

**WORKING CONDITIONS OF CASUAL WORKERS IN SELECTED
CONSTRUCTION FIRMS IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA**

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ABSTRACT

The seasonal nature of the construction sector necessitated the use of casual workers (CWs) by construction firms. Critical factors such as size (number of workers and operational branches) and age (year of incorporation) of firm usually affect the working conditions of CWs. Studies of CWs in the sector have not adequately addressed how these factors affect the perception of working conditions, challenges of work and coping strategies adopted. This study, therefore, examined the working conditions of CWs and the intervening roles of size and age of selected construction firms in Lagos, Nigeria.

A synthesis of labour market segmentation and rational choice theories provided the conceptual framework. The designs were both survey and exploratory. A two-stage sampling consisting of purposive and simple random techniques were used to select firms and respondents respectively. Three construction firms of different sizes and ages: Julius Berger Nigeria (JBN) (large/oldest), China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation of Nigeria (CCECC) (medium/older) and Plycon Nigeria Limited (PNL) (small/old) were purposively selected. Using Mason's sample size determination, 1,076 respondents were selected as follows: JBN (679), CCECC (338) and PNL (59). A semi-structured questionnaire was used to elicit information on socio-demographic characteristics, mode of recruitment (direct or indirect), perception about working conditions (wages, job security, safety at work, overtime bonus, relationship with supervisor and medical assistance), challenges of work and coping strategies. Twenty-nine in-depth interviews were conducted with casual workers (18), management staff (9) and officials of Ministry of Labour and Productivity (2) to ascertain the extent of compliance with regulations on recruitment and treatment of CWs. Six case studies were conducted with CWs. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and chi-square test statistics at 5% level of significance, while qualitative data were content analysed.

Respondents' age was 40.6 ± 1.0 years, 79.4% were males, 53.6% earned less than ₦50,000 monthly and 67.2% had secondary education and above. Respondents from JBN (65.5%), CCECC (69.2%) and PNL (66.1%) were recruited through direct mode of employment. Wages, job security, overtime bonus, relationship with supervisor and medical assistance were jointly perceived by CWs in JBN (52.9%), CCECC (47.0%) and PNL (29.2%) as good. Respondents from JBN (15.8%), CCECC (6.0%) and PNL (12.6%) perceived them as fair, while those from JBN (31.3%), CCECC (47%) and PNL (56.3%) perceived them as poor. Low wage was identified as a common challenge in all the firms. However, other specific challenges in the firms were safety concerns in JBN (56.5%), rigid supervision (58.3%) in CCECC and job insecurity in PNL (57.5%). Frequently adopted coping strategies by CWs were gossiping about management (56.1%) in JBN, mutual aid and support (60.1%) in CCECC and multiple job holdings (57.3%) in PNL. Marital status ($\chi^2=261.3$), age ($\chi^2=410.2$), income ($\chi^2=431.1$) and level of education ($\chi^2=184.3$) of CWs had positive relationship with perception about working conditions. There was positive association between size and age of firm ($\chi^2=138.3$), mode of recruitment ($\chi^2=285.6$), perception of challenges ($\chi^2=181.4$), coping strategies ($\chi^2=186.2$) and perception about working conditions ($\chi^2=121$). There were disparities in the kind of incentives the firms offered. All the firms did not comply fully with extant regulations and standards in the recruitment and treatment of CWs. Respondents had both pleasant and unpleasant experiences about working conditions and challenges of work in all the firms at one time or another.

Size and age of firms affected the working conditions, challenges of work and coping strategies of casual workers in the construction firms in Lagos State. Management of construction firms should continuously improve the working conditions of casual workers in order to mitigate their challenges of work and ensure better coping strategy.

Keywords: Casual workers in construction firms, working conditions, coping strategies of construction workers.

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Bamidele Rasaki

August, 2015.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the Almighty God and the entire family of Rasaki Babarinde Akano, without whom the commencement and completion of this work would have been impossible.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this research work was carried out by **Mr. Bamidele Rasaki** (Matric No. 79144) in the Department of Sociology, Faculty of the Social Sciences, University of Ibadan under my supervision.

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Dr. E.E. OKAFOR

SUPERVISOR

.....
DATE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGES

TITLE PAGE	i
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
DEDICATION	v
CERTIFICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
CHAPTER ONE:INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	4
1.3 Research questions.....	6
1.4 Objectives of the study.....	6
1.5 Justification for the study.....	7
1.6 Scope of the Study.....	7
1.7 Operational Definitions of terms.....	8
CHAPTER TWO:REVIEWOF LITERATURE ANDTHEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	10
2.0 Preamble.....	10
2.1 The concept of working condition.....	20
2.2 The concept of casual employment.....	14
2.3 Reasons for use of Casual workers by Employers.....	23
2.4 Casual Employment and its Impacts on Organizations.....	47
2.5 The use of casual workers in some foreign firms in Nigeria.....	56
2.6 Casual employment in different Countries.....	59

2.7	Casual Labour and Construction Industry	84
2.8	Casual work arrangement and its implications for casual workers.....	92
2.9	Regulations Guiding recruitment of casual workers and ILO Conventions.....	107
2.10	Theoretical framework.....	111
2.11	Conceptual Framework.....	120
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY		122
3.1	Preamble	122
3.2	Research design	122
3.3	Brief background of the study area.....	122
3.4	Selected Organizations.....	123
3.5	Study population	125
3.6	Sample size and sampling techniques.....	125
3.7	Instruments of data collection.....	127
3.8	Validity and reliability of research instrument	128
3.9	Method of data analysis	129
3.10	Ethical consideration.....	129
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS		130
4.1	Preamble	130
4.2:	Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents.....	131
4.3:	Recruitment of casual workers	132
4.4:	Casual workers perception of working conditions.....	131
4.5:	Challenges of work	139
4.6:	Coping Strategies.....	142
4.7:	Management and labour law on recruitment of casual worker.....	145
4.8:	Relationship between variables	148
4.9:	Chi-Square Analysis between variables.....	145
4.10:	Case study analysis on casual workers in the selected construction firms:	151
4.11:	Theoretical discussion of findings	161
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		165
5.1	Preamble	165
5.2	Summary	165
5.3	Conclusion	166
5.4	Recommendations.....	168
5.5	Contributions to knowledge.....	169
5.6	Limitation of the Study	170

5.7 Prospect for further Study	170
APPENDIX ONE: Questionnaire	189
APPENDIX TWO: In-depth schedule for selected field supervisors and foremen.....	196
APPENDIX THREE: In-depth indepth interview shedule for selected management.....	197
APPENDIX FOUR: In-depth indepth interview shedule for selected casual workers representative.....	198
APPENDIX FIVE: Appendix four: in-depth indepth interview shedule for selected keyMinistry of labour representative.....	199
APPENDIX SIX: Case study analnses schedule for selected casual workers.....	200
APPENDIX SEVEN: Cover letter from julius berger public relationsofficer.....	201

LIST OF TABLES

PAGES

Table 1: Distribution of Firms by Scale and Capacity	119
Table 2: Distribution of Firms by Cadres selected for study	121
Table 3: Distribution of Firms by gender selected for study	122
Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the Respondents	126
Table 5: Frequency Distribution of Mode of recruitment of casual workers by the firms	127
Table 6: Frequency Distribution of Casual workers' views on working conditions	131
Table 7: Frequency Distribution of Casual workers' views on challenges of work	134
Table 8: Frequency Distribution of Strategies adopted by casual workers to cope with the challenges of work	137
Table 9: Frequency Distribution of Casual workers' reaction towards management adherence to regulations guiding the recruitment of casual workers	140
Table 10: Chi-Square analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and perception on working conditions	143
Table 11: Chi-Square Analysis showing firms, mode of recruitment, coping strategies, challenges of work and working conditions	145

LIST OF FIGURES	PAGE
FIGURE 1: Conceptual frame work showing relationship between the labour market segmentation theory, rational choice theory and casual workers working conditions.	115

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- ABC:** Associated Building Contractors
- AIG:** Australian Industry Group
- BAT:** Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training
- BCTD:** Building and Construction Trades Department
- BLS:** Bureau of Labour Statistics
- CCECC:** Civil Engineering Construction Corporation
- CFRN:** Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria
- CLO:** Civil Liberties Organization
- CPS:** Current Population Survey
- CPWR:** Center to Protect Workers' Rights
- CUPE:** Canadian Union of Public Employees
- CWAs:** Casual Work Arrangements
- DAISS:** Dutch Association of Intermediary and Staffing Services
- DDPR:** Directorate of Dispute Prevention and Resolution
- EIB:** Economic Institute for the Building industry
- EPA:** Encuesta de Poblacion Activa

EPL: Employment Protection Legislation
EU: European Union
FCI: Federation of Construction Industry
FDI: foreign direct Investment
FML: Federal Ministry of Labour
GAO: General Accounting Office
GASA: General Association of Staffing Agencies
HNI: Home Builders Institute
HRDC: Human Resources Development Canada

ICCPR: International Covenant on Civil and Political Right
ICESCR: International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICFTU: International Confederation of Free Trade Union
IDI: in-Depth Interview
ILO: International Labour Organization
IMF: International Monetary Fund
JBN: Julius Berger Nigeria
LCC: Lagos City Council
LFN: Laws of the Federation of Nigeria
LHDA: Lesotho Highlands Development Authority
LHWP: Lesotho Highlands Water Project
MSD: Musculoskeletal Disorders
NAHB: National Association of Home Builders
NBS: National Bureau of Statistic
NCCER: National Centre for Construction Education and Research
NECA: Nigeria Employers Consultative Association

NECA: Nigeria Employers' Consultative Association

NHS: National Health Service

NIC: National Industrial Courts

NIPC: Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission

NLC: Nigeria Labour Congress

NLNG: Nigeria Liquefied Natural Gas

NNPC: Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation

NSWA: non-standard work arrangement

NUCW: National Union of Construction Workers

NUPENG: National Union of Petroleum and National Gas Workers

OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PL: Plycon Limited

PZ: Paterson Zochonis

QWL: Quality of Work Life

RCT: Rational Choice Theory

SAP: Structural Adjustment Programme

SER: Standard Employment Relationship

SPDC: Shell Petroleum Development Company

SPSS: Special Package for Social Sciences

TUC: Trade Union Congress of Nigeria

UDHR: Universal Declaration of Human Rights

UNIDO: United Nations Industrial Development Organization

USBLS: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics

USGAO: U.S. General Accounting Office

WAADI: Wet Allocatie Arbeidskrachten Door Intermediairs

WTO: World Trade Organization

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The use of casual workers has been on the increase. It has spread across industries- from manufacturing to services and other occupations, including construction workers, registered nurses, bankers, information technologists, and so on. Similarly, the number of companies using casual workers is on the increase as global competition increased and the urge to cut down on costs of undertaking businesses in order to remain competitive rises. According to Foote (2004), in the past three decades and beyond, there has been a worldwide upsurge in the number of organizations that use or employ casual workers. This has been attributed to economic uncertainty or turbulence (Greer, 2001). The use of casual workers can mainly be attributed to an increase in global competition and the urge to reduce the cost of doing business. Casual employment is perceived as resulting from continuous changes in the working arrangement around the world and has become a key concern in the last three decades (Foote, 2004).

Increasing numbers of firms are turning to the casual labour market in an attempt to enhance their competitiveness in the global market. Those firms differ widely in their approaches to human resource management in terms of training, orientation, socialization and integration of casual workers. Autor (2001) mentions several factors associated with the management of casual workers that may lead to higher-than-necessary rates of departure prior to contract end dates. These factors include inadequate socialization, perception of injustice, exclusion from decision-making, expectations for permanent work, lower age and tenure, lower tolerance for inequity, low levels of commitment and limited motivation.

Very many firms still use casual workers for a variety of reasons, such as seasonal or cyclical workforce adjustments, cost-saving efforts, and specific skill needs (Jolliffe and Farnsworth, 2003). For these firms, the costs of increased socialization, training and development of casual employees would likely far outweigh the benefits. Some firms use the casual employment condition as a pseudo-probationary period to preview workers from whom they screen out those who fail to meet performance criteria or do not otherwise “fit” the organization, or extend an offer of long-term employment to desired individuals (Druker and Croucher, 2000). Such firms may find significant benefits in developing a stronger, more meaningful employer-employee relationship with their casual workers.

Individuals' inspiration to enter the casual labour market vary broadly and, at times, include the inability to secure more desirable or permanent work, or a desire or need for retraining or for greater choice in when and where to work.

On the other hand, a large number of them do so with the implied hope of obtaining an offer for longer-term employment (Foote and Folta, 2002). In some cases, the aspiration for longer-term employment stems from a perception on the part of lenders that, because their income source is less stable, casual workers represent a high financial risk, and these casual workers want to avoid being seen as high-risk investments. Notwithstanding improvements in some areas, industry groups still appear to be unenthusiastic to fully incorporate casual employees, as evidenced by the European Union's recent failure to reach agreement over the drafting of the Agency Workers' Directive. The directive, which appeared to have secured the support of most European partners, was attempting to improve the rights of casual workers (Donkin, 2003).

Casual employment grew significantly over the last decade, accounting for 10 percent of net employment growth in the United States during the 1990s (Wandera, 2011). Evidences from case studies and business surveys suggest dramatic growth in the outsourcing of functions to contract companies as well (Houseman, 2001). Elements such as the technologies used in the productive process, the specialization of the workforce and niches of development are just examples of the diversity of aspects that have been in constant change so far. Casual employment is part of the phenomenon of short-time employment, often seen as a consequence of a major push by governments and employers in industrialized countries to develop more flexible labour markets and to reduce labour costs (Golden and Appelbaum, 1992; cited in Rogers, 2000).

The era of globalisation has given rise to profound changes in the way labour is utilised, specifically in terms of employment patterns as well as the related issues of earnings, job security, unionization and so on. In effect, the way the worker is used by the firms in the industry is determined solely by the dictates of capitalism, that is, the profit motive. Thus, neo-liberal globalisation, contrary to the often-benevolent impacts attributed to it, has brought about structural changes in the economy and alters consumer preferences, lifestyles and demands of citizens, as well as changes in the working pattern of workers in the construction industry in Nigeria. The use of casual workers in both local and foreign firms in Nigeria has been on the increase, and this has made casual employment in the Nigerian labour market a subject of intellectual concern (Okougbo, 2004).

Casual workers are filling positions that are permanent in nature. Related to employee vulnerability in Nigeria is the high level of unemployment and accompanying poverty.

The existing literature uses different labels to refer to casual workers: they are, in some cases, referred to as “contingent workers”, “dispensable workers”, part-time workers, contract staff and non-core workers (Hampton, 1988). They are also known as “labour only” sub-contractors (Buckley and Endewuik, 1989), quoted in Hallenbradth and Cannon (1989), flexible workforce and peripheral workers (Williams, 1993). Bhorat and Hinks (2006) note the difficulty of defining casual employment, by pointing out that defining casual employment in a labour market is problematic. Issues of hours of work, type of employment contract, who pays the employee, non-pecuniary benefits and whether workings in the formal or informal sector imply that several definitions can be adopted. The traditional model of employment (permanent full-time employment with one employer until retirement) is steadily giving way to less stable (and often vulnerable) forms of employment (Cheadle, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the phrase “casual workers” is used to refer to employees whose services are dependent on the specific job or duty they were hired to carry out. They are laid off at the end of that particular ‘contract’ and can only be retained if another job comes on stream. The most notable characteristic of this category of workers is the fact that their employment is not permanent (Hamilton, 2006). As a result, casual workers can be retrenched without prior notification (Campbell, 2004).

As more technology is introduced into the workplace, the unskilled workers become more disadvantaged and vulnerable (Campbell and Brosnan 1999). However, technological impact cannot totally or adequately explain the existence of this situation, especially in less developed countries, where the level of technological development and adoption is low relative to the more developed world. Investigation into Nigerian construction firms indicates that the so-called skilled workers function mainly in administrative and supervisory capacities, with the exception of a few engineers and technicians in the field (Anugwon, 2007). This situation is a product of what Adesina(2000) calls “credentialism,” which is still a big factor in labour market classification in Nigeria. Casual employment, as part of a new era of the management of labour, is an attempt to fit many workers into the needs of production and service provision by offering only very limited choices to workers (Buchanan, 2004). In the wake of liberalization, this problem has been brought into the centre stage and there has been frequent demand by the industry and foreign investors to have some kind of “exit” policy, which is the right of hiring and firing (Shenoy, 2005).

The construction industry, as Adegboro (1992) notes, has the unique ability to facilitate development of the nation by providing directly for human needs or stimulating investment or by generating employment which can accomplish those objectives. The construction industry is labour-intensive and “casual workers” cut across the range of professionals, like mechanics, electricians, plumbers, painters and carpenters. Employment of casual workers is one strategy the construction industry is using.

The history of construction industry in Nigeria dates as far back as the time Nigeria was founded as a nation. During that period all the construction firms were foreign firms. The Federation of Construction Industry is currently made up of firms engaged in road construction works, building construction, railway construction, bridge and foundation construction, shore protection work, borehole engineering work, drainage and dredging works as well as furniture and wood works. Construction industry in Nigeria is mostly made up of private firms, but there are still a few government agencies involved in road maintenance (Adegboro, 1992). Casual workers are either engaged directly by the organization that requires their services, or hired and supplied by outfits whose function is to pay and administer their benefits, using money provided by the original contractor (Hampton, 1988). This research work is, therefore, directed towards improving existing knowledge about the working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State, Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Casual workers have always been and will continue to be an essential and accepted component of the workforce (Okafor, 2010). It will always be necessary to replace temporary or short-term employee absences resulting from illness, as well as vacation, maternity or other types of leave. Workers who may be called in to substitute for part-time or full-time employees, therefore, have a vital and continuing role to play in both the private and public sectors. In the public sector, the hiring of casual workers ensures uninterrupted provision of important and even essential services to the citizens. Casuals are disadvantaged in a number of ways, as compared to full-time and, even, part-time employees. Despite the fact that there has been considerable growth in casual employment in organizations across the globe, the growing body of research remains largely limited to employees (typically referred to as permanent employees) hired with an expectation, on the part of both employer and employee, of relatively long-term employment.

Very little research links progressive human resource management practices and systems to the management of workers hired on casual basis who may not share their more permanent counterparts' expectations of relatively longer-term employment (Foote, 2004). Several authors (De Cuyper, De Jong, De Witte, Isaksson, Rigotti, and Schalk, 2008) observe that casual employment may be a source of negative outcomes for both individuals and the organization. Casuals often work on an on-call basis, rather than having fixed hours of work and periods of employment. For some, this may mean working for only a few hours each week, making it impossible to earn a decent living.

Similarly, casual staff in the firms may be called in for periods as short as several weeks, or up to 6 months, so that they too may not attain employee status (Bramble and Barchiesi, 2003; Barchiesi, 2007). Casual workers perform the same duties as regular employees, yet they are paid less and do not have access to benefits such as pension scheme and leave grants enjoyed by regular workers (Okafor, 2010). For casuals, limited earnings and lack of benefits mean a generally lower quality of life, financial insecurity and inability to plan for the future and often severe emotional and psychological stress (Buchler, Haynes and Baxter, 2009). These glaring inequities are closely-linked to the precarious labour force status of casual workers. They do not have the right to bargain collectively or to join a union and are denied any protection. Deprived of the basic rights long fought for by labour unions, casuals find themselves at the mercy of their employers. These workers cannot negotiate the terms and conditions of employment. Moreover, casuals can be fired, disciplined and maltreated, but cannot defend themselves (CUPE, 1999; 2000; Jenkins, 2004; Okougbo, 2004). In most developing economies, road construction, as well as bridge and building construction are vital aspects of infrastructural development, thus leading to the influx of many construction firms into the country. To minimise cost and maximise profits, most of these firms resort to the use of casual workers. In Nigeria the concept of full-time employees working within an enterprise is increasingly being challenged and substituted with the use of casual workers by employers (Fapohunda, 2012).

These changing patterns of work have created concerns for workers and trade unions alike. Job security, social security, terminal benefits and minimum conditions of work are some of the issues of concern. Therefore, the use of casual workers may on the surface be seen to be justifiable since the inherent reduced cost means higher profit, which is the ultimate goal of every organization. Casual workers occupy a sensitive position in the construction industry and are widely acknowledged as crucial to the industrial development of Nigeria.

In work setting, the nature of working conditions is a critical factor in gauging the level of job satisfaction and job commitment of workers (Ogunbameru, 2008). The positive perception of working conditions by the workers forms the basis for determining how well an organisation treats its several categories of workers. Casual workers in such sectors as telecommunication, oil and gas, power, banking, education and manufacturing both in private and public sectors in Nigeria have made significant contributions by helping in providing the manpower needed for economic development of Nigeria (Onyeonoru, 2004; Adenugba, 2006; Okafor, 2007; Adewumi, 2008; Idowu, 2010; Okafor, 2010; Aduba, 2012; Abah, 2013; Adepegba, 2013).

Most studies on casual workers in the construction industry have always treated their working conditions as a monolithic issue; no attention is paid to the impact of size variation and duration of existence of the organization as a determinant of how the organization treats its workers as well as the workers themselves evaluating how the organization treats them. This is gap in knowledge which this study tried to fill, by examining casual workers in three construction firms of different sizes in Lagos State, Nigeria.

1.3 Research questions

This research was guided by the following questions:

1. What is the mode of recruitment of casual workers into the selected construction firms?
2. How do the casual workers perceive their working conditions (wages, job security, paid leave, freedom to join work-based association and medical care allowances)?
3. What are the challenges facing the casual workers and how do they cope with such challenges?
4. How have the selected construction firms been complying with the regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study was to investigate the working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State, Nigeria. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Investigate the mode of recruitment of casual workers into the selected construction firms.
2. Examine how the casual workers perceive their working conditions in terms of (wages, job security, paid leave, freedom to join work-based association and medical care allowances).

3. Examine the challenges faced by the casual workers and how they cope with such challenges.
4. Investigate the extent to which the selected firms comply with regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers.

1.5 Justification for the study

Research on wages workers in Nigeria has in recent times, waned in direct proportion to the gradual but steady emasculation of trade union movement as a powerful and national force. Much of the earlier optimism about the progressive role of workers in national development has been dissipated so much that workers have almost been written off as an influential group (Fayankinnu, 2003). This study rekindles this interest in workers by refocusing attention, once again, on their attempts to come to terms with the policies of economic globalization.

After a decade of privatization, downsizing, contracting out and restructuring, there is a genuine fear from workers about their jobs, wages, and work conditions. These fears have increased as employers rely more heavily on casual workers. The findings of this study would create awareness and consciousness amongst stakeholders both within and outside the construction industry with regard to casual workers working conditions. It provides statistical figures which form the basis to articulate facts regarding the working conditions of casual workers in the construction industry and beyond. It adds to the body of knowledge, especially in industrial relations issues. The study is useful to the various construction industries, in repositioning them for their future role(s) in socio-economic development. Finally, the importance of this study is hinged on the fact that it reveals emerging problems in the construction industry in relation to how casual workers are rewarded in terms of incentives. In this wise, this study allows for systematic analysis of data from the firms under study.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study explores and examines the working conditions of casual workers in three construction firms of different sizes and ages: Julius Berger Nigeria (JBN) (large/oldest), China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation of Nigeria (CCECC) (medium/older) and Plycon Nigeria Limited (PNL) (small/old). A semi-structured questionnaire was used to elicit information on socio-demographic characteristics, mode of recruitment (direct or indirect), perception about working conditions (wages, job security, safety at work, overtime bonus, relationship with supervisor and medical assistance), challenges of work and coping strategies.

Twenty-nine in-depth interviews were conducted with casual workers (18), management staff (9) and officials of Ministry of Labour and Productivity (2) to ascertain the extent of compliance with regulations on recruitment and treatment of CWs. Six case studies were conducted with CWs.

1.7 Operational Definitions of terms

Casualization: This is the process of replacing the employment of workers on continuing contracts with the hire of workers on an hourly basis with no guarantee of continued employment or acceptance of any commitment to paying rates related to the cost of living or conditions of employment which constitutes a reasonable basis for life.

Casual worker: This is an employee that does not have a standard contract of employment. Casual workers typically have no entitlements to superannuation, annual, long service, parental or sick leave and little or no industrial protection or security.

Casual work: This is employment that is completed on an on-call temporary basis, with no guaranteed hours of work or a fixed schedule of work hours. This work can involve full-time or part-time hours. Casual work is a significant part of that group of employment arrangements that are collectively known as non-standard, contingent, atypical, precarious and alternative work arrangements in international labour law.

Construction firms: These are firms involved in the erection of various types of structures. These firms engaged in road construction works, building construction, railway construction, bridge and foundation construction, shore protection work, borehole engineering work, drainage and dredging works as well as furniture and wood works.

Contract labour: Contract labour refers generally to the use of intermediaries to recruit and manage workers. In some situations, recruiters also function as the day-to-day managers and supervisors of workers. Workers may be hired by one party, supervised by another, and paid by a third party.

Globalization: Globalization is the free movement of goods, services, people and information across national boundaries. It creates and, in turn, is driven by an integrated global economy, which influences both economic as well as social relations within and across countries. The opening up of the economy increases competition internationally as well as externally, leads to structural changes in the economy, alters consumer preferences, lifestyles and demands of citizens.

Labour: This refers to the working population.

Part-time work :(also known as regular or permanent part-time work). This is considered to be work that is less than full-time hours in a continuous employment contract, with a fixed work schedule and a guaranteed number of hours.

Working conditions: This refers to the safety and healthfulness of the workplace, including the physical work environment and the procedures followed in performing the work.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Preamble

This section reviews the literature on the use of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State, Nigeria. In order to enhance understanding of the use of casual workers, the convenient point to start the review will be from the concept of casual employment.

2.1 The concept of working conditions

Working conditions are at the core of paid work and employment relationships. Generally speaking, working conditions cover a broad range of topics and issues, from working time (hours of work, rest periods, and work schedules) to remuneration, as well as the physical conditions and mental demands that exist in the workplace (ILO, 1996). Working work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men. Some basic indices for measuring working conditions are as follows:

2.1.1 Wages

Wages are undoubtedly among the most important conditions of work and employment at the enterprise level. Being a cost for employers as well as the main source of income for workers, wages may be a potential source of conflict and have thus become the major focus of collective bargaining all over the world. At the same time, wages can represent a major source of discrimination and deprivation if no decent floor is guaranteed to the workers.

On the economic side, wages represent an important part of labour costs and are an essential variable for enterprises' competitiveness which needs to be analyzed, also with regard to their interaction with other key economic variables, such as employment, productivity and investment. All the above factors have led States, together with employers' and workers' representatives, to reconsider their wages policies and undertake crucial reforms in this field.

2.1.2 Working time

The subject of working time has been central to the work of the ILO since its inception, when it adopted the first of many international labour standards, the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No.1). Some of the major challenges in this area remain those which have been important since the dawn of the industrial age: excessive hours of work and the need to protect workers' health and safety by limiting working hours and providing adequate periods for rest and recuperation, including weekly rest and paid annual leave - which are enshrined in international labour standards.

However, a variety of factors in recent years have led to new trends and developments in both working time and work organization:

Globalization and the resulting intensification of competition; dramatic advances in information and communications technologies; and new patterns of consumer demands for good and services have driven enterprises to adopt new methods of flexible - and sometimes global - organization of work, including temporal flexibility and spatial flexibility, as well as the "offshoring" of both manufacturing and services.

In addition, there have been profound demographic changes, such as the increasing entry of women into the paid labour market; the shift from single "male breadwinner" households to dual-earner ones; and a growing concern regarding work-life balance - all of which have shaped workers' needs and working time preferences, which vary by gender as well as over the life cycle.

More recently, the global economic and financial crisis has had a profound impact on working time. At the height of the crisis, work sharing - a reduction of working time to spread a reduced volume of work over the same (or similar) number of workers to avoid layoffs - was widely used as a job preservation measure. Following the crisis, the working time challenges have shifted: from focusing mainly on preserving jobs to an increasing focus on job quality issues - many of which are closely linked to working time, such as an expansion in jobs with short and often highly variable hours.

2.1.3 Safety and health at work

Every day, 6,300 people die as a result of occupational accidents or work-related diseases-more than 2.3 million deaths per year (ILO, 1996). 317 million accidents occur on the job annually; many of these resulting in extended absences from work. The human cost of this daily adversity is vast and the economic burden of poor occupational safety and health practices is estimated at 4 per cent of global Gross Domestic Product each year.

2.1.4 Job security

Job security is about the protection of workers against fluctuations in earned income as a result of job loss. Job loss may occur during economic downturns, as part of restructuring, or be related to other various reasons for dismissals. One of the forms of protection that is afforded to workers against, or upon, dismissal, is provided by employment protection legislation (EPL). The growth over the past several decades of non-standard work - temporary contracts, temporary agency and dispatched work, dependent self-employment, marginal part-time work - in many parts of the world, have heightened workers' concerns over job security (ILO, 1996).

2.1.5 Freedom of association

The right of workers and employers to form and join organizations of their own choosing is an integral part of a free and open society. In many cases, these organizations have played a significant role in their countries' democratic transformation. From advising governments on labour legislation to providing education and training for trade unions and employer groups, the ILO is regularly engaged in promoting freedom of association. The ILO's Committee on Freedom of Association was set up in 1951 to examine violations of workers' and employers' organizing rights. The committee is tripartite and handles complaints in ILO Member States whether or not they have ratified freedom of association conventions. Through the Committee on Freedom of Association and other supervisory mechanisms, the ILO has frequently defended rights of trade unions and employers' organizations.

2.1.6 Equality and discrimination

Hundreds of millions of people suffer from discrimination in the world of work. This not only violates a most basic human right, but has wider social and economic consequences. Discrimination stifles opportunities, wasting the human talent needed for economic progress, and accentuates social tensions and inequalities. Combating discrimination is an essential part of promoting decent work, and success on this front is felt well beyond the workplace. Issues linked to discrimination are present throughout the ILO's sphere of work. By bolstering freedom of association, for example, the ILO seeks to prevent discrimination against trade union members and officials.

2.1.7 Collective bargaining

Collective bargaining is a fundamental right. It is rooted in the ILO Constitution and reaffirmed as such in the 1998 ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.

Collective bargaining is a key means through which employers and their organizations and trade unions can establish fair wages and working conditions. It also provides the basis for sound labour relations. Typical issues on the bargaining agenda include wages, working time, training, occupational health and safety and equal treatment. The objective of these negotiations is to arrive at a collective agreement that regulates terms and conditions of employment. Collective agreements may also address the rights and responsibilities of the parties thus ensuring harmonious and productive industries and workplaces. Enhancing the inclusiveness of collective bargaining and collective agreements is a key means for reducing inequality and extending labour protection.

2.1.8 Who is a Casual worker?

This is an employee that does not have a standard contract of employment. Casual workers typically have no entitlements to superannuation, annual, long service, parental or sick leave and little or no industrial protection or security. Casual work arrangement (CWAs), are widely used to describe work arrangements which do not fall within the traditional understanding or definition of employment. This term is used globally but because of the variations in national law and practice there is no internationally agreed definition of CWAs. But it will adequate to say here that they are employment not permanent in nature. The employment contract is usually fixed or predetermined and short-term. Such labour is usually required for seasonal work or work that arises periodically and continues for a relatively short period (Rojot, 1998).

Casual employment is a significant part of that group of employment arrangements that are collectively known as nonstandard, contingent, atypical, precarious and alternative work arrangements in international labour law (Kalleberg, 2000). In developed economies, casual work is used to refer to fixed contract, contract work, on-call work, part-time and temporary work (Francoise, 1998). The common characteristic of casual jobs are that they differ in terms of hours worked, job security, payment system and even location of work from the traditional full-time, permanent employment which has been a dominant feature of industrial relations in many developed economies and developing ones for much of the twentieth century (Kalleberg, 2000). Hence the traditional work arrangements were the basis of the framework within which labour law, collective bargaining and social security systems developed. In Nigeria this form of employment is not usually part-time or temporary; it is usually a long-term employment (Danesi, 2011).

CWAs in Nigeria differs from standard or permanent traditional form of employment only in the sense that it does not confer on the employee benefits such as pension, gratuity benefits, medical care, job security, and the right to freedom of association. There is no direct statutory provision covering or defining CWAs in Nigeria. This form of work arrangements are referred to as casual work under the general term, “casualization”.

Casual work has always existed for particular jobs therefore it is not a new development. However, it is the form that it has taken in the last two decades that is different and problematic. In the past, such labour was required for seasonal work or work that arises periodically and continues for a relatively short period. This work arrangement was predominant in the construction industry and it was mainly for the unskilled in Nigeria. However, today both the skilled and the unskilled are engaged as casual workers in the informal sector, the organized private and public sectors of the economy. The practice of engaging casual workers in Nigeria for permanent positions has been referred to as “casualization”. It remains a practical option as well as a socio-economic necessity to cut costs and remain competitive in an environment of increasing competition, cost minimization and flexibility.

2.2 The concept of casual employment

Among a range of classifications available, casual employment is variously referred to as “contingent” (Belous, 1989; Lips, 1998), “irregular”, “non-standard”, or “atypical” (Bourhis and Wils, 2001) employment. All of the above terms refer to those who are employed in jobs that do not fit the traditional description of a full-time, permanent job (Brosnan and Walsh, 1996). Casual employment is generally understood to encompass casual employees recruited by short-term consultants or agencies which are external to the employer, or those hired directly by the company to be casual employees, contract employees, subcontractors, consultants, leased employees, part-time employees and the self-employed. As a distinct labour subset, however, “casual employment” is commonly defined as a job where the individual does not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment, the casual nature of the job being recognized by both parties (Nardone, 1997). The different descriptions and definitions of casual employment, and the linked uncertainty, offer a challenge to scholars of research as any educated guess of the size of the casual workforce depends on the definition that is used (Risher, 1997).

Moreover, official statistical collections on labour market trends have often not kept pace with apparent changes in work (Callister, 1997). Casual employment has increasingly become part of the labour market in the European Union and its member states, with an average incidence of about 13 per cent in 2000 (OECD, 2002). In spite of measurement problems, commentators are in accord that the casual workforce has become a significant employment option (Herer and Harel, 1998). Mangan (2000) states that between 1983-92, casual employment in the USA increased almost 250 per cent-ten times faster than overall employment in that country. Socio-economic variations, including those related to globalization and faster innovativeness, have brought about changes in workforce structures that facilitated the growth in casual employment (Brosnan, 1996).

Casual employment is a means of job continuity in an era of restructuring, redundancy and unemployment. Such job continuity is replacing job security for many professionals and casual work is a way to stay continuously employed (Brosnan, 1996). Casual employment may open up opportunities for previously unemployed people to find employment (Callister, 1997), and it provides foot-in-the-door opportunities and experience for people (re)entering the workforce. Callaghan and Hartmann (1991) assert that some workers, such as parents caring for children, students, or retired people, might have a preference for casual employment that allows them the flexibility to work the hours that suit them without making a full-time, long-term commitment to a single employer.

Callaghan and Hartmann (1991) refer to a study, which indicated that women casual workers had more education than women workers in permanent employment, and are neither unskilled nor in lower-level positions. Callister (1997) notes that casual employment can offer long-term advantages to some workers; for example, it can foster lifetime participation in paid work by women. Many casual employees voluntarily take up this form of employment for the flexibility and opportunities for skill advancement that it provides. Casual employment also provides people with the opportunity to “try out” new organizations, industries, and occupations without the long-term commitment (Lips, 1998). Moreover, casual employment is increasingly being used to facilitate the transition from situations such as unemployment, studying, time-off work by women to have children, and redundancy, back to a permanent work situation (Lips, 1998).

2.2.1 What is casual labour?

A casual labour is a very common term that is often used in the community of employers. They use casual labour to describe the employees who perform a variety of activities. But these employees usually work part-time or on a temporary basis. A casual worker is mostly employed to a limited amount of time per day or for a week (CUPE, 2000). There are also many different types of casual workers. The following are types of workers termed as casual labourers: part-time helpers, temporary helpers, morning labourers, probation workers or workers who do not possess a social security number (CUPE, 2000). A casual labourer can be traditionally defined as a person who is employed to do one particular job. The casual labourer comes only in some occasions and does job for the employer. Earlier, a labourer who worked for lesser amount of days in a week was usually mentioned as a casual labourer. This person cannot have all the rights possessed by the regular full-time labourers.

Casual labour is derived from the agencies that employ people. It refers to the type of work that they do and what they do to promote the employing agencies. Casual labour also has all the employment tax that all the employers pay. During many events, like sports days, vacations and harvesting season, casual labour comes in very handy. Either the casual labour is paid or not, there is always a cause of concern on how the tax will be calculated on the wages that they get. Casual labour and the seasonal labour are usually put under the same tax rules that the other employees are under.

