeria Beverage sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The result from the test of hypothesis reveals that activities of the trade union leadership were significantly related to employment casualisation. This result explains the effectiveness of trade union activities to improving the conditions of workers in the non-standard work arrangement of the Nigeria Beverage sector</li> <li>• Industrial strike/protest/picketing strategy does not establish a significant relationship with employment casualisation. This outcome unearths the ineffectiveness of industrial strike/picketing strategy as a strategy for curbing the incessant growth of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector</li> <li>• The relationship between trade union education and (re) training programmes was found significant. This explains its effectiveness to the plausible dwindling of employment casualisation upsurge in the Nigeria Beverage sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The strategy of collective bargaining was not as effective as a yardstick for improving the horrendous work conditions of casual workers because of their inability to associate. Findings show that it is only when they are organized and come under-representation that their interests can be appropriately covered through the collective bargaining process</li> <li>• Activities of the trade union leaders in ensuring casual workers are organized into trade union structures supposedly have met with consistent bottlenecks, especially as many of the exertions of trade union leaders were report to have been diverted for self-fulfillment</li> <li>• In contrary, industrial strike/protests/picketing has not been effectively channeled and utilized as a strategy for addressing the plague of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector. In particular, qualitative findings indicate that many of the recent picketings by the labour unions are characterized by cheap political scores</li> <li>• Education and (re) training programmes of trade unions exude a robust influence on the plague of employment casualisation.</li> </ul> <p>Qualitative findings garner that the continuous education and training</p>	<p>findings. While there are a convergence in trade union education and (re) training programs as an effective strategy in both the quantitative and qualitative results, trade union leadership activities, however, depict divergence of results. For instance, quantitative results uncover trade union leadership activities as effective strategies to employment casualisation while qualitative finding explains a contrary.</p>
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5	<p>In what ways are trade union strategies constrained by a constellation of factors in minimizing the effect of employment casualisation on workers of the Nigeria Beverage sector?</p>	No data available	<p>Findings reveal the following as factors constraining the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in the Nigeria Beverage sector:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of political will on the part of the government to monitor and regulate the activities of outsourcing firms after issuing them recruiters license</li> <li>• The constraints of economic recession</li> <li>• Lack of trade union leader's patriotism to effectively niche a platform where casual workers can enjoy befitting work life and protections</li> <li>• The factors of rivalry and corruption among rank and file trade union leaders in addition to the Nigeria law maker's divisive tactics of trade union strategies to effectively be niched for reducing the effect of casualisation on workers</li> <li>• The primordial and ambiguous contents of Nigeria's labour law is a clear case of emphasis. For instance, the proscription of industrial strike in Section 31(6) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended is a great poser to effective trade union strategies. Findings also exude that there is no strict adherence to provisions contained therein as employers</li> </ul>	<p>This question could only be unraveled qualitatively. For instance, itemizing factors on the quantitative measuring scale could limit the possibility of unearthing hidden factors that can only be explored qualitatively.</p>

			are always floating the conditions for self-gains.	
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### **5.13 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data was presented. For each strand of data, appropriate data analysis technique was employed to suitably answer the research questions. While the strategy of collective bargaining process and industrial strike actions were found not effective for surmounting the effect of the unceasing growth of employment casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector, activities of trade union leaders and education and (re) training programs of trade union members were chronicled as effective reactionary strategies to decreasing the tide of employment casualisation. Interestingly, the chapter concludes that the proscription of casual workers from National Bargaining Agreement benefits and the labour union non-utilization of industrial strike strategy is a clear case of contravention of existing labour laws. However, the above revelations do not occur by coincidence, since many of the collective bargaining agreement in Nigeria foreclose the benefits of temporary workers even when this clearly contravenes section 54 of the Nigeria Trade Union Act 2005 as amended. The chapter, also exudes some interesting findings concerning factors hampering the effectiveness of trade union in the wrestle against decent workplace for all. Amongst the constraints revealed include the dwindling economic growth of Nigeria; corruption and indistinct contents of Nigeria labour laws, unpatriotic and divisive labour union and lack of political strong-will on the part of the Nigerian labour union movement.

In addition, the interdiction of strikes as illegal in section 31(6) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended has not upturn the many struggles of trade unions in its efforts to achieve decent work in Nigeria. Notwithstanding this account, the trade union movement itself has been incapacitated by several factors for effective functions. For the qualitative data, content analysis was adopted to extract themes from the interview scripts that fittingly address the qualitative research questions. Thus, similar findings were uncovered such that converge with the quantitative findings. To achieve the goal of mixed methods in this study, quantitative and qualitative findings were compared to ascertain the level of convergence and divergence of results. Results emanating from the two strands of data immensely converged and were positioned to answer the stated research questions respectively. This development no doubt provides a far broader understanding of the problem than the utility of a single method. The next chapter captures the discussion on major findings of the study.

## CHAPTER SIX

### INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 6.1 Introduction

The growth of employment casualisation at various levels of the Nigerian labour market calls for a robust control and moderations by the government at all levels, in particular, the Ministry of Labour and Employment, and all other labour institutions. In the Nigeria Beverage sector, where this study is situated, findings reveal that the trade union movement has not invested much of its efforts in ensuring that the scourge of employment casualisation is abated. This feebleness on the part of the labour union has further exacerbated the conditions and working experience of workers in the non-standard arrangement with little or no attention given to their horrendous work life. Therefore, many of the well-known efforts of the Nigerian central labour body has been marred with consistent inconsistencies with little or no ensuing effect.

Placing the above assertion on a continental context, at the root of this discussion is the reality that the potency of labour movement in Africa has been lessened to a greater extent by issues limiting many of its responsibilities and functions of protecting the interests of the working people. Two of the most discernable issues within the African labour movement space is the concern of political assaults and economic instability (Anyim, Ikemefuna and Shadare, 2011; Adewumi, 2007). For instance, the political radicalism of major African countries has remained a poser for attaining viable trade union functions, particularly as trade unions are always conceived as anti-government organisations. Likewise, the acceptance of neo-liberal economic policies by major African countries with increased job loss and proliferation of non-standard work by Asian investors, perhaps posit more threats to trade union efforts.

Above all, the concern for the labour body is to be able to create a niche wherein the working people can enjoy some level of complacency from work. Therefore, it is interesting to know if the trade union reactionary strategies have been neatly positioned to achieve these feats, especially as employment casualisation has continued to linger unceasingly in crucial sectors of the Nigerian economy. In so doing, this thesis interrogates and discusses the efficacy of trade union survival strategies to the rising prominence of employment casualisation with a focus on the Lagos State Beverage sector. This chapter presents an explicit discussion based

on the findings presented in the preceding chapter in order to address the research problem enumerated. Consequently, the discussion of findings is well positioned and arranged to either corroborate or refute similar or related research findings. While the discussion of findings is organized in line with the research objectives, the necessity is to enable us to determine whether such findings neatly addressed the research objectives set out in the study. Again, it is imperative to highlight that discussion of findings is not entirely burdened on the output from the quantitative findings as qualitative results also provide major insights into understanding the research problem. In doing this, the chapter assesses and merge data from the quantitative and qualitative findings (convergent parallel/concurrent mixed research methods) by extrapolating and connecting both to discuss major findings in the study.

## **6.2 Patterns and growth of employment casualisation**

Outsource and contract employment was revealed as the two prominent and growing patterns of casualisation in the Lagos State Beverage sector. This result expressly provides an empirical answer to research question one and research objective one is correspondingly achieved. Consequently, findings show that while 67.6 percent (see Table 5.4) of the entire study population indicates that outsource employment remains the most utilized strand of employment casualisation, 65.3 percent gave similar evidence for contract employment. Yet, results equally indicate a somewhat nuance in the conditions attached to these two identified work patterns with evidence from Table 5.4 shows that outsources employment comes with more debilitating work conditions than contract employment. For instance, outsource workers are recruited externally from an outsourcing firm, and are not categorised or considered as employees of the secondary organisation they render service, while contract employees are directly hired by the organisation.

Expectedly, the dichotomy between these work patterns clearly envisioned what lies before casual workers in terms of work conditions. With respect to convergence of research findings, the qualitative data also shows that outsource and contract employment are the two dominant patterns of casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector as revealed by P1, P3, P5 and P9 respectively. In affirming the quantitative findings, the majority of the trade union officials interviewed make a case that outsources workers are only entitled to wage excluding workplace benefits such as pension, medical allowances and other gratuities. Findings also

revealed that contract workers enjoy some organisational benefits, but are not pensionable and are engaged directly by the organisation to take up immediate job positions while search are underway to identify a more suitable individual to fill such position.

Reflecting from the above findings, it is not out of place to construe that many of the distinction in terms of employment benefits, work duration, denial of association and other workplace allowances between outsourcing and contract workers in Nigeria, does not dovetail with the practice of non-standard work arrangements in other climes. Perhaps, this deviation can be inferred from the ambiguous contents of Nigeria's labour law, where for instance casual and contract work employment are not expressly legislated. Using Ghana as a case scenario, for instance, section 75 of Ghana Labour Act of 2003 only recognise casual workers as a non-standard employment arrangement with specific terms and benefits of employment.

However, for the Nigeria case, outsource and contract employees are not only products of employer's penchants but are clear contradictions to conventional practices of non-standard work. Similarly, a quick analysis of trends and patterns of employment casualisation in other developing countries like Zambia and Zimbabwe signpost a piece of contrasting evidence. For instance, in this countries, contract workers are the only recognised non-standard employment pattern and they enjoy somewhat comparable employment benefits with permanent workers including freedom of association (Rusike and Chitambara, 2012; Lee 2009). Clearly, the situation for Nigeria is a marker for deep reflection on appropriate measures for improving the plight of workers in non-standard employment. Particularly, this analysis would be appropriate when viewed within the contexts of ensuring best practices are attained in Nigeria's flexible labour market.

Furthermore, the study also emphasized the verity that outsources employment is giving more preference than contract work in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Associated with this desire is the evasion of liability by employers of the Nigerian Beverage sector to outsource workers. This is undoubted, manifested in the manner with which organisations in the Nigeria Beverage sector has shown petite or no concern for addressing the unceasing trend of labour flexibility through proactive trade union measures. In other words, this has conveyed to the fore the conclusion reached by commentators, that the need for labour flexibility to wither the ascending unemployment rate in Nigeria cannot be conceived as a viable developmental

agenda, as it has not been clearly matched with desired changes with regard to the creation of jobs capable of sustaining the human needs and aspirations (Fapohunda, 2012; Okafor, 2012b). This facts expressly challenge the neo-liberal suppositions that the combination of trade liberation, promotion of private sector investment and government limited roles in the regulation of labour market activities is the recipe for economic prosperity.

Additionally, it is evident with the Nigerian case that outsources and contract employment were not conceived with the intention of diminishing the rising unemployment rate, rather the intent has been a cost cutting strategy. This dilemma further explains the government declined desire to recognise the enormous challenges plaguing the working people concentrated in non-standard work arrangements. Specifically, the Nigerian government has unswervingly argued that the increase labour flexibility perpetuated by third-party outsourcing firms, with it's attendant's precarious jobs was essentially to provide more jobs for economic growth, avoid depreciation of human capital, and constant labour migration. In contrast, the government on her part has grossly failed to monitor and regulates activities of these outsourcing firms for international best practices. The majority of trade union officials interviewed confirmed the ineptitude of government with regard to ensuring outsource firms compliance with international best practices. As Stiglitz (2006) rightly confirmed, the benefits of globalisation include the creation of different strands of employment pattern to cushion the mitigating effect of unemployment; however, the exertions and mindset of leaders in the developing world have not been transposed to improve the conditions of their working population.

A number of studies conducted in Nigeria and other parts of the globe have equally shown, the vast use of outsourcing employment as the most preferred strand of employment casualisation pattern. In Nigeria, Fapohunda (2012) and Idowu (2010) separately uncover outsource employment as the most utilized pattern of employment casualisation in varied manufacturing and financial sectors of the Nigeria economy. On the global scene, Alvi (2016) remarked the consistent growth of outsourcing among companies in the United States (U.S) with positive expansion and growth in the U.S economy at large. In a closely related argument, for the Nigeria case, the prevalence of outsourcing has not herald transformation to the Nigeria economy, rather it has herald increase job loss. For instance, while the global economic downturn of 2008 had little effect on the economies of developed countries, the developing countries not foreclosing Nigeria were greatly affected. It is not surprising, therefore, that this

incidence has further exacerbated the growth of outsourcing in Nigeria services and industrial sectors wherein organisations, in a bid to remain competitive, now employs a large chunk of their workforce on temporary conditions.

In addition, Hamilton's (2006) position that casual workers are intermittently called upon during excess production to fill available job positions, in the absence of a substantial person fittingly supports findings from the qualitative strand of this study. It was unearthed that contract workers are specifically utilized when organisations desire to retain specialized and experienced personnel, who is at the verge of retirement and such replacement cannot be immediately ascertained. The result further shows that, at the instance of replacement, the contract worker terms of employment becomes terminated. This result, however, possesses serious implications with regard to the intention of non-standard employment as a necessity for employment generation. For instance, from the above evidence, it is clear that contract workers are no doubt encumbered with intermittent job loss coupled with the temporary conditions of their job, particularly the confined duration that characterized contract work (Callea, *et. al.*, 2016).

Put together, although findings emanating from this study neatly uncovered outsource and contract work as the preferred pattern of casualisation practices in the Beverage sector with different but similar work condition. However, irrespective of the nomenclature, it was revealed from the interview, that the crux of employment casualisation patterns is to increase employer's bottom line margin by employing costs cutting strategy such as having a handful section of the workforce work as either outsource or contract workers. This evidence aptly supports the studies by Oya (2008) and De Cuyper *et al* (2008). The authors assert that the trajectories of employment casualisation practices are tailored towards minimizing costs of production by reducing the costs of operating and maintaining a workforce that appears too expensive to manage by organisations. The emphasis here is that employment casualisation practices can only make sense to the working population if the terms and conditions are hotly modified for best international practices through appropriate measures; otherwise, the continued exploitation of the Nigerian workers by capitalist employers will remain unceasing.