Casual labour also has a protection labour act that was passed by the year 2005 (Okafor, 2012). This act specifies the basic conditions that casual labour works on. Any casual labour who works for more than a day per month is protected by this labour act. This act specifies the amount of working time, the amount of time that the casual labour works extra than his regular time and the number of breaks that he takes for his meal and other activities. The casual labour also qualifies for the leave that is given to other regular employees (CUPE, 2000). However an employee who works for 2 days per week is still regarded as part of casual labour. This can be put under the wage determination council to determine the wages for the casual labour. Hence the casual labour under these cases often receives a higher amount of pay when compared to other employees (ILO, 2008). There is often a misunderstanding between the regular employees, labours in contract and the casual labour. The term casual labour is a very common term in the industries. Some of the employees are employed incorrectly by taking the principles wrongly.

A wrong way of employing a casual labour may have a serious effect later. Hence, before employing a casual labourer the employer is advised to be thorough with the laws that govern the employment of the casual labour.

2.2.2 Nigerian Labour Market and Prevalence of Casual Employment Relations

Unemployment and underemployment are the main features of the Nigeria labour market with weak economy unable to absorb all those willing to be engaged productively (Adebayo, 1999; Damachi, 2001; Onyeonoru, 2008; Okafor, 2011). Unemployment is measured among the people in the labour force (National Bureau of Statistics, 2010). The labour force of a country is defined by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2009) as a set of people or citizens of a country who are willing and are able to make available at any given point in time their efforts for gainful employment. In Nigeria, accurate unemployment rates are difficult to access (Okafor, 2012). However, according to Oyebade (2003), Nigeria's unemployment can be grouped into two: the older unemployed, who lost their jobs through retrenchment, redundancy, or bankruptcy and the younger unemployed, most of who have never been employed.

According to National Bureau of Statistics (2009:238; 2010:2), the national unemployment rates for Nigeria between 2000 and 2009 showed that the number of unemployed persons was 31.1% in 2000; 13.6% in 2001; 12.6% in 2002; 14.8% in 2003; 13.4% in 2004; 11.9% in 2005; 13.7% in 2006; 14.6% in 2007; 14.9% in 2008 and 19.7% in 2009 (cited in Okafor, 2012). Specifically as regards the age group, educational group and sex, data provided by National Bureau of Statistics (2010:3) further showed that, as at March 2009, in Nigeria, for persons between ages 15 and 24 years, 41.6% were unemployed. For persons between 25 and 44 years, 17% were unemployed. Also, those with primary education, 14.8% were unemployed and for those with only secondary education, 23.8% were unemployed. Furthermore, for those with post-secondary education, 21.3% were unemployed. For those who never attended school and those with below primary education, 21.0% and 22.3% were unemployed, respectively. As regards sex, data showed that males constituted 17.0%, while females constituted 23.3%. This precarious situation in the Nigerian labour has given rise to increase in the casual employment relations in many work establishments in Nigeria, as most of the unemployed, especially the youth, make desperate efforts to survive.

Kallerberg, Reskin, and Hundson (2000) assert that the term “casual employment” relationship implies the existence of a “permanent employment” relationship. Thus, to understand the concept of casual employment relations, it will be more appropriate to understand the concept of permanent employment relationship. The permanent employment relationship is full-time, continuous employment where the employee works on his employer’s premises or under the employer's supervision. The central aspects of this relationship include an employment contract of indefinite duration and standardized working hours/weeks, with sufficient social benefits. Benefits like pensions, unemployment, and extensive medical coverage protect the permanent employee from unacceptable practices and working conditions.

Casual employment relationship, sometimes called precarious work, on the other hand, is used to describe jobs that are poorly paid, insecure, unprotected, and cannot support a household. Kalleberg (2000) note that, as casual jobs pay poorly, lack health insurance and pension benefits, are of uncertain duration, and lack the protection that trade unions and labour laws afford, they are problematic for workers. In recent decades, there has been a dramatic increase in casual jobs owing to such factors as: massive unemployment, globalization, the shift from the manufacturing sector to the service sector and the spread of information technology.

These changes have created a new economy which demands flexibility in the workplace and, as a result, caused the decline of the permanent employment relations and a dramatic increase in precarious work (Kalleberg, 2000; Adewumi, 2008). This form of employment is related in that it departs from the permanent employment relationship (full-time, continuous work with one employer). Casual employment may offer its own challenges and disadvantages: low wages, few benefits, lack of collective representation by unions and little to no job security and definite duration (Okougbo, 2004; Okafor, 2007, 2010; Mokwenye, 2008). There are four dimensions when determining if employment is casual in nature. These include; the degree of certainty of continuing employment; control over the labour process, which is linked to the presence or absence of trade unions and professional associations and relates to control over working conditions, wages, and the pace of work; the degree of regulatory protection; and income level (Richardson and Allen, 2001; Gebel, 2010; Durbin and Tomlinson, 2010). In Nigeria, the use of casual employment relations is common (Okafor, 2007).

In Nigeria, the problem of casual employment is very common in many establishments, whether in indigenous, transnational or multi-national firms, either public or private industry, including telecommunications sector, oil and gas sector, power sector, banking sector (both old and new generation banks), education sector, and so on (Okougbo, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2004; Okafor, 2007; Idowu, 2010; Aduba, 2012). Since 2000, trade unions in Nigeria led by the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) have continued to oppose casual employment relations against the employers' disregard for the dignity, integrity and rights of workers which are protected by the nation's labour laws, constitution and International Labour Organization's (ILO's) conventions. Due to persistent pressure from central labour body, a meeting was facilitated by ILO, the NLC and Nigeria Employers Consultative Association (NECA), which reached an agreement on May 2, 2000.

The agreement, in part, specified that: Employers who still have casuals will regularize their employment; in regularizing their employment, the rates to be paid will be in accordance with prevailing procedural and substantive collective agreements in the industry, which will also be taken into account in protecting the rights of the workers. It is expected that any current arrangement in respect of the regularization, which does not conform to the above, will also be regularized with immediate effect (Odu, 2011:17).

The above agreement led to little respite for workers in casual employment as some multinational companies regularized the appointments of their casual staff. For instance, Paterson Zochonis (PZ) Industries regularized the appointment of 247 out of the 495 casual workers; Wahum Group of Companies regularized 278 out of its 556 casual workers; while Wempco Groups of Companies regularized 654 of the 1,004 workers; as a matter of fact, the company regularized 350 casual workers within two weeks of the NLC picketing the organization. Also, Sona Breweries confirmed 136 of its 227 workers on May 20, 2002, while 91 others were regularized later. The Drugfields Pharmaceutical, Sunplast Industries and May Farm Agro-Allied Nigeria Limited allowed workers to unionize on May 20, June 28, and August 15, 2002, respectively (Okafor, 2012). Despite this modest achievement, the 2005 new Labour Act tinkered with section 42 CAP 437 of the former Trade Union Act. This new Act legalized casual employment relations through casualization, contract labour, abuse of occupational health and safety, and other anti-labour actions in Nigeria. Some sections of the labour Act not only specify what constitutes casual labour, but also locations and persons that engage in it, including duration.

For example, section 74 subsection 3, CAP 198 of the Act specifically restricts casual jobs to a village or town for the purpose of the construction of and maintenance of building used for communal purposes, including markets, but excluding places of worship.

However, Nigerian employers engage casuals for periods ranging from 5 to 10 years not in villages or towns but in cities, like Lagos, Abuja, Ibadan Kano, Kaduna and Port Harcourt without regularizing their appointments. This clearly violates section 7(1) of the Act which stipulates that:

not later than three months after the beginning of a worker's period of employment with an employer, the employer shall give to the worker a written statement specifying, the name of the employers or group of employers, and where appropriate, of the undertaking by which the worker is employed, the name and address of the worker and place and date of his engagement; the nature of the employment, if the contract is for a fixed term, the date when the contract expires; the appropriate period of notice to be given by the party wishing to terminate the contract, the rates of wages and method of calculation thereof and the manner and periodicity of payment of wages (page 12).

Since 2005 Labour Act, the dehumanization of Nigerian workers has continued unabated in clear violation of extant labour law, constitution and ILO conventions through casual employment relations (Okougbo, 2007; Mokwenye, 2008; Okafor, 2010). To challenge such scenario as mentioned above, the organized labour has chosen to utilize to the fullest section 42 of the old Trade Union Act to massively picket those companies (both indigenous and foreign) operating in Nigeria where it is found that their workers do not have any kind of protection as enshrined in the Labour Act despite their long years of service.

2.2.3 Casual Employment Relations: Implications for Decent Work Deficits in Nigeria

Decent work can be defined as the availability of employment in conditions of freedom, equity, human security and dignity (Okafor, 2012). According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), decent work involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity for all women and men (Levin, 2003). In essence, decent work sums up what people hope for in their working lives: opportunity and income; rights, voice and recognition; family stability and personal development; public health and well-being; and fairness, gender and racial equality.

By extension, decent work implies access to employment in conditions of freedom, the recognition of basic rights at work which guarantee the absence of discrimination or harassment, an income enabling one to satisfy basic economic, social and family needs and responsibilities, an adequate level of social protection for the worker and family members, and the exercise of voice and participation at work, directly or indirectly, through self-chosen representative organizations (ILO, 2005).

Promoting decent work was the main thrust of the agenda of Juan Somavia when he assumed office as the Director-General of the ILO in 1999. This was borne out of the fact that there was decent work deficit across the globe, both in developed and developing countries. Decent work is captured in four strategic objectives enunciated by the ILO. These are the fundamental principles and rights at work and international labour standards and they include: employment and income opportunities; social protection and social security; social dialogue and tripartism (Adewumi, 2008).

However, Barrientos (2007) has identified some challenges associated with these objectives, which are applicable to the Nigerian situation in connection with casual employment relations. The first objective is creating jobs. This objective states that economy should generate opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, skills development, job creation and sustainable livelihoods. According to Barrientos (2007) the employment challenge arises from the diversity of employment generated by global production systems. For a job to be decent, it should be permanent, regular and secure in order to guarantee continuous income for a worker (Okafor, 2012). However, even within the same firm, there may be employment that is flexible, insecure and informal. With regard to Nigeria, the economy, as currently structured and run, is incapable of generating jobs for millions of able-bodied men and women willing to work.

The main implication of this is that people desperately search for means of survival even if it means picking up any kind of job offered to them. Against this background, most employers, both local and foreign, usually capitalize on this desperate situation of the people to exploit, oppress and dehumanize this category of people who are in casual employment (Mokwenye, 2008; Abideen and Osuji, 2011). The point here is that when concerted effort is not made by the government to create jobs or provide suitable environment for the people to create their own jobs, casual employment relations will continue to flourish to the delight of the employers driven by profit motives. With this, the decent job, as advocated by the ILO, will simply remain a mirage in relation to casual employment relations in Nigeria.

The second relates to guaranteeing rights at work. This objective attempts to promote recognition and respect for the rights of workers. All workers, and in particular disadvantaged or poor workers, need representation, participation, and laws that work for their interests. For Barrientos (2007) the rights challenge relates to the difficulty of organization or representation amongst such workers. Without collective power to negotiate with employers, workers are not in a position to access or secure other rights. In Nigeria, workers in casual employment are denied several rights. The Nigerian labour law does not empower this category of workers to join a trade union. When workers are not allowed to join trade unions in their places of work so many of their rights could be denied. In such situation, the employers dictate terms and conditions of work with little or no resistance from the workers. Also, because of inability to unionize, the casual workers cannot negotiate or bargain collectively with their employers, especially in relation to pay, hours of work, health and safety measures. In a nutshell, any employment relation that does not afford workers the opportunity to unionize or participate in decisions that affect their work and advance their right in the place of work is far from being a decent work (Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Adewumi, 2008; Okafor, 2010).

The third centres on extending social protection. This objective seeks to promote both inclusion and productivity by ensuring that women and men enjoy working conditions that are safe, allow adequate free time and rest, take into account family and social values, provide for adequate compensation in case of lost or reduced income and permit access to adequate healthcare. From the point of view of Barrientos (2007), the social protection implication relates to the lack of access many casual workers have to a contract of employment and legal employment benefits. They are therefore often denied access to other forms of protection and social assistance by the state. Within the Nigerian context, casual workers do not enjoy any form of social protection, either from their employers or the state (Okafor, 2012). For example, these workers are not included in the pension scheme by their employers neither do they enjoy any form of unemployment benefits from the state even though the state can afford this. This leaves many workers in this category very vulnerable to economic shocks both in their places of work and in the larger society. The implication here is that this category of employees, with regard to social security are despised by their employers and rejected by the state. This hardly promotes decent job as advocated by the ILO to which Nigeria is a signatory.

The fourth is promoting social dialogue. This objective maintains that the involvement of strong and independent workers' and employers' organizations is central to increasing productivity, avoiding disputes at work, and building cohesive societies. For Barrientos (2007), the social dialogue challenge arises from the lack of effective voice or independent representation of such workers in a process of dialogue with employers, government or other stakeholders. Relating this objective to the pervasive nature of casual employment relations in Nigeria, this category of workers lack a very strong voice both within and outside the place of work owing to their inability to unionize. Hence, their chances of engaging in social dialogue of whatever type with their employees and other stakeholders are very limited (Odu, 2011). When the employers exploit and oppress their workers because the workers do not have real choice or alternative, the dedication, commitment and behaviour of such workers to their work, the organization and the state will be questionable. This has a very serious implication for productivity both in the workplace and in the larger society.

2.3 Reasons for use of Casual Workers by Employers

According to the Dual Labour Market model (Connelly and Gallagher, 2004), organizations are composed of two main groups of workers: the core (or primary) group and the peripheral (or secondary) group. Core workers are mostly "standard" or permanent employees. These employees work under the so-called standard employment relationship (SER), which, according to De Cuyper et al. (2008), has some typical characteristics: it offers continuity of employment, which gives the workers a certain level of security regarding their working situation; the employees work in the employer's workplace and receive employer's supervision. The peripheral group is mostly "nonstandard" or casual workers (Connelly and Gallagher, 2004). All these types of employment are different from the standard employment in aspects such as working hours, terms of the contract, access to fringe benefits and supervision received. Most of the companies have a certain number of casual workers as a way to deal with periods of decreased productivity or lower demand. This characteristic is considered by many authors as a quantitative (or numerical) external flexibility, concerning employees who belong to the "external" part of the company and not to the "core" (Valverde, Tregaskis, and Brewster, 2000). There are three main reasons for employers to use casual workers: flexibility of staffing, reduction of costs and ease of dismissal (Wandera, 2011).

2.3.1 Staffing Flexibility

Owing to the rapid innovativeness in science and the ever-increasing competitiveness, companies have established policies of flexibility and adaptation to the economic changes in order to keep profits as high as they can (Kalleberg, 2000). Given that employment situations all over the world has become more competitive and unstable, many companies and organizations have inclined to present more flexible employment conditions, focusing on prospective tribulations (such as lower demand of the market) and the possibility of lay-offs (OECD, 2002). Most companies experience variable demands of work. When demand is high, the usual response is overtime work sometimes augmented by the recruitment of casual employees (Graham and Benett, 1995).

2.3.2 Reduction of Costs

Key benefit in utilizing casual employees is the reduction of recruitment costs (Allan, 2002). This is especially noticeable with agency workers actively recruited by employment agencies, rather than by their eventual employers (Forde, 2001). Recruitment services by the employment agencies are sometimes extended to the recruitment of permanent personnel (Autor, 2001). Decreasing employee costs within an organization is a critical aspect of strategic human resource management with regard to competitive global market (Allan, 2002).

In the case of the United Kingdom, the reduction of wage and non-wage costs has not been cited as a primary reason for using casual workers (Atkinson, 1996). In other European countries, such as Greece, it was also found that costs failed to justify the use of casual workers (Voudouris, 2004). Kandel and Pearson (2001) aver that casual workers may actually be more expensive to an organization owing to increased marginal costs. This is especially so in relation to the possible reduction of productivity that may result when casual workers take time to learn the job (Allan, 2002). Accordingly, casual employees are not cheaper in terms of wages than permanent staff. Reduction of recruitment costs is also extended to using other casual workers. For example, in the National Health Service (NHS), casual workers may be employed temporarily from an NHS bank, which acts as an internal employment agency.

The recruitment of seasonal workers is also similar to that of casual workers, whereby in one example it was shown that organizations in the construction industry tended to embrace the seasonality of their work and, as such, hire seasonal workers from a known pool of staff (Jolliffe and Farnsworth, 2003).

Fixed-term contractors may also be employed in this way, with the same contractors repeatedly employed by the same organization, especially if that organization is large and bureaucratic (Davis-Blake and Uzzi, 1993). The occasional usage of casual workers to cover short-term absences of permanent staff may not present a particularly high cost to an organization; however, in terms of necessity, it may be essential to cover the workload of key members of staff who are absent on a short-term basis (Atkinson et al., 1996). This short-term cover may be achieved through permanent workers; increasing the amount of hours they work through overtime; or through learning new skills (Bergstöm, 2001).

However, if this is not possible, the use of casual workers may be ideal. For example, in a survey of 979 workplaces, Atkinson et al. (1996) found that 59.4 per cent of the employers used casual workers for short-term cover whilst staff members were away on holiday or sick leave. Long-term and short-term recruitment costs may be kept at a minimum by using casual workers. Nevertheless, these estimates tend to negate the managerial time spent in recruitment even if this was merely picking up the phone to a preferred supplier or contractor (Ward et al., 2001).

Human resource managers must ensure that appropriate staff members are selected on the basis of skill and organizational fit (Feldman et al., 1994). A recent study of US-based employment agencies highlighted the need for this activity, as it was found that only 42 per cent of employment agencies checked previous places of employment and only 25 per cent checked for criminal convictions (Allen, 2002).

2.3.3 Ease of Dismissal

Another advantage of using casual workers is the ease of their dismissal (Allan, 2002). In the United States of America, owing to the lack of costs linked with laying-off casual workers, they were an attractive option (Gunderson, 2001). It was noted within organizations that operated in the unpredictable market of workload (Allan, 2002). In the UK, a strategic use of casual workers was to adjust the workforce to match demands. This gave organizations an advantage in terms of numerical flexibility, employing “just in time” workers to cope with increased or decreased demand without resorting to making permanent employees redundant. Although the ability to bring people to work at short notice and let them go again gives organizations tighter control on their payroll costs. This may be to the long-term disadvantage of the organization. Casual workers may be less productive as a result of their time spent in learning new tasks (Allan, 2002).

Increased pressure may be placed upon human resource managers or supervisors to induct and train the new casual workers (Allan, 2002). Further pressure may also arise as managers try to control the number of staff in accordance with workload (Henricks, 1997).

In addition, permanent employees may not like the extensive use of casual workers, especially if they feel their employer would like to substitute them with more precarious working arrangements. This was found in the USA by Pearce (1993), who states that the employment of contractors resulted in negative attitudes towards the organization by permanent workers. These negative attitudes have also been extended to US-based nurses employed with casual and agency nurses and with UK permanent call centre workers working with agency workers (Biggs, 2003). Moreover, the influence of casual workers on permanent workers may be much more complicated than anticipated. This area of research has so far been hampered by the lack of, and difficulty in obtaining, control groups that may offset the influence of casual workers on permanent staff (Biggs, 2003).

2.3.4 Casual employment in Nigeria

In Nigeria, casual workers are in major industries; where firms have workers to the tune of two thousand, about one thousand five hundred may be casual workers. In the local industry in the informal sector virtually all the employees are casual staff (Okougbo, 2004). The casual workers have either professional or administrative skills. In the oil and gas industry, for example, many casual workers are graduates or skilled technicians, experienced drivers with long years of service, clerical and auxiliary staff with administrative skills and so on. They spend long years on a particular job and remain in employment for five, ten or more years. Yet they are referred to and treated as casual workers. In manufacturing companies owned by Asians, casual workers are locked up like prisoners in their factories so that no external person can gain access to them (Okafor, 2010).

The absence of a factory inspector does not help issues. Some oil and gas companies, especially those owned by indigenous entrepreneurs; in spite of the fact that their casual staffs are qualified to be made permanent staff, are made to remain casual workers on a slave wage. Manufacturing companies owned by Nigerians are no exemptions either. They adopt the philosophy of hire and fire and exhibit crude management style unimaginable in personnel administration. All these are with a view on maximizing super normal profits at the barest minimum labour cost (Okafor, 2010). Attempts are made genuinely to unionize these contract workers in order to give them a new lease of life apart from making them to have a sense of belonging. At a time efforts to de-casualize them are resisted by employers.

Such manufacturing companies constitute themselves into cartels. Sometimes, the jobs of the casual staff are terminated, under abnormal conditions without any consideration for ILO conventions or any existing labour laws. As earlier highlighted, the principle is that of hire and fire without any norm or established conditions of service. However, in recent times, some casual staff members have been unionized and conditions of service negotiated for them. Some characteristics of casualization according to the National Union of Petroleum and National Gas Workers (NUPENG), as quoted by Okougbo, (2004) include: abysmal low wages; absence of medical care and allowances; no job security or promotion at work; no gratuity and other severance benefits; no leave allowance; jeopardized freedom of association; no death benefit or accident insurance at work; and no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement. The demand for de-casualization got to a boost in 1992 when the leaders of the National Union of Petroleum and National Gas Workers (NUPENG) mobilized the members of the union for a strike.

The existence of labour law 21 of 1974 to regulate labour contract, appears not to have helped the situation enough (Okougbo, 2004). The law provides that every contract worker should be confirmed after three months' service. The law became ineffective either because the military government then, could not enforcing the law or because the ministry of labour officials were indifferent to enforce the law against very rich and powerful employers. It may also be as a result of the state of development of the nation's industrial culture (Anugwon, 2007). The effect of globalization has led to a lot of job losses through downsizing, outsourcing and rationalization. In developed economies, casual labour is well paid for in cash even better than permanent jobs in some cases, except that a casual worker is not placed on pension at the end of his service (Isamah, 2002).

Ironically, the same employers in those developed economies come to Nigeria to perpetrate the payment of low wages to casual workers (Okougbo, 2004). In seasonal job, casual labour may be justified but in durable jobs there is no justification. The more than six thousand Nigeria Liquefied Natural Gas (NLNG) workers in Bonny were dominated by casual workers who were de-unionize by NLNG management on the instruction of the then military government and denied access to collective bargaining. Shell Petroleum Development Company has about fifteen thousand casual workers and about one thousand contractors. They have all been unionized by NUPENG but denied access to collective bargaining by SPDC management (NUPENG, 2003).

In any case, there is a memorandum of understanding in which their wages are spelt out, but no conditions of service are stipulated therein. The memorandum of understanding did not streamline the large number of contractors. Among the casual workers are graduate technicians, artisans, security men, auxiliary staff, drivers and fire servicemen. In the Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) some medical doctors, nurses, pharmacists and engineers are casual staff for a number of years. At Exxon-Mobil, there are about eight thousand casual workers with about forty-five contractors. The casual workers have been unionized and a collective bargaining agreement signed by both parties. Casual labour is an acceptable phenomenon in industry in developed economies because it is properly managed. The absence of a regulatory law has not helped labour unions and workers in Nigeria to fight exploitation to enable them to enjoy the dignity of labour like their counterparts in Europe, America and Japan (Okougbo, 2004).

2.3.5 Casual employment and working conditions

Both theoretical statements and empirical results have given reasons to equate casual employment with bad jobs from the point of work environment. Low commitment, low autonomy, lack of opportunities to develop skills and so forth appear to be typical attributes for positions in the secondary segments of the labour markets and therefore in casual employment (Parker 1994; Kalleberg and Smidt 1996; Carre, 2000). However, according to studies which explicitly compare permanent and temporary employees, the empirical evidence for bad jobs is not as indisputable as it is with “bread and butter” issues. While assessing the situation in England, Booth (2002) did not find an overall and firm difference in levels of job satisfaction between permanent and fixed-term employees. However, some dimensions of job satisfaction indicated expected differences; problems regarding promotion prospects and job security were concentrated in casual employment.

Studies monitoring the whole European Union area seem to give analogous results. To some degree, adverse working conditions and casual employment go together, although the link is by no means fixed. Casual employment tends to mean less autonomy at work more often in “passive” jobs. Studies showed that casual employees also worked more often over weekends and had less control over working time. On the other hand, they suffered less from the constraints of tight deadlines and experienced lower levels of stress than employees with permanent contracts.

Also, the hypothesis that dangerous work situations are transferred to temporary employees was not confirmed. (Paoli, 1997; Letourneux 1998; Bebavides, 2000; Paoli and Merillie 2001; Goudswaard and Andries, 2002) studies based on European Surveys of Working Conditions did not systematically put to the test the effect of national differences. In other words, the whole European Union was treated as one unit. Still, political geography might be a promising way to understand the connection (Campbell and Burgess 2001). For example, in Scandinavian countries, the consequences of the new wave of non standardization of working life have, on the whole, been less dramatic compared to many Western societies (Isaksson and Bellaagh 1999; Sverke, 2000; Furåker and Berglund 2001; Aronsson, 2002). Segmentation, together with a strong tradition of collective bargaining, might explain the fact that changes in the types of employment contract have not led to an overall decline in the quality of working life.

The Finnish situation is principally in line with the other Nordic countries; the results of investigations into work environment and casual employment stress the multifaceted connections. As a general rule, the type of employment does not predict the quality of working life very well. When the psycho-social work environment was taken as a focus, task autonomy was, in fact, the only dimension where casual employment appeared as a risk for a low quality of work (Saloniemi, 2004). However, among the oldest age groups, working as a temporary employee was linked to a risk for jobs with low control and low demands (Saloniemi, 2004). In terms of physical working conditions, the link to the employment type was, as a general rule, weak or non-existent. However, the construction industry was pointed up as an area where casual employment turned out to have a clear risk for adverse working conditions (Saloniemi, 2004).

As mentioned above, paying attention only to the daily conditions of work either in terms of work environment or income is not a satisfactory way to evaluate the connection between casual employment and bad jobs. Future prospects should play an essential role in these judgments. The question of whether casual employment is a bridge to more secure employment or a trap which condemns employees to bad jobs in the peripheral segments of the labour market is often expressed in these discussions.

Booth (2002) notes that there is some evidence that casual employment is a stepping stone to permanent work. However, the time taken to get a permanent job varies remarkably according to the type of casual employment: fixed-term employment forms a much more direct route to permanent jobs than seasonal work. Gender turns out to play a key role: for men, starting a career as a casual worker includes more risk than for women.

Experiences from France (Blanchard and Landier, 2002) cast even more doubt on rising levels of casual employment: the status of young employees has become more insecure in the wake of reforms allowing more widespread use of casual employment. In his follow-up study on transitions from casual employment to more permanent positions, Gonzales-Rendon(2004) ended up stressing the fact that casual employees cannot be treated as a homogenous group, not even in the highly segmented labour market of Spain. After six years, 70 % of casual employees managed to obtain a permanent job. The result contradicts, to some degree, the argument that mobility between the labour market segments is highly restricted. Still, there are specific groups for whom casual employment is more like a trap leading to bad job: low education, female gender, working in the public sector and being over 30 years of age, for example, all had a negative influence on the probability of getting a permanent job. Also the type of casual employment had an important role: for casual workers permanent employment is most difficult.

Reflecting on the situation in Sweden, in totally different labour market conditions, Hakansson (2001) ended up with basically parallel results: casual employees are not a homogenous group. Even though the basic situation of casual employment in Sweden is that it is a stepping stone towards to a permanent job, the variation between types of casual employment was remarkable. Gender division also proved to be important; in Sweden, the prospects of a more stable career were more common among women. Casual employment is an involuntary status and is associated with numerous problems in life outside work. Still, in the case of Finland, casual employment in the forms we know it– neither totally ruins the quality of working life nor places employees in completely dead-end situations. The gap between winners and losers does not entirely follow the permanent/casual dichotomy; the division is embodied inside both groups. In other words, temporary employment can put employees at risk of a bad job; but it would be misleading to equate these two concepts unconditionally.

2.3.6 Who benefits from casual work arrangement in Nigeria?

After a decade of privatization, downsizing, contracting out and restructuring, there is a genuine fear from workers about their jobs, wages, and work conditions. These fears have increased as employers rely more heavily on casual workers. Various factors have encouraged employers to avoid hiring permanent unionized workers. These arrangements that do not involve full-time unionized workers are called “contingent work”. And the process of creating a contingent workforce–replacing permanent jobs with temporary jobs–is known as casualization.

This is driven by the employer's desire to cut costs by paying casual workers less than full-time unionized workers and not offering the casual workers benefits. In many cases, the terms "casual" or "temporary" are misleading. Many of these workers work 40 or more hours per week and have spent years working for the same employer. Rampant casualization threatens job security, decent wages, health benefits and pensions for all workers. For casual workers; casualization destroys any possibility of career progression as casual workers find themselves stuck with low pay working on poorly funded projects which offer no room for staff development.

In Nigeria, the scourge of casualization of employment is gaining grounds in an unprecedented proportion. The increase in the spread and gradual acceptance of this labour practice in the Nigerian labour market has become an issue of great concern to stakeholders. Employers of labour are increasingly filling positions in their organizations that are supposed to be permanent with casual employees (Fapohunda, 2012). The Nigerian labour market is not only saturated, but also characterized by massive youth unemployment of various forms, such as seasonal, frictional, cyclical, and structural unemployment (Adebayo, 1999; Damachi, 2001; Okafor, 2011).

In Nigeria, accurate unemployment rates are difficult to access. However, according to Oyebade (2003), cited in (Okafor, 2010), Nigeria's unemployment can be grouped into two, the older unemployed who lost their jobs through retrenchment, redundancy, or bankruptcy; and, the younger unemployed, most of whom have never been employed. For Awogbenle and Iwuamadi (2010), cited in (Okafor, 2010), the statistics from the manpower Board and the Federal Bureau of Statistics showed that Nigeria has a youth population of 80 million, representing 60% of the total population of the country. Also, 64 million of them were unemployed, while 1.6 million were underemployed.

The 1990 to 2000 data on youth unemployment showed that the largest group of the unemployed was the secondary school graduates. Also, 40% of the unemployment rate was among the urban youth aged 20 to 24 and 31% of the rate was among those aged 15 to 19 years. Also, two-thirds of the urban unemployed were 15-24 years old. Moreover, the educated unemployed tended to be young males with few dependents. There were relatively few secondary school graduates and lowered job expectations of primary school graduates. However, there was no consistent trend of unemployment rates in Nigeria. An increase in one or two years was sometimes followed by a decline in the subsequent years.

According to National Bureau of Statistics (2009:238, 238; 2010:2), cited in (Okafor, 2010), the national unemployment rates for Nigeria in 2000 and 2009 showed that the number of unemployed persons constituted 31.1% in 2000; 13.6% in 2001; 12.6% in 2002, 14.8% in 2003; 13.4% in 2004; 11.9% in 2005; 13.7% in 2006; 14.6% in 2007; 14.9% in 2008 and 19.7% in 2009. Hence, a significant number of people stayed in casual jobs because it had not been very easy to find a job in the first place. This was not because they lacked skills and qualifications but simply because of a lot of competition for available jobs, poor economic condition cum corruption and bad leadership in Nigeria (Kalejaiye, 2014).

2.3.7 Who loses from casual work arrangement in Nigeria?

Casual work is a term used in Nigeria to describe work arrangements that are characterized by bad work conditions, like job insecurity, low wages, and lack of employment benefits that accrue to regular employees as well as the right to organize and collectively bargain. In addition, workers in this form of work arrangement can be dismissed at any time without notice and are not entitled to redundancy pay. It is an unprotected form of employment, because it does not enjoy the statutory protection available to permanent employees (Okafor, 2011). Basso (2003) observes that casual work may be linked to underemployment. It is often used loosely in the international literature to refer to the spread of bad conditions of work such as employment insecurity, irregular work hours, intermittent employment, low wages and absence of standard employment benefits.

O'Donnell (2004) notes that, legally, a casual employee is seen as a worker engaged for a period of less than six months and who is paid at the end of each day. The expectation is that this category of worker includes those engaged, for example, in piece work, and short-term construction work. This, however, is not really the practice; casual jobs today are commonly understood as jobs that attract an hourly rate pay but very few of the other rights and benefits, such as the right to notice, the right to severance pay and most forms of paid leave (annual leave, public holidays, sick leave, and so on).

Similarly, Okafor (2007) asserts that losses suffered by casual employees include: abysmal low wages, absence of medical care allowances, no job security or promotion at work, no gratuity and other severance benefits, no leave or leave allowance, jeopardized freedom of association, no death benefits or accident insurance at work, no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement. Fapohunda (2012) states that, this treatment extends to job allowances, canteen services, pension plans, health and life insurance schemes, transportation and leave entitlements.

Sadly, the trend now is that casual workers work for many years without promotion and necessary entitlements; and sometimes they do what normal employees should do, but are not compensated for such (Okafor, 2010). According to Okafor (2010), there are two forms of employment under casualization in Nigeria, namely; casual and contract labour. The terms and conditions of employment of this category of workers are not regulated by the Nigerian labour laws, in the sense that their status is not defined and no provisions are made for the regulation of the terms and conditions of their employment, hence the mass exploitation of these workers by employers.

Employers use casualization of the labour force as an effective means of reducing cost, maximizing profit and de-unionizing the work force. Fajana (2005) notes that, it is difficult to give accurate statistics about the number of casual and contract workers in Nigeria because there are no official statistics showing the extent and trends of casualization. Animashaun (2007) asserts that some organizations have been reported to have up to 60-90 percent of their workers as casual employees. The Nigerian Labour Act does not define casualization and does not provide a legal framework for the regulation of the terms and conditions of this work arrangement.

The lack of definition of the status of this category of workers as well as the legal framework regulating the terms and conditions of their employment and protection probably explains the motivating factor for the increasing use of casualization by employers and why this category of workers are exploited by employers who engage them (Fapohunda, 2012). The prevailing arrangement in most organizations is a situation where people are employed as casual and contract workers for five years or more and are paid less than their permanent counterparts in terms of wages and benefits even though they possess the same skills, work for the same hours and perform the same tasks as permanent employees. Hall (2000) submits that casualization may have negative effects on important aspects of national economic performance, such as skill formation and development. Within such framework, the labour force of the nation will continue to suffer and be greatly affected.

Anti-labour practices like as casualization can derail advancement in economic progress because there would always be agitations, industrial actions and breakdown in production and services. Casualization may also increase the rate of brain drain and capital flight in the country, since the nation's labour force will begin to run to other countries with perceived better employment conditions and working environment as has been witnessed in Nigeria.

It renders the citizens who are supposed to be the major beneficiaries of economic investments impoverished and completely hopeless. Again, it leads to disparity among households over time.

It can be argued that the conditions of casual work have structural tendencies to undermine casual workers' well-being in Nigeria in the following ways: First, the lack of rights and minimal legal status of casual work threatens not only this workers' access to resources and entitlements, but also to the type of self-respect that equal rights supports. This is especially problematic in those industries where casual workers are performing the same tasks as workers on more standard employment contracts, because this expansion of dual employment systems within the one workplace tends to formalize unwarranted hierarchies of (dis)respect, and hierarchies which workers will confront on a daily basis. Such ongoing misrecognition, particularly for workers in the oxymoronic category of "long-term casuals" may, in turn, threaten workers' conceptions of themselves as sharing a basic equality with other workers on these terms (Tweedie, 2011).

Second, the process of casualization means that casual workers lack access to career paths, because much casual work lacks possibilities for career progression comparable to standard employment relationships. For example, a corollary of casualization in universities is that casual positions that may once have been stepping stones to tenured positions are long-term experiences. Yet casual positions typically have little opportunity for career progression within this employment type; for instance, casual teaching positions in universities include only two employment categories: (a) workers with a doctorate; and (b) workers without a doctorate. Such a lack of career progression for casual workers has obvious material costs. However, in contemporary "work societies", a career path is not simply a determinant of income. Rather, a career path also designates a progression from less to more demanding work, and career progression is (still) one significant form of social esteem. By limiting access to career paths, casualization tends to undermine both the development of skills and capacities and workers' access to legitimate esteem for the work that they perform (Tweedie, 2011).

Third, casual work also tends to undermine workplace esteem through the typically smaller presence or "voice" that casual workers have in the workplace. Most scholars and commentators agree that casual work and its spread are bad for the workforce. Workers involved in casual jobs suffer a substantial deficit in their rights and benefits, compared with employees in standard "permanent" jobs. However, a critical analysis based on the benefits/half-truths and myths of casual work reveal some.

Facts casual work would not necessarily have bad effects on workers if it were a short-term bridge into better work. Certainly, in some cases, casual workers do go on to better-paid and more secure jobs (Chalmers and Kalb, 2001). This is most clearly the case for many tertiary students who, after a period of casual work while they are studying, will eventually start careers in the profession in which they have been educated. It is also likely in some other cases, as part of the normal process of looking around and seeking better work. Some evidence suggests that a direct transition from unemployment to “permanent” job is less likely than an indirect transition which goes from unemployment via a casual job and then into a permanent job (Chalmers and Kalb, 2001). This is unsurprising, since many employers in Nigeria are reluctant to recruit directly from the pool of the unemployed, but want some assurance of current skills, work attachment, and work discipline.

In addition, it is sometimes suggested that casual jobs do not have bad effects on workers because most of the workers in question are full-time or part-time students and married- special kinds of workers who are seen just as “secondary earners”. These categories of workers do not have the full capacity or privilege to work as permanent staff owing to their dual role for work, schooling and taking care of the family, respectively. It is also necessary to ask how and why status as a full-time student or as a married woman can be seen as an excuse for deprivation of rights and benefits. There is no evidence for a preference for casual work amongst these groups (though there is a strong preference for part-time hours). Similarly, there seems little basis for an assumption that such workers are not dependent on their jobs.

It may be argued by some scholars and commentators that deprivation of rights and benefits is less important in the case of students, since they only experience this for a few years. But women with family responsibilities can be in their casual jobs for long periods of time, and any effects from casual work will, therefore, indeed be long term. It is hard to resist the conclusion that these groups are poorly treated because their desire for part-time work renders them vulnerable. As a matter of fact, one reason why workers in casual employment in Nigeria may obtain permanent jobs, either directly with a client or indirectly, is because they acquire skills (for example, computer training) and experience with a variety of former employers, who might have employed them as casuals.

Indeed, what may be the primary motivation of casual employment is sometimes the opportunity for these workers to acquire skills and experience (Carey and Hazelbaker, 1986; Hippel et al., 1997).

Despite this, Dale and Bamford (1988) and Nollen (1996) argue that most casual workers are employed in jobs that are low-skill and without career potential and that casual employment is adverse to human capital development by either the staffing company or client. Yet, in any event, having temporary work is often better than not having a job at all (Lenz, 1996; Segal and Sullivan, 1997). Belous (1989) and Polivka and Nardone (1989) also observe that workers also benefit in so far as casual jobs let them control their schedules, sample a variety of jobs, and have more time for other activities. Nonetheless, the extent to which casual workers are able to obtain permanent jobs in their working organization is an unresolved issue (Kalleberg, Reskin and Hundson, 2000). Theoretically, casual work leads to the reduction of an organization's operational costs, by increasing the ease with which workers can be included and excluded from the workforce (Richardson and Allen, 2001). In this case, the employers and owners of organizations benefit from casual work in Nigeria. Therefore, the corporate trend of hiring and keeping workers on temporary employment rather than permanent employment, even for years, is a cost-reduction measure.

2.3.8 Challenges faced by Casual Workers

With many African countries taking steps to become self-sufficient and economically viable entities, governments all over the continent have taken steps to ensure attractive, investor-friendly policies, which are sometimes, to the detriment of the indigenous workers. In 2012 alone, there are reports about the workplace violations, like physical abuse, committed by foreign employers in African countries (Onemola, 2012). Many of these reports tend to focus on the transgressions committed by Chinese firms – due in large part to increased Chinese economic activity in Africa, which according to some estimates is expected to be worth at least \$50 billion by 2015 (Onemola, 2012). Allegations against other foreign investors from countries like Lebanon, India, and Germany mistreating their African employees have also been documented around the continent. For example, in Nigeria, following the numerous reports of abuses committed by foreign firms operating in the country in 2011, the Trade Union Congress of Nigeria (TUC) called on foreign investors to respect the dignity of their Nigerian employees, and to adhere to Nigeria's labour laws.

In 2012, Civil Liberties Organization (CLO) in Nigeria filed a report against the China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation (CCECC), which stated that: “nationals of some of the foreign firms doing business in Nigeria have been involved in the dehumanization of Nigerians in their employ.” Other reports showed that Nigerian workers in foreign firms are usually employed on a “casual” basis, which essentially means that such workers are considered “temporary” employees, who work for their employers without

employment security or any job-related benefits. Other reports suggested that there have also been incidents where workers operating in temporary capacities in foreign firms based in Nigeria, who were close to approaching the stage where they would be eligible for “significant benefits,” were “unceremoniously laid off (Onemola, 2012).

According to Onemola (2012), the temporary status of Nigerian workers in foreign firms is due in large part to the government’s inability to regulate the adherence of the so-called “expatriate quotas” granted to foreign firms. Many foreign firms illegally keep their “foreign workers for as long as the worker in question desires at the detriment of the Nigerian worker,” even though the accepted practice by Nigeria’s Labour Ministry specifies that such foreigners should only be employed on a temporary basis, until a Nigerian with the requisite credentials and skills is available for the job.

In a country like Nigeria, where youth unemployment hovers somewhere around 40 percent, employees working under such mercurial conditions for foreign employers cannot simply pickup and leave; and based on the provisional status of their employment, unionization to protest the work conditions becomes increasingly difficult (Onemola, 2012). Irrespective of this, for every worker unhappy with his or her present working conditions, there are always many more potential labourers waiting at the gates of these foreign firms begging for employment. In this regard, although foreign investment contributes heavily to economic development, governments all over Africa must work to ensure that their workers are not subject to practices that border on modern-day slave-like conditions.

Furthermore, governments must begin to effectively regulate the expatriate quotas in countries like Nigeria, and companies found to be in violation of the existing laws should be penalized heavily. Such regulations and safeguards will directly result in more employment opportunities for indigenous workers; and when instituted on a large scale, foreign investors will be forced to work within the parameters and policies of African countries with free and fair labour practices for indigenous workers.

Stress as an occupational health problem has been studied in medical, behavioural and social science research over the past sixty years, but there are discrepancies in the literature on how experts define and operationalize stress, and there are numerous scales to measure occupational stress (Di Martino, 2000). Stress refers to self-reported symptoms occurring as a result of transactions between the individual and the environment. In line with the definition from Denton and Zeytinoglu (1999), symptoms of stress include frequent exhibition of the following (over the preceding six months): exhaustion, burnout, inability to sleep, lack of energy, feeling like there is nothing more to give, wanting to cry, difficulties with

concentration, feelings of anger and helplessness, irritability, anxiety, feeling dizzy and feeling a lack of control over one's life (Denton and Zeytinoglu, 1999). Physical health problems refers to self-reported physical health problems, like as musculoskeletal disorders, respiratory illnesses, headaches and migraines, and burns or cuts in the body that occurred as a result of continuous involvement in work or the work environment (not as a result of an acute or an instantaneous event) (Hales and Bernard, 1996).

Musculoskeletal disorders (MSD) are defined as disorders of the soft tissue and their surrounding structures. Such disorders occur as pain or discomfort in the neck or shoulder, arm, elbow or hand; back pain; sore or sprained muscles; pain in the hips, knees and feet. Emotional health problems include self-report feelings of low job satisfaction, motivation and self-esteem as a result of work and the work environment. Workplace problems such as high absenteeism rates, high turnover rates, high rates of grievances, a greater propensity to engage in conflict with peers and superiors, and a willingness to go on strike all fall into the category of organizational problems (Lowenberg and Conrad, 1998; Wilkins and Beaudet, 1998).

Both paid and unpaid forms of work are important determinants of health. Research indicates that paid work contributes to women's emotional health problems of stress, anxiety, and depression (Collins, 1997; Messing, 1997; Walters and Denton, 1997). Research on women's health has identified casual jobs as a specific source of chronic stress and exhaustion for some female workers. Studies have pointed out that stress as an occupational illness, has both physical and mental effects on casual workers and also organizational effects (Hales and Bernard, 1996; Kahn and Byosiére, 1992; Lowenberg and Conrad, 1998; MFL, 1996; Wilkins and Beaudet, 1998). Buchanan and Koch-Schulte (2000) note that stress in casual employment can have both physical and emotional consequences for employees, ultimately leading to high levels of turnover. There are a number of factors affecting stress, and consequences of stress.

Although casual works have always existed, what is new and challenging is the rising proportion of casual work arrangements in newly created jobs since the 1980s, a large share of which lies within formal organizations. Labour force data from Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC) (1996) shows that, since 1976, 44 percent of total employment growth has been due to growth in casual employment. Lipsett and Reesor (1998) assert that the "typical" full-time, permanent, nine-to-five, Monday-to-Friday job with one employer is now the work arrangement for only a third of the Canadian works force.

Different types of flexible work arrangements are used by both private and public-sector organizations, and in the service and goods-producing sectors. Casual workers are typically found in the service sector, while the goods producing sector often uses full-time workers on an overtime or shift basis, or contracting out work. In addition, employment in these sectors is further divided along gender lines; the majority of employees in the service sector are female and male workers dominate the goods-producing sector (Zeytinoglu 1999). The increase in casual jobs in most organizations has had a negative effect on working conditions in these organizations.

It is now rare to find 8-hour shifts in cashier and clerical positions in many retail food stores and employers are cutting back hours whenever possible and eliminating rest breaks (Zeytinoglu and Crook, 1997). Split-shifts, which occur when an individual works in the morning from 8 a.m. to 12 noon and from 5 to 9 p.m. the same day, for example, are increasing in frequency in the workplace. Such schedules make it difficult, particularly for females, to manage both work and life responsibilities, especially if they have dependants. Split-shifts were reported to create stress and tiredness, especially when workers were juggling several split-shifts in different workplaces. Overall, in most organizations, employment used to be characterized by full-time jobs with casual workers being used to cover peak periods only, such as Thursday and Friday nights, and Saturdays. Now, however, full-time jobs in most organizations are becoming increasingly replaced with casual positions.

Many female-dominated jobs (such as cashier, bakery, and deli-counter positions) are converted to casual positions. Similar developments do not seem to be taking place with respect to jobs in warehouses, which were predominantly male (Zeytinoglu and Crook 1997). From this, it is clear that the move to precarious casual forms of employment within the service sector and downsizing are primarily affecting women casual workers. Many studies have shown that jobs in most organizations often require heavy physical effort (especially while in a stationary standing position); may be performed in extreme hot or cold temperatures; often involve the presence of dangerous objects and substances, like knives, hot ovens, or cleaning solvents; or can be in physically or emotionally harassing environments (Hinton, 1999; Messing, 1997). Some customer service jobs are prone to violence owing to the hours of work and location, such as working alone at night or early morning hours in isolated areas, or as a result of being responsible for handling money or valuables, like closing the cash register(s) and depositing the money after work or being in charge of opening and closing the firm.

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In general, organizations have policies relating to harassment and sexual harassment. However, those policies often lack procedures for their implementation (Zeytinoglu and Crook, 1997). In terms of working conditions, one of the concerns about casual jobs is that they do not provide an equitable work environment for workers in comparison to their full-time counterparts. Previous studies have found that casual workers earn, on the average, much less than their full-time counterparts and fewer have access to benefits, including company pension plans and extended health coverage. Casual jobs are unprotected by employment and health and safety legislation (Quinlan and Mayhew, 1999). Casual workers are also paid less than full-time workers (Statistics Canada, 1998). Since casual workers are often paid a “fee for services”, the employer-employee relationship is essentially non-existent; as such, casual workers are usually responsible for their own benefits coverage and tend to not qualify for employer-sponsored pension programmes.

With respect to wages and benefits, the wholesale and retail trades have the lowest estimated average weekly earnings of all industries. In the retail food sector, wage rates in both unionized and non-unionized workplaces tend to vary according to tenure. While the sector provides employees with access to some benefits, individuals in casual employment tend to fare even more poorly than their full-time permanently employed counterparts by receiving lower rates of pay and less access to benefits.

Regarding job security, training, promotion, and career development, some studies have shown that, for casual workers, job security and income security take priority over training. Since women dominate casual positions in the retail sector, their disadvantaged position in terms of income and job security contributes to the inequality between female and male workers, and between full-time and casual women workers (Zeytinoglu and Crook 1997).

For the majority of workers entering the service sector workforce in casual jobs, there is less job security and fewer opportunities for positions with stability than in the past. Particularly in non-unionized jobs, workers may have no assurance from their employers about how long their jobs will last. For example, casual employment trends have resulted in a growing number of individuals employed for set periods of time only, such as during the holidays or for the summer season. In comparison to non-unionized workers, union workers generally have more certainty about their employment status because the terms of collective agreements usually guarantee unionized workers a minimum number of hours or weeks of work, and often casual jobs become permanent after a defined time period (Hinton, 1999). Casual workers do not receive the same amount and quality of training as their full-time counterparts, which often put them at a disadvantage for upward career mobility.

Moreover, in divisions of the industry where women in casual jobs make up a large proportion of the total number of employees, very few, if any, opportunities for advancement are provided. As a consequence, most workers in the retail sector can only achieve advancement by changing employers. Casual workers are thus rarely considered for promotion, and promotion occurs typically if there are no full-time workers available to fill the position, or if the casual worker has been willing to work in a full-time job (Zeytinoglu and Crook 1997). Hinton, (1999) claims that the working conditions for women in casual jobs are increasingly untenable, with workers being forced to accept lower rates of pay and few benefits in order to remain employed. For example, most workers in casual jobs in this sector are excluded from workplace benefit programmes, such as pension plans, dental plans, or other medical coverage. Unfortunately, however, because these employees are often working on an “on-call” basis and are required by the employer to be available for work on short notice, it is extremely difficult for them to seek better employment (Hinton, 1999).

Unionization has been very advantageous to workers with respect to wages and benefits. In 1997, “unionized female casual workers in Canada earned 94.3 percent of the hourly wage of unionized female full-time workers, while non-unionized female casual workers earned only 75.5 percent of their non-unionized female counterparts (Kumar, 1998).

In this same year, 86.6 percent of unionized full-time workers and 56.7 percent of unionized casual workers were members of a pension plan, which far exceeds the pension coverage rate of 7.5 percent for non-unionized casual workers (Jackson, 1998). The extended health care plan coverage rate for unionized full-time, unionized casual, and non-unionized casual workers was 88.9, 47.8, and 9.0 percent, respectively, in 1997 (Jackson, 1998).

Gendered work environments often encompass male-dominated organizational cultures and climates, resulting in discrimination against women, harassment, prejudice and sex stereotyping, which are all factors that increase and intensify the stress symptoms of women (Messing 1997; Zeytinoglu, 1999). In the retail sector, occupational segregation based on sex and the employment status divide between full-time and casual workers is still prevalent. Almost all supervisory and managerial positions are held by men and these are also full-time and relatively well-paid positions. Male employees tend to work in warehouse departments and as stock clerks and meat cutters. In contrast, women are generally in cashier, store clerk, and bakery jobs, which are also the lower-paid and casual positions (Zeytinoglu and Crook, 1997). Adult women (aged 25 + years) comprise 70 percent of casual work positions in Canada (Statistics Canada, 1998) and 68 percent of involuntary casual work positions (HRDC, 1996).

Statistics Canada (1998) also identifies youth (aged 15-24 years) as a large group in the casual work force, as indicated by their 35 percent share of these positions in Canada in 1997. From these statistics, it is clear that there is a disproportionately high share of women and young people in casual jobs, thus placing them in a secondary position compared to males. This produces a cycle of less financial support and an increased dependence on their spouse, family, and the government, ultimately resulting in a higher likelihood of living in poverty in old age, and more health problems (Zeytinoglu, 1999).

Stress is a multi-causal outcome of work and working conditions, and gendered work environments and demographic characteristics. The effect of the work environment on stress is well known (Hales and Bernard 1996; Kahn and Byosiere 1992). The unique work environment of casual employment, in particular, the economic pressure in terms of competition for jobs, pressure to retain a job, and pressure to earn a livable income, are all conceptualized as factors affecting stress levels of casual workers (Quinlan, 2001).

Stress among casual workers can also be attributed to the “employment strain” in these jobs owing to uncertainty in employment, earnings, scheduling, location of employment and tasks, and the precariousness of the household and demands required to manage employment uncertainty, such as time spent in looking for work, time spent travelling

between jobs, and conflicts from holding more than one job. “Employment strain” is a concept explained by Lewchuk et al (2003); it identifies possible health risks as a result of uncertainties and insecurities of an occupation or sector (not just as a result of one particular workplace). This often leads to the additional stresses faced by those in casual work, who often find themselves emotionally exhausted from constantly seeking other employment and juggling multiple jobs.

Employment strains include issues of lack of control over types of work, work schedules and hours of work, location of work, and earnings (Lewchuk, 2003). Stress from casual work can affect the individual’s physical and emotional well-being, and can also affect the organization. Work stress can have adverse effects on individuals’ physical abilities to function well. Aspects of casual work, like long shifts and very short breaks and the type of tasks typically found in the retail industry, such as heavy lifting and repetitive motions can lead to a variety of physically debilitating results, particularly for women who seem to work in cashier, store clerk, and bakery jobs and who often encounter “split shifts” and the elimination of rest breaks (Zeytinoglu and Crook 1997).

The possible physical manifestations of work stress include arthritis, heart disease, migraines and headaches, and musculoskeletal disorders. Work-related stress can also affect individuals’ emotional health and well-being. In the retail sector, the nature of their tasks combined with the daily interaction with customers and co-workers can reduce women’s job satisfaction, self-esteem, and motivation. Research shows that work-related stress is highly associated with low job satisfaction, decreased levels of self-esteem and motivation (Walters and Denton 1997, Zeytinoglu, 1999). All of the above factors, including physical health and emotional well-being outcomes of stress, can impact employers in negative ways. Employers and unions need to have a good understanding of the stress that casual workers face to comprehend the difficulties that are placed on these workers but also to become aware of the outcomes of this stress on the organizational and economic aspects of employment.

Stress in casual employment can have both physical and emotional consequences for employees, ultimately leading to high levels of turnover (Buchanan and Koch-Schulte, 2000). Other consequences of work stress are higher levels of absenteeism, a higher propensity to file grievances, lowered workplace morale, and the willingness to engage in conflict with co-workers or management (this includes strike activities), among others.

2.3.9 Transition from casual to permanent employment

Education is one important factor that influences the chances of consolidating the employment relationship, with highly-educated workers, those with a university degree, having more opportunities, *ceteris paribus*, to transit to a permanent job than those with lower levels of education.

Similarly, both the occupation of the worker and the economic activity of the employer play a role in determining the transition from one kind of employment to another. Thus, jobs in construction and agriculture offer casual workers less chances of transition, what might be explained by the more seasonal character of these activities in comparison to industry and services. Coefficients for occupations show how workers in nonqualified jobs have the lowest likelihood of becoming employed on a permanent basis (Gonzalez-Rendon, Alcaide-Castro and Florez-Saborido, 2004).

Interestingly, temporary workers in the public sector show more problems to consolidate their jobs than their counterparts in the private sector. This is surprising as public workers are in general less likely to be employed under casual arrangements than workers in the private sector. This circumstance could be explained in part by the existence of stringent administrative rules in Spain that regulate access to permanent employment in public administration. Another possible explanation could be found in the fact that a high proportion of casual employment in the public sector is directly linked to specific projects financed by the Government and/or the European Union in a wide range of areas (health, training, R&D and so on).

Workers who are employed under fixed-term contracts in these projects usually have little prospects to obtain an open-ended contract. Being the head of the household contributes to increased likelihood of transition to a permanent employment. If, for any reason, a member of a household takes on a position of leadership within the family group, it is then possible to establish the hypothesis that this position will motivate the worker to expend the effort required to achieve job stability as soon as possible. In this case, the household's effort could be considered a supply side factor in explaining the transition into a permanent job. Regional factors, like customs, shared values, local institutions, economic structure and other circumstances seem to play a role in determining transitions from casual to permanent employment. In general, casual workers in southern and eastern Spain have the lowest likelihood of obtaining a permanent job, contrary to what occurs in the north-eastern and central regions.

The type of casual employment held by the worker also has a significant effect on the transition to a permanent job. In general, holders of non-casual fixed term labour contracts have more chances of obtaining permanent employment than workers with casual contracts. This is a perfectly logical result, as non-casual contracts are not justified by casual needs of firms such as the substitution of workers on leave, an unexpected increase in sales and the completion of a specific project. Non-casual temporary contracts are used instead of permanent contracts as a way to reduce labour costs, obtain a higher degree of labour flexibility and, in certain cases, as a screening device. In general, non-casual contracts have been traditionally regulated in Spain as an instrument of labour policy to reduce the high levels of unemployment.

Finally, the number of hours worked per week is positively correlated to the likelihood of transition to a permanent job, contrary to what occurs in the home-based employment. Part-time and home-based workers, together with casual workers, are usually considered to be part of the peripheral workforce. Therefore, when in a specific worker coincides two or more forms of atypical employment, the opportunities of transition from the secondary to the primary labour market, through an open-ended contract, are diminished. On the one hand, it is possible to argue that when workers can decide the amount of hours they dedicate to work, working longer hours can be interpreted by employers as a signal of commitment. Thus, open-ended contracts will be awarded to those who display a stronger commitment through hours.

On the other hand, when the amount of hours is decided by the employer, a common situation in Spain, it may be that part-time jobs are usually offered to workers who are in a weaker position in the labour market, precisely those who have more difficulties in getting a permanent job owing to their personal or professional characteristics (low-educated workers, women, young persons and so forth). Empirical results using a Cox proportional hazards regression model showed that, at least for Spain, exiting casual employment for an average worker is a matter of time, which contradicts previous research carried out by Amuedo (2000) for Spain. After six years, more than 70 percent of these workers would be employed permanently.

However, Cox regression estimates indicate that certain individual characteristics, occupations and economic sectors, have a negative influence on the probability of transitioning from a casual to a permanent job. For certain groups of workers (women, older and less-educated workers) exiting casual employment turns out to be a difficult task, and almost impossible if their jobs have other additional features.

In these cases, casual employment is in fact a dead end. Casual employment is, therefore, not a homogenous group in Spain, as that certain workers are trapped indefinitely in this kind of employment, while others are in transit towards a permanent job.

The existence of a high proportion of casual workers in this second group reflects the common employment practice in Spain of using casual contracts almost exclusively for newly hired workers, while at the same time delaying the transformation of their fixed-term contracts into permanent ones as long as possible. Given that the levels of employment protection of permanent workers are difficult to change in Spain owing to social and political pressures, there are two possible groups of measures that can be implemented in order to reduce the incidence of casual employment.

2.4 Casual Employment and its Impacts on Organizations

2.4.1 Unscheduled turnover

The use of casual workers by firms includes, by definition, an element of scheduled turnover. That is, by their nature, casual workers assignments have a planned ending date. However, firms that make extensive use of the casual labour market may also experience higher- than-necessary levels of unscheduled turnover when they fail to cope with human asset management dilemmas peculiar to casual workers (Breaugh and Starke, 2000). Unscheduled turnover is defined as the departure of casual workers prior to the scheduled end date of their assignments. This same phenomenon, viewed from the casual worker's perspective, is referred to as early withdrawal (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004).

As unscheduled turnover occurs among casual workers, previously expected cost trade-offs between scheduled turnover and wage/benefit avoidance no longer apply, seriously threatening economic gains previously anticipated from the use of such workers. Human resource managers face an interesting conundrum in attempting to maximize the potential of casual workers. Traditionally, client firms invest little, if any, time or effort in the integration of casual workers, precisely because the assignments are short term by definition. On the other hand, failure to effectively integrate casual workers into the firm may act to intensify the problem of unscheduled turnover (Breaugh, 2008). Such actions on the part of the firm may also result in casual workers' failure to acquire an adequate understanding of others' expectations and their own role-relevant boundaries, thereby depriving the firm of their maximized performance.

2.4.2 Low morale

Historically, casual employees have been used to substitute for employees who are on leave, to fill in for a short time while the company screens applicants to hire a new core employee, and to expand a company's short-term ability to handle an increased volume in jobs that are peripheral to core activities. This picture is changing, in that, more often, casual employees are being used in what previously were core organizational jobs. This can have an effect on morale because both casual and core employees may be working side by side on the same job, but under different compensation and benefits terms. In addition, casual workers may not get the same training, thereby affecting the risk level in some jobs (Bourhis and Wils, 2001).

A study by Harley (1994) showed that, regardless of size, sector or industry, there was an association between peripheral work and negative conditions in factors such as wage rates, job security, patterns of gender equality, training and career advancement opportunities, worker autonomy, as the rule rather than the exception. If these trends in casual employment growth continue, an increasing proportion of the workforce is likely to experience relatively poor working conditions. For instance as the majority of workers in peripheral employment in Australia are women, the negative effects of its growth are unequally distributed across society, reinforcing existing patterns of social inequality (Harley, 1994).

Many casual workers actually prefer permanent work and enter short-term employment relationships with the hope of obtaining employment in permanent work and skills advancement (Hippel, 1997). The longer temporary workers work as casual employees, however, the fewer new skills are learned and the less task variety experienced. Bourhis and Wils (2001) noted that casual workers are less likely than full-time workers to have voluntarily chosen their employment status.

Rogers (2000) questions the practical reality of many so-called advantages of casuals promoted by the casual employment industry, asking just how many people are appropriately employed as casuals according to the skill and qualification levels they possess, and just how many opportunities casuals have to try new occupations and learn new skills. Further, Rogers questions just how many people, as a result of having casuals in an organization, actually find permanent employment within an occupation and at a rate of pay commensurate with their qualifications.

2.4.3 Low levels of employee productivity

Feldman (1990) observes that the very nature of casual employment increases feelings of divided allegiance on the part of casual workers. According to Parker (1994), underemployment, meaning both underemployments in terms of hours employed and underemployment in terms of sub-optimal skill utilization makes casual workers less involved rather than more involved. Segal (1996) found that casual workers worked an average of 33.5 hours per week, while their permanent counterparts worked an average of 39.5 hours per week. Thus, involvement for casual workers is limited on a temporal basis alone simply because they have an average of six fewer hours per week to exercise that involvement.

Perhaps even more problematically, client firms commonly view casual workers as buffers against market downturns, effectively classifying those workers as expendable. Because of this view, client firms also allocate fewer resources to training and socializing casual workers than to permanent employees (Wiens-Tuers and Hill, 2002). This “restricted investment” on the part of client firms reinforces feelings of second-class citizenship among casual employees and has the compounded effect of limiting both involvement in, and identification with, the organization. As a result, casual workers may exhibit lower levels of continuance commitment toward the client firm than do permanent employees in whom the firm’s investment is not similarly restricted.

This may reduce their productivity at work. The growth in casual employment (i.e. dependent employment of limited duration, as in the case of fixed-term contract workers or short-term agency workers (OECD, 1999), from the mid-1980s up to now, has attracted a great deal of scholarly attention. The dominant position is that the evolution towards increasing numbers of casual employment is driven by the employer’s demand for more flexibility and innovation, and by their wish to reduce labour costs (Burgess and Connell, 2006).

This seems to hint at overall favourable effects for the organization, particularly on the short-term and assessed with indicators of economic success. Seemingly missing in this debate is a combination of a human resource management and psychological approach, namely the effects of casual versus permanent employment in terms of workers’ productive and/or contra-productive behaviours that are important for both organizations and employees in the short-term and long-term (Connelly and Gallagher, 2004).

Regarding the unfavourable consequences that can be associated with casual employment, Millward and Hopkins (1998) assert that the inexperience of casual employees, added to the lack of induction and investment in their skills, might have a negative influence over the attitudes they have concerning security and the best way to perform their duties. Regarding commitment Felfe, Schmook, Schyns, and Six (2008) noted that casual employees who chose this type of contract show less commitment compared than those who did not.

It is likely to find higher levels of commitment among workers with a relational psychological contract (permanent workers) as compared to those with a transactional psychological contract (casual employees) (Millward and Hopkins, 1998). Kalleberg and Rognes (2000) observe that lack of trust, perceived unfairness, and lower affective attachment can also be related to transactional contracts. These views are similar to those found by McDonald and Makin (2000), when comparing permanent and non-permanent staff.

However, not every study has found negative consequences associated with casual employment. Regarding job commitment, Martin and Hafer (1995) and De Witte and Näswall (2003) found no significant difference between casual and permanent employees. The latter group of authors found similar results about job satisfaction. Engellandt and Riphahn (2005) found even a higher level of employee effort in casual workers compared to permanent ones. These authors argue that casual workers are more likely to work harder, although this performance level is more commonly found among employees that have a possibility of going upwards in the organization. Feldman (2005) found similar results, pointing out that contingent workers with expectations of future permanent employment are more likely to perform at higher levels and show more commitment to work compared to those who do not have these expectations.

The casual employees respond to three characteristics: they have no permanent relationship with an employer, they work less than 35 hours with any employer and the contract is of limited duration. Rousseau (1990) found that casual employees seeking a long-term relationship with their organizations, even when maintaining a transactional psychological contract, showed a more “relational” interaction with their employers, resulting in more commitment to the organization. Engellandt and Riphahn (2005) examined why employers use short-term agency and contract company workers and the implications of these practices for the wages, benefits, and working conditions of workers in low-skilled labour markets.

Through intensive case studies in manufacturing (automotive supply), services (hospitals), and public sector (primary and secondary schools) industries, they defined the circumstances under which these workers were likely to be adversely affected, minimally affected, or even benefitted by such outsourcing. Adverse effects on compensation are clearest when companies substitute casual workers for regular employees on a long-term basis because low-skilled workers within the organization receive relatively high compensation and employment and labour law or workers and their unions do not block companies from such substitution.

2.4.4 Understanding the significance of Labour productivity and casualization

Buchanan and Considine (2002), note that the topic casual employment is riddled with ambiguity and paradoxes. Making sense of them is the key to understanding the significance, especially for labour productivity and casualization. Definitional ambiguity reflects changes in the form rather than substance of long-term employment relations in the workplace. The characteristics of most casual workers indicate that this form of employment has more to do with limited choices available to young people, women and low skilled workers than any flourishing of choices for people at work (Brenner, 2002). Casualization refers to the systematic replacement of full-time and part-time staff with staff employed on an ad hoc basis. Regular work is not provided but the casual worker is expected to be available when required. Theoretically, casualization leads to the reduction of an organization's operational costs by increasing the ease with which workers can be included and excluded from the workforce.

Therefore, a casual worker is a worker on a temporary employment contract with generally limited entitlements to benefits and little or no security of employment. The main attribute is the absence of a continuing relationship of any stability with an employer, which could lead to their not being considered "employees" at all. Casual workers differ from other non-permanent workers in that they often possess fewer rights and less protection (Richardson and Allen, 2001). A plethora of terms have been deployed to define and account for the growth of this type of irregular employment contract. For example, Theron (2005) notes that the ILO has used terms like disguised employment or triangular employment relationship to define the emergence of sub-contractors, independent contractors, home-based workers and all manner of "in-formalised" work.

Based on the literature on the subject, there are some distinctions within the concept of casual employment. The first is whether the workers are directly employed by a firm on a casual or season fixed term.

Historically, these contracts were used to supplement the work force in the period of peakdemand, like holidays. However, in the current context, casual employment is steadily replacing permanent employment (Brenner, 2002).

The second type of casual employment is of the triangular employment relationship in which a labour broker supplies labour to a firm. The definition of employer in this relationship is tenuous and demand new forms of regulation. For instance, if a firm contracts a labour broker to provide workers does it then assume the responsibility of employer or are these workers employed by the subcontractor or labour broker? Workers often identify with a firm in which they have been deployed even though they are employed by the labour broker; especially in cases where deployment is for an extended period of time. In this case, what constitutes a workplace is a vexed question for regulators and for workers (Cartier, 1994).

The third type of casual employment is one characterized by dependent economy relations disguised and treated as commercial contracts. Independent contractors and home based workers fall into this category of workers. Earlier, it was noted that casual employment is not new. However, the utilization of workers on short-term contract to avoid a standard employment relationship (SER) is new (Theron, 2005). The notion of temporary employment may suggest intermittent contract, yet anecdotal evidence suggests that there are cases of people employed on a continuous temporary basis in worse cases for 20 years. It is obvious in such a case that the labour is required but the employer is not willing to pay the cost of permanent employment.

Cost savings associated with casuals are not achieved by cutting their hourly wage rates; rather, it appears to arise from casuals' weakened ability to obtain standard rights, traditionally associated with ongoing employment and an inability to fulfil their own working time preferences as they meet the needs of production or service provision (Tracy, 1991). The demise of standard employment need not necessarily undermine standards in the labour market. New standards and arrangements, designed around the fairer sharing of risk, are necessary to ensure sustainable bases for labour productivity growth nurtured in future.

The issue is not simply to rectify the problem experienced by individual casual workers; rather, the problem is the processes of casualization itself. The significance of casual labour is that it is integral to labour management strategies that achieve the better deployment, not development, of labour. Such an approach to labour productivity improvement cannot continue forever. Any long-run growth in labour productivity can only be sustained if the capacity for labour to undertake a broader range of activities is increased (Hall, 2002).

This challenge cannot be solved off-site. Highly skilled, innovative individuals cannot be created by the education system alone. It has long been recognized that “learning by doing” is essential for the development of well-rounded skills (Arrow, 1962; Elam, 199; Cartier, 1994). Indeed, for many people not suited to classroom-based learning situations, it is often a superior setting within which to learn. In addition, it has also been recognized that long-term employment relations are of benefit to employers as well as workers. The continuity of association provides the basis for innovation as well as continuity of production and service provision (Rubbery and Williamson, 1994). Many employers intuitively understand the benefits of on-the-job training and long-term employment relations. However, they operate in circumstances which limit their ability to provide proper training and encourage them to minimize the obligations associated with (but not the incidence of) long-term attachments in the workplace.

Amongst larger firms, in particular, the pressures to maximize shareholder value in the short-run and to survive in a world of excess capacity are immense (Brenner, 2002; Froud and William, 2002). In responding to the current situation, it is simply not possible nor is it necessarily desirable – to promote “permanent jobs” of the kind that once prevailed about 30 years ago. Equally, it is unhelpful to celebrate or passively accept the recent growth in “casual” employment as an inevitable part of working life in today’s “globalised” and “competitive” world (Buchanan, 2004). The growth in the casual workforce has been the result of both demand and supply factors.

On the supply side, casual work has been a popular form of employment, as it allows employees to combine work with study or family responsibilities. It can also enable people to get a “foot in door” if they are seeking permanent employment, or it can provide an alternative to unemployment, for people with limited training and work experience who are unable to find a permanent job. While the supply side has played a part, the growth in casual employment has largely been driven by the demand side, that is, the employers. Amid globalization and increased competition, employers are increasingly seeking to run their operations as efficiently as possible. As a result, employers have sought a more flexible workforce. Casual employment provides this flexibility, as employee numbers can be increased or decreased in line with the needs of the business with minimum hassle (Munn, 2004). In addition, while casual workers are paid peanuts above normal rates of pay, it is considered cheaper to hire casuals than permanent staff. This is because casuals are not entitled to non-wage benefits and dismissal can be achieved without severance payments.

A variety of positives and negatives have been raised in relation to the growth of casual workforce. On the positive side, as mentioned earlier, casual employment offers workers the chance to combine paid work with other activities, such as education; and to employers, it offers a means of obtaining a more flexible workforce. However, where casual labour is imposed on workers, this form of employment has been associated with discontent, low wages and lack of career opportunities. Casual workers often also face difficulty borrowing money owing to the uncertainty of tenure (Munn, 2004). It has also been suggested that an over-reliance on casual employment could pose a serious risk to productivity. This is because employers may be less likely to invest in training for their casual employees and, as a result, could lead to deterioration in skills development (Von Otter, 1995). Neo-liberal market restructuring globally is the driving force behind the sharp increase in casual workers. Neo-liberalism seeks to deregulate markets, including the labour market, to increase labour “flexibility” (Bodibe, 2006).

Cheadle (2006) argues that there are three kinds of flexibility: employment flexibility (the freedom to determine employment levels quickly and cheaply), wage flexibility (the freedom to alter wage level without restraint), functional flexibility (the freedom to alter work processes, terms and conditions of employment, and so on and cheaply). In short, employers want the freedom to pay low wages, change the number of workers and how and when work is conducted. In Nigeria, the use of casual labour in industry, whether in transnational, multi-national, either public or private industry and in the informal sector, is common. However, it has been a long-outstanding issue in the oil/gas industry and multinational corporations (Okougbo, 2004).

In some local industries in the informal sector, it is possible to get situations whereby virtually all the employees are casual staff. The casual workers have neither professional nor administrative skills (Anugwon, 2007). Data on casual workers are quite alarming. Specifically, in 2001 there were an estimated 14,559 casual workers as against 23,065 junior workers on permanent job positions in the oil industry (Okougbo, 2004).

Most of the casual workers have various qualifications that would warrant permanent jobs-certificates, diplomas and degrees in such areas as engineering, computer science, telecommunication and accounting. Some of the permanent jobs where casual workers were being utilized in the industry included clerical jobs, plant operations, computer services, rig drilling operations, maintenance services, transportation, flow station operations, flow station guards, deck-hands, forklift operators, typists and fire service men.

The conditions under which casual workers operate in the construction industry and the reasons for casual workers in the construction industries are a matter of concern. The main concern is not with the provision of employment but the condition under which such employment takes place.

Thus, while it is agreed that the corporations provide employment, the concern of this study is about the conditions of work in such firms. According to International Labour Organization (ILO) (2004:80), “all societies have notion of work, but the quality of employment can mean many things”. It could relate to different forms of work (casualization) and also to different conditions of work as well as feelings of value and satisfaction. The uncertainty of business constitutes the strong reason to hire casual workers. To foreign companies, the uncertainty is of a double nature. First, they share the same uncertainty faced by national companies. Second, they have to adapt to culture, economy and laws of the host country. As such, they are reluctant to engage full-time employees during the initial years of operation. Foreign companies also rely extensively on expatriates rather than enter into long-term employment contracts with local labour.