### **6.3 Problems of employment casualisation for workers and labour unions**

An investigation into the challenges of employment casualisation for workers and labour union of the Nigerian Beverage sector reveals a plethora of snags affecting the individual workers on the one hand and the trade union movement on the other hand. Firstly, findings disclose that the enormous number of workers on casual work arrangements, in the Nigerian Beverage sector have been working for a long duration of years without probable conversion to permanent status. Globally, however, the trends of employment casualisation reflect that casual workers are perpetually placed on casual work without possible transition to permanent work status. These dilemmas have consistently broadened the level of inequalities in terms of income between the working people, and a discerning gap between the rich and poor. As such, it has become problematic to sustain the stance that employment casualisation has been a safety net for the enormous unemployed, or the expectation that it has been a means of survival for the teeming unemployed persons. This instances, support many of the ILO calls for the modification of employment casualisation patterns through its various policies, in countries ratified of its conventions and recommendations, specifically to rescue people working in non-standard employment from ascending level of poverty.

Furthermore, the implausible conversion of casual employees to permanent status in the Nigerian Beverage sector is supported by 74.9 percent (see Table 5.5). Again, this trend of result negates the provision of section 7(1) of the Nigeria Labour Act of 1974 that “no later than three months after the beginning of a worker’s period of employment, the employer shall give to the worker, a written statement in the form of an employment letter specifying the terms and conditions of contract between parties”. However, the crux of this provision completely reflects that it is only legal to have workers on contract terms of employment for a period not more than three months, otherwise such contract should either be terminated or made permanent. Interestingly, the case for Nigeria has been a contravention of labour legislation in many instances. This fact was confirmed by the qualitative findings that the illegal use of casual workers for a long duration, without probable conversion as enshrined in the Labour Act is due to the neglect and interminable contravention of major provisions of Nigeria’s labour legislation by employers of labour, and the ineptitude of the Federal ministry of labour to effectively supervise and ensure compliance with labour laws provisions.

The findings appositely showed the waned importance of Nigeria's labour laws, as a pathway for the realization of ILO's decent work agenda with Nigeria being a member. This confirmed that Nigeria's seriousness for a decent workplace devoid of debilitating work features, greatly depends on the quality of her labour laws in tune with international best practices. However, similar pieces of evidence in the body of existing literature; for instance in Nigeria and Germany have reported the engagement of casual workers for a range of six and ten years without possible conversion (see Adewusi, 2013; Wolf, 2014). Particularly, Wolf (2014) argues that temporary employees once in employment for ten years going forward, would remain perpetually in temporary employment. All these descriptions, explain why scholars and commentators have to construe temporary employment as a dead-end zone employment type (Sapka, 2016; Meijis, Lammers and Ratiliff, 2015; Akbari, Zandieh and Dorri, 2012).

Among other challenges of employment casualisation plaguing workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector, results reveal that 61.8 percent of the study population confirmed that majority of casual workers are confined to work under unsafe and life-threatening conditions. This was similarly reechoed by the qualitative findings, where the majority of the trade union officials interviewed averred that the work environment of casual workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector lack good and healthy conditions capable of deteriorating the human health. Further narratives were highlighted through an account of how a typical production factory looks like in some companies in the Beverage sector by respondents. For instance, it was gathered that most production factories in the Nigerian Beverage sector where casual workers work lack safety facility measures such as safety boot, nose mask, and other industrial safety gadgets. It is not surprising therefore, that many of the industrial hazards and accidents victims in Nigeria's manufacturing organisations such as the amputation of legs or hands are majorly casual workers. This finding was confirmed by the qualitative data where a trade union official interviewed explains that the conditions and difficult experiences in terms of health and safety of casual workers are becoming escalating.

A close examination of ILO promotional framework for occupational safety and health convention, 2006 (No. 187) aimed at promoting sustainable safety and health culture, for a safe working environment has not been ratified by Nigeria. This could be explained by government lack of recognition and sympathy for the occupational health and safety of Nigerian workers, particularly those concentrated in non-standard work type. Again, this is

revealed by the nature of hostile institutional, and political supervisory environment suppressing the attainment of workable health and safety national policy. Several studies have over the years highlighted a great number of work environmental challenge affecting workers in the casual work arrangement (see Jawando and Adenugba, 2014; McGann, Moss and White; 2012; Samuelson *et al.*, 2012).

Specifically, Benach *et al.*, (2002) study on occupational health agenda of casual workers, admit that it is conventional to see casual workers work in an unhealthy work environment, and not supported or provided with required safety apparatus, in the event of industrial accident. McGrann, White and Moss' (2016) study also found that casual workers of the Australian hospitality sector work in hazardous work conditions, with little or no safety protection gadget. Similar studies, conducted in Nigeria also adds to the gamut of literature consistent with the above findings. In Nigeria, it was reported that in many of the Chinese and Indonesian firms, casual workers work under an insecure environment without safety protection gadget and compensation for industrial injuries (Odu, 2011).

With regard to the challenges of employment casualisation, inappropriate dismissal of casual workers chronicled another major snag of employment casualisation. Supportive validation from 71.8 percent of the respondents, confirmed that the majority of the Nigerian Beverage sector casual workers are victims of incessant dismissal. While the main thrust of this study, generally lends support to the perception of casual workers as second class-class workers, findings clearly exude that casual workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector are dismissed abruptly without prior notification. This result forms the basis of non-standard work trend within the global space of employment relations. Coupled with this is the verity that, the vague nature and contents of Nigeria's labour laws have been garnering protection for employers of labour to abruptly terminate the employment of casual workers at will.

Several of the literature reviewed consent that casual workers are incessantly dismissed at employers will. This is especially so when there are feelings of consistent agitations on the part of workers for improved work conditions. Essentially, employers resort to dismissing casual workers to avoid been prosecuted or held liable for violation of section 7(1) of the Nigeria Labour Act of 1974 that "not more than three months after the commencement of work, the appointment of a casual worker shall either be terminated or convert to permanent".

Thus, the trend has been the termination of work prior to the lapse of the three-month probation given by law, in order to avert the necessities of having casual workers converted to permanent work status. This position was clearly supported by the majority of the trade union officials interviewed.

No doubt, the above narratives are common in most Nigerian organisations where considerations are not given to provisions of the labour law in establishing terms of employment. It has been previously argued that many of the confectionary companies managed by the Lebanese and Chinese in the Nigerian Food, Beverage and Tobacco industry abruptly disengaged workers at the slightest show of committing any error while discharging their job functions (Odu, 2011). A similar result by Kuroki (2012) also confirmed this finding. A more recent research finding by Kahouei *et al.*, (2016) support the above research evidence. The study shows that employment casualisation is characterised by frequent jobs lost, increased neglect of workers' welfare and reduced job performance. The deduction to be drawn from this result is that, while successive Nigeria democratically elected governments have continuously shown interests for the restructuring of the workplace through national employment policy regulatory framework, especially the MNCs where casual employment is having high prominence, many of these workers are still faced with unexpected dismissal. This distress has, thus, continuously provoked the question concerning the existing social contracts between the government and the citizens on one hand, and the constitutional responsibility of government to implement policy geared towards improving the working conditions of her citizens.

One of the pathways for ensuring sustained and fulfilling work life is the continuity of gratuity after compulsory retirement. Indeed, this is a testament to ensure unceasing commitment to the needs of the individual worker, especially those unconnected to financial obligations and other family responsibilities. Particularly, as a global trend, it is to ensure a certain fraction of employees previously work pay is paid to them in their retirement days as a pension. However, the ascension in labour market flexibility has recently waned these privileges, in particular to the drawback of the secondary workers otherwise called casual workers. Reflecting from this, it is not startling to see casual workers perpetually excluded from the privileges of pension and other workplace benefits such as medical and transportation allowances. Trade union officials interviewed, confirmed this development. In addition, the qualitative data also support that

employers of the Nigerian Beverage sector utterly exclude casual workers from enjoying similar work benefits including pension and medical allowances.

Again, it was gathered that casual workers are restricted from enjoying the same health benefits with permanent workers such as access to company clinics. To further elucidate, 60.4 percent of the respondents surveyed make a case for the exclusion of casual workers from pension, medical and other fringe benefits. Interestingly, these constraints signposted the poor treatment of casual workers. However, the contention should be, why casual workers are exempted from relishing same workplace benefits when no statutory recognized labour laws in Nigeria has so far clearly established the dichotomy between casual and permanent employment, by specifically highlighting the type of employment benefits appropriate to them? Evidently, this result is a pointer to Nigeria's departure from international best practices, regarding the implementation of appropriate legislation guarding the principles of non-standard work practices.

Thus, the above revelations neatly synchronize with results of other findings. Samuelson *et al.*, (2012) study on types of employment and their associations with work characteristics, and health among Swedish women and men establishes a dichotomy between permanent and casual workers. Report from their study shows that, while the former enjoys complete work benefits, the latter is grossly denied from pension, medical and other workplace benefits, even when they do a job of the same magnitude. In Australia, McGann, Moss and White (2012) profess that social benefits; such as pension and another benefit are entirely excluded from casual workers of the Australian Hospitality sector. In Nigeria, Ohioyenoba and Uwadie (2016) reported that the evasion of been predisposed to pensions and other fringe benefits chiefly explains the massive attraction of casual workers by employers of the Nigeria Oil and Gas sector. In essence, this result revealed that the marginalization of casual workers from pension benefits is not peculiar to Nigeria case. Interestingly, however, it remains unclear whether there is any labour legislation, which specifically prohibits casual workers from pension benefits within the global employment relations space. In contrast, the intermittent arrangements of casual work can be presented as a reason why employers utterly exclude them from relishing pension benefits. Still, the argument is, every working people should be entitled to pension and other workplace benefits as enshrined in ILO social protection objective of decent work agenda.

It must be borne in mind that section 12 (1) of the Nigeria Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended clearly states that “a person who is otherwise eligible for membership of a particular trade union shall not be refused admission to membership of that union by reason only that he is of a particular community, tribe, place of origin, religion or political opinion”. Although, the Act did not explicitly stipulate that a person should not be repudiated admission to membership of a trade union based on employment status; however, section 1(1) of the same Act clearly outlines the right of every worker to either join or form a trade union association irrespective of employment status. Given this account, the denial of casual workers to form or join a trade union association is a clear negation of section 1(1) of Trade Union Act of 2005.

Similarly, section 40 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended in 2011 supports that every person shall be entitled to assemble freely and associate with other persons, and in particular, they may form and belong to any political party, trade union or any other association for the protection of their interest. In the light of this provision, the majority of the respondents validate that casual workers are grossly denied the fundamental right of association in the organisation. To be sure, an overwhelming 78 percent of the study population reported that casual workers right of representation in trade union association is entirely proscribed, even as this expressly contravene provisions of the amended 2005 Trade Union Act. This result was further endorsed by trade union officials during the interview. For instance, P8 and P9 reported that casual workers of the Beverage sector are completely denied the fundamental right of every person to freely associate for the protection of their interests. Furthermore, the denial of the right to associate, cannot be over-stretched in this report as other relevant studies aptly corroborate this finding (Danesi; 2012; Fapohunda, 2012).

The fact that casual workers are deprived of the right to representation and participate in trade union activities, negates the ILO right at work objective of decent work agenda. Danesi (2012) explains that the consistent and unlawful refusal of employers, to allow employees in the non-standard work arrangements form and belong to trade union association has further exacerbated the spate of exploitation and maltreatment confronting workers in the casual work arrangements. However, other studies have shown the refusal of employees in non-standard work to participate in issues affecting their work conditions, through representation as the most awful treatment the human person can be imperiled to (Corrales-Herrero and Rodriguez-Prado, 2016; Bohle, 2012). Relying on these reports, can it then be confirmed that the denial of casual

workers to represent, and air their voice plays a substantial role in increasing the level of workplace hardship they are confined with? This position contradicts the purpose of work is the fulfillment of basic needs, promote social progress and guarantees the freedom of the human person (Kalleberg and Hewison, 2013). The concerns we must, thus, address our attention to should be how to create a path, wherein work can be more meaningful and niche as a realisation of the human potentials and aspiration. Of course, the question of freedom and unrestricted fundamental human right are important factors in this dimension.

A fuller examination of the challenges of employment casualisation, cannot be completely unearthed without an understanding of how the trade union movement are equally affected. However, responses to the question of the impact of employment casualisation on the labour union were only uncovered through an interview with trade union officials, since they are in the best position to narrate a clear account of how the increased adoption of casual labour has affected the labour union. Findings from the qualitative data reveal that the trade union of the Nigerian beverage sector, have been immensely affected by the problems of employment casualisation. For instance, results indicate that the labour body has been greatly affected by membership and financial strength poser. To support this finding, P2 and P7 confirmed that the strength of the trade union has been abating religiously, since a large portion of the working people who work as casuals are denied access to associate, and permanent workers who were laid off as a result of redundancy are only employed back on casual terms.

Consequently, findings also show that the continuous influence of employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage sector could lead to the extermination of the trade union movement in the nearest shortest time. This finding supports empirical works of Barchiesi (2010), Kolawole (2013) and Adenugba (2009) respectively. For Barchiesi (2010), the trade union movement in recent time, while pursuing the need for relevance has been greatly cramped by the interdiction of casual workers who no doubt forms a sizeable number of the working people from associating. A similar sentiment was shared by Kolawole in his Ph.D. thesis on labour reforms and their impact on employment security in Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) in Nigeria, that the consistent difficulty in organising casual workers has remained a problem for trade union membership growth. Thus, establishing a link between employment casualisation and trade union relevance in Nigeria requires resolute efforts and sincerity of purpose on the part of labour movement to effectively address the employment casualisation

dilemma. Unless the labour movement takes proactive and timely action, its significance can become perpetually irrelevant. Determined and astute struggles are needed to avoid a weak, voiceless and inept trade union movement, cramped by the ascending growth of temporary employment.