Casual workers also provide the much needed flexibility without high financial and social commitments. However, it is believed that, in Nigeria, jobs for which casual workers are hired are distinctively different from the ones specified by the Labour Act (CAP 198:1990). In some firms in the private sector, workers are hired as casual or contract labourers. This type of labour engagement does not require an elaborate contract in which employer’s liabilities and obligations are spelt out; the requirement is for the company to open its door to willing hands; training is not usually needed; wages paid are low and are usually calculated on a daily basis; and fringe benefits of any sort are not given to casual workers who can be sacked without notice, and are not covered by labour law or union protection.

Owoseye and Onwe (2009), citing the Campaign for Democratic and Workers’ Rights in Nigeria, note that the number of casual workers in Nigeria is 45 per cent of the entire working population. This means that in a factory of 20 workers, nine of them are casual workers. The report continues: “With the ambition of the employer to reduce cost of production, this number will continue to increase, particularly in this period of economic recession.” According to Owoseye and Onwe (2009), “casual employment is a working arrangement that is not permanent in nature and does not fall within the traditional standard employment relationship; workers in this arrangement usually do not have a permanent job

status, they do not get the same pay and benefits as their regular permanent counterparts doing the same job and working the same hours”.

Casual employment became a feature of the Nigerian labour market in the late 1980s when the country adopted the Structural Adjustment Programme in line with the neo-liberal policies prescribed by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. Several factors may be blamed for the prevalence of casual employment despite labour law’s provisions intended to curb the incidence. Topping the list is high unemployment and underemployment rates which result in workers’ earning incomes below the internationally stipulated poverty level of at least one US dollar a day. Poor law enforcement by the labour administration through under-resourced labour inspectorate in both human and material terms raises some concern. Weak and fragmented trade unions lacking capacity to engage government and employers in meaningful negotiations through social dialogue at both tripartite and bipartite levels contributes to the scenario.

2.5 The use of casual workers in some foreign firms in Nigeria

Most African countries, of recent, have turned their attention to the Asian countries, such as China, India and South Korea, for business and economic cooperation. As a result, trade and economic relations have soared. For instance, Africa sold 27% of its export to Asia (mainly to China and India), from 14% in 2005 and three times the amount in 1990 (Okafor, 2010). Oil and natural gas make up 47% of the export, the remainder of the export being made up of raw materials, minerals, timber and cotton (Umunna, 2006; Oya, 2008). There are over 800 Asian firms operating in Africa, employing more than 600,000 Africans, and producing a wide range of goods and services, such as canned foods, plastics, foot wears and textiles, clearing and forwarding, and other household products (Okafor, 2010).

Nigeria, the continent’s second leading economy after South Africa, besieged by rising youth unemployment, has also benefited from these Asian firms, by getting some youths employed in them. Despite this, there are growing concerns that the influx of cheap Asian products in African has led to the closing down of local factories, thereby exacerbating the unemployment situation and the promotion of precarious work conditions in the Asian firms in Africa (Umunna, 2006; Oya, 2008).

In Nigeria, there is growing concern that the use of local casual workers in Asian firms is on the rise, with a host of negative consequences for those who are compelled by unemployment and poverty to take such employment. The working conditions of such casual workers are not only debilitating, but also precarious.

Scholars are of the view that the use of casual workers in these firms not only promotes indecent work, but also violates established labour standards in Nigeria (Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004; Onyeonoru; 2004; Okafor, 2007; Adewumi, 2008). Casual workers have always been and will continue to be an essential and accepted component of the workforce. It will always be necessary to replace temporary or short-term employee absences resulting from illness, as well as vacation, maternity or other types of leave. Workers who may be called in to substitute for part-time or full-time employees, therefore, have a vital and continuing role to play in both the private and public sectors. In the public sector, the hiring of casual workers ensures uninterrupted provision of important and even essential services to the citizens.

For some individuals, casual work may be the means of entering or re-entering the workforce, a steppingstone to more stable employment or a desired short term employment opportunity (Okafor, 2010). Casuals are disadvantaged in a number of ways, as compared to full-time and, even, part-time employees. Casuals often work on an on-call basis, rather than having fixed hours of work and periods of employment. For some, this may mean working for only a few hours each week, making it impossible to earn a decent living. Similarly, casual staff in the firms may be called in for periods as short as several weeks, or up to 6 months, so that they too may not attain employee status (Bramble and Barchiesi, 2003; Barchiesi, 2007).

Casual workers perform the same duties as regular employees, yet they are paid less and do not have access to benefits such as pension plans and sick leave, enjoyed by other workers. For casuals, limited earnings and lack of benefits mean a generally lower quality of life, financial insecurity, inability to plan for the future and often severe emotional and psychological stress (Buchler, Haynes and Baxter, 2009). These glaring inequities are closely linked to the precarious labour force status of the casual worker. Casuals do not have the right to bargain collectively or to join a union and are denied any protection.

Deprived of the basic rights long fought for by labour unions, casuals find themselves at the mercy of their employers. These workers cannot negotiate the terms and conditions of employment. Moreover, casuals can be fired, disciplined, and, mistreated, but they cannot file a grievance or defend themselves (CUPE, 1999; 2000; Jenkins, 2004; Okougbo, 2004). Casualization refers to the systematic replacement of full-time and part-time staff with staff employed on an ad hoc basis (Okafor, 2010). Regular work is not provided, but the casual worker is expected to be available when required.

Theoretically, casualization leads to the reduction of an organization's operational costs, by increasing the ease with which workers can be included and excluded from the workforce (Richardson and Allen, 2001). Casualization of workers is a worldwide phenomenon. Studies done in New Brunswick, United States (CUPE, 1999, 2000; Lebreton, 1997, 2000), Canada (Tilly, 1991; Friss, 1994; Baumann and Underwood, 2002; Baumann and Blythe, 2003), South Africa (Mosoetsa, 2001; Altman, 2003; Bhorat, 2003; Bramble and Barchiesi, 2003; Barchiesi, 2007), India (Jenkins, 2004) and Australia (Buchler, Haynes and Baxter, 2009) showed that casualization of workers is a worldwide phenomenon that cuts across various genders and professions.

In Nigeria, the problem of casualization is common. However, it has been a long-standing issue in most organizations and multinational corporations. In some companies in Nigeria, it is possible for one to get workers as many as 2000 in an industry, out of which about 1500 (three quarters) may be casual workers (Okafor, 2010). In some local industries, in the informal sector, it is possible to get situations whereby virtually all the employees are casual staff. The casual workers have either professional or administrative skills (Okougbo, 2004; Adenugba, 2006; Okafor, 2007). The prevalence of Asian firms in Nigeria is part of the general attempt by the global capitalistic system to reproduce itself, using indigenous cheap labour. The use of casuals by these firms to boost their profit and reduce overhead cost is an attempt at absolving themselves of any entitlements that are due to these workers, if their appointments are regularized (Okafor, 2010).

By using mostly casual workers in their operations, these firms are offering jobs to the teeming unemployed Nigerians, in the absence of any real alternative; promoting indecent work, by taking advantage of the desperate Nigerians. The use of casuals is not the exclusive preserve of foreign firms in Nigeria, even local firms engage in such obnoxious practice. It is pertinent to note that treating a certain category of workers as casuals is a violation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and several sections of chapter four in the 1999 Nigerian Constitution, especially the respect to human dignity (Okafor, 2010). In general, the pervasiveness of this situation is a reflection of the growing global capital encroachment of the Nigerian economy and a manifestation of the general crisis in the Nigerian labour market.

2.6 Casual employment in different Countries

Labour restructuring can take different forms in different countries. One prominent aspect in Australia in the last two decades has been a process of casual employment, in the sense of an increase in the proportion of employees classified as "casual" (Campbell and Brosnan 1999; Watson, 2002).

Casual jobs are Australia's fastest-growing form of employment, with Australia now having the second largest casual workforce in the world, after Spain. This has triggered considerable debate as to whether government intervention should be used to improve job security for the growing number of casual workers (Munn, 2004). The number of casual employees has increased steadily over the past 15 years, from 18.9% of all wage and salary earners in 2008 to 27.6% in 2011. Recent years have seen a slowing in the growth of casual employment. Between 1993 and 1998, the number of casual positions increased by 35.6%. However in 2003, the number of casual positions has only increased by 15.1 % (Munn, 2004).

In 1998, 69.9% of the net jobs created were casual positions; whereas over the last 5 years, only 33.8% of net jobs created have been casual positions. This is a significant slow in the rate of growth of casual positions (Munn, 2004). Most casual workers are part-time, with casual workers currently representing 13.8% of all full-time employees and 60.4% of all part-time employees. Significant percentages (35.0%) of casual employees are aged between 15 and 24. This is to be expected as this age group is typically studying and not looking for a long-term commitment in the labour market (Munn, 2004).

Most casual workers are concentrated in just a few occupations, and tend to be relatively low-skilled. Retail trade is the main employer of casuals, with 44.2% of all employment in the industry being casual. The growth in property and business services has seen this industry become the next most significant employer of casuals, with 30.3% of all employment in the industry being casual (Munn, 2004). With full-time casual employment having grown by 40% under the Howard Government, the trend towards a more casual workforce has now become a political issue. The Australian Labour Party recently announced its Casual Employment Policy, stating it would legislate to ensure that the Australian Industrial Relations Commission takes into account the need to prevent the misuse of casual employment. In 2001, 57% of casuals had been in their current job more than a year, and the average duration of employment was 2.6 years. Under Labour's policy, if these casuals chose to convert to permanent employment, they would gain entitlements like sick leave and annual leave but would forego their casual loading (Munn, 2004).

2.6.1 Casual employment in Northern America

Casual employment affects many workers in Canada. For example, a 1998 study on wages and working conditions in child care centres across Canada showed that almost one-third of the staff worked under some kind of casual labour.

This was true even though 91 percent of teaching staff worked over 30 hours each week. One-fifth of these workers took on an extra job. Eight percent do so because they need a larger income to live. Most do not receive benefits. On average, child care teachers and assistant teachers work 4.6 hours of unpaid overtime each week. Nationally, the turnover rate among child care workers was 22 percent in 1988. Ninety-eight percent were women (Shalla, 2003). In New Brunswick, casual workers are not allowed to join a union. Many public sector workers, including hospital workers, jail guards, school personnel, work without employee status, contract rights or the right to unionize.

In Quebec, casual workers at the city of Montreal are protected by Bill 170. It provides for a “minimum staffing level” in collective agreements. In the country, untenured, part-time contract faculties are responsible for an ever-increasing percentage of university teaching. Part-time faculties are the university contingent work force. Without a union, they have little job security, few benefits and low wages. Yet their workloads increase as universities fail to replace retiring permanent faculty. Sectional instructors are no longer considered “professors-in-training”.

They are flexible, highly productive and dispensable workers. Statistics in Canada revealed that of all non-permanent job types, education and related services rank first, at 15.1 percent. About 1.8 percent of non-permanent workers are located in the retail trade sector. Health and welfare services rank third at 10.3 percent and accommodation and food services is next at 8.6 per cent (Shalla, 2003). It is estimated that more than 93 percent of the unadjusted quarter- to-quarter movement in total non-farm employment is explained by trends in temporary help services. It is expected that the recent build-up in temporary help payrolls will soon translate into some slow but steady employment gains, with the more significant job creation however being delayed until sometime in future (Jurriaan, 2003).

In Canada, three different definitions of casual employment have been used, each pivoting on permanency. These definitions include only people employed on a temporary basis. The first definition includes all wage and salary workers who do not expect their job to last. The second definition narrows the focus to employment of very limited duration by including only those wage and salary workers who expect to work in their current job for one year or less and who have worked for their current employer for less than one year. The third definition broadens the second by including self-employed workers who expect to be, or have been, in their current employment situation for one year or less (Krahn, 1995). Data released by the Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS) pointed to a disturbing downward trend of average weekly hour worked.

In fact, the annual figures for average weekly hours worked has been steadily declining since the BLS first started recording this data in 1964. Workers in 1964 worked an average of 38.5 hours per week. As for 2008, that number dropped to 33.6. What does this mean? Assuming the average hourly private sector wage in 2008 \$18.08, a reduction of 5 hours per week would mean slightly over \$90 lost per week. Over a year that could calculate to almost \$4,500 (Farr, 2009).

More frightening, however, is the fact that the decline in the average weekly hours for workers is more likely a reflection of the increasing number of workers employed part-time for economic reasons (“economic reasons” means that part-time employment is not a result of personal preference, temporary illness, holiday work, and so on.). The current number of workers employed part-time for economic reasons is hovering around 9 million the highest since the BLS first started recording this data in 1955 (Farr, 2009). What is more disturbing is that the current rise in casual workers has not been steady or gradual. The sudden rise of casual employment is linked to economic recession, part of a growing trend of labour casualization or flexibilization.

Casual employment occurs whenever workers are employed in a casual, temporary, or otherwise non-permanent and non-full-time capacity in Canada. In recent years, casual employment has become an increasingly visible problem, and those workers affected are often subject to lower pay, barred from their right to join a union, and denied medical and other benefits. Companies will often hire several part-time workers to avoid their obligation to provide benefits, to divide the work force and to dissuade unionizing efforts. These trends are present in Canada labour market. Another form of casual employment is the growing of contracted and subcontracted workers (Farr, 2009).

2.6.2 Casual employment in the construction industry in the United States

An essential feature of the U.S. construction industry is the operation by unions of hiring halls, a job-referral system through which union members are matched with job vacancies at union contractors in the order of their registration date. Open-shop associations have no tradition of hiring halls, but instead operate referral systems through which laid off workers are allocated to contractors in need of personnel. However, these referral systems are not widely in place. Therefore, much recruitment remains informal and depends on networks of contractors and workers. Workers are recruited through newspaper advertisements, the public employment services, casual work agencies and vocational schools.

Because non-union contractors depend on this patchy system for new skilled workers they have a significant incentive to retain regular employees. The need of non-union contractors to secure a pool of skilled workers co-exists with the self-claimed flexibility these firms are compared to union contractors (Northrup, 1984). Part of this flexibility is rooted in the supposedly quick adjustments non-union contractors can make to changes in the demand for personnel. Previously laid-off workers are recalled during peak demands or workers are hired on a casual basis through a labour market intermediary.

Nearly all casual agency workers are hired by non-union contractors. The 2001 Current Population Survey (CPS) of the Bureau of Labour Statistics showed that almost 3 percent (or 34,000 people) of all casual agency workers were employed in the construction industry. In addition, nearly 37,000 casual workers were assigned to a building firm by so-called “contract firms”, which typically employed people to only one customer. (Casual work agencies and contract firms are usually grouped together as “help supply firms”) These figures are based on self-identification of employee-respondents.

Data collected from firms through the BLS 2000 Occupational Employment Statistics survey, indicated that 122,000 people were employed in the construction industry through a casual work agency. This number was still significantly lower than data provided by the Building and Construction Trades Department (BCTD), which estimated the average number of casual agency workers at 250,000, employed by approximately 450 agencies. The increased importance of casual work agencies may be best illustrated by the income growth for agencies operating in the combined industrial and construction sectors: revenues rose from \$4 billion in 1991 to \$15 billion in 1998, as reported by the American Staffing Association. The Bureau of Labour Statistics expected casual agency employment in the construction industry to grow 61 percent over the period 2000-2010.

On average, casual agency workers in the U.S. construction industry earn forty percent less than their colleagues who are employed by a contractor (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2001). The average wage rate for casual agency workers is affected by the large share of low-pay, low-skill jobs in total casual agency employment in the industry. For instance, nearly one in every five casual agency workers in the construction industry is a labourer, which ranks among the lowest paid construction jobs. Wages may be further pressed downward because casual agency workers are typically working at non-union job-sites. Generally, non-union jobs tend to pay less than union workplaces (Schwenk 1996; Foster 2000).

In terms of absolute numbers, on-call workers play a more significant role in the construction industry than casual agency workers. According to the Bureau of Labour Statistics, about 210,000 people worked on-call in the construction industry in 2001, which might also include workers who are employed through a union hiring hall. An unidentified number of people work as day labourer in metropolitan areas, being hired off street corners and engaging in highly informal employment. Many of the day labourers are (undocumented) immigrants from Latin America. They are low skilled and many do not speak English well enough to familiarize themselves with basic safety procedures on the job-site. Day labour is increasingly being institutionalized as community-based organizations respond to the dire situation of many of these workers and for-profit intermediaries see a market niche (Ruckelshaus and Goldstein 2002). There is a fine line between the for-profit day labour intermediaries and the casual work agencies operating in the construction industry, although they are sometimes counted as both working “on-call” and as a contract firm employee (Polivka 1996).

In some community-based day labour programmes (such as the San Francisco programme) workers can set their own wages, earning anywhere between \$11 and \$18 an hour, and have access to health care. Casual work agencies that specialize in low-skill labour on a day-to-day basis do not consider themselves as being involved in day labour, but see their work as offering “staffing solutions”. A manager of a staffing agency in San Jose explained how workers on a thirty-day project are considered to be working thirty separate days and getting paid after each day they have worked. Workers typically are paid minimum wage or slightly more, making \$7 to \$9 per hour. Because of their short employment spells, they are not offered additional benefits by the casual work agency (Van Velzen, 2005).

2.6.3 Training casual workers in the construction industry in the United States

In the mid-1990s, the Dunlop Commission (concerned with the future of worker-management relations) addressed the flexibility-training paradox in the United States by reconciling the need for enhancing workplace training and improving the economic position of workers in flexible employment relationships. Unions responded by naming one of their greatest challenges the search for ways to advance the interests of casual workers at the periphery of the labour market. In the construction industry unions have been rather wary of the rise of casual work agencies. Unions view casual work agencies as the non-union equivalent of the hiring hall.

There is a strong belief among unions that casual work agencies have helped non-union contractors' under-bid signatory contractors, especially for heavy manual labour, which requires few craft-related skills. Sixty-five percent of local union leaders identified casual work agencies as a threat, according to a survey by the Building and Construction Trades Department (BCTD).

The principal strategy of construction unions' vis-à-vis casual work agencies has been to rein in agency work in the industry by launching a campaign, which aimed at providing casual agency workers in the construction industry with "a permanent voice" through organizing these workers. Local unions have had mixed successes in organizing casual agency workers. Many of these workers are employed on a day-to-day basis: today they work in the construction industry; tomorrow they might work on a farm or as a janitor. Casual work agencies fiercely try to inhibit organizing attempts by unions (Van Velzen, 2005).

In 2001, the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO) started an investigation into the safety problems at Labour Ready and other casual work agencies. In other cases the BCTD filed suit against agencies that charged workers for cashing their pay cheques at agencies' offices. The above indicates that, some agencies, among them publicly traded companies, are inclined to curtail workers benefits (Van Velzen, 2005). Preliminary results from interviews with managers of casual agencies in the construction industry provide mixed perspectives in terms of training entitlements for casual workers.

Casual agencies that specialize in low-skill, low pay labour are reluctant to invest in the skills of their workers, besides providing basic safety instruction. If a client-firm wishes to continue its business with the agency, either the same worker will be sent out or; if the job requires additional skills, the contractor can hire a new worker from the agency. For these agencies, there is no apparent need to train workers. They either do not see it as their niche, or they consider training the responsibility of external training institutions, such as trade schools and community colleges (Van Velzen, 2005).

These agencies view experience gained through learning-by-doing as a valuable skill, although other contractors may have a hard time recognizing such experience. One nationally operating casual work agency specialized in skilled craftsmen introduced pilot-projects at two agencies in the course of 2000, offering free craft training programmes to its workers. In order to qualify for participation, a worker was required to have worked a minimum of 1,200 hours with the agency. Some casual work agencies have developed ties with community colleges, reimbursing workers for courses and exams.

Other agencies work together with local employment development departments, referring workers who need additional training to government agencies. Casual work agencies that invest in worker skills specialize in staffing for high-skill and high-pay jobs.

Many day labourers who are organized in day labour programmes need basic services: housing, clothing, and food. A decent pay and health care come second. In many cases, undocumented immigrant day labourers need protection against harassment by the police and neighbours. If these safeguards are built in, instruction on occupational safety and hazard and language courses can be offered. Some programmes go as far as assisting workers in entering classes at community colleges in order to acquire work-related skills. While casual agency workers are almost exclusively dispatched to non-union contractors, open-shop contractors' associations have not designed a distinct training policy for these workers.

Individual contractors are left to decide whether a casual agency worker needs training and whether or not the contractor wants to share in the training expenses. Contractors are reluctant to invest in the skills of agency workers. Although, as one open-shop training coordinator stated, casual work agencies could recoup train costs by demanding higher mark-ups for higher skilled workers, agencies often cite cost-efficiency as a reason not to train. Approximately 667,000 construction companies in the United States employ 6.7 million workers (roughly 5.5 percent of total employment), with another 1.6 million people being self-employed in the trades (Van Velzen, 2005). Eighty percent of all establishments employ fewer than ten people.

The large majority of construction employment can be found in the special trades. Apprenticeship programmes are the main avenues to enter the construction industry. Under the 1937 National Apprenticeship (Fitzgerald) Act, apprenticeship programmes have to meet the basic standards laid down by state apprenticeship councils or the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT). Once an apprenticeship has been completed, a worker can obtain further training to acquire journeyman skills that help workers to stay employable in the trades.

Traditionally, apprenticeship and training programmes are negotiated between the various craft unions and contractors. Although union density is less than 20 percent in the construction industry, nearly 75 percent of all new apprentices during the period 1989-1995 entered union apprenticeship programmes (Centre to Protect Workers' Rights 1998). Workers without certified skills who join a union can apply for an apprenticeship. A worker's trainability is a key factor for a union in deciding whether or not to grant access to the apprenticeship programme.

The programmes are administered by local joint apprenticeship and training committees, made up of local union representatives and employers. Funding is provided through a jointly administered trust fund. Collectively organized apprenticeships in the U.S. construction industry remedy the lack of incentives for an individual contractor to invest in a casual worker who may work for another employer after completing the job (Strauss 1965; Mills 1972).

Although apprenticeship programmes are typically associated with union presence, such programmes also exist in the non-union or open-shop segment of the construction industry. The Associated Building Contractors (ABC), a principal open-shop contractors' association, probably runs the most widely developed open-shop training system. It offers unilaterally administered apprenticeship and craft training to its members, with 15,000 apprentices and craft workers attending training programmes in two dozen construction crafts each year (Van Velzen, 2005). As with the union programmes, open-shop apprenticeship programmes have to meet standards set by the federal and state apprenticeship councils. The craft training programmes organized by the ABC are less formal than its apprenticeships, and they are aimed at both the entry-level and more experienced worker.

The principal body in the ABC training system is the National Centre for Construction Education and Research (NCCER), an educational foundation established to develop standardized construction curricula. Training programmes are funded by an NCCER national training service agreement, through which a contractor commits itself to contributing a share of the wage sum (\$0.15 per craft labour hour in 2001) (Van Velzen, 2005). The NCCER is responsible for the content of the training programmes. Another association that unilaterally organizes training programmes is the National Association of Home Builders (NAHB). The association's Home Builders Institute (HNI) offers pre-apprenticeship training programmes for at-risk and adjudicated youth, for adult offenders and for homeless people. It also organizes continuing education programs, providing building and remodelling contractors certified courses in management, finance, sales and marketing.

2.6.4 Casual employment in Britain

The terms "casual labour" was coined by a government enquiry into dock labour practices in Britain in 1920, where casual labour was becoming the norm for unskilled workers. It was in the fight against those conditions that the first great unions of unskilled workers were built, including the British dock workers in the early 20th century (Broad, 1995).

The re-launch of an apparently rudderless administration turned out to be a return to the neoliberal certainties of Blairism, just at the point when the failure of global financial market was cutting the ground from beneath them. So, perhaps, it hardly comes as a shock to discover that Brown's government was trying to derail an attempt by Labour MPs to win equal rights for the 1.4 million agency and casual workers, whose growing exploitation goes to the heart of the casualization and security of Britain's labour force (Milne, 2008).

Across the country, workers are increasingly being signed up by employment agencies to take the place of directly employed staff, on worse pay and conditions. From basic wages and overtime to sickness benefits, holidays, maternity rights and pensions. In parts of London and the east coast, the midlands and north-west, trade unions report an epidemic of under-cutting agency employment (Hall, 2002). In catering, private security and construction; agency working is becoming the norm: in factories such as BMW's Hams engine plant in Birmingham, agency workers make up the majority. In food processing, call centres, hotels and social care, including in the public sector, agency labour is being used to create a two-tier work force (Cheadle, 2006).

2.6.5 The growth of casual employment in Spain

Spain is not an exception to this general trend, although, as it has occurred in other countries, not all forms of atypical employment have experienced a similar evolution, which basically depends on specific national circumstances (institutional, legal or economic factors, among others). According to the Encuesta de Poblacion Activa (the Spanish Labour Force Survey) (EPA), since 1987 to 2001 (cited in Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004) workers under casual contracts experienced a 148 percent increase in contrast to an approximate 34 percent increase in total employment. Similarly, salaried or waged casual work, both under casual and open-ended contracts, grew about 195 percent during the same period.

However, self-employed and independent workers experienced an 11 percent decrease between those years. Workers hired under casual contracts represent the biggest share of casual work in Spain, comprising about 25 percent of total employment and 32 percent of the salaried workforce in 2001 (Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004). Part-time work, on the contrary, is not as widely used in Spain as casual employment. This type of employment represents about 8 percent of the total workforce, the second lowest figure in the EU, just behind Greece (4.1 percent) and far below the EU average, 18 percent in 2001.

This situation contrasts with that in other EU countries, especially the Netherlands, the UK and Sweden, where part-time work represents a high proportion of total employment (29.8, 24.8 and 22.3 percent respectively). These data show that there does not exist a unique model of casual work across Europe.

The preponderance of casual employment over other forms of flexible work, makes Spain a unique and interesting case for the analysis of the consequences of this type of employment in the labour market, as shown by the growing number of studies focused on this country in recent years (Ruiz and Claes, 1996; Alba, 1998; Amuedo, 2000; Sánchez and Toharia, 2000; Ferreiro and Serrano, 2001; Dolado, García and Jimeno, 2002). Since 1987, the first year in which official data on casual employment was available in Spain, the proportion of casual workers in the total salaried workforce increased from 15.3 percent to a peak of 35.16 percent in the third quarter of 1995. Since that date, this proportion has slightly diminished, stabilizing itself around 32 percent. The rapid increase in casual employment, which occurred mainly in the second half of the eighties and its high incidence in the Spanish labour market have immediately raised the question of why this situation has occurred. Part of the explanation rests on the same economic reasons usually offered to justify the increase in casual work in other countries.

However, other local circumstances can also be mentioned as being at the basis of the high proportion of casual employment and its predominance over other forms of nonstandard work. The economic reasons behind the global increase in casual work and specifically behind the increase in casual employment in Spain are not simple. The most frequent reason cited is the need for a more flexible workforce by employers derived from the changes that occurred in the business environment since the beginning of the eighties. The magnitude and continuity of these changes have meant that, in order to survive, businesses have to become more flexible to adapt to their environment. Adaptability has then turned into one of the most important competitive advantages firms can have in order to operate in the markets (Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004). Different circumstances are usually mentioned by analysts in order to explain the higher demand for flexibility by firms across countries.

Among these, the globalization of the economy, the rapid technological change, and the expansion of the service sector, are the most commonly cited, all of which have particularly affected the Spanish economy as a whole. The key event in the globalization of the Spanish economy was the entry of Spain into the European Community in 1986.

This fact, which occurred soon after the end of a long and deep economic crisis, brought about a strong increase in competition, as markets, which have been highly protected until then, were progressively deregulated while opening up to other European and international competitors. At the same time, the rapid rate of technological change, which also started in the eighties with the computer revolution, followed in the nineties by the IT revolution, made possible the transformation of many work processes in all economic sectors, making the business environment more dynamic and highly competitive. These two developments, taken together, have offered firms many opportunities as well as challenges, as they translated into more intense competition, the fragmentation of markets into smaller niches, shorter product life cycles, rapid product obsolescence and higher fluctuations in output demand (Matusik and Hill, 1998; Kochan, 1994).

The shift to the service sector that has occurred in all advanced economies during the last twenty years has also had direct consequences in the higher demand for labour flexibility by firms at the macro level. Given that services cannot be stored as other goods, they have to be produced on request, making firms operating in this sector more sensitive to fluctuations in consumer demand. Spain poses a good example of this shift given that, according to the EPA, of the 5.3 million newly created jobs between 1985 and 2001, approximately 90 percent were in the service sector (Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004). In the EU, according to data from Eurostat, between 1992 and 2001 all job creation could be exclusively explained by the growth of the service sector. During this period, this sector of activity created more than 15 million jobs, while total employment increased in only about 11 million, due to job destruction in other sectors.

Therefore, both the growth of the service sector and the dualistic employment structures found in an increasing number of firms are at the basis of the growth of casual employment in most developed countries, as it has been the case in Spain. However, as mentioned above, these reasons do not directly explain the overwhelming use of casual labour over other forms of nonstandard work in Spain. At the beginning of the 1980s, Spain had one of the most rigid labour legislations in Europe, basically characterized by: (a) the existence of stringent limits on the use of overtime, (b) excessively high lay-off payments on both fair and unfair dismissals, (c) the prohibition on the use of casual help agencies, (d) restrictions on the hiring of casual workers and (e) finally, limits to the functional and geographical mobility of workers.

In addition, the high pressures exercised by unions, especially during the first half of the eighties, created wage rigidity through the reduction of the variable components of remuneration. Certainly, these conditions were not the most adequate for Spanish firms to face the deep changes in the business environment that occurred in those years, nor to reduce the high unemployment figures. To this respect, since the early seventies to the mid-eighties unemployment grew steadily in Spain from approximately 4 percent to more than 20 percent of the active population.

These figures, together with the need to improve the international competitiveness of the productive sector, raised the concern of policy makers and employers alike about the need to reform the employment legislation in order to achieve a higher degree of flexibility in the labour market. This was finally done in 1984 with the reform of the Workers' Statute (Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004). However, in order to obtain the consent of unions, the reform did not touch the levels of employment protection enjoyed by employees with open-ended contracts, but it greatly liberalized the terms under which workers could be hired temporarily.

Other forms of labour flexibility remained also untouched. Basically, this reform allowed employers to use a wider array of casual workers, some of which could be used to perform regular or permanent activities, entailing much lower dismissal costs (Dolado, Garcia-Serrano and Jimeno, 2002; Ferreiro and Serrano, 2001). Therefore, Spain represents a good example of partial deregulation of the labour market in which stringent employment protection legislation for permanent workers has coexisted for many years with a flexible legislation for casual labour.

This is what has been defined as a two-tier selective labour market policy: deregulation for some workers but not for others. The year 1985 marked the beginning of an economic upturn in Spain, which occurred immediately after the reform of the labour legislation. For the first time since 1974 new jobs were created. As employers could freely choose between casual or open-ended contracts, they massively selected the first option for the newly-hired employees. Little incentive existed to hire a new employee as permanent and, as Alba (1998) points out; recruiting policies were adapted to the new provision for fixed-term contracts. In a few years, casual employment affected more than one third of the total salaried workforce, remaining nearly 32 percent at present. Thus, the immediate consequence of the 1984 labour reform, together with an increasing demand for flexibility by firms and the shift of employment to the service sector, was the generation of dualistic labour market, with a high proportion of the working population employed under casual employment.

2.6.6 Consequences of the high proportion of casual employment in Spain

After casual employment, as a percentage of the total salaried workforce, reached in Spain a maximum in 1995, there were continuous calls for the adoption of immediate measures to increase employment security (Gonzalez-Rendon, 2004). As a response to these demands, two legal reforms were passed in order to achieve this objective: one in 1997, which was agreed upon by the social partners and the government; and the other in 2001, undertaken unilaterally by the government. These reforms were basically characterized by the introduction of restrictions to the use of fixed-term contracts and by the creation of a new permanent labour contract with lower dismissal costs.

However, despite these new legal provisions, the percentage of casual employment decreased only marginally, still remaining at a high level, nearly 32 percent in 2002. The high proportion of casual workers in Spain has raised great concern among policy makers, the social agents and labour market researchers, about the social and economic consequences of this type of employment. The debate generated in Spain is similar to that which occurred in other countries derived from the increase in casual forms of employment. Consistent with the Segmented Labour Market (SLM) literature, casual workers, who can be situated in the secondary segment of the labour market (De Grip, Hoevenberg and Willens, 1997), are thought to receive lower salaries, have worse career prospects and suffer worse working conditions than permanent employees.

Different empirical analyses based on Spanish data support these ideas, as it is the case of the study by Sanchez and Toharia (2000), who found how the introduction of casual employment in Spain had an impact on wage formation reducing the real wage cost. Dolado (2002) also mentions the unexpected negative consequences derived from the increase in casual employment in Spain such as lower investment in human capital and higher wage pressure. This negative view of casual employment is the reason why it is often considered as a form of precarious employment. However, as it is stated in the literature, in certain cases, casual jobs, as other forms of nonstandard work, might entail opportunities for those workers who do not want to be linked permanently to a single organization. In Spain, this cannot be considered a valid argument as the majority of casual employment is involuntary, suggesting that there is a great mismatch between employer and employee preferences for casual contracts.

One of the problems around the debate on labour flexibility is that, traditionally, discussion around this subject has tended to rely more on perceptions rather than systematic analysis (Booth, 2002). To solve this problem, empirical research has recently been conducted to test for the assumption that casual employees are worse off than “regular” or “standard” workers. With respect to casual employment, there is sufficient empirical evidence from different countries that support the idea that workers under fixed-term contracts, receive, *ceteris paribus*, lower salaries than permanent employees (Bentolila, 1994; Booth, 2002), are less motivated and satisfied (Purcell, 1999) and receive less training (Booth, 2002).

Some researchers have also tried to analyze the link between casual employment and the risk of a work accident, although empirical findings are in this case more mixed (Rousseau and Libuser, 1997; Amuedo-Dorantes, 2002). The polarization of the Spanish labour market between permanent and casual employees, together with the adverse consequences mentioned above, might produce income inequality as well as other social negative impacts derived from the lack of job security, all of which is a matter of much political concern. However, these negative effects are lessened if casual employment is not a dead end where workers are trapped indefinitely, but rather a transitory situation that would sooner or later lead to a permanent position.

2.6.7 Casual employment in the construction industry in the Netherlands

In many industrialized countries, labour markets have grown to be increasingly flexible. This flexibility has become manifest in, among other things, a substantial use of casual workers, (OECD 1993; OECD 1996). Companies have turned to this external numerical flexibility to respond to fluctuating demand for products and services. Almost at the same time, employers, unions and governments championed employability through lifelong, job-related learning.

At first sight, employment in the construction industry appears to be casual by nature: a worker is employed for the duration of a construction project, and laid off as soon as the work is completed. The industry is characterized by short-term seasonal cycles as well as by long-term conjuncture-related fluctuations. Another characteristic of the industry is that, whether a project is carried out in residential, commercial or heavy construction, almost every building project involves multiple crafts (Van Velzen, 2005). The nature of the industry thus requires an organization of the work process that is flexible to meet the variability in the demand and is able to cope with the variety in the demand for construction work.

The first suggests the existence of a numerically flexible organization involving a “floating labour force, that is not tied to the fortune of any specific employer” (Coleman and Newcomb 1952).

The second calls for functional flexibility, requiring a range of different construction specializations. Building firms could hire a large number of tradesmen with different specialized skills during peak times and fire them when demand for construction work drops. This, however, would not be efficient. Instead, construction firms try to reduce transaction costs involved in hiring and firing by subcontracting the majority of the work (Eccles, 1981). By subcontracting to specialized firms, construction companies secure numerical and functional flexibility. Subcontractors provide a flexible pool of workers to the main contractor, who is commonly known as the “general contractor”. Depending on the characteristics of the construction project, a general contractor uses subcontractors that specialize in the trades and skills required for the project.

Given transaction costs, a general contractor is likely to continue, for future projects, the relationship with the group of subcontractors he has worked with. Following the same logic, subcontractors will limit recruiting, screening, hiring and training costs by offering employment security to (selected) workers. The above implies that the common notion of construction employment being casual and thus insecure by nature might not be justified. This is not to say that flexible, short-term employment is absent in the industry.

With the introduction of prefabricated building material and concrete pouring during the second half of the twentieth century came a heightened specialization in the division of labour. Consequently, large construction projects have been broken down into smaller projects requiring relatively narrow skill-sets, prompting a growth in the use of casual workers. This has created room for labour market intermediaries, such as casual work agencies, to provide labour for very short spells, aimed at the completion of narrowly defined tasks. Most worksite personnel, especially bricklayers and carpenters are permanently employed with a construction firm.

In 1999, approximately one in ten employees had been working for more than twenty years with the same contractor (slightly higher than the economy wide average); while 17.8 percent of the workers are with their contractor for shorter than twelve months, well below the national average of 22.5 percent (Kok, 2001). The use of casual staffing arrangements has doubled in the 1995-2000 period, with 6 percent of total employment in the industry now being flexible. This includes casual agency workers, and other employees without a permanent contract at a construction firm.