#### **6.4 Trade union reactions to the conundrums of employment casualisation**

The reality of work as discussed in the preceding paragraph, is clearly that, the working people not only work in the safe and humane work environment but also enjoys accompanying benefits and freedom. Therefore, the role and efforts of the trade union movement is niched as a great influence through which these feats can be realised. With the incessant spread of employment casualisation across the globe, there have been varied contentions as to how the trade union movements can ensure that both the prevalence and effect on the working population is lessened to a great extent. For some analysts, this is crucial to ensure the continued relevance of trade union (Kolawole, 2013; Adenugba, 2009). To others, trade union efforts towards abating employment casualisation are all characterized by ambiguous plans and goals (Finlayson and Palmvang, 2016; Barchiesi, 2010). To the latter group, if trade union reactions have been robustly applied enough, then the increased adoption of employment casualisation should have been abated very significantly (Campbell, 2004; Adefolaju, 2012). Nevertheless these disputations, findings that ensued from this study reveal four key reactionary strategies of the trade union to employment casualisation in the Lagos State Beverage sector including; the collective bargaining process, trade union leadership activities, industrial strikes/picketing actions and education and (re)training programmes of trade union members.

##### ***6.4.1 Responding through the collective bargaining process***

An assessment of the utility of collective bargaining process to employment casualisation in the Beverage sector reveals that majority of the respondents represented by 69.8 percent (see Table 5.6) canvassed for the inclusion of casual workers in the National Bargaining Agreement (NBA) as a way of representing their interests. This result was clearly affirmed by the outcome of the qualitative findings. For instance, P6 and P7 firmly admitted that in principle, the trade union movement, as a way of reacting to the menace of employment casualisation should wrestle for the inclusion of casual workers in the industry wide collective bargaining

agreement. Again, this result is further buttressed by the fact contained in section 54 of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended in the definition of a worker as “any employee who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and whether it is a contract personally to execute any work or labour or a contract of apprenticeship”.

Fascinatingly, this result reflects many instances of Nigeria’s company owners’ contravention of labour law provisions. It is not surprising therefore, that the trade union movements have been paying lip services to the provisions of the law, particularly has no meaningful exertions have been geared, towards ensuring casual workers are included as beneficiaries of industry wide collective bargaining agreements. With this result, the crux is for the labour movement to grossly utilize collective bargaining as a reactionary strategy to lessen the challenges of casualisation on workers, and the need to ensure such strategy are well outlined and positioned for achieving relevant outcomes. For instance, since the provision of the law adequately covers all strand of workers without further segregation, the trade union movement has the remit of grappling for the coverage of casual workers. This belief is necessary to curtail the rising poverty rate among casual workers where a substantial number earns far below the national minimum wage as shown in chapter five.

The above finding notwithstanding contradicts similar studies where collective bargaining was used as a veritable trade union strategy for surmounting the puzzle of employment casualisation. For instance, in Zimbabwe, Rusike and Chitambara (2012) study confirmed that one of the reactions of the trade union of the hospitality sector to employment casualisation was the extension of the National Economic Council (NEC) bargaining scope to all workers irrespective of employment types. Similarly, in the defense of casual workers interest, collective bargaining strategy was employed by the trade unions of Germany and Austria in a comparative study (see Schurman and Eaton, 2012).

Again, the non-inclusion of casual workers in the industry wide bargaining, has serious implications for human development with the range of issues bargained at the industrial level such as salary increase, health and medical allowances, housing, transportation among others. Clearly, the exclusion of casual workers from these benefit has defeated the meaning of work in the real sense. However, making a case for Nigeria, the various institutions saddled with the

implementation of labour policies are swamped with too many irregularities (Adewumi and Adenugba, 2010). Such irregularities may thus have diminished the potency of trade union collective bargaining strategy needed for alienating the many challenges of casual employment.

#### **6.4.2 The question of trade union leadership activities**

Discussing the activities of trade union leadership as a strategy to ameliorating employment casualisation, the quantitative data shows that trade union leadership activities have been judiciously applied to reduce employment casualisation with evidence of 70.4 percent (see Table 5.7) of the respondents validating this result. In contrast, the qualitative data with respect to P1, P3 and P7 add that, many of the trade union leadership activities are clearly characterized by insincerity and inconsistency of purpose. This evidence further support some of the responses uncovered during the interview, where few of the trade union leaders acknowledged that the remit of the labour union of the Beverage sector in protecting the interests of the working people is limited only to workers in their constituents who belong to trade union association, while those outside their constituent do not enjoy such protection.

The above revelation is a clear contravention of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended for creating a dichotomy between workers who are to enjoy protection based on membership of a union. It is important to reflect that presently, no Nigerian labour legislation has clearly made a distinction between workers who are to enjoy trade union protection. Therefore, the nature and extent of the leadership role that is expected of the trade union leaders are crucial for the revitalization of the workplace for good. Hence, from this standpoint, the trade union must come to terms with the provisions of the Trade Union Act of 2005 for inclusive protection of all the working people. For instance, Section 54 of the same act defined a worker as:

*“that is to say any member of the public service of the Federation or a State or any individual (other any employee than a member of any such public service) who has entered into or works under an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and whether it is a contract personally to execute any work or labour or a contract of apprenticeship”*

Again, following from this provision, the leadership of the trade union clearly should be bothered with the responsibility of responding to the plight of all working people without dichotomy. This revelation further supports many of the disappointing roles of the labour

unions in Nigeria in recent times. For instance, several of the unfair dismissals of Nigerian workers are yet to rouse trade union leader's attention; a case in point is the unfair dismissal of 280 casual workers of telecommunication giants, MTN in April 2017. Dwelling on the contention that the trade union leadership must take responsibility for their development, extending protection to all strands of the working people, therefore, have the prospects of promoting a more robust trade union movement. Mainly, we are concerned to know how the trade union of the Nigerian beverage sector has consequently assisted to advance this discourse through appropriate leadership activities. This accentuates the fact that for trade union leadership activities to succeed as a reactionary strategy, it must strike a realistic balance between trade union statutory responsibilities to workers in permanent and temporary employment type, so as to rouse a positive influence required for a decent workplace.

Inconsistent with the above, Anyim, Ilesanmi and Alaribe's (2013) study on the diminishing and disappointing roles of the trade union in the 21<sup>st</sup> century showed that the Nigerian trade union leaders have continued to exhibit many disappointing responsibilities in the brawl against the growing prominence of informalisation. In contrast, Crawford and Germov's (2015) study on workforce strategy to academic casualisation found massive trade union awareness as one of the trade union leadership activities positioned to rouse workers' knowledge on the advances and gruesome impact of employment casualisation. However, although the despotic military reign in Nigeria hindered many of the activities of trade union, yet the accompanying democratic governments have had little or no impact on the activities of the trade union, as trade union leaders are now more positioned for the continued exploitation of the working people in connivance with capitalist's employers (Nwoko, 2009). This has been intensely so, since the leadership of the Nigerian labour movement, rather than launch a national project for the interest of the working people, have severally betrayed the working people for self-aggrandizement.

### ***6.4.3 Industrial action/picketing reactions***

One of the most employed trade union reactionary strategy for improving conditions of work is industrial strikes/picketing actions. To be sure, several of the demands of trade unions to an extent, are achieved with industrial strike action. Reflecting from Table 5.8; 53 percent of the population confirmed that the trade unions of the Nigeria Beverage sector seldom utilize

industrial strikes/picketing as a reactionary strategy to employment casualisation. This positioned was further corroborated by the qualitative data as narrated by P4 and P8 that the Nigeria trade union movement, and in particular, the Beverage sector labour union has invested little or no efforts to advance her industrial strike strategy, and an instance where the display of picketing or protests becomes discernable, they are such encumbered with cheap political points. Reflecting from the above finding, the recent amendment of the Trade Union Act of 1974 now section 31(6) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 promulgate that no person, trade union or employer shall take part in a strike or lockout or engage in any conduct in contemplation or furtherance of a strike or lock-out. This, however, has grave repercussions for trade union development efforts which bring to the fore that, no meaningful trade union functions and progress can be recorded, particularly to alleviate the growing rate of poverty among casual employment, and the working people in general.

In the same context, section 31(16) sub sub section (a) of the same Act, clearly explains that the provisions contained in sub section 6 are entirely for those arrayed in the provision of essential services such as the Police, Army, Customs and other armed government establishments. Hence, the proscription of trade union from embarking on industrial action as a means of improving their employment conditions remains unclear. This is because a trade union movement can only be vociferous through industrial protest actions. Notwithstanding this, as reported in the findings that not much has been invested on trade union industrial strikes strategy in the Lagos State Beverage sector, it is not intellectually wrong to conclude that the trade union movement of the Nigerian beverage sector has been insincere with the recent protests and picketing actions. To support this, few evidence of the picketing actions embarked on by the Nigeria central labour bodies, in addressing the plight of employment casualisation have not yielded desired results. However, if there is any, the trend and use of casual labourers by most Nigerian employers would have been reduced.

The issue we must, therefore, set our minds to address should be working towards creating a sincere and formidable trade movement, rather than a predatory one which has been the hallmark of the Nigeria labour union. Similar studies have rightly confirmed this position. Danesi (2011) earlier study reports that the industrial strike strategy of the Nigerian labour movements has remained consistently inconsistent to ensure a drastic decrease in the use of employment casualisation in many Nigerian organisations. In addition, Atitola (2014) study

also show that in spite of the many strike protests and picketing actions by the Nigerian central labour union, the prevalence of employment casualisation is still gaining increase momentum in many Nigerian organisations. Equally, Ferreira (2016) reveals that embarking on industrial strike and picketing actions, for attracting casual employees into permanent status seem no longer fashionable. Interestingly, the question is what thinkable measures should the trade union adopt? The study, therefore, lengthens the current research by suggesting how trade union can overcome the challenges of employment casualisation through a more contemporary strategy.

#### ***6.4.4 The importance of education and human capacity programmes***

The reality of trade union education and (re)training programmes is no doubt significant intimidation to wither the growing prominence of neo-liberal policy. Unceasing trade union education and (re)training programmes increase workers' consciousness and awareness concerning the changing trend of employment relations. Majority of the respondents represented by 59 percent (see Table 5.9), support that trade union members of the Nigerian Beverage sector are trained and (re)trained to resist capitalists' anti-labour policies. This result also confirms the submission of P4 and P7 from the qualitative data that, the Nigerian Beverage sector has a well-structured and planned culture of education and (re) training programmes, where members have indubitably garner skills and knowledge required to transcend many of the workplace problems, in particular, those connected to organizing casual workers into the mainstream of permanent employment status. More importantly, findings show that the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector does not only train and retrain its members but also have a budget set aside for this purpose. Majority of the trade union officials interviewed attest to have been part of one method of training or another to aid their organising skills. However, one pertinent questions that come to mind is, what has this organising skills transmuted into, especially as it is still evident from preceding results that employment casualisation and all its challenges still abounds in the Nigeria Beverage sector?

Previous studies have shown the usefulness of education and (re) training programmes of a trade union as a capacity development initiative. For instance, In Ghana, Anyemedu (2000) contend that considering the helplessness and gruesome work environment that working people are confined to, attaining a sustainable and befitting work environment is necessary to

ensure effective skill development and training of trade union officials. Similar findings from Stroud and Fairbrother (2008) study support the above result. Stroud and Fairbrother (2008) argued that in this epoch of economic globalisation characterised with intense organisational restructuring and precariousness of jobs, it is no less imperative for the trade union movement to react through prompt education and (re) training programs to ensure the working people acquire requisite skill to question the prevalence of anti-labour policies. Nevertheless, this position remains disputable for the case of the Nigeria Beverage sector as no discernable transformation has been witnessed with regard to increasing the consciousness of trade union to management anti-labour practices. Therefore, a radical modification in thinking by the trade union of the Nigerian beverage sector is required for a viable education and (re) training programs such that can be so insightful for improving the workplace.