Casual agency work in the construction industry is estimated at somewhere between 1 and 2 percent of the 150,000 construction-site employees in residential, commercial, and heavy construction. The cause for the relatively modest share of casual agency employment lies in the fact that staffing agencies were barred from the Dutch construction industry from 1970 till 1997. The ban had its origins in the widespread abuse by intermediaries, contractors and subcontractors of market-mediated staffing arrangements in order to evade payment of social insurance contributions during the 1960s. During the ban, trade unions and employers' associations continued to jointly explore the possibilities to reinstate casual agency work. They agreed that a complete ban on placement agencies in the building trades would distort the efficient operation of the labour market (Van Velzen, 2005).

It was, however, not until the publication of the government's Memorandum on Flexibility and Security in 1995 that the return of casual agency work in the construction industry became a viable option. The memorandum was the government's response to the growing use of casual staffing arrangements in many Dutch industries. It set out the need and desirability to expand employment flexibility while at the same time safeguarding an appropriate level of workers security. Together with the 1996 recommendation by the bipartite Labour Foundation, the memorandum gave a pattern for the introduction of legislation that reformed requirements for the operations of employment agencies and that provided workers in casual staffing arrangements with more employment security, while employers would face fewer obstacles in the dismissal of permanently employed workers.

After a one-year transition period, during which casual agency work in the construction industry was reintroduced on an experimental basis, the ban was lifted in 1998. In the experimental year 1997, 65 percent of all casual agency workers was new to the trades, 35 percent of the casuals was journeyman, as reported by the Dutch Economic Institute for the Building industry (EIB, 2001). Ten percent of all casual agency workers chose to work voluntarily as a casual worker. The new entrants were generally younger and lower educated. This casual agency worker category worked on short projects: 50 percent of the newcomers were employed for less than one month. Twenty percent of the journeyman casual agency workers were employed on similar short assignments. In the year 2000, 17 percent of all contractors used casual agency workers, compared to 6 percent in 1997. Fifteen percent of the contractors in the residential and commercial sector used casual workers, whereas 28 percent of the contractors in heavy construction hired workers from casual work agencies or other intermediaries.

Staffing services in the construction industry are characterized by small agencies that cater for the needs of regional labour markets for construction personnel, although it is common for workers to be employed throughout the country. Several agencies use foreign workers from other EU-member states, benefiting from the free transfer of labour within the European Union. The domestic market has been dominated by one agency, a subsidiary of a major general Dutch staffing organization. By using all branches of its parent company, the agency has nationwide coverage. As with many issues in the construction industry, the industry's collective agreement regulates the use of casual agency workers. A casual agency worker is entirely covered by the industry's collective agreement if he or she is enrolled in designated training programme or if the worker is experienced. The latter implies that a worker has completed an apprenticeship programme or has worked at least twelve months in the construction industry during the two years preceding the current assignment in the industry. In all other cases, a casual agency worker is only covered by those sections of the construction industry's collective agreement that deal with wages and worker compensation. In sum: casual agency workers in the construction industry receive equal pay for equal work.

2.6.9 Training casual workers in the construction industry in the Netherlands

In the construction industry, three actors may decide to get involved in the provision of training arrangements for casual workers: unions, as the traditional training providers in the industry either in a partnership with contractors or unilaterally); contractors; and labour market intermediaries (such as casual work agencies).

In the Netherlands, unions and employers in the construction industry have jointly regulated the use of casual agency workers through the industry's collective agreement. A contractor that is covered by the construction industry's collective agreement must, when using a casual agency worker, contribute to the industry's training fund for this worker. A contractor can be exempted from this obligation if the casual agency is willing to contribute to the training fund instead. In addition to general requirements for apprenticeship firms set by the national training and education body, casual work agencies have to comply with the 1998 WAADI Act in order to be accredited.

Furthermore, a casual work agency has to be a member of either one of the two principal staffing agency associations (the General Association of Staffing Agencies or ABU, and the Dutch Association of Intermediary and Staffing Services, NBBU). A casual agency needs to employ training coordinators for each distinct type of apprenticeship it provides.

These coordinators are responsible for the guidance and supervision of the apprentice on the worksite. The casual agency and the apprentice sign a practice-employment contract. Since 1999, only a handful of casual work agencies have met or have been willing to meet the requirements set by the training body for becoming an apprenticeship firm.

These agencies offer two-year training programmes, certified by the training body. Both the agency and the worker can initiate an assessment of the worker's training need. Whenever a need for training has been determined and discussed by the worker and the agency, agreements are formalized through a training contract. Training may take place during work hours, either on or off the job, or after work. If training is offered after work hours, the casual agency worker is expected to invest his or her own spare time in attending the training. Training costs are discussed and laid down in a separate contract, which may include agreements about payback clauses or specifications about a worker's financial contribution.

Most casual agency workers in the Dutch construction industry are people re-entering the labour market and are often uncertain about the type of work they want to do. On average, they possess skills at the lower or intermediate level. Agencies provide training aimed at acquiring narrow but deep skills, for trades, such as carpentry, masonry and tile-setting. The practical component of the apprenticeship programme is realized through dispatching workers to client-firm job-sites. Casual work agencies can place their apprentice casual workers only at construction firms that have been accredited as an apprenticeship firm by the construction industry's national training body. Agencies are responsible for supervising and monitoring an apprentice's progress.

In addition to formal training provision, one agency has introduced informal on-the-job learning schemes by jointly dispatching inexperienced newcomers and journeymen. Here, the younger worker is supposed to learn by working side-by-side with the experienced worker. Younger workers are generally hard to get interested to pursue a career in the construction industry. Incentives to attract young workers vary from providing motor scooters to reimbursing apprentices for tuition and offering graduation bonuses. During the experimental year, half of the requests for casual agency workers could not be honoured by agencies essentially due to lack of skilled personnel. The small number of agencies that have started to offer certified training programmes to their workers use this as a unique selling point vis-à-vis their competitors. Given the gloomy past of casual work in the trades, bonafide casual work agencies feel that they have to show their credibility by being committed to investments in the skills of tradesmen.

Casual work agencies that are exempted from the construction industry's collective agreement are bound by the collective agreement for casual agency workers, which features its own mandatory employer contributions for training. Under the 1999-2004 collective agreement, an obligation for casual work agencies was created to discuss a worker's training needs after having worked 26 weeks for the agency. Eighteen to 24 months after the beginning of the casual employment relationship, an agency has to permanently hire a casual worker. Compliance with the casual agency workers' collective agreement, particularly with respect to the provision of training, has been of recent concern to both the unions and the employers' association in the casual staffing industry.

The employers' association acknowledged that training is scattered, mostly targeted at higher skilled workers, and seldom an integral part of an agency's long-term strategy. With the introduction of a new collective agreement in March 2004, each casual agency worker will be entitled to a personal training budget after 78 weeks of agency work. Starting from 26 weeks of agency work, one percent of a casual agency worker's monthly salary is set aside for this budget.

Employment and the demand for labour in the Dutch construction industry have steadily risen since the late 1980s. The number of people employed in the building and construction industry hovers between 450,000 and 500,000, or approximately 6 percent of total employment in the Netherlands. These workers are employed at 33,000 construction firms. Small establishments (with fewer than 10 workers) comprise 75 percent of all firms in the industry. A small majority of all employees (including administrative personnel) is employed in the general construction segment, which consists of residential, commercial and heavy construction (Van Velzen, 2015).

Training and education of the construction workers is embedded in the industry's various collective agreements, concluded for workers in the general construction and for the special trades (such as painters and plasterers). The Dutch government often extends collective agreements to all employers and employees in an industry. Most provisions of the collective agreements in the construction industry apply to all workers and construction firms, covering both union and non-union construction workers. The collective agreement stipulates an employer's obligation to enable employees to attend vocational education and apprenticeship programmes and craft training. Educational institutions and (regional alliances of) employers jointly organize apprenticeship programmes, all of which are governed by the 1996 Adult and Vocational Education Act.

An apprentice signs three contracts: an employment contract with a construction company (which then becomes the ‘apprenticeship firm’), a contract with a regional training center for classroom-based learning, and a contract with the employer and concerning the practical component of the apprenticeship programme, such as guidance, supervision, and skill standards. The set of contracts which is commonly referred to as the “practice-employment contract” requires approval from the industry’s tripartite training body. Apprentices work four days with a contractor and attend class one day a week. While the apprentice attends class, he or she receives full (apprentice) pay for a maximum of eight hours per week. Employers are partly compensated for the productivity loss they incur while employing an apprentice. They receive a subsidy from the industry’s Education and Development Fund. All employers contribute to this fund by donating approximately 2.5 percent of their wage sum.

Unlike apprenticeship programmes, craft training involves short-term courses which are related to an employee’s current or future job with a contractor. Financial support for the training fund is drawn from mandatory annual employer contributions, about 1 percent of the wage sum. The fund also provides the money for the training programmes. Since 2000, employers receive an average amount of approximately €85 per training day per worker from the fund. This amount has replaced the full compensation, and has led to plummeting numbers of training days: from an all-time high 135,000 training days in 1998 to 80,000 in 2000. Especially small and medium -sized firms have been hurt by the reduced compensation and are more reluctant to offer their workers access to training.

In 2001, the shortage of skilled workers was considered the major bottleneck for general contractors’ in conducting their business (Beereboom 2001). The 2001 collective agreement showed an expansion of employability policies in the trades. Several projects that will broaden and deepen the skills of workers in order to enhance their mobility within the construction industry as well as enable them to switch industries have been announced. Furthermore, funding is made available to finance the certification of job experience.

2.6.9 Casual employment in Finland

Ever since the 1980s, the proportion of casual employment has steadily increased in Finland. In 1985, the proportion was only 10 %; by 1998, almost every fifth employee (18 %) was working on a temporary basis (Saloniemi, 2004a). This trend in casual employment is in accordance with the general development in European Union countries.

However, within the European Union context, the incidence of casual employment in Finland is high – only Spain has utilized casual employment more massively (33% in 1998) (Booth et al., 2002). The high rate of casual employment allies Finland, somewhat uncommonly, more closely with Southern European countries, than with its Scandinavian neighbours. Under no circumstances does the proportion of casual employment in a country give adequate information about the state of working life in that country.

In itself, the rate of casual employment is only the tip of the iceberg: behind the numbers there are huge structural, economic and even legal differences which make comparisons difficult. Even the basic nature of casual employment varies essentially between countries. For example, until recently, agency contracts have been marginal in Finland, whereas, in Spain, 16 % of all temporary contracts are managed by agencies (Garzia-Perez and Munoz-Bullon, 2001).

With good reason, the effects of Employment Protection Legislation (EPL) have also merited attention when differences in casual employment rates have been a focus: in the UK, for example, the rate has remained relatively low (7% in 1998). This does not, however, indicate stability and security in labour markets but a low level of EPL in general. Correspondingly, EPL has frequently been cited as a reason for the high rate of casual employment in Spain (Gonzales-Rendon, 2004). In contrast, rigid EPL cannot explain the high casual employment rate in Finland, where comparisons between OECD countries show Finland to be between the most strictly and least strictly regulated countries (Kosonen and Vanska, 2004).

2.6.10 Why the rise in casual employment in Finland?

The general need for flexibility is hardly a satisfactory explanation for the causes of the growth of casual employment. Previous analyses have provided and tested diverse explanations for this growth, ranging from changes in legislation to changes in the supply and in demand of employees. In broad terms, the former explanation refers to demographical changes in the labour force, and the latter to changes in employers' hiring strategies and in the relative bargaining power of employees.

Reflecting on the situation in the USA, Golden and Appelbaum (1992) stress the demand factor as the main cause behind the rise of casual employment. According to them, it is simply “intensified competition in product markets, volatility in product demand, and the decline in the relative bargaining power of labour that have led firms to take advantage of short-run labour cost savings”.

The recession in Finland in the early 1990s profoundly reshaped both labour markets and the whole of Finnish society (Aho and Lehtonen 2002). The employment crisis in Finland was even deeper than that in neighbouring Sweden.

In this respect, it is not surprising that explanations for the rise in casual employment basically parallel those outlined above. Kauhanen (2002), in her analysis, also stresses the importance of the fallout from the recession: the economic crisis established a new level of casual employment, while the boom period of the late 1990s did not profoundly change hiring practices. In other words, the wish among Finnish employers to keep their personnel highly flexible by hiring staff only for short periods has also become an essential reason for the extensive use of casual employment (Kosonen and Vanska 2004). Studies have identified some common and widespread features characterizing casual employment. Young age, female gender, low occupational status, belonging to ethnic minorities, a low level of education and a fragmentary work history tend to increase the probability of casual employment (Hipple, 1998; Bielski and Ebenhard 1999; Kalleberg, 2000, Zeytinoglu and Muteshi, 2000a; Campbell and Burgess 2001).

The features above reflect the general features of labour market segmentation (Brosnan 1996; Hudson 2001). In many ways, the basic characteristics of temporary employees in Finland are consistent with the mainstream in industrialized Western economies. In the Finnish context, however, there are some aspects that merit special attention: employees with a level of education above that of a basic level have a higher probability of casual employment. This is almost contrary to the majority of studies which stress the connection between low education and casual employment. Another feature worth noting is ethnicity. In the Finnish labour markets, immigrant workers have been, until recently, an almost non-existent phenomenon; as a consequence, ethnic background has not been a relevant issue in analyses of casual employment.

2.6.11 Casual employment in India

Unemployment weakens the bargaining position of the workers and enables employers to hire workers on terms and conditions of work they dictate. Some of the emerging flexible labours categories are casual and temporary workers, consultants, agency workers, home workers, daily workers and part-time workers. It was found that, as a whole, over the seven years of liberalization (between 1991 and 1998) dualism in the labour market increased. The share of permanent manual workers declined from close to 68 percent in 1991 to 64 percent in 1998 (Jenkins, 2004).

Not only did the share of casual workers increased even faster, but also the big firms resort to the greater use of casual workers. Holding all other factors constant, firms employing 50-99 workers and those employing 500 or more workers increased the share of casual workers significantly between 1991 and 1998 (Shenoy, 2005).

Casual employment did not show an association with size of employment. Women workers were mostly employed in large firms. Firms employing 1000 workers or more accounted for more than 75 percent of all women workers. Firms, which employ a higher share of casual workers, also employ a higher share of women. Firms employing 50-99 workers and 500 over report an increase in the share of female workers (Farr, 2009). From the above, one should not hasten to conclude that there is no rigidity in the Indian labour market. Irrespective of its impact on employment, a degree of excessive or unwarranted protection to labour may lead to inflexibility in labour adjustment required for restructuring of enterprises in the interest of competitive efficiency. In the wake of liberalization, this problem has been brought into the centre stage and there has been frequent demand by the industry and foreign investors to have some kind of “exit” policy the right of hiring and firing (Shenoy, 2005).

2.6.12 Casual employment in Southern Africa

The United Republic of Tanzania allows employers to hire workers on casual and on longer terms (monthly, weekly and fortnightly). Employers favour casual arrangement contracts of employment to avoid employment costs. However, the social security legislation and the Employment Ordinance discourage casualization of employment relations. Under the Employment Ordinance a casual employee is defined as an employee whose wage is paid at the end of every day. And a casual employee who works for an aggregate of 280 days in a given year will be entitled to all the benefits enjoyed by other contractual employees upon termination of his/her contract.

Casual employment in Lesotho manifests itself in a number of forms and practices pertaining to acceptable conditions of employment which run contrary to internationally recognized standards regarding protection of workers’ rights both individually and collectively at the workplace. Several factors may be blamed for the prevalence of casual labour despite labour law’s provisions intended to curb the incidence. Another contributory factor is HIV and AIDS pandemic which causes spouses (especially household bread winners) to die forcing the remaining family members to look for work and take any job at whatever cost in order to survive, thus contributing to the prevalence of triangular

employment relationship. The Lesotho Highlands Water Project (LHWP), a US \$ 4 billion mega project had a significant impact on Lesotho economy. The construction subsector has, through spill-over effect, benefited enormously from LHWP and has become unusually large, accounting for 23% of GDP (2004) as opposed to a share of less than 10% in most countries. In 2004, there were 225 enterprises in the construction subsector employing 8300 workers (Bodibe, 2006).

The Lesotho Highlands Development Authority (LHDA) is one of the promoters of disguised employment in the form of independent contractors. The employees on the payroll of LHDA dealing with rehabilitation of Mohale Dam were assigned the status of independent contractors and a separate regulatory instrument in the form of terms of Reference was developed for their control. On being denied annual remuneration increments enjoyed by other employees, the affected workers (the so-called independent contractors) referred their claim to the Directorate of Dispute Prevention and Resolution (DDPR). These practices reflect an element of unclear terms of employment, which borders on casualization of labour.

The emergence of disguised employment and unclear terms of employment fuels casualization of labour prevalent in the construction subsector which, by its very nature, is prone to workers being laid off at each stage of construction (Bodibe, 2006). Casual work in the Mozambican context encompasses a type of employment, whether related by written or verbal contract, in which the employment relationship is not durable but is for a defined period of work (Bodibe, 2006). Ordinarily, the contract is used to accomplish defined tasks for a defined period.

The main signifier of casual work is the duration of the employment relationship and the type of tasks to be performed. Thus, casual work can be defined as work for a fixed duration and defined tasks to be performed. The concept should be understood in its wider context. For example, employment of worker to load and offload ships has no lasting scope of service, yet legislation allows a work contract to last a maximum period of 2 years, subject to one renewal. Implicitly, an employment contract can last for 4 years, even though work is not performed on a continuous basis.

This means that the duration of a casual contract can be for a short or long duration. Thus, it is possible to find casual employment whose tasks last for days, months, or even long periods of up to two years. In the extreme, a casual contract can last up to an interpolated period 15-20 years. Before economic liberalization through the Economy Reform Programme, casual work was found in pre-determined sectors.

In those days, the extent of casual employment was very low because fixed permanent employment was protected by law. A substantial number of workers lost their jobs owing to economic liberalization and privatization of state assets. Economic stagnation and obsolete equipment fuelled retrenchment as companies sought to curb or contain labour cost. It was also during this time that casualization was intensified in the economy (Bodibe, 2006).

Casualization is concentrated in agriculture, international cargo terminals, manufacturing, construction, transport, domestic service and informal sector. For example, soda and beverage manufacturing peaks during summer. When there is increased demand, accordingly employment also increases during these peak periods. The informal sector also has a large degree of casual employment. People making a living in the informal sector are those who have lost employment (Cheadle, 2006).

They are “employed” as employees of counter huts, bars, driver, collectors and other tasks. Private sector employment is low as a proportion of total employment-around. The downside of casual employment is the both the worker and the employer are reluctant to invest in skill formation, which negatively affects productivity of the workforce. The construction industry has experienced a boom since 2001, realizing substantial increases in both output and employment (Bodibe, 2006).

Total output increased by 49% between 2001 and 2005, driven by construction of residential property for the rich. Construction also saw a record improvement in total employment, which increased by 72% (Bodibe, 2006). The quality of employment has rapidly declined. Still, construction’s contribution to total GDP is around 2% and its share of total employment is 5%. Permanent jobs have dropped substantially from 2001 to 2006 and are replaced by casual jobs, making construction the only sector in South Africa to rely heavily on irregular employment. Permanent employment increased by 22% between 2001 and 2006 but the share of full-time employment shrunk from 50% of total employment in construction to 38% in 2006.

In just five years casual employment replaced full-time employment in construction, increasing by 93%. Casual employment now constitutes the bulk of employment in construction at 62% of total employment. This means that the sharp increase in employment in construction is driven by exponential growth of casual employment. Workers in construction are given a raw deal as a result of the poor conditions of employment. A vast majority of workers in the sector do not have written contracts; paid leave and medical aid benefits.

This, in part, is explained by the drop in union density, which decreased from 22% to 14%. As a result, workers are at the mercy of the employers and the precarious and unstable nature of the job intensifies workers' vulnerability and susceptibility to employer power (Bramble and Barchiesi, 2003).

There have been cries from the labour movement in Zambia that workers have been given a raw deal for the services they rendered. Besides low salaries, one important issue which has been a source of contention of late is casualization of labour, especially in the post-privatization era. This phenomenon is relatively new in the labour sector; the practice is enhanced by an increase in the number of foreign investors coming to invest in Zambia and employ Zambian workers. Because of high unemployment levels and as a mere cost saving measure, most of these foreign investors have opted to employ some of their Zambian workers on casual basis, a situation which has displeased government (Lifuna, 2005).

Government has time and again voiced out its concerns over the many foreign-owned factories and companies employing their Zambian workers on casual basis. As the trend takes root in the Zambian labour sector, some labour movement leaders blamed the government and accused it of abetting casualization. It is acknowledged that, ending casualization in itself is not easy and needs the concerted efforts of all stakeholders (Lifuna, 2005).

2.7 Casual Labour and Construction Industry

In Nigeria, the traditional industrial relations system based on the concept of full-time employees working within an enterprise is increasingly being challenged by the use of non-standard work arrangement (NSWA) by employers (Fapohunda, 2012). This changing nature of work has taken a new dimension with the adoption of flexible work arrangements by many construction firms globally. These changing patterns of work, which include casual, contract, temporary or part-time employments; and subcontracting, occasioned by the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), has created concerns for workers and trade unions, especially in Nigeria. Job security, social security, terminal benefits and minimum conditions of work are some of the issues of concern. The new forms of work arrangements have led to the prospects of a "race to the bottom" in labour standards, particularly in the developing nations, like Nigeria (Fapohunda, 2012).

Casual labour as a form of labour practice is the process by which employment shifts from a preponderance of full-time and permanent positions to higher level of casual positions. In Nigeria, the scourge of casual labour is gaining grounds in an unprecedented proportion, intensity and scale.

The increase in the spread and gradual acceptance of this labour practice in the Nigerian construction industry has become an issue of great concern. Employers of labour in the construction industry are filling positions in their organisations that are supposed to be permanent with casual employees (Okafor, 2010). The trend has been largely attributed to the increasing desperation of employers to cut down organisational costs. Casual labour is seen as an appropriate strategy for cost reduction. Casual labour may, on the surface, be seen to be justifiable since reduced cost means higher profit, which is the ultimate goal of every organisation.

However, casual labour ultimately presents lots of challenges for the employees, construction firms as well as the economy. Behind this issue of casual labour in the construction industry in Nigeria is the high level of unemployment and accompanying poverty. These issues have bred a work environment which has given much aid to the prevalence of casual employment, as many desperate job seekers in the labour force are willing to take any job no matter how degrading it is. Casual workers occupy a sensitive position in the construction industry and are effectively and efficiently important to the industrial development of Nigeria (Adegboro, 1992).

The rise of casual employment is a global trend in the larger global picture, where decent work is a path to broad-based industrial development. Permanent employment is rejected and more jobs are created through outsourcing or labour agencies. Casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security (Fapohunda, 2012). Nigerian casual workers in the construction industry are under pressure from corporate practices that seek to undercut their hard-fought victories at the bargaining and replace good jobs (that is jobs with benefits, training and security) with various forms of insecure and lower-paid contract, as well as short-term, and temporary work. This practice is called “casualization” and is an alarming trend, considering that work was once a hope for raising working and living standards in the country.

In most construction industries in the world, good jobs are falling prey to corporate cost-cutting moves at the expense of working families. Too many jobs are being outsourced, contracted out, or re-classified under a barrage of legal definitions designed to keep pay down, benefits low, and union out (Fapohunda, 2012). Nigerian casual workers in the construction industry are trying to hold the line. They are countering casualization with activism and strength, pushing back against the degradation of their work and organising casual workers into unions to fight for their rights (Adegboro, 1992).

Casual labour goes beyond trade union rights because it is enabled by the widespread poverty, joblessness, and devastated natural resources of the country. The growth in the use of casual workers in the construction industry has changed the nature of employment from a labour relationship to a commercial relationship, with the workers taking all the risks. There is now a sharp worldwide rise in casual employment and a parallel rise in the gap between wages and benefits of permanent and casual workers. The number of casual workers in the Nigerian construction industry is hard to pin down; some unions posit that, for every full-time worker, there are more than four casual workers (Fapohunda, 2012). Some workers put the ratio at one to nine.

These estimates suggest a rapid growth in casual labour especially (1999-2009). According to the International Labour Organization, the estimated ratio was about three to one (ILO, 2005). Regular workers are hired directly by the firm; they receive contracts that explain work conditions, wages, hours, and benefits. They have the right to form union and bargain collectively to extend their voice in the workplace. In contrast, casual workers are often employed by third-party contractors under various types of part-time and for short-term work arrangements. They perform many of the same technical and professional duties as the regulars, but with no job security. They face frequent layoffs and long periods of revolving short-term contracts under a never ending probation. Although they work at the facilities of the construction industry and their work is a large part of these firms' productivity, they are legally the direct hire of such firms but their contributions are too often ignored.

Most casual workers are part of the construction firms' structure, though they earn lower wages than the regular workers, receive lower benefits, and can be fired at will. A report has it that most construction firms in Nigeria tend to fire casual workers just before the expiration of their three, six or twelve months' contracts, when they are about to become permanent workers (ILO, 2008). Workers in the construction industry in Nigeria have been subjected to a situation where permanent employees are losing their jobs and are being re-employed as or replaced by casual workers.

Casual work, which is supposed to be a form of temporary employment in many construction firms in Nigeria, is without the statutory benefits associated with permanent employment status. Casual workers are subject to lower pay, are not barred from their right to join a union, but are denied adequate health benefits. The construction industry often hires several part-time workers instead of one or two full-time workers to avoid their obligation to provide benefits and to divide the workforce into permanent and temporary workers.

The construction industry is very important in the socioeconomic development of developing economies. Construction is a term that covers a wide range of activities in civil engineering and building which includes both repairs and maintenance (Oladapo, 1974). Ogunpola (1974) opines that the construction industry could be divided into two main branches, namely building and civil engineering. A close structural relationship exists between the two branches; they are so sufficiently distinguished that the building component can be successfully and usefully studied independently of the civil engineering branch of the industry. Building and civil engineering vary in many other respects. Building prospect covers residential houses, office complexes, such as secretariats, bank buildings and other commercial units like market stalls. Civil engineering work encompasses a wide range of different projects constructed with different materials, for example roads, bridges, sewers, reservoirs, water towers and swimming pools (Hamilton, 2006).

The characteristics of the construction industry are captured by Ashforth and Willis (1994); the physical nature of the project and the product being normally manufactured on the client's premises (that is the construction site); the traditional arrangement separates design from manufacture; it is subject to wider swings of activities than most other industries; its activities are affected by the vagaries of the weather, its processes include a complex mixture of different materials, skills and trades; it includes a small number of relatively large construction firms and a very large number of small firms and the smaller firms tend to concentrate on repairs and maintenance.

This foregoing point to the fact that the construction industry is really a complex one and it is exposed to serious management problems for operatives within the industry (Hamilton 2006). Managers in the construction industry require outsourcing to fill their human resources needs. The workers who are employed as casuals are referred to as the "casual workers". They are employed for a certain purpose and when that purpose is done, they are laid off. If another job comes up and they are still available, they might again be employed for the new job. This system of employment gives managers increased flexibility, especially when accurate forecasting of human resources needs is difficult, and where skilled workers in a particular area is difficult. Also, such employment can sometimes allow managers to make use of human resources at a lower cost. With this strategy, the construction industry does not have to provide long-term benefits to workers. Managers are able to contract for work only when the workers are needed; and they do not have to invest in training (Hamilton, 2006). The complex and unique characteristics of the construction industry heavily influence manpower management practices in the industry (Buckley and Enderwick, 1989).

The most significant of these characteristics include the substantial fluctuations in demand for construction, the labour-intensive nature of construction, employment instability, and an unstable industrial structure which has been referred to as the “construction jungle” (UNIDO, 1969). The fragmented bargaining structures between the permanent and casual workers, the independence of trades, as well as pervasiveness of regulations, complicated the analyses which resulted to diverse of labour management practices. The co-existence between private construction firms with unionized trades and firms with significant non-union sector with large, casual and sub-contracting industry, will lead to a scenario where manpower management practitioners will be faced with unique problems in ensuring employee performance for the attainment of organizational objectives (Buckley and Enderwick, 1989).

The success of this will be dependent on how management handles various personnel management systems. The contribution of casual workers in the construction industry will be determined by examining and analysing various functions of personnel management, which include human resource planning; training and development compensation (wages and salary administration, fringe benefits and services administration), health and safety, and labour relations (Nwachukwu, 1988). Fapohunda (2012) posits that the performance of casual workers will depend on the ability, skill, experience, personality and motivation of casual workers, the work environment, task clarity and stress factors under which casual workers work. The issue of casual workers in the construction industry in Nigeria in relation to industrial development can be viewed from a tripartite perspective, namely, effects on the casual workers, effects on the construction industry and effects on the economy.

Casual workers are the direct victims of casual labour; but beyond that, what they suffer percolates through a flow-on process to other actors. Casual labour exerts downward pressure on their wages and working conditions even though they are viewed as permanent workers. This is partly because pay systems and employment conditions are always operated in a process that engenders comparison among the entire workforce. Casual labour threatens the direct or indirect replacement of permanent workers by casual workers. In both cases, the negative consequences for individual casual workers readily extend to families and the society. Since casual workers do not get benefits, management of the construction industry does not contribute to their pension and gratuity funds.

Hence, in the event of an accident or death, workers and their dependants are left destitute because they cannot claim any damages for injury on duty or workplace hazard. This is compounded by the fact that such casual workers cannot afford private insurance owing to their low wages.

Casual labour has increased the ratio of unpaid to paid labour and the intensity of work. It has increased the number of unprotected workers; most of the workers who are casually employed can no longer be part or members of unions. This has reduced job security, forced casual workers to negotiate their positions on their own and made them vulnerable to exploitation. In addition precariousness leads to economic insecurity for the workers and their families (Fapohunda, 2012).

Hence, in the event that a casual worker is a breadwinner and earns below the poverty line, and if there is no other person working or receiving some income to augment what comes in, then the entire family is placed at risk. Such precariousness affects a worker's experience at work, how he/she makes decisions about work and political issues and how such individual relates to the broader labour market. Many construction industries, especially within the private construction firms, champion the continuous use of casual workers, thus introducing lots of casual workers in their workplaces, sometimes structuring almost the entire workplace to be casual workers, believing that casual labour has numerous benefits such as increased flexibility and lower overhead costs.

Employers of labour in the construction industry want the freedom to pay low wages; change the numbers of workers and how and when work is conducted. Casual labour, however, attract negative consequences within the construction industry; It invariably impact negatively on industrial development. One is job dissatisfaction, which Shelley (2008) identifies as the bane of poor casual workers commitment and lower productivity. It could also lead to increased level of indiscipline on the side of the casual workers. Casual labour could also lead to casual workers' turnovers. The effects of casual labour to the construction industry will also include high cost of recruitment, interviewing and hiring. This implies that the construction industry will spend huge sums from time to time as turnover costs. Also, high turnover can create lack of workers to complete essential daily functions of the industry, resulting in overworked, frustrated casual workers and dissatisfied clients.

Another negative consequence of casual labour is that it creates the challenges of continuity and process inconsistency as turnovers will mean constant distortion of organisational activities, socialization of new casual workers and their training as well. These processes, as short as their duration may seem, could create gaps in the construction industry's activities with high attendant costs. Casual labour can destroy the industrial development efforts of a country gradually.

Its long and predominant usage produces individual who have overworked themselves with little earnings and consequently little or no savings for retirement, resulting in the emergence of an overworked population that still depends on the government for survival This seriously burdens on government's welfare strength and forcing victims to live at the mercy of members of society.

Hall (2000) submits that casual labour may have negative effects on important aspects of industrial development performance such as skill formation and development. Within this framework, the labour force of the nation will continue to suffer and be greatly affected. Anti-labour practices like casual labour can derail advancement in economic process because there would always be agitations, industrial actions and breakdown in production and services. Casual labour may also increase the rate of brain drain and capital flight in the country, since the nation's labour force will begin to run to other countries with perceived better employment conditions and working environment. Finally, it renders the citizens who are supposed to be the major beneficiaries of industrial development impoverished and completely hopeless (Fapohunda, 2012).

2.7.1 Quality of Work Life of Casual Workers in the Construction Industry

The use of flexible work arrangement outside the purview of standard work arrangement has been linked to high rate of accidents on construction sites (Fellow, Langford, Newcombe and Umy, 2002; Quinlan, 2003). This situation, if not properly managed, is capable of shattering the already distorted safety image of construction industry. The rate at which construction workers have continued to exhibit unsafe attitude and behaviour at site, irrespective of numerous efforts the industry is making towards establishing an enduring safety culture, calls for serious rethink. The introduction of flexible work arrangement into the system of employment as a result of industry restructuring, labour market flexibility and deregulation (Miraftab, 2004; Foote, 2004; Shin and McGrath-Champ, 2006; Bodibe, 2006; Well and Jason, 2010) also seems to have aggravated the situation. Fapohunda (2012) notes that the traditional industrial relation system based on the concept of full-time employees working within an enterprise is increasingly being challenged by the use of nonstandard work arrangement (NSWA) by employers.

Similarly, Wandera (2011) observes that the use of temporary workers is growing rapidly and has spread across industries, from manufacturing to services and other occupations, including construction workers, registered nurses, bankers, and information technologists.

O'Higgins (2010) also argues that this system of employment has spread across the European Union, Canada and United States as a measure for labour market recovery owing to the impact of economic and financial crises on youth unemployment. With regard to Nigerian, Anugwom (2007) attributes this growth to the vulnerability of employees in Nigeria, occasioned by high level of unemployment and accompanying poverty. The question, however, is whether the quest to achieve a sustainable construction and development is realizable given the magnitude of the impacts this kind of employment system has on the overall well-being of the construction industry. In the same vein, the system negates the principles of quality of work life.

Laplagne, Glover and Fry (2005) assert that the rise in the proportion of workers and firms involved in a flexible form of employment, such as hire labour, has led to concerns about the implications of this expansion for the job security, job safety and job satisfaction of Australian workers. Quinlan (2003) contends that a substantial body of international research indicated that, in many instances, flexible work arrangements like temporary and home-based work, the use of subcontractors/outsourcing and increased job insecurity resulting from downsizing are associated with inferior outcomes in terms of worker safety, health and well-being. It is also becoming increasingly clear that a number of the work arrangements and organizational changes just described pose a significant problem for occupational health and safety regulators and those administering workers compensation/rehabilitation regimes.

It is worrisome that a number of researches have been done in the area of labour casualization both in the developed and developing countries, including Nigeria, without adequately addressing the situation at hand. Most of these studies focused on the effects of casualization on productivity, organization performance, workers' welfare and economy, motivation, labour utilization, unemployment, and skill shortages (Mitullah and Wachira, 2003; Quinlan, 2003; Forde and MacKenzie; 2005; Bodibe, 2006; Hamilton, 2006; Shin and McGrath-Champ, 2006; Anugwom, 2007; Well and Jason, 2010; Ibronke, Adedokun and Hungbo, 2011; Wandera, 2011); or on other sectors of the Nigerian economy other than the construction industry (Adeleye, 2011; Danesi, 2011; Fapohunda, 2012; Okafor, 2012). Not little much has have been done to ascertain and compare the safety climate of casual and permanent construction workers in Nigeria. The recent review on the use of casual work by Kalejaiye (2014) indicates that the use of casual work in Nigeria is still on the increase due to its perceived benefits.

2.8 Casual work arrangement and its implications on casual workers

Grimshaw, (2008) observes that recent changes to organizational context associated with economic restructuring have resulted in dismantling of the traditional labour market, as organizations “delayer” and “downsize”, resulting in a dislocation of workers from traditional career paths and limited access to training and development. The effects of these changes are unthinkable in the sense that, according to Nicholls (2006), the changes resulted in the wholesale loss of the tradition of permanent positions, with production staff working on short-term contracts from weeks to months, always mindful of how to obtain the next package of work. Okafor (2007) also avers that some work organizations resorted to unethical business practices like casualization of workers thereby hurting workers’ interest and violating some fundamental labour laws. As a driving force to casualization, neo-liberalism tends to deregulate markets, including the labour market, to increase labour flexibility.

Generally that labour market flexibility is a subject of great controversy (Okoye, 2014). Flexible work arrangements have different connotations that reflect the same concept. Their definitions are often a source of confusion and controversy because they are marked by tension between vernacular, regulatory and contractual meanings (Campbell, 2004). The available literatures has preferred using different terms for this same concept (for example, contract, contingent, casual, irregular, non-standard, atypical, non-core, temporary, part-time, flexible, hire labour, subcontracting, fixed term, and short term.) (Wooden and Hawke, 1998; Quinlan, 2003; Australian Industry Group, 2005; Hamilton, 2006).

Cheadle (2006) identifies three kinds of flexibility: employment flexibility (the freedom to determine employment levels quickly and cheaply); wage flexibility (the freedom to alter wage level without restraint); functional flexibility (the freedom to alter work processes, terms and conditions of employment, and so on and cheaply) upon which increase in adoption of casual employment is based. Reilly (1998) avers that flexibility of labour is reflected in an employer’s ability to recruit or dispose of labour as required; alter labour costs in line with market needs; allocate labour efficiently within the firm; and fix working hours to suit business requirements. Fleetwood (2007) argues that, in the context of the employment relationship, flexibility is for the employer and of the employee; and subsequently, whilst there are undeniable benefits for labour from certain forms of flexibility – where there are mutual gains to be had from both parties; flexibility cannot be seen as unequivocally good from an employee perspective. Increasingly, Casual employees are filling positions that are permanent in nature and behind employee vulnerability; the high levels of unemployment and

accompanying poverty are the most driving force in Africa (Bodibe, 2006; Anugwon, 2007; Okafor, 2012). Wandera (2011) posits that the three main reasons for employers to use short-term workers are flexibility of staff, reduction of cost and ease of dismissal.