#### **6.5 How far has trade union strategies curtailed ‘*bad jobs*’? On the question of effectiveness**

To ascertain the relationship between trade union survival strategies and employment casualisation, four research hypotheses were identified and tested with the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), while the Multiple Regression Analysis was further employed to confirm how each of the trade union survival strategies constructs predicts employment casualisation. As shown in Table 5.10, there was no significant relationship between the collective bargaining process and employment casualisation with a correlation coefficient of ( $r = -0.29$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Further, the multiple regression analysis in Table 5.15, also indicates that the collective bargaining process does not predict employment with standardized  $\beta$ -value of ( $\beta = -0.15$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This results, clearly imply that the collective bargaining process is not effective in reducing the effect of employment casualisation on workers of the Beverage sector. Supported by findings from the qualitative data, P6 and P7 equally argued that collective bargaining process has not been effective for casual workers in addressing the puzzles of employment casualisation. In effect, they further acknowledged that the trade union reactionary strategy of collective bargaining could hardly be effective for workers who are not covered by representation. This finding violates section 54 of the Nigeria Trade Union Act 2005 as amended that:

*a 'worker' means any member of the public services of the Federation or State or any individual (other than a member of any such public service) who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and whether it is a contract personally to execute any work or labour or a contract of apprenticeship.*

Making sense from this legislation, collective bargaining agreement should cover the interests of all the working people including those in the non-standard work arrangement. Sadly, this has become so difficult to attain within the Nigeria labour market, as a result of weak monitoring labour market institutions and other inspectorate division of Nigeria's Ministry of Labour and Employment. This position emphasizes the fact that the value of any trade union functions should be judged by the efficiency of the labour market and their effect on the working people. In other words, the success of the Beverage sector labour union should be judged by how labour market constraints have weakened trade union collective bargaining strategy, particularly as a shield for workers in non-standard employment

The preceding facts are established in relation to the incessant skirmish between the Nigeria government and the labour movements, mainly as the labour body constantly challenges the increased flexibility of the labour market wherein many of its strategies and policies have been greatly affected. However, similar studies conducted on how trade union collective bargaining strategy has been effective in employment casualisation reveal dissimilar findings. For instance, Schurman and Eaton (2012) show in a comparative study of German and Austrian trade unions, that casual worker were successfully organized along trade union lines through collective bargaining strategy, and collective bargaining agreement terms and conditions were completely engrossed on workers in non-standard work. Milner and Mathers (2013) in France depicts the effectiveness of collective bargaining in attaining sustained and improved conditions for casual workers and seeing to converting the majority of the casual workers to permanent employment status. This above result is also in contrast to the finding of Rusike and Chitambara (2012). Therefore, the effectiveness of the collective bargaining process in Nigeria requires effective labour market conditions and monitoring efforts with the appropriate regulatory policy agenda. This will no doubt, allow for a more enthusiastic function of the trade union for all category of the working people through the collective bargaining process.

Findings in relation to how the activities of trade union leaders have been effective in reducing the effect of employment casualisation on workers show that trade union leadership activities are significantly related to employment casualisation with a weak correlation coefficient ( $r=0.225$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). A similar trend of the result was confirmed in Table 5.15 with the multiple regression analysis with standardized  $\beta$ -value ( $\beta=0.24$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), indicating that activities of trade union leaders slightly predicts employment casualisation. The qualitative results through P1, P3, and P7 reveal that several of the trade union activities have been limited with consistent bottlenecks.

Nonetheless, while the activities of a trade union have been established as a strong force for the realisation of trade union demands prior to the independence of many African countries. In recent times, however, the strength of trade unions have become weakened with the transition to democratic systems of governments in many African countries. Particularly for the case of Nigeria, the ushering of Nigeria into democratic governance in 1999, could be described as a period that signpost the withered activities of the Nigeria trade union movements. Similarly, it is possible that this development has contributed to the poor performance of trade union leaders in recent times (Nkwoko, 2009; Nwagbara, Pidomson and Nwagbara, 2013). Worst still, the diversification of trade union functions for self-gratification is a clear pointer for trade union ineffectiveness.

The efficacy of trade union leadership activities to employment casualisation is well cemented with similar studies of Barker, Johnson and Lavalette (2011); Crawford and Germov (2015); Estanque (2004); and Hammer, Bayazit and Wazeter (2009). These scholars generally exude how the various activities of trade union leaders have been positioned to reduce the upsurge of employment casualisation. For instance, Barker, Johnson and Lavalette (2011) study, argued that trade union leaders in the quest for improving the conditions of work and organising casual workers have the propensity to record more success stories in a democracy than a military era of government. Bayazit and Wazeter (2009) stressed the importance of union leadership power towards improving the work conditions of the working people. Importantly, the authors advocate the interplay between trade union activities and labour market conditions, for a more robust and effective trade union leadership activities towards reducing the increase prominence of casualisation. However, based on the results ensuing from

previous discussions, several of the activities of trade union leaders of the Lagos State Beverage sector, is yet to be discernable as an effective strategy to employment casualisation.

Furthermore, findings from the test of hypothesis reveal that there is no significant relationship between industrial strike/picketing actions and employment casualisation, with a correlation coefficient ( $r= 0.148$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p> 0.05$ ) (see Table 5.12). In sustaining this, the standardized  $\beta$ -value ( $\beta= 0.11$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) (see Table 5.15) from the regression analysis shows a weak  $\beta$ -value. Therefore, conclusion reached is that industrial strikes/ picketing actions is not an effective trade union strategy to employment casualisation. In strong alliance with findings from the qualitative data, P4 and P8 affirmed that several efforts of the central labour body to ensure befitting work conditions through industrial protests and picketing have not been yielding positive results. In fact, it was stated that the few success stories attained in the past, have been overtaken by events as more casual workers have been employed in recent time. This result lends belief for several activities that have wither trade union industrial strike in Nigeria. For instance, the robust and highly influential industrial strike strategy of the trade union has been greatly politicized for personal gains by trade union leaders, while the envisioned impact of strike actions for achieving the demands of the working people has been perpetually eroded.

Reflecting from the above, the proscription of industrial strike in section 31(6) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended has further diminished the compelling force of industrial strike and picketing actions in Nigeria. Studies conducted in Nigeria such as Adefolaju (2012) and Atitola (2014) mirror this finding. Atitola (2014) study argued that the trade union industrial strike and protest action has only aroused the consciousness of Nigerians to the puzzle of employment casualisation with lack of verifiable evidence for its curtailment. In other climes, the United Kingdom and Zambia for a case, the above finding contrast with Williams (2003) and Lee's (2009) separate studies. In these studies, it was shown that industrial strike and protest actions of the trade union were vehemently utilized to curtail the gruesome effect of employment casualisation. Therefore, establishing a nuance between the findings of this studies and the current study, it is not far-fetched to acknowledge that the tense political climate of Nigeria, insincerity of trade union leaders and the vague provisions of Nigeria's

labour legislation, are factors limiting the effectiveness of industrial strike and protests actions of the labour union.

Lastly, the test of hypothesis shown in Table 5.13, shows a significant relationship between education and (re) training programmes of trade union and employment casualisation with a correlation coefficient ( $r=0.154$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). In addition, the regression analysis equally indorses that education and (re) training programmes of trade union predicts employment casualisation with standardized  $\beta$ -value ( $\beta= 0.13$ ,  $N=291$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). This position was further validated by responses from the qualitative findings. For example, P4 and P7 both confirmed that the Nigeria Beverage sector has a well-structured education and human capacity development policy, needed for understanding the trends and changes in the world of work, especially the changing traditional standard employment to non-standard employment. However, judging from the above findings, it is not completely out of context to shoulder the premonition that the promulgated knowledge acquired through consistent education and (re) training programmes of trade union members, has not in itself translated to the desired outcome, since a large number of the working people are still confined to non-standard work. Expectedly, the education and (re) training programmes of the Lagos State Beverage sector calls for a strategic realignment of policies and enforcement for a more effective outcome.

Numerous studies support education and capacity development of trade union members as a pathway for realizing the demands of decent work. Robert and Marsh (2016) report that education and training of union members through various higher institutions of learning has helped rouse the consciousness and understanding of trade union movement on economic, social and political issues. Studies conducted by Stroud and Fairbrother (2008) also support this finding. In contrast, in a Nigeria, Fayankinnu (2015) argued that although the Nigeria trade union movement to an extent has gained enormous knowledge in terms of capacity building, yet the practice of employment casualisation is growing at an unceasing rate with the inability of trade unions leaders to transpose acquired skills for a desired change in the world of work. As a result, the growing influence of neo-liberal policies induced with job precariousness and automation has not been able to attract development to the working people, rather it has provoked numerous unfortunate social puzzles for the working population, particularly among the non-standard workers.

## **6.6 Interrogating the constellation of factors limiting the effectiveness of trade union strategies to employment casualisation**

Several rising pressures have long been impeding trade union survival strategies in its pursuit to attaining decent work with evidence of continuous poor performance. Although the impact of this factors varies in context, nevertheless reflecting from the qualitative data, this section of the thesis scrutinizes a number of factors that have constrained the survival strategies of the Beverage sector labour union in addressing the spontaneous growth of employment casualisation. The identified factors are designated in four themes such as lack of political-will; economic constraints; the problem of unpatriotic trade union movement; and corruption within the trade union formation.

### ***6.6.1 Lack of political will***

One of the main distractions to trade union ambition in achieving swift responses to its various requests and demands is the factor of political-will since the evolution of trade union. In other words, since several of the government's policies and activities are robustly influenced by trade union programmes, it is logical that the Nigerian trade union movements, with reference to the Beverage sector labour union would to a great extent be affected by lack of political will. Specifically, amongst other civil society organisations, the Nigerian trade union movements has been constantly assaulted by various governments. To begin, the rising prominence of lack of political will, was uncovered by the majority of the respondents through the qualitative data as one of the significant factors plaguing trade union struggle towards addressing the increased use of employment casualisation within the Nigeria labour market. For instance, some of the participants narrates that government's lack of political-will in monitoring and enforcing sanctions on adherent outsourcing firms with recruiter's license forms the main reason in this discourse. By implication, the labour union is handicapped to an extent in checking the immoderations of individual outsourcing firms, since the responsibility of monitoring and inspections lies with the Ministry of Labour and Employment. In addition, the failure of the Nigeria lawmakers, to enact sanctions on adherent employers use of casual workers' was equally narrated by respondents as another lack of political-will to addressing the sprawl of employment casualisation.

Accordingly, few of the trade union officials interviewed, narrated how the Nigerian lawmakers queried the labour body to relapse on their struggle of picketing organisations with a high incidence of casualisation in the Nigeria Beverage sector. Clearly, the struggle for the realization of decent work in Nigeria does not foreclose the responsibilities of the Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment on the one hand, and the Nigerian lawmakers saddled with the formulation of laws for the overall interest of its citizenry on the other hand. Regrettably, failure on the part of appropriate government institutions to enact sound labour policies for checking the decadences of employers of labour has further led to a high limitations on effective trade union struggle. No doubt, the above caption clearly shows how far the labour body can go in achieving decent work agenda in Nigeria's industrial and service sectors respectively.

All these contentions are grouped to form a disturbing picture of Nigeria trade union movements, specifically in the discharge of its statutory functions of protecting the interests of the working people. Perhaps, it is clear to aggregate that many of the disappointing roles of the trade union are unconnected to failed political-will constraining trade union efforts in many instances. A similar conundrum of lack of political will as a constraint to trade union strategies has been discussed at large in the labour literature. The studies by Cohen (2009) and, Takupiwa and Ephraim (2012) support these findings. Cohen (2009) in a study conducted in China narrates how governmental status was arranged to hinder trade union organising efforts.

The above analyses depict a similar line of action by the Federal Government of Nigeria. In her efforts to divide the potency of trade union activities, perfected the split of the NLC into two factions; NLC and ULC with the former enjoying governmental prerogatives. Takupiwa and Ephraim (2012) study rightly argued that in many African countries, the lack of political will has been fiercely affecting the effective discharge of trade union functions of protecting the working people. The study further reveals that the labour court, empowered to address labour related issues and redress have been converted to governmental and political machinery, thus, straining trade union efforts (Takupiwa and Ephraim, 2012). Similarly, studies have shown that the Nigeria industrial court has continued to be a poser to effective trade union functions, wherein appropriate redress are no longer given to most of the labour related cases (Adewumi, 2007; Adefolaju, 2013). Therefore, the deduction to be drawn from this discourse is that, while the Nigeria labour movements have been greatly affected by the increase

expansion of globalization and informality, it is still restricted by political problems that are severely affecting both the development and function of the labour body on the one hand, and the general well-being of the working population on the other hand.

### **6.6.2 Economic constraints**

Results from the study, also explain economic constraint as a factor limiting effective trade union strategies. To be sure, the reduced economic performance of Nigeria with a consistent rise in the unemployment rate was precisely niched as a strong economic indicator affecting trade union functions. This is intensely so as the numerous economic restructuring programmes of government, have constantly failed to address the many social glitches challenging the working people. For instance, the majority of the respondents narrated that the harsh economic situation of the country has religiously place desperate job seekers to a perilous position of accepting whatever jobs offered, without being mindful of the conditions. Therefore, it is not surprising that many employers of labour often seize these opportunities to exploit desperate job seekers.

Furthermore, the problem of unemployment as argued by respondents has relapse many of the trade union actions. Particularly, it was gathered through the qualitative data that the trade union movement of the Nigerian beverage sector, have come to terms with the need to enable the vast number of unemployed persons to attain some level of survival by accepting casual work. Correspondingly, the ensuing consequence is a decrease in trade union struggle to wither employment casualisation, since the large fraction of persons who are supposed to be employed on standard employment terms and attracted into trade union representation and subsequently join in the fight against informalisation are now on non-standard work terms. As such, the bane for trade union is the feebleness of strategies and programmes required for changing the *status quo*. Again, on the question of economic constrictions, respondents also narrated how the economic turbulent situation of Nigeria has engendered massive retrenchment of trade union members in the Nigeria beverage sector. Indubitably, the required force in terms of potent survival strategies is greatly restricted with decreased trade union membership. In fact, it was established that the increasing economic troubles in Nigeria have recently shifted trade union attention from the attainment of decent work to the protection of member's jobs.

Put together, while the above descriptions cannot entirely be acceptable as reasons why the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector should keep tightlipped in its efforts to achieving decent work, no doubt, the wave of economic recession has had a debilitating effect on trade union bargaining power. Therefore, as the increase in economic recession becomes escalating and biting, the trade union movement would have to stretch its preference for the exclusive protection of its constituent and other rank-and-file members while renouncing protections for workers in non-standard employment category (Anyim, Ikemefuna and Shadare, 2011). Meanwhile, while it needs to be argued that, this position does not entirely reflect the main remit of the trade union to all the working people as enshrined in section 54 of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended, caution must be noted that the lack of enforcement in ensuring compliance with major provisions of Nigeria's labour legislation is a fundamental and sacrosanct hitch in this discourse. Bhebe and Mahapa (2014), and Napathorn and Chanprateep (2011) in their separate studies support the finding of economic constraints. As a case illustration, Bhebe and Mahapa (2014) confirm the effect of economic recession on the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in Zimbabwe, by halting trade union organising efforts of workers in the non-standard work type. With respect to preceding findings, providing effective economic policy as drivers of development is essential. This will to an extent, allow job creation and robust concerted efforts of the trade union on all the working people, especially as they will be more working people concentrated in standard employment.

### ***6.6.3 The problem of unpatriotic and divisive trade union movements***

The qualitative findings also show that the unpatriotic disposition of trade union leaders signaled a major factor limiting the efficacy of trade union strategies. Specifically, an overwhelmed majority of trade union officials interviewed confirmed that trade union leaders in recent times have now deviated from the fundamental responsibilities of addressing the needs and challenges of workers, to the pursuit of personal gains. This expression neatly connects with the involvement of many Nigeria trade union leaders in politics without given due attention to the economic needs of the working people. For instance, the creation of Labour Party (LP) in 2002, by the central labour bodies in Nigeria was a clear case of lack of purpose wherein trade union leaders were seen jostling for political offices. In specific, respondents narrated that the difficulty generated by political and ideological variances are linked to the shared assumption that the unity of workers is always at risk when there is political clash

among rank and file union leaders. With respect to this finding, although, this is to an extent factual; however it is common sense that the trade union movement can survive without being political. Therefore, the astounding question that comes to mind is how and to what extent is trade union involvement in politics advanced the wellbeing of the working people? In fact, respondents revealed that a vast majority of the rank and file trade union members do not subscribe to the political allegiance of the labour leaders. This submission by respondents is no doubt connected to the degrees at which trade union leaders change their political and ideological camp for personal aggrandizement. Again, different from the Nigeria situation, trade union members in other clime were often consulted before major political move or decisions are engaged (Adewumi, 2007). Contrarily, respondents confirmed that the Nigerian trade union members do not contribute to determining what political direction the labour movements forestalls.

However, one major implication that can be deduced from the above narratives is the serious implications for trade union organising efforts. For instance, it was clear that the increased interests of trade union leaders in political appointments have not only attracts unpatriotic trade union leaders incapable of surmounting the challenge of informality, but that which has consequently unravelled low passionate for the many conundrums of labour market flexibility. On the question of division, the qualitative data also exude that, it is no doubt that the failure of trade union members to uphold the ethos of internal democracy upon which the trade union movement was formed, has engendered increased division among trade union formations. Particularly, it was reported that, for the case of the Beverage sector, the non-allegiance of trade union leaders to the principle of democracy has further divided the strength of the union to confront capitalist exploitation of non-standard work types.

Therefore, it is not out of place to argue that the personal aspiration of individuals who desire a leadership position of the trade union have worsened the prospects of accomplishing decent work agenda. Results from the qualitative data, also confirm that there have been attempts to disrupt the Nigerian Beverage sector union when a trade union leader failed to secure a leadership position. On this line of thought, unfortunately, the zeal and efforts required for vociferous trade union strategies to supplant the growing tide of employment casualisation in remain doubtful.

While evidence of division have been reported among Nigeria's central labour union; for instance, the recent crisis that saw the erstwhile Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) split into factions in March 2015. In other words, there is no doubt the fact reported by respondents that the role of trade unionism in Nigeria is deteriorating with the inability of the trade union to effect and improve the well-being of the Nigerian workers. Evidently, Adefolaju (2013) had earlier reported the unpatriotic enthusiasm of trade union leaders and the challenge of internal democracy among other factors hindering the effectiveness of trade union functions and objectives in Nigeria. Adefolaju (2013) makes a case that the challenge of internal democracy has crippled the realization of decent work agenda in Nigeria. In a previous study, Godard (2003) had earlier contended for the importance of upholding democratic values for a fuller realization of trade union demands.

#### ***6.6.4 The factor of corruption***

Corruption and rivalry among rank-and-file trade union members on the one hand, and among trade union leaders on the other hand, were also uncovered as factors constraining the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies. For the majority of the respondents, it was apparent that the bane of corruption evident within the trade union structure is a reflection of the level of corruption in the Nigeria polity itself. This paradox signpost the many corrupts charges and allegation levied against Nigeria political office holders, and other public servants. However, for the Nigerian Beverage sector trade union, the range of corrupt issues narrated by respondents includes embezzlement of union funds, frauds among trade union leaders and other bribery scandals.

Furthermore, while this issues are not new to trade union formations in Nigeria, it was reported by respondents' that the increased influence of this puzzles has practically engendered a low focused trade union who are now more concerned about trade union commonwealth than the need for protecting the social, political and most importantly, the economic interests of members. The trade union as an organization of the working people needs committed leaders who are not desirous of accumulating trade union funds and properties at the expense of the well-being of members. In fact, one of the shared assumptions of measuring a committed and focused trade union movement is entirely not limited to the vocal attributes of labour union, but the extent of sincerity on how the commonwealth of the union are been managed. From

the qualitative data, few of the trade union officials reported that it is common to see many trade union officials in public displaying all manners of trade union skills without a complement on how trade union funds are managed. For these respondents, it is illogically to expect a decent workplace, devoid of cheap labour when the labour union leaders are essentially concerned about how to enrich their pockets with trade union commonwealth.

As expected, little or no evidence can be related to confirming the success of trade union strategies to employment casualisation. Therefore, it is important for the labour union to put its house in order by addressing the problem of corruption for any strategies to be effective for questioning the capitalist exploitation of cheap labour. A number of studies have been reported along the line of this finding. In a separate study, Adewumi (2007) in Nigeria and Rajesh and Manoj (2014) in India echoed that the high incidence of corruption and rivalry among rank-and-file trade union leadership, have made it greatly impracticable to achieve cohesion required to challenge capitalists desire for cheap labour.

## **6.7 The nexus between major findings and theoretical framework**

The copious change process in the world of work has exuded an attention-grabbing sensation that has seem netted the devotion of scholars over the years. In fact, many labour experts, human resources management professionals, and other relevant labour professionals have been concerned about the impact of these changes, in particular on the individual worker, organisations and the world of work at large. In response, many theoretical positions bordering on the explanation of factors expanding the growth of employment casualisation and how the trade union movements can be strategically positioned to halt the impact of these changes have been developed. However, this section of the thesis seeks to discuss how findings in this study converge or diverge with the varied theoretical framework discussed in chapter two.

From the section on discussion of findings, five major findings were uncovered with each addressing each of the research questions and objectives respectively. These findings are fittingly discussed in relation to the assumptions of the three theories espoused in chapter two. For instance, findings emanating from the arrangements and growth of employment casualisation are explained in relation to the Neo-Liberal Theory assumptions. For findings on the complications of employment casualisation, the LMS theory propositions are applied aptly. While findings emanating from trade union reactions are discussed based on the

presuppositions of the Marxist Conflict Theory, results from the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies are equally addressed in relation to the deductions of the Marxist Conflict Theory. Lastly, findings from the constellations of factors limiting the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies are discussed from the viewpoint of the LMS theory.

### ***6.7.1 Arrangements and growth of employment casualisation***

The revealing of contract and outsource employment as the growing patterns of employment casualisation, clearly negates the assumptions of the Neo-Liberal Theory. It must be borne in mind that the nub of Neo-liberal Theory supposition centers on the trust that the individual welfare can only be ascertained by promoting entrepreneurial freedom through full-bodied and comprehensive free-market activities devoid of State regulations and control. In contrast, as Adino and Nebere (2016) rightly contend, the abolishment of government regulations and monitoring of labour market activities has further exacerbated the existing enigma of the labour market. In effect, the absence of State control and regulation has advanced the promulgation of non-standard work arrangement such as contract and outsource employment as evident from the results of this study.

Again, the sustainability of the individual welfare through the promotion of fewer restrictions in the operations of the labour market at the heart of the Neo-liberal Theory, also diverge from the findings unearth in this study. In fact, the lack of effective monitoring of labour market activities on the part of the State has further compound the plight of the individual worker. For instance, the traditional employment relationship has almost been utterly eroded with different nomenclature of work pattern that is entirely devoid of sustainable and good working life. In other words, the basic presumptions of the Neo-liberal Theory are entirely not in congruence with findings revealed in this study.

### ***6.7.2 Complications of employment casualisation***

The enormous challenges confronting workers in the casual work arrangements suitably support the assumptions of LMS Theory. The LMS Theory advocate for the division of the labour market into two dissimilar sectors; primary and secondary labour market with varied work characteristics. However, ample contentions have evolved over time to explain the implication of the labour market segmentation into two dissimilar strands. Jakstiene (2010)

submit that the primary sector labour market consists of people working with secured and good conditions of work, including the right to association and other social benefits on the one hand. On the other hand, the secondary sector labour market comprises of unsecured and horrendous work conditions, proscription of the right to association, absence of social benefits, and poor reward/compensation system among others.

The secondary sector workers as explained by the LMS theory corroborate with the findings of this study. By implication, it appropriately narrates the strenuous work challenges plaguing casual workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector, such as the need to work for many years without the hope of conversion to permanent work status, lack of good working conditions, working in dangerous setting without appropriate compensation in case of industrial injury, the denial of freedom to associate and lack of social benefits among other challenges. In other words, casual workers constitute what the LMS Theory termed secondary sector labour market workers (Canterford, 2009). Lastly, empirical results from this study support previous studies on the complications of employment casualisation taking into consideration the assumptions of the LMS Theory (see Polavieja, 2003; Pages and Stampini, 2007; Garz, 2013).

### ***6.7.3 The efficacy of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation***

The identification of four survival strategies of the trade union to employment casualisation in this study unequivocally supports the basic tenet of the Marxist Conflict Theory. For instance, the identification of industrial strikes/protest and collective bargaining process support the fierce approach of Marxist Conflict Theory to contend with employer's domination and exploitation of labour in the workplace. One of the main cause of conflict in the workplace stems from employer's perception that the wage and condition of work, which an employee sought to derive from his inputs are conceived as a threat to profits (Otobo, 2015). Thus, management desire has always been positioned to achieve a surplus at the expense of labour (Rose, 2008). In response, the continuous privation of the working people will eventually rouse them to organize and contend with management exploitative drifts.

Therefore, the utility of industrial strikes, collective bargaining process, trade union leadership activities and education and (re) training of trade union members as reactionary strategies to employment casualisation, sustain the position of the Marxist Conflict Theory that achieving a reasonable solution to management exploitative desire, is unconnected to the ferocious

worker's revolution in order to subjugate both the political and economic domination of the capitalists (Yakkaldevi, 2014 p. 13). Precisely, industrial strikes and the impasse of collective bargaining are likened to worker's revolution for changing the existing *status-guo* in the workplace. The supposition of Akinwale (2014), that the uproar of conflict in a social system reveals an upshot of unequal distribution of scarce resources is equally supported based on the findings from this study. Aligning the social system to a typified workplace, trade unions are always positioned for the protection of its constituent from unfair labour practices through different reactionary strategies.

#### **6.7.4 Limitations on trade union survival strategies**

The assumption of the LMS Theory evidently connects with the identification of factors constricting trade union survival strategies effectiveness. According to the presuppositions of the LMS Theory, the need for a fuller understanding of labour market functions, necessitate the segregation of the labour market into two distinct groups with varied work characteristics; the primary and secondary labour market sectors. For emphasis, the former comprises of stable work with sustainable conditions, while the latter is encumbered with all fashion of derogatory work. However, as rightly argued by Fajana (2008), the grouping of the labour force into two segments is a poser to effective trade union activities in itself. For example, with the knowledge that the large chunk of the working people is concerted in the secondary sector, coupled with the proscription of the right to association limits the potency of the trade union to exert an effective force needed for addressing work-related issues in this regard. This position, aptly explains that the strength of the trade union is in its membership size; otherwise, a sparse trade union membership size would not be able to upturn the conditions of the working people. Again, in terms of economic constraint, Finlayson and Palmvang (2016) study highlight that the reception of economy liberalization into many African countries has produce more of job informality with wide segmentation of the labour market into the primary and secondary sector with associated work arrangements having a tauter consequence for effective trade union struggles. Table 6.1 below shows the presentation of the link between research findings and theoretical framework.

**Table 6.1: Matrix showing the link between research findings and theoretical framework**

S/N	The theory that addressed findings	Research findings
1.	Neo-liberal Theory	Findings related to this theory reveal that the Nigerian Beverage sector practice two varied types of employment casualisation including outsource and contract employment, although results indicate that outsource employment is more practiced than contract employment. In addition, findings reflect the dichotomy in terms of work challenges between the two work types. For instance, it was revealed that the work arrangement of outsource workers is more strenuous than that of contract workers. In essence, this result was understood from the perspective that the position of the Neo-liberal policy of free-market policy devoid of rules and regulation advertently increase the growth and practices of employment casualisation
2.	Labour Market Segmentation Theory	Two different findings support the suppositions of the Labour-Market Segmentation Theory. To start, the crux of the LMS is explained by the division of the labour market into two operating sector; the primary and secondary labour market sector. While the primary sector constitutes workers' with secured employment terms, specifically characterised by workers on permanent employment terms; the secondary sector comprises of people working in unsafe and atrocious working conditions. First, finding revealing different shades of challenges of employment casualisation including working for years without conversion, working in an unsafe environment, denial of social benefits and proscription of the right to unionisation are a clear case of the characteristics of secondary sector workers. In other words, this finding is more keenly understood from the division of the labour market, particularly from the distinct features of the secondary sector workers. Second, findings exuding how trade union strategies are constrained by a constellation of factors are well understood from the LMS frame of analysis. For instance, the segmentation of the labour force into two unequal part where one part is constrained for trade union association, ordinarily possess some barriers to trade union struggles. Put together, findings related to the challenges of employment casualisation and factors hampering trade union movement are clearly linked and understood from the LMS assumptions.
3.	Marxist Conflict Theory	Two different findings validate the presumptions of the Marxist Conflict Theory. First, findings from trade union reactions to employment casualisation including collective bargaining process, industrial strike/protests and trade union leadership activities expressly exude trade union application of conflict when other means of achieving labour union demand seems not yielding a positive outcome. Second, findings on how effective trade union reactions/strategies are to employment casualisation are equally laced with the Marxist Conflict Theory. In essence, both the strategies employed by trade union and their effectiveness are comprehensible from the Marxist Conflict frame of analysis.