On his part, Jauch (2010) notes that global experiences have shown that employers use labour-hire workers for a variety of reasons, which include coping with peaks in demand, reducing costs, avoiding industrial relations problems, greater flexibility, as well as avoiding retrenchment procedures and trade unions. Globalization, technological change and abundance of labour supply are also mentioned as reasons for casualization (Fapohunda, 2012). In addition, Brenner, (2002) contends that the firms' main reasons for using labour hire include to source additional staff; replace temporarily absent employees; outsource the administrative burden of employment; achieve thorough recruitment; and overcome skill shortages. Contending, This form of employment is characterized by job insecurity, low wages and substandard working conditions, limited training and skills development and low levels of unionization, job dissatisfaction, low level of sense of belonging, unscheduled turnover, low morale, low level of productivity, dehumanization of work and workers, lack of employment benefits that accrue to regular employees, promotion as well as right to organize and partake in collective bargaining (Wooden and Hawke, 1998; Pocock, and Jauch, 2010; Wandera, 2011).

In the same vein, Laplagne, (2005) argues that the labour-hire work arrangement may be deficient in terms of training, promotion, human capital investment, and career prospects; occupational health and safety and workers' compensation and rehabilitation; job security; and workers' remuneration and entitlements Majid (2012) submits that the work of non-regularly employed workers is characterized not only by low income (as we have seen earlier) but also by variability in the intensity as well as timing of labour use over the production cycle by individual workers in this category. The key challenge in casual employment is not simply to rectify the problems experienced by individual casual worker; rather the problem is the processes of casualization itself. The significance of casualization is that it is integral to labour management strategies that achieve better deployment, and not development of labour (Hall, 2002).

2.8.1 Casualwork arrangement in Nigerian construction industry

The use of any form of flexible work arrangement is not new even in the developing countries, like Nigeria (Hamilton, 2006; Okafor, 2007; Danesi, 2011). But the rate at which this trend is growing and substituting almost all permanent job positions in every sector

thenation's economy, including the construction sectors is greatly worrisome. Although the exact origin of casualization in Nigeria is not clear, Fashoyin (2000), Alozie (2009), Adeleye (2011), Danesi (2011), Fapohunda (2012), and Okafor (2012) traced the emergence of casualization in Nigeria's labour market to the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986 as well as adoption of International Monetary Fund (IMF) directives and World Bank loans. According to Fapohunda (2012) the combination of these factors led to a slump in the economy.

Many factories shut down, some operating below minimum capacity, and many organizations found it difficult to compete in the globalized economy which is tilted more in favour of the developed economies. Alozie (2009) argues that the resultant of the policy was unprecedented retrenchment of workers in the public sector which created a large scale of unemployment, globalization and trade liberalization added to competition from imported goods, Fapohunda (2012) claims that it forced enterprises in Nigeria to reduce their staff strength and replace them with contract and casual workers in order to cut costs of production and remain competitive. Although the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was geared toward less government involvement in the economy and more private sector participation, the revitalization of the private sector was aimed at attracting the much needed foreign direct Investment (FDI) into the country.

While it attracted some FDI almost in all sectors of the nation's economy, it has led to the lowering of labour standards at the same time. Mitullah and Wachira (2003) observe that under the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which began in the late eighties, government development expenditure was heavily curtailed as part of the austerity measures required by the donors. Investment in buildings was particularly affected, as evidenced by the numerous stalled projects that have remained unfinished for over ten years, and the public sector was no longer a major client in the building sub-sector. In Nigerian, construction industry, this trend of employment practice is more pronounced. Virtually all construction workers are casual or contract workers. This pattern cuts across all categories of the industry (from small to large organizations, indigenous to multinational organizations), and also all categories of workforce (from unskilled to highly skilled, uneducated to highly educated). Worse still, we there is a situation where there are permanent casual or contract workers.

This is a situation where a worker is employed under casual or contract arrangement and remains in the same organization for a very long time while his agreement is being renewed every year without any improvement. Danesi (2011) attributes this anomaly to defects in the existing labour laws and government policies.

She argues that the current labour laws and government policies do not create a legal framework for casual and contract workers in Nigeria hence their exploitation and denial of the right to organize by employers.

2.8.2 Casual work arrangement and workers safety climate in the construction industry

Within organizations, the nature of the work carried out by individuals and what they feel about it is governed by the employment relationship and the psychological contract (Armstrong, 2009). It is, however, disheartening that the vast majority of Nigerian construction workers are engaged and treated as casuals. The workers equally see themselves as casual and not being integral part of whatever organization that employs them. This situation is unhealthy and influences the workers perceptions and behaviours. It also negates the tenets of quality of work life. Walters (2010) argues that workers participation and consultation has significant role in managing the health and safety of construction industry. Quality of work life is described as the favourable working environment that supports and promotes satisfaction by providing employees with rewards, job security, career growth opportunities, and so on (Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy, 2013).

Che Rose et al. (2006) argue that quality of work life is a comprehensive construct that includes an individual's job-related well-being and the extent to which work experiences are rewarding, fulfilling and devoid of stress and other negative personal consequences. The elements that are relevant to an individual's quality of work life include the task, the physical work environment, social environment within the organization, administrative system and relationship between life on and off the job. Since safety climate is a manifestation of safety culture, Okolie and Okoye (2012) state that the overall safety culture can be described as a set of beliefs, norms, attitudes, and social and technical practices that are concerned with minimizing the exposure of individuals within and beyond an organization, to conditions considered dangerous or injurious.

The principles of good safety climate will conform to the tenet of good quality of work life. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2013) affirm that good quality of work life is necessary for an organization to attract and to retain skilled and talented employees. In order to survive in the competitive market because of liberalization, privatization and globalization and to minimize the attrition rate of employees, the quality of work life initiatives are very important.

Okoye (2010) argues that casualization of construction work and temporary nature of employment in construction industry contributes to low level of safety training and education of construction worker and it's also associated with low level of management commitment to safety training of workers and safety commitment. He further argues that workers are not usually moved by their inner desire to observe safety rules on site but needed to be persuaded before they can maintain and abide by the rule. Based on this, Okolie and Okoye (2012) suggest that, in the Nigerian context, safety climate factors can best be categorized into four: management commitment, workers involvement, education and training; and belief and perception.

However Okolie and Okoye (2013) note that large power distances, low uncertainty avoidance and short-term orientation promote unsafe behaviours among construction workers. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living Conditions (2002) notes that quality of work life is a multi-dimensional construct, made up of a number of interrelated factors that need careful consideration to conceptualize and measure. It is associated with job satisfaction, job involvement, motivation, productivity, health, safety and well-being, job security, competence development and balance between work and non-work life.

Researchers have affirmed that quality of work life involves a wide variety of components or elements that are influenced on the performance of employees. The following elements or components are commonly associated with individual's quality of work life: the task (nature of work); the physical work environment, social environment within the organization (reflecting notions of a "well-paid" or "lowly-paid" job); administrative system and relationship between life on and off the job; remuneration, including pay, perks and benefits; job satisfaction and job security; contractual arrangements (for example, permanent or temporary employment), extent of involvement and influence in organizational decision-making; felt fairness—reward commensurate with level of effort exerted; health; safety and well-being; training and development, organization culture and climate; equity; as well as justice and grievance handling (Saraji and Dargahi, 2006; Fleetwood, 2007 ; Rethinam and Ismail, 2008; Drobic, Behan and Prag, 2010; Hosseini, 2010; Koonmee, Singhapakdi, Virakul, and Lee, 2010; Noor and Abdullah, 2012).

2.8.3 Casual Work Arrangements(CWAs)and Freedom of association

Freedom of association is based on the principle that people can do what they like as long as their actions do no harm to someone else. The freedom of workers to associate is regarded in international labour law as a fundamental right (UDHR, 1948) and is also

protected by local legislations (Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). This fundamental right is what compels workers to come together to form trade unions, the purpose of which is to promote and protect their interests at work.

Therefore, the establishment and the joining of a union is the most important basis of freedom of association. And this right is to be exercised without interference or authorization from the state, employers and any administrative body (African Charter on Human Right, 1981). It can therefore be deduced from the foregoing that both international law and local legislations recognize the right to freedom of association. International competition facilitated by lowering of trade barriers has created innovation, lower prices for goods and services and widened consumer choice. However, the fierce competition that is a fall out of the global economy affects the world of work in a number of ways:

There is increased employment volatility, insecurity and inequality accompanying the economic adjustment process consequent upon financial trade liberalizations and privatization. Labour rights and standards are sometimes seen as sacrificial lambs on the altar of competitive edge by companies due to the perception that they constitute “costs” which if eliminated or reduced to the barest minimum, will impact positively on the ability of companies to compete favourably in the global market and consequent improvement of their balance sheets, to the joy of shareholders.

Internationalization of production is impacting on collective bargaining, as multinationals who frequently dominate the global economy tend to have an upper hand in collective bargaining due to multiple exit options available to mobile capital in the global economy. Also, due to the fact that the real decision makers in a multinational company are usually outside the local territory, representatives of employees may find themselves handicapped as to effectiveness of their bargains with puppet territory managers of the multinational with no real decision-making power. In the same vein, such workers may also find themselves handicapped by inadequate access to information about the international financial position and corporate plans of the multinational employer with whom they are negotiating.

Casual work is increasingly becoming the norm of a global economy as companies undergo restructuring, privatization, concentration on core activities and modifications in work organization and technology. These factors certainly affect traditional employment relations and the exercise of freedom of association and collective bargaining rights inherent in them. Flexible work patterns are now becoming dominant in advanced countries and this makes it more difficult to organize workers for collective representation.

Sub-contracting arrangements are causing the employment relationship increasingly to resemble a commercial relationship, making it difficult to identify the real employer for the purposes of collective bargaining. A fall-out of globalization in Nigeria is the increase in CWAs.

Workers in this form of work arrangements are subject to insecurity and little or no protection as labour legislation can seldom be effectively applied to them. Globalization is said to provoke the deterioration of working conditions in both developing and developed countries. Obviously, the situation is worse and more destructive in developing countries, where most workers live below the poverty line. A frequent form of labour in these areas is that which occurs in “sweat shops” which represent one of the extremes of capitalist exploitation. Union membership is falling due to reduction in work forces. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) statistics (1998) union membership though still significant in large work places, has decreased in almost all parts of the world in the last decade. The relevance of collective representation is not always obvious when work places are small or in activities where there is little experience of collective organization and representation of interests. These factors are leading to a widening representational gap in the world of work.

Casual work arrangements (CWAs) are new forms of work arrangements occasioned by the effects of globalization and trade liberalization. This development was facilitated by technological improvement in communication and information technology. Scholars have argued that the shift from standard to nonstandard work arrangements is as a result of employers using it to avoid the mandates and costs associated with labour laws which are designed to protect permanent employees in standard employment. Workers freedom to associate and the right to organize is seen as a fundamental right that should not be restricted in any way and by no administrative authority or State. However with the emergence of casual work arrangements (CWAs), this right especially in developing countries is being trampled on by many employers (Danesi, 2011). Labour laws in many jurisdictions were designed originally to protect permanent employees and in order to avoid the mandates and cost associated with these laws; employers are making use of CWAs to respond to changes in the larger global economic environment (Lee, 1997). The use of casual work arrangements (CWAs) now transcends the earlier scope and forms a large component of the labour force. Many organizations in Nigeria are known to have as much as 50% of their work force as either casual or contract employees. In Australia on the other hand where the incidence of casualization is also high, casual employees are estimated to be around 20% of the total

workforce and around a quarter of all employees (Stewart, 2009). In this era of globalization and trade liberalization, the theme running through many of the new approaches to management is the development of a more flexible workforce.

This has therefore led employers to adopt flexible work arrangements in the form of CWAs in the management of labour. The keen competition in the ever-growing industrialized market economy has led employers to device means of remaining competitive. This means that cheaper yet qualitatively attractive goods and services are the goal of every organization. Every provider of goods and services therefore seeks cheaper capital and labour in order to keep his or her costs low. Since established labour rules and standards may not be readily compromised, the user of labour continually seeks innovative ways to get the job done cheaper. Casual work through outsourcing has met this need particularly as advances in technology have also re-defined the way work is done. The increasing use of contractors, both for the supply of components and for services, reflects an acceptance that the firm should concentrate on its core activities (Rees and Fielder, 1992).

Firms that specialize in such tasks, it is observed, can more efficiently perform non-value-adding activities (Cannon, 1989). The perceived benefit to the firm is that its limited physical, managerial and financial resources can be focused on producing a quality product or service at a competitive price (Venkatesan, 1992). While casual work through outsourcing can improve flexibility, the argument for adopting this practice tends to focus on cost considerations (Plunkett, 1991). Employers argue that outsourcing helps them minimize costs and investment and gives them the flexibility to direct scarce capital where they hold a competitive advantage.

In addition to developing a more flexible work force, employers use casual labour to avoid obligations imposed by employment laws and protection. Casual workers are usually denied the right to organize; therefore this allows employers to avoid the problems they associate with union representation and collective bargaining (ILO, 2008). However, some employers in Nigeria argue that the use of outsourcing in some cases may not necessarily be to cut costs but to help them concentrate on their core services while contracting out the ancillary services to labour and service contractors who specialize in these areas. This practice also gives them the freedom to “hire and fire” casual employees at will. However, for the worker the issue is that there are no better options available to meet her economic needs. Where she is faced with the choice between casual work and no work at all, the former will be the choice.

Nevertheless the use of labour contractors or employment agencies has been a source of ongoing conflict between unions and employers in Nigeria. This is because casual employees are not given the same benefits that accrue to permanent employees by virtue of their employment status and are also denied the right to form or belong to trade unions (Danesi, 2011). There is currently no statutory protection for workers in CWAs which arguably is responsible for their exploitation and the denial of the right to organize. It is observed that government have to enforce existing laws as well as amend some current laws to define clearly various employment relationships and protect the employment rights of workers in CWAs especially the right to organize.

2.8.4 Sources of Freedom of association

A cornerstone of democratic governance and constitutional liberalism is the freedom of association. This freedom enables people who share similar interests to come together and form organizations that represent their interests and views. Also, this is applicable to workers who come together under the umbrella of a union to protect and promote their employment interests. Many ILO instruments and other international instruments as well as local laws guarantee the right to freedom of association (ILO, 2008). The international and local sources of the freedom of association are as follows:

2.8.5 International Sources

1. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
2. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Right
3. The European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms.
4. The International Labour Organization.

2.8.6 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR, 1948) recognizes the right to freedom of association and provides that, “Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association,” article, 20 (UDHR, 1948). The article 23 (4), UDHR further affirms that “everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests”.

With this, it is clear that this declaration also promotes the ILO standards on the freedom of a person to join or form an organization of one’s choosing to protect his or her interest. This right ought to be promoted in civil society as well as the work environment.

2.8.7 The International Labour Organization

The ILO came into existence in 1919. The scope and applicability of its Conventions and Recommendations are far reaching. Many countries like Nigeria have ratified Conventions 87 and 98. These Conventions are binding as soon as a State ratifies it and it is expected that ratifying States must adopt them as guidelines for national policies and legislations. The ILO's Conventions and Recommendations together make up the ILO International Labour Standards. With the Philadelphia declaration (1998), it is expected that all nations whether they have ratified the Conventions or not have an obligation arising from the very fact of membership in the organization to respect, to promote and to realize in good faith and in accordance with the Constitution, the principles concerning the fundamental rights which are the subject of these Conventions.

The four key issues that form the core of the declaration are as follows:

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

2.8.8 Freedom of Association and the Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (No. 87)

A sound and harmonious industrial relations system of any country is based on the full recognition of freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining (Casale, 2005). Thus Convention 87 deals with the right of workers and employers to establish and join organizations of their own choosing without prior authorization from an administrative body. Public authorities are urged to refrain from any interference, dissolution or suspension of these bodies. The ILO also recognizes that in exercising these rights, workers' organizations as well as employers' organizations must respect the law of the land. All workers according to this Convention have the right to organize without hindrances from anybody or authority and this include casual workers. This Convention was ratified by Nigeria on 17th October, 1960.

2.8.9 Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention (No. 98)

This Convention on the right to organize and collective bargaining is a follow up or complimentary to Convention (87). Convention 98 seeks to guarantee that "workers shall enjoy adequate protection against acts of anti-union discrimination in respect of their employment". Such protection shall apply more particularly in respect of acts calculated to:

(a) Make the employment of a worker subject to the condition that he shall not join a union or shall relinquish trade union membership.(b) Cause the dismissal of or otherwise prejudice a worker by reason of union membership or because of participation in union activities outside working hours or, with the consent of the employer, within working hours.

2.8.10 Right to Freedom of association and Membership of Trade Unions in Nigeria

Constitutional Protection

The Trade Union Act

The Labour Act

The African Charter of Human Rights

2.8.11 Constitutional Guarantee of the freedom of Association

Section 40 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), guarantees the right to freedom of association. The section provides 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”.

This constitutional guarantee covers workers in both the private and public sectors of the economy. Therefore it is clear that an employer who prevents or bars his employee from joining a trade union is infringing the constitutional right of his or her employee (Danesi, 2010). The Constitution provides for access to a court of law for remedy in the event that the right to freedom of association has been breached. Section 46 provides that “any person who alleges that any of the provisions of the chapter has been is being or likely to be contravened in any State in relation to him may apply to a High Court in that State for redress”. The constitutional right of workers to form or belong to a trade union of their choice in Nigeria is openly breached with impunity in the case of workers in CWAs. There have been many instances where employers make their employees sign “yellow dog” contracts not to be members of a trade union while in employment (Danesi, 2011).

This is the situation with many employers in Nigeria who employ casual and contract workers. They do not allow these workers to join trade unions or benefit from collective agreements. Section 46 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), goes on to provide that any person who alleges that his or her right to freedom to form or belong to a trade union “is being or likely to be contravened in any State in relation to him may apply to a High Court in that State for redress”.

Nevertheless employers have continued to violate this constitutional right with impunity because there are no provisions for sanctions by the State against erring employers. This probably explains the reason why there is no case law to show that workers in CWAs have challenged their employers in court for refusing them the right to organize.

The Nigerian Constitution is regarded as the “Grundnorm” of the Nigerian legal system because the country is based on the Presidential system of governance with a written constitution. Any law that is inconsistent with the Constitution is null and void to the extent of its inconsistency (CFRN, 1999). Therefore the supremacy of the Constitution overrides all other laws. This implies that any employer who denies his workers the right to organize is in breach of the constitution and in accordance with section 46 the worker can get remedy from the High court in her State over this constitutional breach. However, casual workers are yet to take advantage of this section to seek remedy against their employers.

2.8.12 African Charter on Human Rights

The African Charter is another source that guarantees freedom of association for workers in Nigeria (LFN, 1990). Article 10 of the Charter provides that “Every individual shall have the right to free association provided that he abides by the law.” Nigeria has ratified this Charter and has indeed made it part of its national law by way of enactment through section 12 (1) of the Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999), which states that “No treaty between the Federation and any other country shall have the force of law except to the extent to which any such treaty has been enacted into law by the National Assembly.” Therefore it can be deduced from this that the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights has become part of Nigerian law.

2.8.13 Trade Unions Act and Freedom of Association

The Trade Unions Act defines a trade union in section 1, to mean,

“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...”

The above definition indicates that workers no matter their employment status “whether temporary or permanent” have the right to join or form trade unions without prior authorization from their employer in order to improve their employment conditions (LFN, 1990). If a worker is denied this right, then he or she will not have an avenue to bargain collectively with other workers to improve his or her terms and conditions of employment and therefore open to exploitation.

The casual workers employed in the private sector who do not belong to unions are increasing in number. The reason given by employers is that since these workers are casual workers they are not supposed to be members of trade unions in the industry. However, a close look at the definition of a trade union in the Trade Union Act debunks this view because it says a union may comprise of “temporary or permanent” employees. Therefore, companies are not justified in their exclusion of this category of workers from the freedom to join or form unions. Another impact is that the inability of casual workers to organize is robbing the unions its membership and check-off dues.

The reason for this is that Nigerian unions enjoy monopoly because it is a “single union system” and not a “multi-union system” like the system in the United Kingdom and the United States. The Trade Union (Amendment) Act (2005) reiterated the voluntarism principle of the Nigerian industrial relations system and the introduction of a multi-union system. However, prior to this law reform trade union membership was more or less compulsory. Workers in a particular organization or industry were compelled to join the available unions in those organizations. The amendment however has changed this. This reform conforms to section 40 of the Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999) which guarantees the voluntary membership of trade union in Nigeria.

2.8.14 Labour Act and Freedom of Association

Another law that protects the rights of workers to associate for trade union purposes is the Labour Act Cap 198, Laws of the Federation (1990) Workers membership of trade unions and trade union activities are protected by section 9 (6) (a) and (b) which provides that: No contract shall-(a) make it a condition of employment that a worker shall or shall not join a trade union or shall or shall not relinquish membership of a trade union; or(b) Cause the dismissal of, or otherwise prejudice, a worker(i) By reason of trade union membership, or(ii) Because of trade union activities outside working hours or, with the consent of the employer, within working hours, or(iii) By reason of the fact that he has lost or been deprived of membership of a trade union or has refused or been unable to become, or for any other reason is not, a member of a trade union.

2.8.15 Recognition of Trade Unions

By virtue of section 24 (1) of the Trade Union Act an employer is mandated to automatically recognize a trade union of which persons in his or her employment are members, on registration in accordance with the provisions of the Act.

An employer who fails to recognize any trade union registered pursuant to the provision of section 24 (1) shall be guilty of an offence and be liable on summary conviction to a fine of 1,000 Naira (LFN, 1990). This recognition is interpreted to be for the purpose of collective bargaining which implies that the trade union can bargain collectively on behalf of its members whether temporary or permanent and the collective agreement reached should be applicable to all categories of workers.

2.8.16 Casual Work Arrangements (CWAs) and its effects on Freedom of Association in Nigeria

Though Nigeria ratified ILO Conventions 87 and 98 on October, 1960, the State has not been seen enforcing the principles of freedom of association contained in these conventions particularly as it concerns casual and contract workers in Nigeria (Danesi, 2011). Therefore employers flout provisions in the Constitution and labour legislations with impunity because the State has abdicated its duty of enforcement through its agencies. Union officials have been victimized and dismissed because of their active opposition to the discrimination meted out on this category of workers who are denied the right to organize by their employers. For example the attempts of the unions in the oil and gas industry to get the managements to allow this category of workers to unionize have led to dismissal of some union officials (Danesi, 2011). For example, in June 2001 National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG) went on a protest through massive demonstrations and rallies for two days to protest against what it called “the evil of Casualisation, victimization of union activists and anti-union posture of Nigerian employers and managements who wanted to foist on the oil and gas industry the no-union syndrome in their companies” (NUPENG, 2001).

The Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) on its part brought the issue of Casualisation to the public in 2000 when it set up an “Anti-Casualisation Committee” whose mandate was to fight against casualization in the country. They set out by picketing companies who they have identified as having casual workers with no rights in their employ. The NLC as the central labour organization saw casualization as an unfair labour practice even though this is not defined in our labour law. The strategy of picketing did not stop Casualisation but sensitized the public into believing and accepting that the practice was anti-labour. As has been articulated, casual workers in Nigeria are regarded as temporary employees even though they remain on the job permanently and they are denied the right form or join unions of their choice.

The permanent nature of casual work has resulted in a phenomenon known as “permanent casuals”. This means that casual workers may remain on that employment status for more than five years with low remuneration, lack of benefits, and denial of the right to associate and lack of conversion to permanent employee status. It is submitted here that the right to belong to a trade union is a fundamental right which every worker whether permanent or temporary should enjoy as provided by section 40 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and section 1 of the Trade Unions Act as well as international labour standards.

It should be understood that there is no government policy today that favour the denial of the right to associate imposed by employers in the country on casual workers. This practice has no legal backing either in terms of legislation or policy. However, the employers usually argue that casualization helps to create jobs for a growing number of the unemployed. This is not a plausible argument. Denying workers the right to freedom of association is a denial of a fundamental right from which other rights at work evolve (Danesi, 2011).

2.8.17 Factors affecting the Right to Freedom of association of Casual Workers in Nigeria

1. Inadequate legislations
2. Lack of Enforcement of current legislations
3. Government policy on employment and the attraction of foreign direct investments (FDI)

2.8.18 Inadequate Legislations

The definition of a “worker” as it is currently in our labour laws is inadequate because it does not specifically cover the broad range of different categories of employees and employment status. Section 91 of the Labour Act defines a worker to mean,

“any person who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour or clerical worker is expressed or implied or oral or written, or whether it is a contract of service or a contract personally to execute any work or labour”.

This is what has been done in developed and developing economies of the world including the EU, Australia, Ghana and South Africa where labour legislations clearly mentions and defines different categories of employees (Department of Labour, 1996). For instance in the Ghana Labour Act of 2003, the terms “casual worker” and “temporary workers” are clearly defined in its interpretation section (Ghana Labour Act, 2003). It also provides for a legal framework for the regulation, duration and general terms and conditions of such employment. The Act went further to provide for guidelines for their remuneration.

This kind of clarity will remove the inadequacy of the current Labour laws. It is therefore this lack of clarity or ambiguity that has left casual workers vulnerable to exploitation.

Freedland (1999), elaborated on this when he said that discrimination by pattern of work for a category of workers like those in CWAs in denying them the right to freedom of association is unjustified discrimination. This arguably has been the excuse of companies in Nigeria for justifying the non-unionization of casual workers. They argue that only full time employees should be eligible to the right to organize and collective bargaining.

2.8.19 Lack of Enforcement of Current Legislations

It is clear that Nigeria has ratified all the international instruments, is therefore bound by these international instruments as it concerns freedom of association. In addition, municipal legislations including the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria also guarantees the right to freedom of association. The Trade Unions Act and the Labour Act also protects this right. The issue from the foregoing is not lack of local legislations or international instruments guaranteeing the freedom of association and the right to organize, but the lack of enforcement of the laws by the government and its agencies as well as the extension of this right to casual workers. Therefore, the problem is also in the area of enforcement as employers breach these laws with impunity.

2.8.20 Government Employment Policy and the Attraction of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)

The Government employment policy is to ensure that more jobs are created through the process of attracting foreign direct investments (FDI). It is concerned with economic growth and development as well as compliance with World Trade Organization (WTO). This has made government complacent in not ensuring that the investors in the Nigerian economy operate lawfully.

2.9 Regulations Guiding Recruitment of Casual Workers and International Labour Organization (ILO) Conventions

Different scholars have focused attention on the casual worker who is employed by a primary employer known as “The Labour Contractor” and supplied to the secondary employer (company requiring the services of the casual worker). Their item of trade is the worker who is supplied to the secondary employer at a fee not known to the worker. In some cases, the worker does not even know the primary employer. Thus, the terms of employment is never negotiated as he/she is faced with a “take it or leave it” situation.

The implication is that the labour contractor exploits the worker by negotiating for his/her pay at a price for which he must make a profit.

The ILO convention concerning fee-charging employment agencies came into force on the 8th of July 1951 (ILO, 2001). Article 3 of the convention states that all fee-charging employment agencies conducted with a view to profit shall be abolished with a limited period of time determined by a competent authority. Article 1 of the same convention on “fee-charging employment agencies” means employment conducted with a view to profit, that is any agency or organization which acts as an intermediary for the purpose of procuring employment for a worker or supplying a worker for an employer with a view to deriving either directly or indirectly any pecuniary or other material advantage from either employer or worker. It is important to note that Nigeria did not ratify this convention or the Private Employment Agencies Convention of 1997 (No.181).

The second type of casual, although employed directly by the company requiring his/her services has, salaries fixed solely by the “benevolent” employer. As observed in the first case, the worker does not negotiate his salary, and consequently is not entitled to benefits like leave period, pension and sick pay, even though he/she is affected directly by convention No\96. Closely associated with the above is the ILO convention concerning freedom of association and protection of the rights to organize. Article 5 states that “workers organization shall have the right to establish and join federations and confederations and any such organization; federation and confederation shall have the right to affiliate with international organizations of workers” (ILO, 2000a). By Article 11, it is imperative for member countries to “take all necessary and appropriate measures to ensure that workers and employers may exercise freely the right to organize”. This right is enshrined in the provisions of section 40 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The fact remains that casual workers are not allowed the freedom of association and protection, and the right to organize themselves (Isiugo, 2008).

Clearly associated with the above is the convention No. 98 concerning the application of the principles of the right to organize and bargain collectively, which came into force on 18th July 1951 (ILO, 2000). Article 1, it states that “workers shall enjoy adequate protection against acts of anti-union discrimination in respect of their employment”. Such protection shall apply more particularly in respect of acts calculated at the employment of a worker subject to the condition that he shall not join a union or shall relinquish trade union membership, dismissal of or other wide prejudice a worker by reason of union membership or because of participation in union activities outside working hours or with the concern of the

employer within hours. By Article 2, workers organizations shall enjoy adequate protection against acts of interference by each other or each other's agents or members in their establishment, functioning or administration.

Convention No. 96 of the international labour conference declares that all members, even if they have not ratified the convention have an obligation, arising from the very fact of membership in the organization, to respect, to promote and to realize in good faith and in accordance with the constitution, the principle concerning the functional rights which are the subject of these conventions. The ILO conventions have been consistent with the use of the word "worker". In other words, there is no distinction between a temporary, casual, contract or permanent worker (Isiugo, 2008). It follows, therefore, that the classifications or divisions made so far are for the purpose of stripping the worker of his rights. A primary employer paid a fee determined by both parties.

A close observation revealed that individual who retired from the service of the secondary employers usually set up labour contracting companies. It is very sad, however, to note that a practice (casualization) embraced by the construction industry in Nigeria today has been condemned by the ILO since 1951.

2.9.1 Regulations Guiding Recruitment of Casual Workers and Challenges faced by Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC)

The fundamental aims and objectives of the NLCs are to protect defend and promote the rights, well-being and the interests of all workers, pensioners and the trade unions; to promote and defend a Nigerian nation that would be just, democratic, transparent and prosperous and to advance the cause of the working class generally (NLC, 2002). The Nigerian Labour Congress, as the umbrella body representing all workers in Nigeria, has been involved in the struggle against casualization.

The congress acknowledges that casual employment cuts across all industries and institutions (private and public) which are against the provision of the law. It notes that it is however more prominent among multinational companies.

The practice of casualization affects union membership, its mobilizing capacity and check off dues from the large number of workers in the system that cannot be unionized. The NLC started the campaign for de-casualization late 1999 owing to their proscription by the military juntas (Isiugo, 2008). However, in 2001 the NLC set up committees on casualization and, at a summit, the following year, all employers agreed to implement the law on casualization and to liberalize their employment policy.

Some of the strategies that the NLC used includes, industry-wide picketing in order to sensitize the public; presentation of papers at seminars and conferences and through various publications from the Congress (NLC, 2002).

With support from the Solidarity Centre, the NLC created a multi-union anti-casualization task force to combat the flagrant anti-union practices. Through this task force, the NLC and its affiliate unions have organized more than eight thousand workers, many of whom have received increased benefits as permanent workers. However, Owoseye and Onwe (2009) opine that picketing has not yielded the desired result, as the incidence of casual staffing continues. Some employers misunderstood the reasons for the labour action against casual employment and before the commencement of the picketing activities; meetings were held with the employers through their central organization: the Nigeria Employers' Consultative Association (NECA), to clarify and share opinions on the illegality of casual labour and why they must regularize the employment status of such workers.

Casual workers are not entitled to be part of any trade unions as they are not fully employed. This has been affecting the way the employers treat their staff and the struggles for a decent workplace by the trade unions (Owoseye and Onwe, 2009). Nigeria Employers' Association (NECA) according to Owoseye and Onwe (2009) claimed that "the organization perceives the use of casual staff by most companies as illegal, as it is against the labour law in the country". They were of the opinion that casual staff can be employed by a company if the contract will not exceed the three-month agreement. The employer is expected to give a contract letter to the individual, stipulating the terms of employment. Although the organization is aware that some employers engage in the act, the organization try as much as possible to dissuade their members pleading morality, as they know it is an illegal act.

The organization tries to work hand in hand with the union to dissuade their members from engaging human capital for more than three months as casual staff; and is aware that casual employment is taking place in the country but most of the companies perpetrating the offence are not members of the organization, so this has limited what the organization can do about it. The organization has always advised their members to make permanent their casual staff by giving them a contract letter if they feel their services are still required or let them go if they cannot engage them. However, it is argued that picketing of companies by the unions to dissuade the use of casual workers in the country is not the solution to the problem, as this has not stopped the act, Although it is the responsibility of the union to watch out for the workers, they can only get a concrete achievement with the support of the government.

The non-coverage of casual workers in the Nigeria Labour Law implies that workers are not within the formal regulatory framework of government. As a result, many construction firms operating in the country have used the opportunity to perpetrate inhuman practices with regards to their indigenous workers. Casualization as a practice in the construction sector has grown into a level in which employers tend to justify it with a lot of economic assumption backed up with statistics primarily for profit maximization. The desire of the labour union, however, has been that a worker should be given decent jobs with good pay to enhance the dignity of human labour (Okafor, 2005).

Employers in Nigeria try to increase profits and cut labour costs by getting around a 90-day hiring limit for casual workers through casualization. They may fire (and then immediately rehire) a worker just before the 90 days run out, or they may ignore the law altogether, knowing that enforcement will be feeble or non-existent (Okafor, 2005). Once employed, casual workers are made to sign the “yellow dog” contract, which is a compulsory undertaking not to join labour unions while in employment. This practice violates the ILO conventions and the principle of business ethics concerning the right of association as stated in the Nigerian labour law.

2.10 Theoretical framework

This study was guided by the Labour Market Segmentation Theory and Rational Choice Theory. The prevalence of casualization of workers in construction firms is anchored to Labour Market Segmentation Theory; while workers’ perception of their working conditions is anchored to Rational Choice Theory.

2.10.1 Labour Market Segmentation Theory (LMS)

This theory argues that political and economic forces encourage the division of the labour market into separate submarkets, or segments, distinguished by different labour market characteristics and behavioural rules. Segmented labour markets are thus the outcome of a segmentation process (Reich, Gordon and Edward, 1973). Segments may cut horizontally across the occupational hierarchy as well as vertically. The present labour market conditions can most usefully be understood as the outcome of two segmentation processes-primary and secondary segments. The primary and secondary segments are differentiated mainly by stability characteristics.

In primary segment, jobs require and develop stable working habits, skills are often acquired on the job, wages are relatively high, and job ladders exist; while, in the secondary segment, jobs do not require and often discourage stable working habits; wages are low, turnover is high, and job ladders are few (Reich, Gordon and Edward, 1973). Moreover, primary jobs are rationed, that is, not all workers who are qualified for primary sector jobs and desire one can obtain one. Also, the sector of the labour market in which an individual is employed directly influences his or her tastes, behaviour patterns and cognitive abilities (Gordon, 1998). Labour market segmentation theory arose and is perpetuated because it is functional, that is, it facilitates the operation of capitalist institutions. The theory is functional primarily because it helps reproduce capitalist hegemony.

First, the theory divides workers and forestalls potential movements uniting all workers against employers (Kerr and Siegel, 1969). Second, the theory establishes “fire trails” across vertical job ladders and, to the extent that workers perceive separate segments with different criteria for access, workers limit their own aspirations for mobility. Less pressure is then placed on other social institutions – the school and the family, for example that produce the class structure. Third, division of workers into segments legitimizes inequalities in authority and control between superiors and subordinate. Labour market segmentation theory is understood as having a number of interacting causes, including employers’ organizational requirements and labour-use strategies, the responses of unions, and the impact of the household division of labour on workers’ labour supply decisions. The theory arises from the tendency of legal regulation to superimpose a set of status-based distinctions on work relations. These legal taxonomies, which partition and stratify the workforce, are only partly a response to external economic and political factors; they are also, to a degree, internally generated by the complex and multi-functional modes of regulation which characterize labour law systems (Mitchell and Bill, 2006).

The theory defines a primary labour market and secondary labour market with rigidities, restricting nonentity between the two segments. The proponents of this theory argue that on-the-job search behaviour is likely to be different according to which “segment” the worker is employed within. The traditional notion of a primary labour market worker suggests that they are employed in tight internal labour market structures which facilitate career advancement, and search activity is used to enhance his/her career aspirations.

Conversely, the secondary labour market worker may be motivated to search for new employment because their jobs are typically precarious. Intrinsic search is associated with occupational and educational levels associated with the primary sector, while extrinsic search

tends to be associated with individuals in the secondary sector. The theory posits that the higher rates of turnover in metropolitan labour markets will have different impacts on primary and secondary workers. Primary workers with higher levels of education and skill should be able to use job mobility to appropriate productivity gains associated with their human capital. Job mobility by secondary workers is driven by extrinsic factor (fear) and generates negligible improvements in pay, security and overall job satisfaction (Mitchell and Bill, 2006).