Sources: Author's compilation

## 6.8 Conclusion

Major findings in this chapter were meticulously discussed in line with the research objectives, questions, and hypotheses. Firstly, findings show the patterns and trends of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, with the identification of outsource and contract employment as the two most practiced type of employment casualisation. The findings also narrate the various work challenges afflicting casual workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector. Examples of these challenges include lack of good working conditions, working in a dangerous setting without appropriate benefits and denial of the fundamental right to join or form a trade union association. Others are working for many years without the hope of a transition to permanent work status and high incidence of unfair dismissal without notice among others. Furthermore, four trade union reactionary strategies to the scourge of employment casualisation were uncovered. However, reflecting from the quantitative results, only trade union leadership activities and education and (re) training programs were statistically related to employment casualisation; with qualitative data, only education and (re) training programs show effectiveness to employment casualisation. One major implication, in the divergence of results with regard to trade union leadership activities, can be linked to casual workers need to idolize the efforts of trade union leaders for fear of losing their jobs.

As for the constellation of factors constricting trade union efforts, four unique issues were unearthed with the qualitative data; including lack of political will, economic constraints, unpatriotic and divisive trade union movement and the puzzle of corruption. Further, the discussion of findings was extended to the suppositions of the theoretical framework adopted in this study. For instance, findings on the pattern and trend of employment casualisation negate the Neo-Liberal Theory assumptions. The presuppositions of the LMS Theory uphold the major challenges casual labour are confronted with and factors constraining trade union strategies. Findings relating to the reactions and effectiveness of trade union strategies to employment casualisation, were subsequently strengthened with the assumptions of the Marxist Conflict Theory. The concluding chapter presents a summary of major findings, conclusions drawn from the entire study and major policy implications. In addition, suggestions for further studies and contribution to knowledge was also narrated.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an organisation of major highlights from the study. Using a mixed research method, with reference to the Lagos State Beverage sector, the focus of the study has been primarily to investigate trade unions' survival strategies in moderating the growing trend of employment casualisation. However, in the efforts to align the entire research in a coherent manner and empirically connect the findings with the research aim, the chapter is sequentially arranged into segments. The first section provides a summary of each chapter, while the second part exhibits a summary of major findings. While the third segment highlights conclusions and major implications emanating from the study, the fourth section proffers major policy recommendations on ways to incorporate global best practices into the Nigerian employment relations. Similarly, areas for further research form the last focus of this chapter. Conclusions are expressly drawn from the study's major findings. For example, with evidence of empirical results that ensued from the study, the conclusions reached show that all the research objectives have been satisfactorily achieved. The objectives are rehashed below for emphasis.

- i. To examine the patterns and trends in the growth of employment casualisation with implications for trade union strength in Nigeria's beverage sector;
- ii. To identify and appraise the challenges of employment casualisation for workers and the trade unions of Nigeria's beverage sector;
- iii. To investigate and understand trade union reactions to the challenges of employment casualisation in Nigeria's beverage sector;
- iv. To investigate the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in ameliorating the effect of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector; and
- v. To identify and examine the constellation of factors that have constrained trade union strategies in minimising the effect of employment casualisation on workers in Nigeria's beverage sector.

## **7.2 Summary of each chapter**

Essentially, the study attempts to appreciate how and whether the labour union of the Nigeria beverage sector, have demonstrated and consistently applied their clout through appropriate strategies to weaken the prominence of employment casualisation. Understanding the fact that the well-being of workers is intrinsically tied to the contribution and strength of the labour union, the study queries whether trade union strategies have unvaryingly transmuted into social and economic well-being for the working population, particularly those confined in non-standard work type. While chapter one positioned the background of the study, with an outline of the research problem that succinctly captures the conceptualisation of the study; chapter two launches and cements the current study within extant relevant literature. In line with the study's objectives, several themes were reviewed and discussed in this chapter championed through empirical research. However, although, a number of research works reviewed registered their apology that the growth of globalisation has improved the world of work. In contrast, the vast number of research works reviewed, unpack that the impact of globalisation on work has birthed severe implications even though this is hardly talked about, especially among the Western world researchers.

Other important themes discussed in chapter two, include how trade union relevance is fast becoming diminished with the increasing spread of employment casualisation. Further, while the role of the ILO was succinctly discussed in ensuring decent work for all through the application of four strategic agenda, the trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation were equally unearthed. In addition, the chapter explains the plethora of factors cramping the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies to employment casualisation. This is followed by a conceptual framework, while also underpinning the study within theoretical frameworks.

The concern of chapter three shoulders the exploration of Nigeria's labour market and the growth of employment casualisation. To neatly unpack the issues here, the chapter explores major features of the formal and informal sectors of the Nigeria labour market. Although, the job characteristics of each sector are distinct, yet understanding both features have thus aided in guiding against giving undue recognition to one sector than the other. This is sufficient to contend that, both sectors of the labour market harbour casual workers, and understanding

their respective features and activities have helped in grasping a fuller understanding of employment casualisation challenges. Again, the chapter traced and narrates the evolution of the trade union in Nigeria, and trade union functions. To a large extent, the thesis argued that the evolution of Nigeria's labour movement trajectories has been greatly influenced by multifaceted of factors, particularly the concern of political assaults, rivalry among rank and file trade union members, and the problem of dissection.

Chapter four presents a detailed discussion of the research methods and methodology. Having examined the strength and weakness of the various reviewed research philosophies, the pragmatist research philosophy was adopted having possessed both the quantitative and qualitative research ideology. Again, the inductive and deductive research approaches were employed to complement the adoption of mixed research methods in the study. Similarly, in a bid to achieve the goal of a mixed research method, the survey and case study research design were espoused. For instance, while the survey research design was utilized to survey quantitative data from the five selected organisations of study through the administration of questionnaires, the case study research design was employed to gather qualitative data through the semi-structured interview from trade union executives of FOBTOB.

Essentially, the study adopts the convergent parallel/ concurrent mixed methods, where both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed concurrently. In selecting participants from the pool of the population, the stratified and purposive sampling techniques were utilized to select participants for both the quantitative and qualitative strand of the study. Thus, the concern of chapter five was with making sense with the data garnered through explicit data analyses. As appropriate, frequency and percentage distributions, Pearson Products Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Multiple Regression Analysis were employed to analyse the quantitative data, while contents analysis was correspondingly employed for analysing the qualitative data respectively. Lastly, chapter six narrates a comprehensive discussion of findings in line with empirical evidence that ensued from chapter five.

### 7.3 Summary of major findings

The significance of recognizing how and what work ought to be for the individual worker, no doubt provides a platform for addressing the impact of social, political and economic constraints of employment casualisation on the sustenance and livelihood of an average working person. With the ongoing discourse of globalisation, the existing literature has somewhat idolized the gains of globalisation on work overly than the shortcomings. Consequently, there are sparse research works on how the emergence of globalisation has negatively impacted work (employment), and little is also known on how the labour union has been reacting to the ascending changes in the workplace. Whilst this has provided a basis to determine not only the existing patterns and trends of employment casualisation and the challenges thereof, it has also provided a platform to understand the extent to which the Nigerian Beverage sector labour movement, have been charting a new course for improvement in the work conditions of workers in non-standard employment type. However, the summary of findings is discussed in relation to both the quantitative and qualitative findings concurrently, since all the findings from each strand of data converged.

The socio-demographic profile of the respondents showed that more males than females participated in the study. Again, this revelation unequivocally narrates that the strenuous conditions of casualisation are largely occupied by the male cohorts, with little female attendants. The age range of participants showed that majority of the participants were in the age range of 20-39 years (64.6 percent). A quick survey of Nigeria's population reveals that over 60 percent of Nigeria's population being of youthful age are below the age of 30 (NBS, 2017). In essence, it could be interpreted that the problem of unemployment and failed institutions of government have consistently confined the gamut of Nigeria's youth to non-standard jobs. The marital status of the respondent's show that the majority of them were married at the time of this study. A large number of respondents (52.6 percent), who revealed they do not belong to trade union association shows one of the many challenges facing workers in the casual employment arrangement. Similarly, the result showed that 39.5 percent of the respondents earn below ₦50,000 a month; an amount below US 140 dollars. In the related account, a large number of respondents (46.0 percent), being holders of Higher National Diploma/Bachelor's degree further exposed to an extent, the fact that workers of the Nigerian

Beverage sector who work in the non-standard employment arrangement are holders of first-degree qualification.

On the various patterns and trends in the growth of employment casualisation, findings indicated that contract and outsource employment are the two distinct patterns of employment casualisation practices in the Nigerian Beverage sector. However, there exist some nuance in their conditions of work, as employees in the former work type enjoy more work privileges than workers in the latter. This was based on the revelation that contract workers are directly hired by the organisation to fill temporary job positions, while they equally enjoy work benefits excluding pensions and the right to unionization. Outsourced workers on the other hand, who are recruited for the secondary employer by third party agents (outsource agent) are grossly denied all available workplace benefits including the privilege of association. Hence, it was revealed that organisations, have more preference for the utility of outsourcing workers for cost maximization. Specifically, merging findings from both streams of data, respondents agreed that whatever the taxonomy used in classifying the varied patterns of employment casualisation, the focus for the employers is to increase bottom line margin by way of circumventing their responsibility for the welfare of workers.

Several challenges of employment casualisation for workers and the labour union was also investigated. The study shows that the challenges of employment casualisation for workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector are keenly multifaceted. On the one hand, the result reveals lack of good and healthy work environment, denial of the social workplace, no compensation for industrial accident/injury, inappropriate dismissal, poor work remuneration and working for several years without the possibility of conversion to a permanent job. On the other hand, available evidence also shows that casual workers of the Nigerian Beverage sector are denied the right of either form or join a trade union association, a case that clearly contravenes section 12(1) of the Trade Union Act 2005 as amended. Again, the study indicated that the trade union movement of the Nigerian Beverage sector has suffered severe setback owing to the rising prominence of employment casualisation. For instance, the majority of trade union officials mentioned that the labour union, have been consistently losing its members who were at a point laid off as a result of redundancy and only re-employed as casuals with outright denial of joining trade union association. A great challenge for the labour movement revealed through

the finding, is its abating financial strength and relevance due largely to the sparse financial commitment of members.

Furthermore, trade union survival strategies for employment casualisation were also reconnoitered. With respect to this subject, the study identified four distinct reactionary strategies for contending with the rifer of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, including collective bargaining process, industrial strikes/ protest actions, trade union leadership activities, and education and (re) training programmes of trade union members. For the collective bargaining process, the *foci* were not only for the trade union association to bargain with employers on behalf of casual workers, but to have them covered in the industrial wide collective bargaining agreement since section 54 of the Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended explicitly defines a “worker as any employee who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, expressed or implied, oral or in writing, and whether it is a contract personally to execute any work or labour or a contract of apprenticeship”. Without further segregation, whoever enjoys the status of a worker should invariably qualify to enjoy collective bargaining benefits.

In terms of industrial strikes/protest strategy, the study identified the use of this strategy, as a means to picket and organized trade protests against organisations enormous use of casual labourers. This strategy is one of the fierce weapons of the trade union movement was argued by the majority of the respondents, as one of the important ways of realizing trade union demands. For trade union leadership activities, the goal as shown from the study is to have a patriotic and united labour union through which the functions, responsibilities, and activities of protecting the working people can become not only evident on its constituents but also reflect on the interests of casual workers, by canvassing for an improvement in their work conditions. The identification of education and (re) training programmes as shown from the study, was hinged on the need to increase the consciousness of workers through continuous education and (re)training programmes to be well-informed on emergent changes in the workplace.

Having identified trade union reactionary strategies to employment casualisation in the preceding paragraph, the effectiveness of these strategies to subside the growth of employment casualisation were equally explored. The study revealed that the collective bargaining process was not effective for ameliorating the challenges of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector. Evidence from this study revealed that the trade union movement, utterly excludes casual workers from any collective bargaining agreement benefits they might have reached with the employers. In addition, while activities of trade union leaders exude effectiveness to abating the ascending challenges of employment casualisation in the Nigerian Beverage sector, industrial strikes/protests action strategy posits contrary evidence. For instance, the proscription of industrial strikes in section 31(6) of the Trade Union Act of 2005 is a marker for the declining use of this strategy by the Nigeria labour union. While it is clear that there exists a contradiction in 31(16) sub section (a) of the same Act that the interdiction of the industrial strike is for workers in essential services, yet the reduced or non-utility of industrial strikes strategy as a weapon for curtailing employment casualisation remains uncertain. Perhaps, this cement the shared sentiments that the Nigerian labour union resolution for an improved world of work might not be guaranteed in the shortest frame of time.

The study indicated that many of the strikes action/picketing exercise embarked by the trade union of the Nigerian Beverage sector, as a fierce response to employment casualisation were all greatly marred with inconsistencies of purpose. Nevertheless, the study portrayed education and (re) training programmes of trade union members as an effective strategy for employment casualisation. Lastly, the study unpacks four unrelated factors constraining trade union survival strategies to effectively reduce the upsurge of non-standard work in the Nigerian beverage sector; including lack of political will, economic constriction, unpatriotic and divisive labour union and the factor of corruption respectively. The uncovering of these factors neatly cement with the many challenges plaguing the Nigeria state in particular. Clearly, understanding the many snacks of labour union in Nigeria is inherently tied to that of the country. In short, as a result of Nigeria's unhealthy developmental growth, the labour union has consistently found itself in a hard to crack dilemma for effective functions.

## 7.4 Conclusion

In Nigeria many labour policies and legislations have been rolled out, with emphasis on improving the well-being of the working people. Sadly, Nigerians have remained mum to interrogate how these policies and legislations have impacted the conditions of work. In line with major findings, it is crucial to maintaining that any serious labour policy and laws, must pay utmost attention to alleviating the enormous poverty affecting the working people. Therefore, this becomes imperative as experiences from other countries such as Ghana, Zimbabwe and Zambia reported huge successes in the institutionalization of effective labour policies that have not only improved workers well-being but that have guaranteed good working lives for casual workers alike. Importantly, with the convictions that casual workers consist of an outsized number of many labour force in Africa, it is undoubtedly acknowledged that they contribute hugely to the development of these countries. In other words, deserting these cohorts of the working people in the Nigerian case mirrored severe implications.

The study concluded that the various patterns and widespread employment casualisation and its corresponding challenges on both the working people and trade union movements are largely due to the fast spread of labour market flexibility. Thus, organizations in a bid to remain competitive amidst the growing competitive market, outsource workers from the flexible labour market or absorb others as contract workers. Whereas labour leaders engage management in collective bargaining, casual workers' hardly benefit from the agreement that is reached. However, casual workers fairly gain from union education and retraining programmes. The study also argued that, while the horrendous consequences of employment casualisation still continue to linger on the working people with little or no effort to curtailing it, there are serious consequences for trade union relevance. The perception that the labour union is not keenly provoked, for ensuring employment casualisation becomes lessen in the Nigerian labour market possess important indicators for this conclusion. However, the study reasoned for a more vociferous trade union struggle as the only viable means of limiting the unceasing spread of employment casualisation. This conviction suggests that the trade union movements is valued and robustly considered, as a tool for safeguarding the interests of the working people. On this note, the study suggests varying conclusions, on the question of the role and remits fulfillment on the part of the labour union as an institution saddled with

achieving decent work agenda for all. While this role is statutorily pursued, the study anticipates improving conditions of work in Nigeria's beverage sector.

Similarly, the study strongly emphasized that the complete exclusion of casual workers from the constituents of workers, sheltered by the labour union expressly contravene sections of the Nigeria labour laws, and a call for the inclusion of these set of workers would unequivocally enhance trade union activities in general. Importantly, the trade union movement herself must acknowledge this, and come to terms with the reality that employment casualisation has come to stay as far as the influence of globalisation continues to strive. In other words, a great number of the working people will continue forming the huge portion of this work pattern as long the snag of unemployment continues unabated. Therefore, identifying workable strategies for questioning employers' immoderations becomes important in this discourse.

Further, the study concludes with the position that all trade union strategies should be measured not only based on the benefits they allure to the generality of the working people but for workers in the non-standard employment particularly. Expectedly, the study hopes to provoke a profound discourse on how labour union exertions for addressing the tauter consequences of employment casualisation have been constrained for effectiveness. Perhaps, an exploration of possible solutions to overcome these constraints remain major difficulties for the trade union movement with various bottlenecks. Notwithstanding, the study concludes that more is expected from the ambit of a trade union by chatting for continued relevance, and ensuring the meaning of work is sustained. The case for this argument is a reminder that with the extinction of trade union, work would irrefutably become meaningless and the very need for human existence would hardly become realizable.

## **7.5 Policy recommendations**

Fundamentally, research of this nature where the emphasis is on the study of organisations particularly requires policy recommendations. On this account, the policy recommendations enumerated in this study neatly cement with major findings in preceding chapters of the study. The employment relations environment is currently being driven by the forces of globalisation and its accompanying challenges, while employers of labour are realigning their business strategies to surmount these enormous challenges. Consequently, in the contemporary world of work, organisations are now left with the choice of remaining either '*small*' or '*big*' as a

result of the one big *pond* advanced by globalization, in which all organisations irrespective of sizes are expected to 'swim' for survival. The survival challenge for organisations is to concoct and harness competitive advantage to avoid being capsized by the wind of globalisation as it were. In a bid to strategize and organize practical steps towards avoiding these distresses, organisations now resort to the creation and use of work with various exploitative desires; including the denial of the fundamental right of the human person and other workplace benefits. For emphasis, many of these jobs have become a clear description of poverty such that their nature and characteristics exemplify poverty in the real sense, while the remit of the labour union is not distanced from being indolent.

Although Nigeria is on its path for the resuscitation of the economy through various economy reforms and policies geared towards lessening the rising rate of poverty among the citizens, it must, however, be borne in mind that the pursuit for reduced poverty goes hand in hand with ensuring jobs are sustaining, fulfilling and decent. Again, this questions the government's responsibility to the working people to develop policies, and enact legislations that will enhance the general well-being of the populace, specifically the working people. Consequently, while it is clear that the labour union no doubt is saddled with ensuring the promotion of self-sustaining and decent work, this responsibility, however, does not foreclose the support of the government. The contribution of government in this regard can be viewed from the need to initiate consultation between employers and trade union for effective labour policies and programmes needed to surmount the many workplace challenges.

Accordingly, the results of this study is a marker for both policy and academic implications, required for the refinement of non-standard employment and to wither its growth in Nigerian beverage sector as a fundamental quest for the realization of human development, aspirations, and needs. Therefore, it is imperative to accentuate that the labour union needs a developmental agenda that will consider workers in temporary employment at the hub of its developmental policy for the plausible realisation of the decent workplace for all. Put together, the following policy recommendations are presented based on the findings of the study.

- **A call for an urgent review of Nigeria's labour law**

Discussions on the various patterns and practices of employment casualisation in this study were not only explained with the rising influence of globalisation, but are more greatly connected to the moribund and ambiguous contents of Nigeria's labour laws, which are explicitly set to guide and regulate employment practices in Nigeria. With this in mind, the study recommends an overhaul and review of Nigerian labour laws, in particular, the Labour Act of 1974 and Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended as no provision in these legislation gives recognition to contract and outsource employment. Clearly, the agenda for employers have been the exploitation of Nigerian workers through different work practices in tune with the shortfalls of labour laws.

Therefore, for a feasible solution to these inadequacies, the Nigerian government must recognize and come to terms with the responsibility of reviewing moribund provisions of labour legislation for international best practices. The Nigerian government must also ensure that the terms of engagement and other employment benefits for non-standard workers are clearly inscribed in this Acts for plausible discontinuity of exploitation. To do this, urgent political-will must be stimulated by government and lawmakers for a clear inclusion of the right of casual workers in relevant labour legislation. With this stride, the Nigerian labour laws can be a niche to compare with her counterparts, such as Ghana and China, where labour law provisions are clearly indorsed for the interests of temporary workers.

- **A need for more robust monitoring functions by Nigeria's Ministry of Employment and Labour**

It is acknowledged that Nigeria's Ministry of Employment and Labour, is saddled with the responsibility of monitoring labour market and other employment-related activities. However, one pertinent finding uncovered in this study explains that the Nigeria Ministry of Employment and Labour are the regulator of outsourcing and contract employment wherein outsource licenses are issued outsourcing firms. Again, although, one of the main justifications, uncovered why the ministry should promote outsourcing is the need for more employment creation for the enormous unemployed Nigerians. Nevertheless, if these arguments are anything to go by, it is clear from the findings that the ministry has not been effective in monitoring the activities of outsourcing firms to ensure conformity with international best

practices. On this note, it is recommended that the Nigeria Ministry of Employment and Labour should robustly identify with her responsibilities of monitoring the activities of not only outsourcing firms, but activities and trends of employment practices in Nigeria labour market.

This recommendation become highly imperative given the indecent and horrendous work practices striving in the Nigeria labour market. For instance, the state and conditions of several of the factories where casual workers are confined to work is a testament to the fact that enough inspections and monitoring efforts have not been put to work for ensuring safe work conditions casual workers. In other words, working towards reducing many of the challenges attached to employment casualisation is the need to ensure consistent and effective workplace monitoring, especially those that have to do with factory and plant inspections where many of the inhumane work conditions are melted on casual workers. However, this strand of recommendation will be incomplete without suggesting the need for effective political will on the part of the Nigeria Ministry of Employment and Labour. As it is in Nigeria, the overwhelming constrictions to ensuring effective functions of institutions of government is hinged on the lack of political will. Thus, this study recommends the instilment of political-will in the activities and functions of Nigeria's ministry of employment and labour, with regards to monitoring and inspections of workplace factories and plants towards ensuring the attainment of decent work.

Having established the need for effective monitoring and inspection of factories and plants of production, it is equally crucial to ensure other state liaison offices of the ministry are in top form to adequately execute their respective tasks. For instance, it was revealed in chapter five of this study that the Lagos State liaison office of the Federal Ministry of Employment and Labour is in critical conditions with gross incompetent for executing her duties. Therefore, with respect to Lagos State being the study sites for this study, it is recommended that swift action be initiated by the Federal Ministry of Employment and Labour towards rehabilitating states liaison offices for effectiveness. No doubt, this development would greatly stimulate more checks, by way of monitoring the unprecedented work abuse perpetuating by employers of the Lagos State Beverage sector.

- **Addressing the snag of corruption and rivalry**

As a pathway to attaining practical development in Nigeria, the trend of corrupt practices in many Nigeria institutions, agencies of government and other organized associations such as the trade union movement needs rouse attention. In particular, the vastness of corrupts incidence within the labour union was unpacked as a poser for effective trade union functions. Therefore, it is recommended that the labour leaders institute a mechanism check, where for instance all alleged cases of corruption among rank-and-file trade union officials will be looked into with utmost sincerity. Importantly, it is needful to mention that the hitch of corruption, has penetrated many labour unions in Nigeria and up until now has been a major factor cramping how far the labour union can go in the struggle towards protecting and ensuring decent work life for the working people. Therefore, the pursuit for good work life, should not be distanced from a thorough sanitization of the trade union movement for corrupt free-practices.

The leadership of the Nigerian trade union movement and the Nigerian Beverage sector labour union in particular, must come to terms with the reality that efforts towards sustaining the continued relevance of trade union by way of reducing the growing tide of employment casualisation is also tied to eradicating the labour movement of all corrupts rehearses that has perpetually taken over trade unionism in recent times. In addition, efforts must be channeled to punish adherent trade union leaders, who are positioned to sabotage the attainment of decent work by way of conniving with employers of labour for the consistent promotion of non-standard employment. This can be attained through a modification of the Nigeria Trade Union Act of 2005 as amended, where punishment for corrupt labour officials would be explicitly stated. With this, the labour movement could attain some level of decency geared towards the attainment of decent work for all.

In alignment with ensuring a corrupt-free labour movement, it is clear that the hurdle of rivalry and factionalisation among trade union has greatly engendered a low trade union strength in terms of discharging her duty of protecting the interests of the working people. Having established this through the study, it is evident that the incidence of rivalry among national trade union movement that has now engrossed into a complex rivalry, among trade union associations was an attempt to weaken the clout of a trade union by aggrieved trade union

leaders for personal interest and desires. Therefore, it is recommended that for a more vigorous and effective trade union struggle against the growing trend of workplace exploitation, the Nigeria labour union body might consider the formation of a joint trade union structure along industrial and sectorial lines without further segmentation along senior or junior union categories which undoubtedly has the likelihood of increasing the strength of the labour movement.

To be precise, the problem of employment casualisation is not peculiar to either the junior or senior staff association, rather both stream of the union is having their share of the pie. Therefore, coming together to unanimously grapple with workplace exploitation would not only ebb the problem of rivalry and factionalisation, but engendered great possibility of lessening the consequences of casualisation on the working people and trade union relevance as it were. In addition, in countries like Ghana, Zambia and Zimbabwe, trade union formation is entirely restricted to sectorial lines, without portioning along seniority lines; a development that has stimulated great success stories, especially as regard lessening the gruesome effect of employment casualisation. Hence, the Nigeria labour body and the Beverage sector union in specific can borrow a leaf from this account to ensure that powers and strength of both the junior and senior trade union are merged for effective trade union struggles.

- **A need for genuine legislative functions on the part of Nigeria's lawmakers**

One of the many problems constricting the realisation of effective trade union struggles is the concern of poor legislative support systems. Findings revealed that the Nigerian lawmakers have been giving priorities to MNCs where casual employment is more perpetuated. In fact, it has become so pathetic that many times, the labour leaders are being rebuked for provocative labour functions against employer's immoderations by Nigerian lawmakers. The right question to ask is who between the working people and foreign investors should enjoy more of legislative protection? However, the answer to this question is not far-fetched as many Nigerian lawmakers are shareowners in many of the MNCs. On this note, it is recommended that the Nigerian lawmakers must come to terms with the verity that engaging foreign investors on their employment policies, through an exhaustive evaluation process by weighing the economic, social and psychological implications on the well-being of Nigerian workers, and taking a sincere and decisive decision for the general benefits of workers is fundamental.

Specifically, this recommendation is sacrosanct, as it will to a great extent provoke strong trade union resolve to challenge employer's abuse of labour. In addition, this recommendation can indubitably advance the labour union voice by engaging other civil society organisations, to collectively strategize for solutions to the many workplace challenges workers are constructed with. To this end, the Nigeria lawmakers must play a key role through various legislative support functions to resuscitate the dwindling labour market, for around the clock effectiveness with emphasis on ensuring workers capacity to live healthy, prosperous and self-sustaining work life.