Segmentation occurs when the labour market is divided or structured in a way which is reflected in the forms taken by the employment relationship or contract. It is associated with the division between “core” and “atypical” employment in some contexts, and with that between “formal” and “informal” employment in others. In industrialized economies, atypical work takes the form of part-time, fixed-term and temporary agency employment, and casualized forms of work such as zero-hours contracts, task contracts and “false” or “sham” self-employment. These employment categories are said to be “atypical” by comparison to a “normal” or “standard” employment relationship (SER), which is full-time, indeterminate in duration, and based on a stable contract between the individual worker and a single, clearly defined employing entity. In developing economies, segmentation is identified with a distinction between a “formal” sector in which employment is stable and regulated, and an “informal” sector of casualized work relations, which are, in varying degrees, undocumented, untaxed, and beyond the scope of collective agreements and legislative protections (Mitchell and Bill, 2006).

Labour market segmentation is regarded as problematic because of its association with inequality and discrimination. The rationing of high quality jobs to those in a protected “core” or “formal” sector and the resulting marginalization of others is linked to earnings inequality and to the perpetuation of discrimination based on education, skill, gender, age, and ethnic origin. Segmentation may also have implications for efficiency. Dualist labour market structures may be the result of choices by employers and workers which are privately efficient but socially sub-optimal. In other words, they may maximize the joint product of parties directly engaged in bargaining but impose a net loss on society by virtue of their negative effects on third parties (Mitchell and Bill, 2006).

Dualist structures could also result from institutional rigidities which prevent efficient contracting, and so impose both private and social costs. Either way, segmentation results in the misallocation of resources. The issue to be considered here is how far the negative effects of labour market segmentation can be counteracted by legal or other regulatory measures.

This poses a number of prior questions. One is how far labour law itself, as a labour market institution, is responsible for segmentation. Another is how far law can be used as an instrument for addressing a complex, multi-causal social and economic phenomenon such as segmentation. To address these questions, an interdisciplinary approach is required, which can isolate the role of the law in shaping or structuring the labour market, and arrive at an assessment of the possibilities of and limits to legal intervention as a mechanism for promoting job quality.

From an economic perspective, segmentation is understood as having a number of interacting causes, including employers' organizational requirements (internal labour market theory) and labour-use strategies (efficiency wage theory), the responses of unions (insider outsider theory), and the impact of the household division of labour on workers' labour supply decisions (feminist economic theory).

From a legal perspective, segmentation arises from the tendency of legal regulation to superimpose a set of status-based distinctions on work relations (SER theory). These legal taxonomies, which partition and stratify the workforce, are only partly a response to external economic and political factors; they are also, to a degree, internally generated by the complex and multifunctional modes of regulation which characterize labour law systems (reflexive law theory). Theories of development present a range of views on the phenomenon of informality in emerging markets, which can be variously interpreted as the consequence of delayed development (structural transformation theory), an adaptive response to local conditions (dependency theory), and evidence of over-regulation (legal origin theory)(Doeringer and Piore, 1971).

The legal responses are grouped into three. The first consists of changes to the taxonomical categories used to determine the scope of labour law protections. These include legal measures that widen the definition of wage-dependent labour and minimize or remove qualifying thresholds based on wages, hours or duration of employment. The aim here is to ensure that fewer workers are excluded from the 'core' protected category; their effect is purely formal or classificatory, in that the substance of protection is not addressed. The second set of techniques, by contrast, addresses the content of labour law protections(Doeringer and Piore, 1971).

This includes, laws mandating equal (or pro rata) protections for workers in atypical work relationships to those in the 'core' ('leveling up'); and, laws reducing the protections which apply to the workers in the core, so as to bring them closer into line with those in the atypical categories ("leveling down").

The third set of techniques involves the use of the law to stimulate alternative mechanisms of labour market regulation for addressing segmentation: these include collective bargaining, training policy, and fiscal incentives (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). Employment within the vertically-integrated firm was seen as based on formal, bureaucratic rules and procedures, whereas work in the secondary market was governed by unfettered competition (Edwards, 1979).

This is compatible with human capital theory, which claims that long-term employment relationships and seniority-based wages would be found in contexts where firms and workers made mutual investments in firm-specific training (Becker, 1964). In a similar vein, transaction cost economics identifies stable employment with the presence of “asset-specific” capabilities, in contrast to low-skill and low-discretion jobs which were associated with “spot contracting” and “market governance” (Williamson, Wachter and Harris, 1975). These results were extended by the efficiency wage theory from the early 1980s.

The efficiency wage paid by employers in the primary sector reflects external market prices to some degree, but is also based on the firm’s need to incentivize its workforce through internal payment systems and job security arrangements. Owing to asymmetric information, employers cannot fully assess the qualities of workers (Stiglitz, 1986). Where they cannot monitor workers’ aptitude and motivation without cost, and where firm specific investments are at stake, employers will increase wages and other elements of the work bargain above the opportunity or market-clearing wage. As wages in the primary sector do not fully reflect prices, labour is displaced into the secondary sector, where competition is further intensified (Yellen, 1984).

The effect is to worsen job insecurity in the secondary sector, and to induce involuntary unemployment, as workers are unable to “price themselves” back into jobs no matter how low the wages they are prepared to accept (Solow, 1990). For employers in the primary sector, this may be a welcome side-effect of their own wage bargaining strategies, as the existence of a “reserve army” of labour in the secondary market enhances the disciplinary threat of job loss for those in the primary sector (Bulow and Summers, 1986). In these ways, privately efficient behaviour by employers and workers in the primary sector could lead to an overall social cost, as the positive effects of higher productivity in the primary sector are outweighed by the negative effects of unemployment and low wages in the secondary sector, and by immobility of labour across the divide between the primary and secondary sectors.

One implication of these theories is that state intervention may mitigate the effects of segmentation in various ways, by, for example, instituting universal vocational education and training systems which counteract the effects of casualization and under-investment in human capital in the secondary sector (Acemoglu and Pischke, 1998). Another way in which the state could reduce segmentation is by mandating unfair dismissal and worker representation laws, which may enhance motivation and productivity without employers needing to rely on divisive forms of efficiency wage bargaining (Levine, 1991).

A further development of efficiency wage theory is insider-outsider theory, which uses a similar logic, but shifts attention to the role of trade unions in segmenting the labour market. According to this approach, segmentation is at least partly the result of union organizing strategies, which seek to control the labour supply with a view to bidding up wages in the primary sector (Lindbeck and Snower, 1988). The empirical validity of this view has been questioned, as exclusion is by no means the only or even principal strategy pursued by unions; general unions seeking to organize across occupational and sectoral lines would, by the same logic, counteract the effects of segmentation (Sengenberger, 1981). If so, the law has a role to play in mitigating the effects of this segmentation, according to how far it supports inclusive union organization strategies and seeks to extend the protections of collective bargaining to fewer workers in sectors facing obstacles to unionization in the form of casualization and weak employer organization (Rubery and Wilkinson, 1981). The economic and sociological literature has also analysed a range of supply-side factors influencing labour market segmentation.

The feminist theory emphasizes the role of social norms governing the household division of labour as a source of segmentation. The traditional household division of labour is seen as entailing a double source of disadvantage for women: within the household, their labour is unpriced and provided at below market cost, while their participation in the labour market tends to be restricted to jobs which do not consistently provide a subsistence wage (Picchio del Mercado, 1981; 1992). The differential labour market experiences of male and female workers work systematically to the advantage of the former; this is reflected in occupational segregation and unequal access to training, job security and employment-related benefits (Walby, 1986). According to this point of view, laws which address inequality between women and men in employment and which aim to break down the gender-based division of labour, such as equal pay laws, discrimination laws and work-life balance laws, can be expected to alleviate the effects of segmentation (Fredman, 1998).

Three broad types of reform can be identified, which roughly correspond to stages in the evolution of the regulatory response: (i) changes to the personal scope of worker-protective laws, aimed at enlarging the definition of wage-dependent labour and lowering or removing wages and hours thresholds and minimum qualifying periods of service which had the effect of excluding atypical workers from protection; (ii) shifts in the substance of protection, in some cases involving a weakening of the rights of workers in the core, in others the establishment of a legal right to equivalent or pro-rata treatment for those in the periphery; and (iii) the conjoining of reforms to worker protective laws (including some deregulatory ones) to complementary mechanisms of intervention, including active labour market policy, fiscal law, social security law, and collective bargaining.

2.10.2 Rational Choice Theory (RCT)

The focus in rational choice is on actors. Actors are seen as being purposive, or as having intentionality. That is, actors have ends or goals toward which their actions are aimed. Actors also are seen as having preferences. Rational choice theory is concerned with the fact that action is undertaken to achieve objectives that are consistent with an actors' preference hierarchy (Ritzer, 2008). Rational action theory takes into consideration at least two major constraints on action. The first is the scarcity of resources. Actors have different resources as well as differential access to other resources. For those with lots of resources, the achievement of ends may be relatively easy. However, for those with few, if any, resources, the attainment of ends may be difficult or impossible.

Related to scarcity of resources is the idea of opportunity cost (Friedman, 1988). In pursuing a given end, actors must keep an eye on the costs of forgoing their next-most-attractive action. An actor may choose not to pursue the most highly valued end if his/her resources are negligible, if as a result the chances of achieving that end are slim, and if in striving to achieve that end he/she jeopardises his/her chances of achieving his/her next-most-valued end. Actors are seen as trying to maximise their benefits, and that goal may involve assessing the relationship between the chances of achieving a primary end and what that achievement does for the chances of attaining the second-most-valuable objective. In the case of casual workers, their actions can be expressed from the context of whether they will prefer to work as casuals or to remain unemployed. For some individuals, casual work may be the means of entering or re-entering the workforce, a stepping stone to more stable employment or a desired short-term employment opportunity.

According to Coleman (1990), the main task of sociologists is to focus on social system, but such macro phenomena must be explained by examining the factors internal to them, which centres on behaviour of individuals at the micro level. He identifies reasons for this argument. First, data are usually gathered at the individual level and aggregated or composed to yield the system level. Second, the individual level is the point where interventions are ordinarily made to create social change in society.

In this study the behaviour of individual casual workers serves to explain the utility or otherwise of construction firms in Nigeria. On the whole, the argument of rational choice theory is the rational construction of social system from the lowest level of individual. That is, knowledge of macro level is best understood from the primacy of micro level. In other words, to gain adequate understanding of the current state of casual workers in the construction industry in Nigeria, focus should be on the aggregate of casual workers' perception which gives construction firms in Nigeria its true character. This refers to casual workers' perceptions and reactions to the quality of services they receive from construction industry operators; mode of recruitment of casual workers, benefits, challenges and coping strategies of casual workers will determine whether or not the management will be adjudged to have complied with the industrial relations standard of job recruitment. It is obvious that rational choice theory provides the clear picture of labour segmentation in terms of micro analysis of the macro level of the use of casual workers in construction firms in Nigeria.

It is pertinent to explain the relevance of the theories used in this study for better understanding of working conditions of casual workers in the construction firms. The labour segmentation theory posits that there are political cum economic forces that encourage the division of the labour market into the primary and secondary sub-market or segment with the primary segment possessing such characteristics as stable working habit, in which skills are required on the job, wages are relatively high, job ladder exists and the job segments are rationed, in such a way that not all those who are qualified and required of such job can obtain one. While in the secondary sub-market, skills are required at some level, wages are low and turnover is high and the job ladders are few.

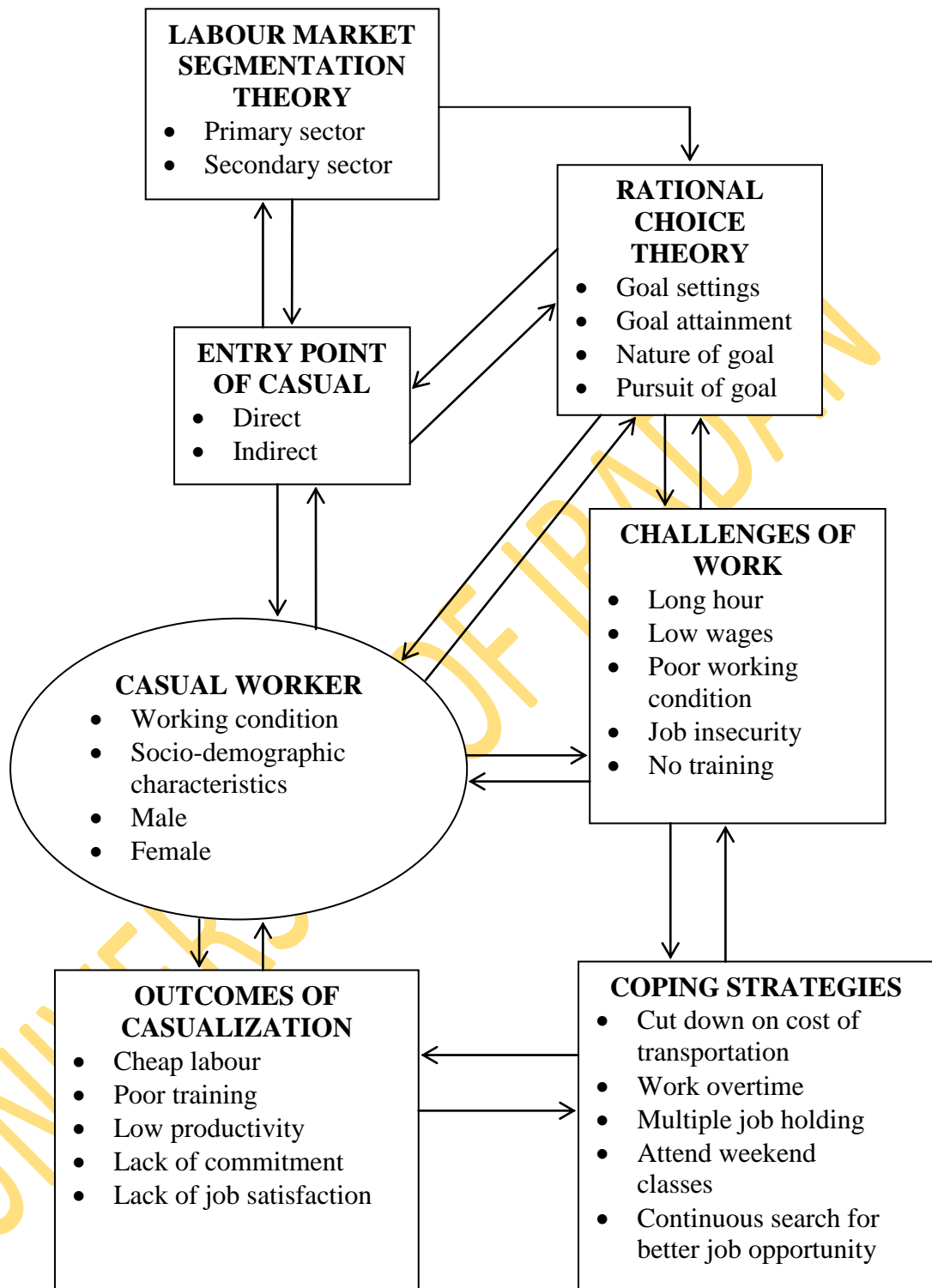
Translating these assertions to the study, it can be argued that the Nigerian economy shows such characteristics as expressed in the theory; in this case the economy is divided into primary segment (permanent) and secondary segment (temporary) employment. The workers in the permanent employment enjoy such working conditions as high wages in terms of payment for work done, job security and enjoy some other incentives such as annual leaves and medical assistance, while workers in the temporary employment do not enjoy such

incentives and yet, do the same work and spend the same working hours on their jobs as the permanent workers. The theory argues that, the sector of the labour market in which an individual is employed directly influences his/her taste, behavioural pattern and cognitive ability.

Also, given that the casual workers are rational beings and channel their intentions to better use of their labour power, the rational choice theory is therefore relevant to this study. The rational choice theory focuses on the actors and in this case casual workers. The casual workers in the construction industry are said to be rational, purposive and have ends or goals which are to be achieved, having taken into cognizance their preference and scarcity of resources. The casual workers have to deal with the choice of whether to remain unemployed or to take up job as casual workers in the construction industry, having taken into consideration the rate of unemployment in the country.

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2.11 Conceptual Framework



Source: Field Survey, 2013

FIGURE 1: Showing the relationship between the labour market segmentation theory, rational choice theory and casual workers working conditions.

The relationship of both theories as presented in the conceptual framework (in Figure 1), shows that as a result of the intensification of globalization the labour market segmentation economic principle was adopted by most construction firms. This economic principle brought about changes in the economic policy of the firms. Changes such as employment flexibility (the freedom to determine employment levels quickly and cheaply; wage flexibility (the freedom to alter wage level without restraint); functional flexibility (the freedom to alter work processes, terms and conditions of employment); and technological innovation.

The imposition of labour market segmentation (LMS) principle brought about the segmentation of the market into primary and secondary sectors, which further means that a casual workers will have to make a choice of whether to remain unemployed or work as casual-the decision will be made after considering his/her set goals, how to attained such goals, the nature of sure goals and the pursuit of such goals. Also, the medium by which a casual worker is employed will determine the incentives enjoyed by the worker. The choices made by the casual worker in terms of his/her goals will have effects on the type of coping strategies employed by the casual workers in order to cope with the various challenges faced by the casual worker.

In practical terms, the effects of labour segmentation principle on a casual worker are that firstly, it placing new-labour market entrants at a very much weaker position *vis-à-vis* their employers. Lower skills profiles place employees in a very much weaker bargaining position. Secondly, the destruction of large areas of industry in the face of intense overseas competition and wholesale job cuts has greatly reduced the pool of potential union members. The resultant rises in unemployment weaken the bargaining position of those in jobs. Finally, the emasculation of the ministry of labour and productivity has resulted in an inability to enforce labour laws effectively in the construction firms.

In the field of industrial relations, states seek to regulate both the conditions under which labour power is sold, and how it is used as well as the physical environment. Physical environment affect how employees in an organization interact, perform tasks, and are led. Physical environment as an aspect of the work environment have directly affected the human sense and subtly changed interpersonal interactions and thus productivity (Ajala, 2012). This is so because the characteristics of work place for group workers have consequences regarding their productivity and satisfaction level. This encompasses interventions such as social security, which would guarantee basic living standards, so that the supply of labour power is not totally dependent on the market.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preamble

This section of the study analyses the principles and procedures by which the study was carried out, so that another researcher who is interested to replicate the study could do so. This procedure intends to bridge the gap between the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study. Therefore, this section covers the brief background of the study area, study organization, study population, sampling procedure, methods of data collection and method of data analysis.

3.2 Research design

The design was survey and the study was descriptive in nature, combining both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The adoption of both methods for this study was to enable the researcher tap the advantages of both and to use the strength of one to support the weakness of the other.

3.3 Brief background of the study area

As earlier indicated, the study was conducted in Lagos, Nigeria. Lagos State was created on May 27, 1967 by virtue of State (Creation and Transitional Provisions) Decree No. 14 of 1967, which restructured Nigeria's federation into 12 states. Prior to this, Lagos Municipality had been administered by the Federal Government through the Federal Ministry of Lagos Affairs as the regional authority, while the Lagos City Council (LCC) governed the City of Lagos. Equally, the metropolitan areas (Colony Province) of Ikeja, Agege, Mushin, Ikorodu, Epe and Badagry were administered by the Western Region. The state took off as an administrative entity on April 11, 1968, with Lagos Island serving the dual role of being the State and Federal Capital. However, with the creation of the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja in 1976, Lagos ceased to be the capital of the State, which was moved to Ikeja. Equally, with the formal relocation of the seat of the Federal Government to Abuja on 12th December, 1991, Lagos ceased to be Nigeria's political capital.

The state is located in the south-western part of Nigeria on the narrow coastal plain of the Bight of Benin. It lies appropriately on long. 20° 42'E and 3° 22 East respectively and between Latitude 60° 22 N and 60° N2 N. It is bounded in the North and East by Ogun State of Nigeria, in the West by the Republic of Benin, and stretches over 180 kilometres along the Guinea Coast of the Bight of Benin on the Atlantic Ocean.

Lagos State encompasses an area of 358,861 hectares or 3,577sq.km. Although Lagos State is the smallest state in Nigeria, yet it has the highest population, which is over five percent of the national estimate. According to the 2006 Census records, the state has a population of 9,013,534 out of a national estimate of 146,255,312. However, based on a UN study and the State Regional Master Plan, the state is estimated to have above 12 million inhabitants. Out of this population, Lagos metropolitan area is occupied by over 85 percent of state population on an area that is 37 percent of the land area of Lagos State (Lagos State Ministry of Information and Strategy, 2011).

3.4 Selected Organizations

The Federation of Construction Industry is currently made up of firms engaged in road construction works, building construction, railway construction, bridge and foundation construction, shore protection work, borehole engineering work, drainage and dredging works as well as furniture and wood works. There is only one umbrella controlling all the firms engaged in construction works in Nigeria. All the firms engaged in any form of construction work in Nigeria are members of construction industry (no matter the size). Even though the small, the medium and the large construction firms in the country belong to the same industry, the size of a company's business usually determines its grade in the industry (NIPC, 2012). Generally, ministry of industry grades all companies in Nigeria into four different categories such as micro enterprise, small-scale enterprise, medium scale enterprise and large-scale enterprise:

1. Micro enterprise: Any enterprise whose capital investment excluding cost of land is not more than N10 million and/or with a work force of not more than 30 full time workers and/or a turnover of not more than N2 million belongs to this category.
2. Small scale enterprise: This is made up of any enterprise whose capital investment excluding cost of land is between N10 million and N100 million and/or with a work force of between 31 and 70 full time workers and/or with a turnover of not more than N10 million.
3. Medium scale enterprise: An enterprise whose capital investment excluding the cost of land is between N100 million and N300 million and/or with a work force of between 71 and 200 full time workers and/or with a turnover of not more than N20 million is a member of this group.

4. Large scale enterprise: This is a firm whose capital investment excluding the cost of land is above N300 million and with more than 200 full time employees, and/or with a turnover ranging from 20million to billions of naira.

Lagos State, being the commercial nerve centre of Nigeria, houses a lot of construction firms. Lagos State was, therefore, purposively selected because of the high concentration of construction firms in the state. Using such criteria as length of involvement in the sector; national visibility, number of permanent workers, average number of contracts per annum and capacity measured by possession of equipment, technical know-how and networking (NIPC, 2012), the following firms were selected using a scale of 10 in terms of capacity.

Table 3.4.1: Distribution of selected Firms by scale and capacity

FIRMS	SCALE	CAPACITY
JULIUS NIGERIA BERGER PLC	Large	8 Point
CCECC LIMITED	Medium	6 Point
PLYCON NIGERIA LIMITED	Small	4 point

Source: (NIPC, 2012)

The choice of the construction firms is a product of the fact that the major firms in this sector are multinational concerns or foreign firms and are likely to have casual workers. Thus, one should expect to see the impact of casualization on casual workers as they are either expectedly run on dictates of their headquarters or on some global template. In addition to the multinational firms, one indigenous construction firm was selected in order to achieve some form of balance in opinion and establish validity.

Julius Berger Nigeria Plc (JBN). is a subsidiary of Bilfinger Berger. It is a German construction firm managed by a team of Nigerian and German experts. It is made up of qualified and well- trained labour force. The Board of Directors consists of three Germans and six Nigerians. It was incorporated in 1890 as a construction company in Germany. In August 1965, its first contract in Nigeria was the construction of the Eko Bridge, Lagos. In 1970, Julius Berger Nigeria limited became incorporated and carries out complex and diverse projects nationwide (JBN, 2013).

China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation Nigeria Limited (CCECC) provides construction and engineering services. CCECC Nigeria Limited operates as a subsidiary of China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation. CCECC Nigeria Limited entered Nigeria's construction market in the 1980s. This is the biggest Chinese construction firm in Nigeria. It had 56 projects underway across the country as at the time of this study, including road and railway construction (CCECC, 2013).

Plycon Nigeria Limited is an indigenous civil engineering and building construction firm which was established in 2003 in Lagos, Nigeria. Plycon Nigeria Limited has as part of its expertise a wide range of civil engineers, project management, design and build, highway construction, site infrastructure and general construction services for both the private and public sectors.

3.5 Study population

According to Ngechu (2004), a population is a well-defined or set of people, services, elements, events, group of things or households that are being investigated. In order to gather the information required, the study targeted workers employed as casuals, the management staff in the selected construction firms (representing management); middle cadre workers (representing supervisors and foremen in the selected firms); officials of the National Union of Construction Workers (NUCW) (workers representatives) and Ministry of Labour and Productivity in Nigeria.

3.6 Sample size and sampling techniques

Sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a subset of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole population, especially for the purposes of making predictions based on statistical inference (Yin, 1994). According to Kothari (2004), sampling methods can be classified into two: probability and non-probability sampling methods. A probability sampling scheme is one in which every unit in the population has a chance (greater than zero) of being selected in the sample, and this probability can be accurately determined. On the other hand, non-probability sampling is any sampling method where the probability of selection cannot be accurately determined. It involves the selection of elements based on assumptions regarding the population of interest, which forms the criteria for selection (Kothari, 2004). In this research work the researcher studied the above three firms engaged in road construction in Lagos, Nigeria. The respondents chosen were purposively selected using the staff records at the personnel office. Records from the administrative and personnel departments of the firms showed that Julius Berger Nigeria Plc (JBN). in Lagos had staff strength of 694 casual workers on all sites, China Civil Engineering Construction Nigeria Limited (CCECC) had at 346 casual workers on all sites; while Plycon Nigeria Limited (PNL) had at 60 casual workers on all sites as at January 2012.

Using Mason (1978) formula for sample size, the following calculation was used for the research, while emphasizing 99% as the minimum value of 'z'.

$$n = \frac{z^2 p (1-p)}{e^2}$$

n= sample size; z= level of confidence; p= proportion of target population (i.e. Casual workers); e= permitted error

e= 0.02 constant; z= 1.96 at 95% confidence interval or 1.64 at 90% confidence interval;

p= Target population of Casual workers in the selected construction firms

Total population (both casuals and regular workers) in the selected construction firms
 $= \frac{1100}{4475} = 0.2$

Hence, calculating at 90% confidence level: $\frac{1.64^2 * 0.2 (1-0.2)}{0.02^2} = 1076$.

The approximate sample size used for the study was 1076. The distribution of the sample size was based on the proportion of casual workers in each of the selected construction firms; hence, the distribution of selected sample of 679 for Julius Berger Nigeria Plc, 338 for CCECC and 59 for Plycon Nigeria Limited, respectively.

The research was carried out on five (5) project sites of Julius Nigeria Berger Plc. underway across Lagos (Apapa, Mile2/Mazamaza, Orile/Coker, Lekki/Aja, and Ikorodu expressway); for China Civil Engineering Construction Corporation (CCECC), it was four (4) project sites (Apple Junction/ Ago Palace Way, LASU/Iba Road, Cele/Itire Flyover Bridge and Orile/Coker railway construction site); and, for Plycon Nigeria Limited; eight (8) project sites were underway across Lagos (Sanya and Brown Road, Adetola and Idowu Odunuga Road, Akanbi Alimi, Olatunde Onimole, Adebola Ojumu Streets in the Surulere Local Government Area of Lagos, Isaac John and Joel Ogunnaike Roads in Ikeja) were visited.

For the in-depth interview (IDI), twenty-nine (29) members of staff were purposively selected for interview from the selected construction firms, 2 members of staff from the Federal Ministry of Labour were also selected, as shown below:

Table 3.6.1: Distribution of Firms by Cadres selected for study

FIRMS	MANAGEMENT CADRE	SUPERVISOR/ FOREMAN CADRE	WORKERS' UNION CADRE	TOTAL
JBN PLC	3	3	3	9
CCECC	3	3	3	9
PNL	3	3	3	9
FML	2	-	-	2
TOTAL	11	9	9	29

Source: Field survey (2013)

For the case study analyses, six (6) individuals were purposively studied from the selected construction firms. In order to have a gender spread, three of the six individuals were females' casual workers, as shown below:

Table 3.6.2: Distribution of Firms by gender selected for study

FIRMS	GENDER	OPTION
JBN	MALE	1
	FEMALE	1
CCECC	MALE	1
	FEMALE	1
PNL	MALE	1
	FEMALE	1
TOTAL	-	6

Source: Field survey (2013)

3.7 Instruments of data collection

The choice of the tool and instrument for this study was depended mainly on the attributes of the subjects, research topic, problem question, objectives, design, expected data and results. This is because each tool and instrument collects specific data (Ngechu, 2004). The primary data was information gathered directly from respondents and for this study the Researcher used a questionnaire. The secondary data involved the collection and analysis of published materials and information from other sources, such as annual reports and published data. Cooper and Schindler (2003) observe that secondary data is a useful qualitative technique for evaluating historical or contemporary confidential or public records, reports, government documents and opinions.

In this research, the primary data was collected through administration of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into various sections to adequately cover the objectives of the study. It further consisted of open-ended, structured and unstructured questions. The structured questions provided a set of answers from which the respondents chose the appropriate answers. The unstructured ones provided freedom while responding to the subject matter.

Bryman and Bell (2003) assert that a self-administered questionnaire is the only way to elicit self-report on people's opinion, attitudes, beliefs and values. In order to fully meet the objectives of the study, the primary data gathered was supplemented by secondary data from journals, firms' website and newspapers. Both the quantitative and qualitative instruments of data collection were utilized. The researcher administered the questionnaire individually to all respondents of the study. The researcher exercised care and control to ensure that all copies of the questionnaire issued to the respondents were received and achieved the desired response by maintaining a register of questionnaire, which were sent and received.

The questionnaire was administered using a drop-and-pick-later method. The answered copies of the questionnaire were picked after a week on average. The researcher used a combination of instruments for the purpose of primary data collection, namely questionnaire, IDI (in-depth interview) and case study analysis.

A structured questionnaire was used with five sections. Section A was structured to elicit information on socio-demographic characteristics, section B, on mode of recruitment (direct or indirect), section C, on perception about working conditions (wages, job security, safety at work, overtime bonus, relationship with supervisor and medical assistance), section D, on challenges of work and section E, on coping strategies adopted by the casual workers. Twenty-nine in-depth interviews were conducted using a well-structured in-depth interview guide, with casual workers (18), management staff (9) and officials of Ministry of Labour and Productivity (2) to ascertain the extent of compliance with regulations on recruitment and treatment of CWs. Six case studies were conducted with CWs. With three of the six individuals being females' casual workers in order to have a gender spread.

3.8 Validity and reliability of research instrument

The researcher carried out a pilot study to enhance the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. According to Somekh and Cathy (2005), validity is the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content the test is designed to measure. Content validity employed by this study is a measure of the degree to which the data collected using a particular instrument represents a specific domain or content of a particular concept. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) contend that the usual procedure in assessing the content validity of a measure is to use a professional or expert in a particular field. Hence, to establish the validity of the research instrument, the researcher sought opinions of the supervisor of the study.

This facilitated the necessary revision and modification of the research instrument thereby enhancing validity. According to Walliman (2001), reliability refers to the consistency of measurement and is frequently assessed using the test-retest reliability method. Reliability is increased by including many similar items on a measure, by testing a diverse sample of individuals and by using uniform testing procedures. The researcher selected a pilot group of 6 casual workers to test the reliability of the research instrument. This was achieved by first stratifying the individuals according to the nature of their employment status. The researcher also put into consideration gender equity of the individuals.

The pilot data was not included in the actual study. The pilot study allowed for pre-testing of the research instrument. The clarity of the instrument items to the respondents was established so as to enhance the instrument's validity and reliability. The pilot study enabled the researcher to be familiar with the research and its administration procedure and identify items that required modification. The result helped the researcher to correct inconsistencies arising from the instruments, which ensured that they measured what was intended.

3.9 Method of data analysis

The data collected from the field were analysed using a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods. In analysing the quantitative data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15.0 was used. The use of statistical tools, such as frequency counts, percentages and chi-square test was applied. In other words, the analysis involved univariate and bivariate analysis. While the former is mainly descriptive, the latter involves cross-tabulation to establish association between variables. Data from the in-depth interview were transcribed and analysed using content analysis with appropriate computer application software. Some aspects of the in-depth interviews were quoted verbatim to bring out the essential points.

3.10 Ethical consideration

The researcher was quite mindful of the sensitive nature of this study. Some ethical issues with regard to the people involved were considered. The rights, dignity, integrity and safety of the respondents of the research were protected. Respondents were duly informed that the study was strictly for academic purpose and not to pry into private issues, beliefs or political conviction of any individual. Consequently, respondents had the freedom to participate or not to participate. Permission was sought from personnel and administration Departments of the Head Offices of the construction firms while at the branch offices, consent letters were also collected from each of the managers. This was aimed at certifying that the managements of the construction firms are aware of the study and voluntarily agreed to the use of their construction firms. The researcher excluded any variable that may identify the individuals involved. All the data generated and audio tapes were kept where no member of the public had access to them.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Preamble

To address the specific objectives of the study, copies of the questionnaire were administered to 1076 casual workers in the selected construction firms, 29 in-depth interviews and 6 case studies were conducted with the management staff in the selected construction firms, namely, Julius Berger Nigeria Plc., CCECC and Plycon Nigeria Limited (representing management); middle cadre workers (representing supervisors and foremen in the selected firms); officials of the National Union of Construction Workers (NUCW) (workers representatives) and members of staff from the Ministry of labour in Nigeria who were purposively selected. Out of the 1076 copies of the questionnaire, 1060 copies were returned, which translates to 98.5% response rate. Out of the 1060 copies returned, 107 copies were not duly completed and so could not be used for analysis. A total of 953 copies which were duly completed, were analysed for this study. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and chi-square test statistics at 5% level of significance, while qualitative data were content analysed.

The result for the study, as presented in table 4.2.1, showed that 79.4% of the casuals were males, while 20.6% were females. This may be due to the fact that men are expected to be breadwinners in the family, Also the type of work done in these firms require working with equipment that are heavy, hence the preference for male over female casuals by the management of the selected firms. This finding supports the existing literature and statistics on male dominance in most firms where casuals are employed (Okafor, 2010). There were more female casual workers who were involved in construction work in Plycon. This may be due to the fact that female casual workers were more involved in menial jobs, such as fetching water, standing in as traffic wardens and health workers on sites. With respect to the ages of the respondents, the majority (53.1%) fell within the age category of 25-31 years, while the least (4.3%) fell within the age category of 39 years and above. This shows that most of the respondents were still at their productive age. However, most respondents at the productive age range were located in Julius Berger, while there was no respondent at 39 years and above in Plycon Limited. Moreover, 42.2% and 51.5% of the casuals were single and married, respectively, and 6.3% were either separated or divorced. This seems to suggest that most casuals were mature in terms of orientation to life, work life balance and family responsibilities.

4.2: Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 4.2.1: Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variables	Firms (F= 556)	Frequency (F= 338)	Frequency (F=59)	Total (F= 953)
Sex	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
Male	432 (77.7%)	298 (88.2%)	27 (45.8%)	757 (79.4%)
Female	124 (22.3%)	40 (11.8%)	32 (54.2%)	196 (20.6%)
Age	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
18-24	105 (18.9%)	70 (20.7%)	10 (17%)	185 (19.4%)
25-31	275 (49.5%)	193 (57.1%)	38 (64.4%)	506 (53.1%)
32-38	138 (24.8%)	72 (21.3%)	11 (18.6%)	221 (23.2%)
39-above	38 (6.8%)	3 (0.9%)	0 (0%)	41 (4.3%)
Marital status	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
Single	210 (37.8%)	163 (48.2%)	29 (49.1%)	402 (42.2%)
Married	319 (57.4%)	148 (43.8%)	24 (40.7%)	491 (51.5%)
Divorced/Separated	27 (4.8%)	27 (8.0%)	6 (10.2%)	60 (6.3%)
Ethnic Group	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
Yoruba	328 (59%)	250 (74%)	46 (77.9%)	624 (65.5%)
Igbo	111 (20%)	39 (11.5%)	5 (8.5%)	155 (16.3%)
Hausa	92 (16.5%)	49 (14.5%)	8 (13.6%)	149 (15.6%)
Others	25 (4.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	25 (2.6%)
Religion	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
Christianity	434 (78.1%)	307 (90.8%)	53 (89.8%)	794 (83.3%)
Islam	122 (21.9%)	31 (9.2%)	6 (10.2%)	159 (16.75)
Educational Qualification	JBN	CCECC	PNL	
Secondary	355 (63.8%)	240 (71.0%)	45 (76.2%)	640 (67.2%)
OND/NCE	90 (16.2%)	47 (13.9%)	9 (15.3%)	146 (15.3%)
BSC/HND	84 (15.1%)	31 (9.2%)	3 (5.1%)	118 (12.45)
Others	27 (4.9%)	20 (5.9%)	2 (3.4%)	49 (5.1%)
Length of Service	JBN	CCECC	PL	
Less than 3 years	305 (54.9%)	199 (58.9%)	34 (57.6%)	538 (56.5%)
3 years and above	251 (45.1%)	139 (41.1%)	25 (42.4%)	415 (43.5%)
Month Income	JBN	CCECC	PLYCON	
Less-than N13,000	6 (1.1%)	18 (5.3%)	3 (5.1%)	27 (2.8%)
N13,001-N16,000	155 (27.9%)	117 (34.6%)	23 (39%)	295 (31%)
N16,001-N18,000	113 (20.3%)	65 (19.2%)	11 (18.6%)	189 (19.8%)
N18,000 and above	282 (50.7%)	138 (40.9%)	22 (37.3%)	442 (46.4%)

Source: Field survey (2013)

Furthermore, majority of the sampled population were Yoruba(65.5%) despite the fact that Lagos State is a cosmopolitan city and a settlement for all ethnic groups in Nigeria. This could be attributed to the fact that it is within their territory these firms were located. However, the Igbo, another dominant and highly-migrant ethnic group in Nigeria, constituted 16.3%; the Hausa constituted 15.6%, while others, like the Ijaw, Edo, Efik and Urhoboconstituted the remaining 2.6%.