- **Establishment of trade union training centers**

Although, findings revealed that the Beverage sector training and capacity building programmes were somewhat significant to employment casualisation. Yet, little evidence are discernable to support this contention. Hence, a call for the establishment of more institutions of labour studies and allied employment issues is of high necessity. For instance, the Pa Michael Imodu institute of labour studies, Ilorin, Nigeria is the only institute in Nigeria where labour related issues are taught, while the University of Ibadan is the only University in Nigeria offering training in trade unionism. Having established this, the study recommends the establishment of more labour institutions across Nigeria's six geopolitical zones, wherein effective trade union training and capacity building can be established for rank and file trade union members. Precisely, this is important, in order to charge and roused the consciousness of labour union. Specifically, the trade union officials of the Nigerian beverage sector must not rest on their toes, as more labour and employment knowledge can still be attained to ensure the sector is in full charge for reducing the growth rate of employment casualisation. Therefore, it is in the interest of this study, that the Nigerian Beverage sector should invest more in its trade union capacity building initiatives for a robust trade union struggle and survival in general.

## **7.6 Areas for further studies**

The crux of this study focused on establishing the link between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies in selected companies of the Nigerian beverage sector, with emphasis on Lagos State. The existing review of literature shows that few of the African countries discussed to an extent have effective labour legislation enacted for the protection of

non-standard workers. In other words, suggesting a comparative study between Nigeria and any of these countries might really not justify the need for future research in this context. However, a comparative study might be necessary between Nigeria and other developing countries beyond the shore of Africa. This effort will no doubt provide an inter-continental perspective on trade union reactions to non-standard work arrangement.

The focus of this study is clearly on the Nigerian beverage sector. Future research can examine the relationship between employment casualisation and trade union survival strategies in other sectors of the Nigerian economy, or a comparative analysis of the Nigerian beverage sector and the Oil and Gas sector where non-standard employment is equally having a strong grasp. The results of this analysis would exude a fuller understanding of trade union responsiveness to temporary employment practices within the fabric of Nigeria labour market. Furthermore, the study examined four trade union strategies (collective bargaining, trade union leadership activities, industrial strike action, and trade union education and (re) training programmes). Further studies, might be required to investigate other types of trade union strategies not examined in this study.

Within the disciplinary context, a sociological analysis of trade union reactions to temporary employment can be investigated, specifically with a focus on the informal sector. Again, this analysis could explain the temporary employment pattern practiced in the Nigeria informal sector, and trade union efforts to subside or address the horrendous challenges thereof. Put together, the study stimulates further research interests in labour relations and human resources management towards creating a decent workplace through continuous trade union struggles.

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### **Book Chapters**

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: Gate keeper's letter



(FOBTOB)

affiliated to:



TU C  
NIGERIA



UNI global  
union



IUF  
UITA  
IUL

# FOOD, BEVERAGE & TOBACCO SENIOR STAFF ASSOCIATION

(A registered Trade Union in Nigeria)

**National Secretariat:**  
32, Isaac John Street, Off Ikorodu Road,  
Igbobi, Fadeyi, Lagos, Nigeria.  
t: +234 (1) 2916336  
e: fobtobssa@hotmail.com  
secretariat@fobtob.org  
w: www.fobtob.org

18th February, 2016

Mr. Adewumi Samson Adeoluwa,  
College of Social Sciences,  
Howard Campus,  
University of Kwazulu-Nata,  
Republic of South Africa

Dear Mr. Adewumi,

**RE: REQUEST FOR A GATE KEEPERS LETTER**

I am pleased to inform you that your request for a gate keeper's letter has been approved.

Your proposed thesis on "*Casualisation and Trade Union Survival Strategies in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry*" is of immense interest to our organisation and you can count on us for the necessary assistance.

However, we would require a copy of your thesis to be submitted to our office after completion of the work.

Wishing you all the best in your endeavour.

Yours faithfully,



**Solomon Adebosin**  
Ag. General Secretary

cc: National President, FOBTOB

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QUADRI A. OLALEYE (National President) SOLOMON A. ADEBOSIN (Acting Executive Secretary)

## Appendix B: Ethical Clearance



05 July 2017

**Mr Samson Adeoluwa Adewumi (216068810)**  
School of Social Sciences  
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Adewumi,

**Protocol reference number: HSS/0809/017D**

**Project title: Casualisation and Trade Union survival strategies in the Beverage Sector of Lagos State, Nigeria**

### Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 19 June 2017, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

**PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.**

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....  
**Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)**

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Dr Olusola Ogunnubi  
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Maheshvari Naidu  
Cc School Administrator: Mr N Memela

---

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee  
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4567 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: [ximban@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximban@ukzn.ac.za) / [snvmanm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snvmanm@ukzn.ac.za) / [mohung@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:mohung@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)

1910 - 2010  
100 YEARS OF ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

## Appendix C: Questionnaire

### Informed Consent Document



Dear Participant,

My name is ADEWUMI SAMSON ADEOLUWA (216068810). I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College, South Africa. The title of my research is: *Casualisation and Trade Union Survival Strategies in the Beverage Sector of Lagos State, Nigeria*. The aim of the study is to understand the responsiveness of trade union to the rising prominence of casualization of labour. I am interested in administering a questionnaire/interviewing you so as to share your experiences and observations on the subject matter.

Please note that:

The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.

- Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research.
- Your views to the self-administered questionnaire/interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in any form in the study.
- The self-administered questionnaire/interview will take about 30-45 minutes
- The record as well as other items associated with the interview will be held in a password-protected file accessible only to me and my supervisor. After a period of 5 years, in line with the rules of the university, it will be disposed by shredding and burning.

If you agree to participate please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signatures)

I can be contacted at: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: [216068810@stu.ukzn.ac.za](mailto:216068810@stu.ukzn.ac.za) Cell: +2348038213453, +27780387303 My supervisor is Dr.Olusola Ogunnubi who is located at the School of Social Sciences, Pietermaritzburg Campus Durban, of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Contact details: email [olusola.ogunnubi@yahoo.com](mailto:olusola.ogunnubi@yahoo.com), Phone number: +277843080699.

The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee contact details are as follows: Ms Phumelele Ximba, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Research Office, Email: [ximbap@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbap@ukzn.ac.za), Phone number +27312603587.

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

### DECLARATION

I..... (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. I understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

I consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded (if applicable)

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section A – Respondent’s Socio-Demographic Characteristics

S/N	Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Options
1	Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
2	Age range	<input type="checkbox"/> 20-29 years <input type="checkbox"/> 30-39 years <input type="checkbox"/> 40-49 years <input type="checkbox"/> 50 years and above
3	Marital status	<input type="checkbox"/> Married <input type="checkbox"/> Single <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced/Separated <input type="checkbox"/> Widow/Widower
4	Employment status	<input type="checkbox"/> Permanent Staff <input type="checkbox"/> Casual Staff
5	Are you a member of trade union?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
6	What is the name of the trade union you belong to?	-----
7	Membership status in trade union	<input type="checkbox"/> Executive <input type="checkbox"/> Ex-officio <input type="checkbox"/> Member <input type="checkbox"/> Others -----
8	When did you join this organization?	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 3years <input type="checkbox"/> 4- 6years <input type="checkbox"/> 7-9years <input type="checkbox"/> 10years and above
9	Monthly income	<input type="checkbox"/> below N 20,000 <input type="checkbox"/> N 20,000- N 49,999 <input type="checkbox"/> N50,000-N 99,999 <input type="checkbox"/> N100, 000- N149,999 <input type="checkbox"/> N 150,000 and above
10	Highest educational qualification	<input type="checkbox"/> First leaving certificates/primary <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary/SSSCE <input type="checkbox"/> OND/NCE <input type="checkbox"/> HND/Bachelor’s Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master’s Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Others.....

**SECTION B**

**INSTRUCTION: Please complete the following by ticking any of the options**

**Keywords: SA -Strongly Agree, A-Agree, U- Undecided, D -Disagree, SD-Strongly Disagree**

**Remarks on patterns and trends of casualisation**

SN		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The trend and practice of casualisation is growing in the beverage industrial sector					
2	A great number of casual workers work on contract basis in your organisation					
3	An increase number of casual workers are recruited through outsourcing firms					
4	Casualisation of labour is now common among high-skilled workers					
5	Casual workers are proscribed/ban from forming or joining trade union association in the beverage industry					
6	Majority of the casual employees work as part-time workers					
7	There are no expiration to casual work in your organization					
8	Casual work is now prevalent among individual with appreciable qualification					
9	Most workers on casual work arrangement are not on the pay roll of your organization					

**Remarks on challenges of casualisation**

SN		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10	Most casual workers have worked for many years without permanent status					
11	The right of workers under casualization are usually infringed upon by employers					
12	Casual workers enjoy work benefits in the beverage industry					
13	Casualisation has increased workers job insecurity					
14	Casual workers are dismissed inappropriately without notice					
15	Casual workers normally work under unsafe work environment					
16	The job description of a casual worker is not flexible					
17	Casual workers are not entitled to training for career development in your organization					
18	Casual workers received low wage for same work output with permanent workers					
19	Casual workers have low attachment to the organization					

20	Casualisation of employment has led to inequality between casual and permanent workers					
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**Remarks on survival strategies of collective bargaining process**

SN	ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
21	Collective bargaining procedures covers casual workers					
22	Collective agreement benefits extends to workers on casual work arrangement					
23	Trade union usually bargain on behalf of casual employees in the beverage sector					
24	Trade union relies on collective bargaining to increase casual workers welfare					
25	Employers often consent to bargain for casual workers welfare					
26	Impasse always arose from the failure of management to bargain with trade union in the interest of casual workers					
27	Collective bargaining is binding on all workers					
28	Casual worker are protected by industrial wide bargaining					
29	Collective bargaining is effective for collective workers interest					

**Remarks on survival strategy of trade union leadership activities**

SN	ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
30	The leadership of trade union are working towards improving the lives of casual workers					
31	I am personally encouraged with the role of trade union leadership in ensuring a better work life for casuals and workers in general					
32	Trade union leaders always engage management for good working conditions					
33	Casual workers are benefiting from the leadership of trade union in this organization					
34	Activities of trade union leaders usually result in internal crisis or disputes					
35	Trade union leaders are not keen about the welfare of casual workers					
36	The trade union leadership are weak and incapable of ameliorating the plight of casual workers					

**Remarks on survival strategy of industrial strike**

SN	ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
37	Strike has been effective for realizing the demands of casual workers					
38	There have been records of industrial strike as a result the unfavourable wage system for casual employees					
39	Trade union do not always support the need to strike on behalf of casual workers					
40	Trade union usually picket organisations for increase adoption of casual work					
41	Management usually embark on lock-out to avert trade union request					
42	Industrial disputes always occur for non-recognition of casual workers by management					
43	Implementation of industrial strike outcomes are not binding on casual worker					

**Remarks on survival strategy of worker's education and training programs**

SN	ITEMS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
44	Workers are often sensitized through workshops and seminars about the changes in the world of work					
45	Trade union members are trained and retrained to withstand anti-labour management policies					
46	Trade union has a strong culture of educating its members and others					
47	I have benefitted from the literacy programs of trade union as a casual permanent/worker					
48	Education and training programs of trade union has been effective in ameliorating the consequence of casualisation					
49	The education and training programs of trade union has enhance workers knowledge					

## Appendix D: Interview Schedule

### Informed Consent Document



Dear Participant,

My name is ADEWUMI SAMSON ADEOLUWA (216068810). I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College, South Africa. The title of my research is: *Casualisation and Trade Union Survival Strategies in the Beverage Sector of Lagos State, Nigeria*. The aim of the study is to understand the responsiveness of trade union to the risen influence of casualization of labour. I am interested in administering a questionnaire/interviewing you so as to share your experiences and observations on the subject matter.

Please note that:

The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.

- Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research.
- Your views to the self-administered questionnaire/interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in any form in the study.
- The self-administered questionnaire/interview will take about 45-60 minutes
- The record as well as other items associated with the interview will be held in a password-protected file accessible only to me and my supervisor. After a period of 5 years, in line with the rules of the university, it will be disposed by shredding and burning.

If you agree to participate please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signatures)

I can be contacted at: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: [216068810@stu.ukzn.ac.za](mailto:216068810@stu.ukzn.ac.za) Cell: +2348038213453, +27780387303. My supervisor is Dr. Olusola Ogunnubi who is located at the School of Social Sciences, Pietermaritzburg Campus Durban, of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Contact details: email [olusola.ogunnubi@yahoo.com](mailto:olusola.ogunnubi@yahoo.com), Phone number: [+277843080699](tel:+277843080699).

The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee contact details are as follows: Ms Phumelele Ximba, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Research Office, Email: [ximbap@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbap@ukzn.ac.za), Phone number +27312603587.

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

### DECLARATION

I..... (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. I understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

I consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded (if applicable)

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

## **INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

- Q1: What are the different changes you think the emergence of globalization has brought to the workplace?
- Q2: How can you describe the positive and negative impact of these changes on the Nigerian beverage industry?
- Q3: What are the different practices of employment casualisation in the Nigerian beverage industry?
- Q4: How can you explain the influence of casualisation on trade union membership?
- Q5: In your opinion, what challenges and difficult experiences do you think employees under casual work arrangement are going through?
- Q6: What factors do you think accounted for the continuous spread of casualisation?
- Q7: How can you explain the influence of these various factors in enhancing the growth of casualisation?
- Q8: What would you say are the roles of trade union leaders in ensuring better work life for casual workers?
- Q9: In your opinion, how has collective bargaining process helped improve casual workers working conditions?
- Q11: To the best of your knowledge, how can you explain the influence of industrial strike in achieving the demands of casual workers?
- Q12: How has trade union education and training programs sharpened worker's awareness against neo-liberalist policies in the beverage sector?
- Q13: In your opinion, how effective are these strategies to casualisation of labour in the beverage sector?
- Q14: What factors and how would you say have constrained the effectiveness of trade union survival strategies in the beverage sector?