In terms of religious affiliation, the casuals were mostly Christians (83.3%) and 16.7% were Muslims. Most of the sampled population were fairly literate, as most of the casuals (67.2%) that cut across the three firms possessed secondary school certificates. Also, very few of the respondents (12.4%) possessed university degrees. This confirms the observations of (Okougbo (2004) and Adenugba (2006) that some casual workers in Nigeria had university degrees and other higher qualifications that would have enabled them to get permanent jobs. This trend in the country could be as a result of the global economic and employment crisis that have continued to threaten the future of workers all over the world, particularly in developing nations, like Nigeria. However, the presence of a large number of casuals without university degrees may have been informed by the type of jobs these workers are doing, which may be considered as menial, and do not require university degrees.

In terms of length of service on the present job, 56.5% of the casuals had spent less than three years on their present job, while (43.5%) had spent three years and above. In relation to this, the result further showed that most casuals 46.4% were earning a monthly income of N18, 000 and above, while the minority (2.8%) earned less than N13, 000. This shows that the salary structure in the construction firms is poor and this may likely be as a result of the construction firms having to cut operational cost, especially salary and allowances of the casual workers, to remain in business. By every standard, this amount is meagre, considering the cost of living in Nigeria.

4.3: Recruitment of casual workers

The mode of entry of a casual worker into an organization may affect the kind of incentive enjoyed by such worker. This section of the study shows the mode of recruitment of the casual workers into the selected construction firm.

Table 4.3.1: Mode of recruitment of casual workers by the firms

MODE OF RECRUITMENT	FIRMS			
	JBN	CCECC	PNL	TOTAL
DIRECT	365(65.6%)	234(69.2%)	39(66.1%)	638(66.9%)
INDIRECT	191(34.4%)	104(30.8%)	20(33.9%)	315(33.1%)
TOTAL	556(100)	338(100)	59(100)	953(100)

Source: Field survey (2013)

The result for the study as presented in Table 4.3.1 showed that most of the respondents (65.6%) from Julius Berger Nigeria Plc were employed directly by the firm, while 34.4% were employed indirectly through outsourcing agencies. Also, 69.2% of the respondents from CCECC were employed directly by the firm, while 30.8% of them were

employed indirectly. Furthermore, 66.1% of the respondents from Plycon Nigeria Limited were employed directly into the firm, while 33.9% were employed indirectly. Generally, 66.9% of the respondents were employed into the firms through a direct mode of recruitment, while 33.1% were recruited by indirect mode of recruitment through outsourcing agencies which they had contact with through adverts in the print and electronic media.

The implication of this pattern of recruitment, is that casual workers who were employed directly by the firm are most likely to have enjoyed some kind of incentives, compared to casual workers who were employed indirectly (using employment agencies). It should also be noted that there are no direct employment letters from the managements of the firms. The letters the casual workers have are from the outsourcing firms. The implication of this is that the construction firms are not indebted to this category of workers in any way, even in death. Because the casual workers are believed to be on contract, there are no entitlements for them from the construction firms.

In contrast, the result showed that all workers on site were treated equally irrespective of their mode of entry into the firms. Probing further in the course of IDIs, the Personnel Manager for Plycon said:

This firm employs some of their workers through a particular medium; through our recruitment agencies which I cannot disclose to you because is our company policy to keep such information secret. All I could tell you is that our workers are treated equally regardless of the mode of entry into the firm **(IDI/Male/Personnel Manager/PNL/2013)**

From the responses above, it is evident that despite the fact that all the selected firms employed most of their casual workers directly, the firms treated all the workers alike. To further buttress this, one respondent from CCECC Limited said:

I am involved and I know what this firm is avoiding. Despite the fact that most of us known as casual staff were on direct employment, our earnings is just a little higher than what others who were employed indirectly take home. I suspect that the firm representatives, who negotiate with the vendors, share a certain percentage of money, while the remnant goes to them. In this way, their overall package is reduced **(IDI/Male/Casual/CCECC/2013)**

This also suggests that casual workers were recruited based on the seasonal nature of construction work in Nigeria and therefore workers were recruited based on the need of their services and the benefits enjoyed by the casual workers was determined by the mode of their recruitment into the firms.

The respondents also opined that they underwent some training, in line with their area of specialization i.e. skills acquired as well as on safety tips. For instance, a casual worker who had been in the employment of CCECC for three years, said:

I was employed all the way from Ibadan, I have work with this Chinese people for three years now and after I was employed I have only undergone some training on my area of specialization, and every Tuesday our safety officer come to give us tips on safety, concerning how to put on our kits and what to do in case of injury etc. **(IDI/Male/Casual/CCECC/2013)**

Also, a casual worker from Julius Berger said:

I have worked for this company for six years now and what I can say is that, it takes time before Berger employs their workers and after you are employed you have to kind of undergo some sort of training on safety. Personally I have undergone series of training on security and safety tips **(IDI/Male/Casual/JBN/2013)**

Furthermore, a casual worker from Plycon Limited, asserted that:

As a casual in the security department, what kind of training do you expect me to undergo, since my job is to protect the company equipment, do you need any training to do that. But for safety, we also join other workers to listen to what the safety officer have to say to us. Despite the fact that we are exposed to danger, the only training if I can remember is on how to use the fire extinguisher that is all to the best of my knowledge **(IDI/Male/Casual/PNL/2013)**

The foregoing suggests that some workers were of the opinion that they did not necessarily need any training after they were recruited to carry out the kind of job they were employed for.

Concerning whether casual employment is saddled with irregularities, such as tipping some officials, paying some agencies or consultants, as well as entering into a contract of giving some percentage of their wages for a certain number of months, the study revealed that most of the casual workers were of the view that they did not enter into any such agreement. This was supported by the response of one of the casual workers from Julius Berger, who said:

Since most casual workers were recruited directly by the firm, there was no need to pay anybody; and even those who were recruited indirectly; I have not heard that they pay money to anybody **(IDI/Female/Casual/JBN/2013)**

On the issue of whether recruitment of workers for casual position by management is guided by internal procedures such as test and interview, the study revealed that most casual workers were of the view that there were no special procedures followed by the management when recruiting casual workers. This was further buttressed by a casual worker from CCECC, who noted that:

The construction firms are always in need of casual workers based on their mode of operation and so there was no need for special mode of recruitment into the firms, such as test, but there is some level of interview **(IDI/Male/Casual/CCECC/2013)**

This shows that the recruitment exercise was not rigorous and did not follow the industrial relations standard of employment since most of the casual workers claimed to have been recruited into the firms through direct mode of recruitment. Recruitment decisions are made through completion of application forms which constitute an important aspect of recruitment, as it enables casual workers to raise specific questions concerning applicants and upon which further recruitment decisions are made. Although the construction firms' personnel needs vary, they reportedly use this method in recruiting all manner of people, ranging from machine operators, security officials, drivers to carpenters. The reason for adopting this type of recruitment pattern is to bring down cost.

Table 4.4.1 below captures the casual workers' perception of their working conditions in the selected construction firms. The result showed that, in terms of wages, 65.4% described it as "good", 28.8% described it as "poor", while 5.8% were undecided. For job security, 58.4% described their condition as "good", 34% described it as "poor", and 7.6% were undecided. The result showed that 31.3% of the respondents described their overtime bonus as "poor", 64.4% described it as "good" while 4.3% were undecided. This implied that majority of the respondents view overtime bonus as one of the major coping strategies against challenges faced at the workplace. In terms of freedom of association, 49.8% described it as good, 37.6% described it as "poor", while 12.6% were undecided on their conditions of work. Also, 33.1% of the respondents' described their present condition of work in terms of paid leave as "good", 31.3% described it as "poor", while 35.6% were undecided to describe their condition of work. Regarding relationship of the respondents with their supervisors, 34.2% described it as "poor", 59.4% described it as "good", while 6.4% were undecided. This means that there were cordial relationship between the casual workers and their supervisor, except for CCECC where 60.9% of the respondents were of the view that their relationship with their supervisors was "poor".

Medical care assistance was jointly perceived by the casual workers in Julius Berger Nigeria Plc, 52.9%; CCECC, 47.0% and Plycon Nigeria Limited, 29.2% as “good”. Respondents from Julius Berger Nigeria Plc, 15.8%; CCECC, 6.0% and Plycon Limited, perceived it as “fair”, while those from Julius Berger, 31.3%; CCECC, 47% and Plycon Nigeria limited, 56.3% perceived it as “poor”. This result was contrary to the observations of Okougbo (2004) and Adegboro (1992) that the working conditions of casual workers in the construction industry were “poor”.

4.4 Casual workers’ perception of working conditions

It is expected that the perception of the respondents will be different, based on their experiences with regards to their working conditions and challenges of work in all the firms at one time or the other. This sub-section shows the casual workers’ view on their working conditions.

Table 4.4.1: Casual workers’ views on working conditions

Firms	JBN	CCECC	PNL	Frequency (%)
As a casual worker, how would you describe your present conditions of work? In relation to the following:				
Wages and salary				
Response	Frequency (F= 556)	Frequency (F=338)	Frequency (F=59)	Total %
Poor	119 (21.4%)	115 (34%)	41 (69.5%)	275 (28.8%)
Good	406 (73%)	202 (59.8%)	15 (25.4%)	623(65.4%)
Undecided	31(5.6%)	21 (6.2%)	3(5.1%)	55(5.8%)
Job security				
Poor	115 (20.7%)	182(53.8%)	27(45.8%)	324(34%)
Good	412 (74.1%)	129(38.2%)	16(27.1%)	557(58.4%)
Undecided	29 (5.2%)	27(8.0%)	16(27.1%)	72(7.6%)
Overtime bonus				
poor	145 (26.1%)	135(39.9%)	18(30.5%)	298(31.3%)
Good	399 (71.7%)	181(53.6%)	34(57.6%)	614(64.4%)
Undecided	12 (2.2%)	22(6.5%)	7(11.9%)	41(4.3%)
Freedom to join work based association				
Poor	142(25.5%)	189(55.9%)	27(45.8%)	358(37.6%)
Good	319(57.4%)	142(42.0%)	14(23.7%)	475(49.85)
Undecided	95(17.1%)	7(2.1%)	18(30.55)	120(12.6%)
Paid leave (annual leave, public holiday, sick leave, etc.)				
Poor	220(39.6%)	66(19.5%)	12(20.3%)	298(31.3%)
Good	167(30.0%)	128(37.9%)	21(35.6%)	316(33.1%)
Undecided	169(30.4%)	144(42.6%)	26(44.1%)	339(35.65)
Relationship with Supervisor				
Poor	113(20.3%)	206(60.9%)	7(11.9%)	326(34.2%)
Good	415(74.6%)	106(31.4%)	45(76.2%)	566(59.4%)
Undecided	28(5.1%)	26(7.7%)	7(11.9%)	61(6.4%)
Considering all the aspects of working condition described above how would you evaluate your Medical assistance				
Poor	189(31.3%)	142(47%)	27(56.3%)	358(37.6%)
Good	319(52.9%)	142(47%)	14(29.2%)	475(49.8%)
Fair	95(15.8%)	18(6.0%)	7(14.5%)	120(12.6%)

Source: Field survey (2013)

In the course of In-depth interview (IDIs) with a management staff from Julius Berger, she described the working conditions of the casual workers as “good”, For instance she said:

We don't consider our workers as casual workers. Every worker is treated well, and that is why we have made impact for the past 43 years. The working hour is between 7am to 4pm. If there is need to work overtime, i.e. during holiday period or work up to 6pm, the worker will be remunerated appropriately
(IDI/Female/Public Relations Manager/JBN/2013)

From the above submission by the manager, it is evident that this manager had put up effort in her attempt to justify the position of her firm, in relation to working conditions of the casual workers. Reaffirming this, a 35-year old casual worker from Julius Berger said:

Our condition of work here in Berger is Ok. We are paid as at when due, at every 27th of every month the alert comes to you. We choose the hospital we want; there is a scheme for casual workers health and children below 18 years enjoy such health benefit and also we have union, Whenever there are issues concerning the workers and management, the first point of call is Personnel Manager, and if the worker is not satisfied, he/she will have to bring the union leaders in
(IDI/Male/Casual/JBN/2013)

The responses above, reveals that most casual workers in these firms considered their working condition as decent and saw themselves as belonging to work-based association or union, since they paid their union dues.

There is a great diversity in labour standards in the selected firms, especially between the multinational construction firms in terms of the kind of incentives offered to workers. Size variation and duration of existence of the firms may determine the kind of incentives and working conditions offered to casual workers. That is, though casualization may be said to have existed in principle, it is limited in practice. The finding here was not consistent with the findings of Hampton, (1988), Buckley and Endewuik, (1989), Hallenbradth and Cannon (1989), Okougbo, (2004), Bhorat and Hinks (2006), Cheadle (2006) and Fapohunda, (2012). They observed that casual workers did not belong to union or work-based associations and considered their working conditions as poor.

Table 4.5.1 below shows that low wages was generally perceived as common challenges faced by casual workers, in JBN 60.2%; CCECC, 66.4% and in PNL 62.6% of the respondents agreed that their wages are low. The finding here was not consistent with the findings of Adegboro (1992), who observed that most casual workers in the construction industry earns low wages. Respondents from JBN, 56.5%; CCECC, 49.8% and PNL, 53.5%,

perceived safety at work as “poor”. Supervision were jointly perceived by the casual workers in JBN, 71.2%, CCECC, 41.7% and PNL, 62.3% not to be rigid, except in CCECC were majority, 58.3% agreed that supervision is rigid.

However, majority of the respondents on the whole, 54.8% were of the view that job insecurity in the firms was not high, except in PNL, were majority of the respondents, 57.5% agreed that job insecurity was high. This implied that workers in most multinational construction firms enjoyed better working conditions in terms of job security. This finding is contrary to the findings of Hampton, (1988), Buckley and Endewuik, (1989), Hallenbradth and Cannon (1989), Okougbo, (2004), Bhorat and Hinks (2006), Cheadle (2006) and Fapohunda, (2012). They observed that one major challenge of casual workers is job insecurity.

This finding also shows that 77.7% of the respondents from Julius Berger Nigeria Plc were of the view that they were subjected to long hours of work; 88.2% of the respondents from CCECC and 45.8% of the respondents from Plycon Nigeria Limited were of the view that they were subjected to long hours of work. The result further revealed that 22.3% of the respondents from Julius Berger; 11.8% from CCECC and 54.2% from Plycon were of the view that they were not subjected to long hours of work. On the whole, 79.4% of the respondents indicated that they were subjected to long hours of work, while 20.6% of were of the view that they were not subjected to long hours of work. This is consistent with the findings of Adepegba (2013), Adegboro (1992), Anugwon (2007) and Idowu (2010), who claim that casual workers are subjected to long hours of work.

In terms of whether casual workers were discriminated against, 78.1% of the respondents from Julius Berger, 90.8% from CCECC and 89.8% from Plycon were of the view that they were discriminated against. On the whole, a total of 83.3% of respondents agreed that they were discriminated against by the management, while, 16.7% were of the view that they were not discriminated against. Furthermore, 21.9% of the respondents from Julius Berger, 9.2% from CCECC and 10.2% from Plycon asserted that they were not discriminated against. The findings also revealed that the majority (80.2%) of the respondents from Julius Berger, 74% from CCECC and 78% of respondents from Plycon indicated that they were exploited. Also, 19.8% respondents from Julius Berger, 26% from CCECC and 22% from the Plycon were of the view that they were exploited by the management.

Altogether, 77.9% of the respondents were of the view that they were exploited by the management of these firms, while 22.1% were of the view that they were not exploited in any way by the management.

4.5 Challenges of work

There are certain challenges faced by all the respondents in the selected construction firms. This sub-section shows the casual workers' views on challenges of work.

Table 4.5.1: Casual workers' views on challenges of work

Statement	Firms			
	JBN (F=5560)	CCECC (F=338)	PNL (F=59)	Total (F=953)
Casual workers wages are low				
Yes	335 (60.2%)	224 (66.4%)	37 (62.3%)	596 (62.6%)
No	221 (39.8%)	114 (33.6%)	22 (37.7%)	357 (37.4%)
Casual workers safety at work is low				
Yes	314 (56.5%)	168 (49.8%)	28 (47.6%)	510 (53.5%)
No	252 (45.5%)	170 (53.2%)	31 (52.4%)	453 (47.5%)
Casual workers supervision at work is rigid				
Yes	160 (28.8%)	197 (58.3%)	22 (37.7%)	379 (39.8%)
No	396 (71.2%)	141 (41.7%)	37 (62.3%)	594 (60.2%)
Job insecurity for casual workers is high				
Yes	239 (42.9%)	158 (46.6%)	34 (57.5%)	431 (45.2%)
No	317 (57.1%)	180 (53.4%)	25 (42.5%)	522 (54.8%)
Casual workers are subjected to long hours of work				
Response	Frequency (F= 556)	Frequency (F=338)	Frequency (F=59)	Total (F=953)
Yes	432(77.7)	298(88.2)	27(45.8)	757(79.4)
No	124(22.3)	40(11.8)	32(54.2)	196(20.6)
Casual workers are discriminated against by the management				
Yes	434(78.1)	307(90.8)	53(89.8)	794(83.3)
No	122(21.9)	31(9.2)	6(10.2)	159(16.7)
Casual workers are exploited by the management				
Yes	446(80.2)	250(74)	46(78)	742(77.9)
No	110(19.8)	88(26)	13(22)	211(22.1)
Casual worker are harassed by the management				
Yes	305(54.9)	199(58.9)	34(57.6)	538(56.5)
No	251(45.1)	139(41.1)	25(42.4)	415(43.5)
Casual workers are prevented from joining work based association				
Yes	449(80.8)	276(81.7)	49(83.1)	774(81.2)
No	107(19.2)	62(18.3)	10(16.9)	179(18.8)
Casual workers are vulnerable to seasonal unemployment				
Yes	385(69.2)	138(40.8)	49(83.1)	555(58.2)
No	171(30.8)	200(59.2)	10(16.9)	398(41.8)
How would you evaluate challenges facing casual workers in your firm				
High	314(56.5)	197(58.3)	37(62.7)	548(57.5)
Moderate	191(34.3)	120(35.5)	21(35.6)	332(34.8)
Low	51(9.2)	21(6.2)	1(1.7)	73(7.7)

Source: Field survey, (2013)

In terms of whether the casual workers were harassed by the management, 54.9% of the respondents from Julius Berger, 58.9% from CCECC and 57.6% of the respondents from Plycon were of the view that they were harassed by the management, while 45.1% from Julius Berger, 41.1% from CCECC, and 42.4% from Plycon were of the view that they were not harassed by the management. In all, 56.5% of the respondents said “yes”, while 43.5% said “no”.

The study also revealed that 80.8% of the respondents from Julius Berger were of the view that they were prevented by the management from joining work-based associations, while 19.2% were of the view that they were not prevented from joining work-based associations. Also, 81.7% of the respondents from CCECC were of the view that they were prevented from joining work-based associations, while 18.3% of the respondents were of the view that they were not prevented from joining work-based association. Similarly, 83.1% of the respondents from Plycon were of the view that they were prevented from joining work-based associations, while 16.9% were of the view that they were not prevented from joining work-based associations. On the whole, 81.2% of the respondents agreed that they were prevented by the management from joining work-based associations or unions, while 18.8% were of the opinion that they were not prevented from joining work-based associations or unions. This is contrary to the response of a male casual worker who worked for CCECC, during an IDI session. He asserted that:

We have union and we pay monthly due of N600.00 to the union, but I see this money as a waste because this people (union leaders) do not come to our rescue whenever any of us have an issue with the management **(IDI/Male/Casual/CCECC/2013)**

Furthermore, a casual worker with Julius Berger said:

We have union, whenever there are issues concerning the workers and management, the first point of call is Personnel Manager, and if the worker is not satisfied, he/she will have to bring the union leader in. Every Tuesday morning, we have our safety tips and the union representative come over to address us concerning our rights **(IDI/Male/Casual/JB/2013)**

From the responses above, it is obvious that most casual workers in these firms considered themselves as belonging to work-based associations or unions, since they paid union dues. The finding here is not consistent with the findings of Bhorat and Hinks(2006), Cheadle(2006), Okougbo(2004), Buckley and Endewuik(1989), Hallenbradth and Cannon (1989) and Hampton (1988). They found that casual workers were not allowed to belong to work-based association or union. Furthermore, 69.2% of respondents from Julius Berger, 40.8% from CCECC, and 83.1% from Plycon were of the view that they were vulnerable to seasonal unemployment, while 30.8% of the respondents from Julius Berger; 59.2% from CCECC, and 16.9% of the respondents form Plycon were of the view that they were vulnerable to seasonal unemployment. Generally, 58.2% of the casual workers indicated that they were vulnerable to seasonal unemployment, while 41.8% of the respondents indicated that they were not vulnerable to seasonal unemployment.

These responses suggest that the casual workers are aware of the seasonal nature of construction work in Nigeria and, since no special medium of employment is necessary, workers are constantly needed and can easily be subjected to long hours of work, discriminated against, harassed, as well as exploited by the management of these firms. Thus, most of these casual workers could be described as transitional workers, who are either working in these firms out of necessity or bidding their time for a better working opportunity in some other companies.

The findings revealed that 56.5% of the respondents from Julius Berger evaluated the challenges they faced as casuals as “high”, 34.3% evaluated them as “moderate”, while 9.2% evaluated them as “low”. Also, 58.3% of the respondents from CCECC rated the challenges they faced as casuals as “high”, 35.5% rated it as “moderate” while 6.2% rated them as “low”. Thus, 57.5% of the respondents evaluated the challenges they faced as casual workers as “high”, 34.8% evaluated them as “moderate”, while 7.7% evaluated them as “low”.

From the responses above, it is clear that the precarious nature of their work as casual workers could lead to economic insecurity for the workers and their families, as observed by Fapohunda (2012). Hence, in the event that a casual worker is responsible for the livelihood of his family, the entire family may be placed at risk. Such precariousness affects a worker’s experience at work, how he/she makes decisions about work and how such he/she relates to the broader labour market. In the course of IDI, with regard to how casual workers would evaluate challenges faced in these firms, a casual worker, who worked with CCECC, said:

I do not see myself working in this Chinese firm beyond next year. The work is too hard for someone like me, and the salary is not encouraging in the present economic situation in this country. This Chinese people are using us as slave in our own country and nobody is doing anything about it. Our government should come and investigate them **(IDI/Male/Casual /CCECC/2013)**

Another casual worker, from Plycon had this to say;

Apart from poor salary, the work is too hard and dangerous. The kind of bus they use as staff bus is not different from what is used to carry chickens in Ketu Market. They don’t treat us as human beings, and they threaten us with sack whenever we complain about the way we are treated. When you look at this my leg, you will see that it’s swelling. I sustained this injury from the field and the only thing they gave me was paracetamol. The only thing that is keeping me in this firm is that the company promised to compensate me. Immediately the month of December comes and I’m compensated, I will look for another construction firm; since I cannot do any other kind of job. May God help me my brother! **(IDI/Male/Casual/PL/2013)**

The implication of this scenario is that, besides the large-scale nonchalant attitude that would be exhibited by the casual workers, it is detrimental to the firms. It also implies that most casual workers in these firms do not see their present work as a lifetime career, but as a “foot in the door” to futuristic activities, and this is most likely to result in a high incidence of labour turnover among the casual workers in these firms, which will invariably have effects on workers’ performance and productivity (Ogunbameru, 2004; Okafor, 2010).

4.6 Coping Strategies

There are disparities in the coping strategies adopted by the casual workers in the selected construction firms. This subsection shows the strategies adopted by the casual workers.

Table 4.6.1: Strategies adopted by casual workers to cope with the challenges of work

Statements	Firms			
	JB	CCECC	Plycon	Frequency (%)
I cut down my cost as much as I can on transportation				
Response	Frequency (F=556)	Frequency (F=338)	Frequency (59)	Total (953)
Yes	348(62.6%)	203(60.1%)	34(57.6%)	585(61.4%)
No	208(37.4%)	135(39.9%)	25(42.4%)	368(38.6%)
I work overtime to meet my needs				
Yes	302(54.3%)	189(55.9%)	37(62.7%)	528(55.4%)
No	254(45.7%)	149(44.1%)	22(37.3%)	425(44.6%)
We gossip about management during break time				
Yes	312 (56.1%)	121 (35.7%)	25 (41.6%)	458 (48.1%)
No	244 (43.9%)	217 (64.3%)	34 (58.4%)	495 (51.9%)
We depend on mutual aid and support				
Yes	238 (42.8%)	203 (60.1%)	27 (45.7%)	468 (49.1%)
No	318 (57.2%)	135 (39.9%)	32 (54.3%)	485 (50.9%)
I do other jobs after my closing hour				
Yes	212 (38.2%)	147 (43.6%)	34 (57.3%)	393(41.2%)
No	344 (61.8%)	191 (56.4%)	25 (42.7%)	560 (58.8%)
I attend weekend classes in order to further my education				
Yes	140(25.2%)	58(17.2%)	11(18.6%)	209(21.9%)
No	416(74.8%)	280(82.8%)	48(81.4%)	744(78.1%)
In all, how would you evaluate your coping strategies				
Good	385(69.2%)	138(40.8%)	32(54.2%)	555(58.2%)
Poor	171(30.8%)	200(59.2%)	27(45.8%)	398(41.8%)

Source: Field survey (2013)

Table 4.6.1 presents the perceived level of casual workers coping strategies. The result showed that 61.4% of the respondents that cut across the three firms were of the opinion that they cut down cost on transportation as much as they could in order to meet some of their needs, while 38.6% of them were of the opinion that they did not cut down cost on transportation. On whether the casual workers work overtime to meet their needs, 55.4% of them said “yes”, while 44.6% indicated that they did not work overtime.

This implies that the whole duration of time spent on site working also accommodates overtime, that is, two hours of the workers' working hours is regarded by the management as overtime and the workers are remunerated accordingly. This was corroborated by the Personnel Manager in CCECC during an IDI session. According to him;

There is overtime and the company pays any worker who decides to work overtime, though it will be difficult for the workers to differentiate their normal working hour from that of overtime, since the general working hours for every worker to live the site with the staff bus is 6.00 pm. The normal closing hour is 4.00pm, while 2 hours is for overtime. The only place where overtime could be differentiated is weekends and public holidays, and any worker who decides to come to work is welcome and the company will pay for such hours spent on site (IDI/Male/PM/CCECC/2013)

The finding further shows that 56.1% of the casual workers in JBN, 35.7% in CCECC, and 41.6% in PNL agreed that they gossip about their management during break hour as part of their coping strategies, while 43.9% of casual workers in JBN, 64.3% in CCECC and 58.4% in PNL were of the view that they did not gossip about their management during break hour. A careful observation shows that majority of casual workers in JBN claimed to gossip about their management as compared to casual workers in CCECC. This may be as a result of flexibility in supervision by the management of JBN. For PNL, is not the same, since most of casual workers, 62.3% were of the view that supervision was less rigid in the firm and so, reason for gossiping about their management could be as a result of low paid wages. In other words, though majority of the casual workers tends to agree on low paid wages, they differ in terms of style of supervision by the management.

In terms of whether casual workers depend on mutual aid and support as part of their coping strategies, 42.8% in JBN, 60.1% in CCECC and 45.7% of the casual workers from PNL, were of the view that they indeed depend on mutual aid and support, while 57.2% of the casual workers in JBN, 39.9% in CCECC and 54.3% in PNL were of the view that they did not depend on mutual aid and support as part of their coping strategies. The finding shows that majority of the respondents in CCECC, 60.1% who claimed to have depended on mutual aid and support, did so, due to the low paid wages by the management of the firm when compared with other firms as earlier showed in table 4.5 above.

The finding also revealed that 41.2% of the casual workers did other jobs after closing hour, while 58.8% of them indicated that they did not do other jobs after closing hour. Most casual workers in PNL, 57.3% were of view that they did other jobs after closing hour.

This confirms the observation of Okafor (1998), that multiple job holding has always been a feature of most Nigerian workers, especially in the 1980s and 1990s when the cost of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was more evident in Nigeria. This suggests that JBN, 61.8% and CCECC, 56.4% had better working hours for the casual workers than PNL. This may also be attributed largely to their size variation and duration of existence of the firms and the kind of incentives offered by the firm, which most of the casual workers described as good. This aspect of work was probed further in the course of IDIs. A 25-year old female casual worker, who had been working in the Transport Department of Julius Berger for two years, said:

I do not do other jobs after my closing hour, with the kind of job that I'm doing. After getting home I have no time to do some other things **(IDI/Female/Casual/JBN/2013)**

To buttress the experiences of casual workers in her construction firms, the Public Relations Manager of Julius Berger Nigeria Plc. averred that:

Overtime wages are paid to workers who take part. Our working hours is 7am to 4pm, while 2 hour, that is, between 4pm to 6pm is said to be for overtime, the wages paid for workers are paid depending on status. In case there is conflict between management and the workers, the Personnel Department takes care of workers issues **(IDI/Female/Manager/JBN/2013)**

These responses, suggest that the mode of reward by the firms determines whether or not the casual workers would be involved in overtime work as well as how they felt about their commitment toward the firms. With regard to whether casual workers attended weekend classes in order to further their education, 21.9% said "yes", while 78.1% indicated "no". This means that the casual workers did not see the need for further educational qualification, since the kind of job they are engaged in may be considered as menial, which may not require higher educational qualification. This is contrary to the view of Adenugba (2006), that most casual workers possess better qualification that would have earned them permanent job.

In the course of in-depth interviews (IDIs) with some casual workers, most of the respondents argued that they had some level of education, in line with their area of specialization. For instance, a casual worker who had been in the employment of Plycon for three years, said:

As a casual in the security department, what kind of education do you expect me to have, since my job is to protect the company equipment. Do you need any training to do that? But for safety, we also join other workers to listen to what the safety officer has to say to us, despite the fact that we are exposed to danger **(IDI/Male/Casual/PL/2013)**

This suggests that casuals are recruited and trained based on their already acquired skills, and that the type of job these workers do, may be considered as menial. This corroborates Okafor (2010), who notes that the type of work done in these firms where casual workers are employed requires physical strength, demands energy and is often dangerous. Furthermore, the study revealed that 58.2% of the respondents noted that their coping strategies generally were “good”, while 41.8% noted that their coping strategies were “poor”. This suggests that these coping strategies adopted by the casual workers have brought about better deployment and development of their labour power, as observed by Hall (2002).

4.7 Management and labour law on recruitment of casual worker

The subsection shows the casual workers’ reaction towards management adherence to regulations guiding the recruitment of casual workers.

Table 4.7.1: Casual workers’ reaction towards management adherence to regulations guiding the recruitment of casual workers

Response	Firm (JB)	Firm (CCECC)	Firm Plycon	Frequency %
Whether the Management are aware of the regulations guiding hiring of casual workers in Nigeria?				
Response	Frequency (F=556)	Frequency (F=338)	Frequency (59)	Total (953)
No	541 (97.3)	331 (97.9)	48 (81.4)	920 (96.5)
Yes	6 (1.1)	4 (1.2)	7 (11.9)	17 (1.8)
Undecided	9 (1.6)	3 (0.9)	4 (6.7)	16 (1.7)
Are there reforms put in place by Management to address the issue of casual employment in the construction firms?				
No	544 (97.8)	336 (99.4)	46 (77.9)	926 (97.2)
Yes	4 (0.7)	2 (0.6)	1 (1.8)	7 (0.73)
Undecided	8 (1.5)	0 (0)	12 (20.3)	20 (2.07)
What is the position of the management towards labour law, with regards to hiring of casual workers in construction firms in Nigeria?				
Poor	554 (99.6)	285 (84.3)	53 (89.8)	892 (93.6)
Good	2 (0.4)	4 (1.2)	1 (1.7)	7 (0.7)
Undecided	0 (0)	49 (14.5)	5 (8.5)	54 (5.7)
Do the Management engage employment agencies in the employment of casual workers?				
No	489 (87.9)	330 (97.6)	32 (54.2)	851 (89.3)
Yes	9 (1.6)	8 (2.4)	4 (6.8)	21 (2.2)
Undecided	58 (10.5)	0 (0)	23 (39)	81 (8.5)
Do you think this firm is governed by well-defined International Labour Organization (ILO) employment procedures?				
No	522 (93.9)	333 (98.5)	39 (66.1)	894 (93.8)
Yes	30 (5.4)	5 (1.5)	4 (6.8)	39 (4.1)
Undecided	4 (0.7)	0 (0)	16 (27.1)	20 (2.1)
Are Managers bothered on the legal implications of using casual workers in this firm?				
No	543 (97.7)	338 (100)	46 (77.9)	927 (97.3)
Yes	13 (2.3)	0 (0)	9 (15.3)	22 (2.3)
Undecided	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (6.8)	4 (0.4)
Are Working Kits, Helmet and Medical services readily available and are there free training on safety provided?				
No	50 (9.0)	20 (5.9)	26 (44.1)	96 (10.1)
Yes	500 (89.9)	250 (74)	23 (39)	773 (81.1)
Undecided	6 (1.1)	68 (20.1)	10 (16.90)	84 (8.8)
In all how would you evaluate the extent to which your firm have been complying with regulations guiding hiring of casual workers?				
High	420 (75.5)	138 (40.8)	32 (54.2)	590 (61.9)
Moderate	120 (21.6)	113 (33.4)	23 (39.1)	256 (26.9)
Low	16 (2.9)	87 (25.8)	4 (6.7)	107 (11.2)

Source: Field survey (2013)

The table 4.7.1 above shows that majority (96.5%) of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers in Nigeria; 1.8% indicated that they were aware of them, and 1.7% were undecided. This suggests that the casual workers were not aware of their rights concerning recruitment and so could not, by any mean, determine what their conditions of service should be.

A 28 year old female casual who worked for Plycon Limited buttressed this finding during an IDI session. She averred that;

Sincerely I have not heard about any regulation concerning hiring of worker. All I know is that I was unemployed and I came here for a job and they offer me the job of a time keeper. They also told me how much I will be paid, when to resume duty and when to close for the day (**IDI/Female/casual/PL/2013**)

The implication of this is that the casual workers were not aware of the regulations guiding recruitment of workers, so, were not in a better position to bargain for better conditions of work. This is corroborated by the fact that, a total of 97.2% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of any reform put in place by the management to address the issue of casual employment in the firm, while only 0.73% indicated otherwise. Furthermore, most of the respondents, 93.6% described the management position toward the application of labour law during recruitment of casual workers as “poor”; while 0.7% described it as “good”. On whether the firms used employment agencies for workers recruitment, 89.3% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware, while 2.2% indicated that the firms used employment agencies only for recruitment of management staff.

The respondents were also asked if the firm is governed by the International Labour Organization (ILO) employment procedures which took effect in 1998 and state that: “Every individual shall have the right to work under equitable and satisfactory conditions and shall receive equal pay for equal work”. The study revealed that 93.8 % of the respondents were of the opinion that the firms did not support the International Labour Organization (ILO) recruitment procedures, while 4.1% thought otherwise. This is in line with the opinion of 96.5% of the respondents who indicated that they were not aware of regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers in Nigeria. This implies that the respondents were not able to differentiate between the International Labour Organization (ILO) recruitment procedure and that of regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers in Nigeria, which enjoin the state parties to ensure that its citizens have the right to work, and are entitled to equal pay for equal work, that there should not be any form of discrimination in employment between permanent and casual workers.

In addition, 97.3% of the respondents were of the view that the management did not see adoption and application of ILO employment procedures as compulsory and therefore were not bothered by the legal implication of using casual workers in their firms, while only 2.3% indicated otherwise.

Also, the study revealed 81.1% of the respondents indicated that management makes provision for better medical assistance and safety standard, 10.1% were of the view that medical assistance were not readily available, while 8.8% were undecided. The implication of this is that most of these casual workers could be described as working in a safe and hygienic environment. This contradicts Okougbo (2004), who argues that some casual workers in Nigeria work under the conditions that are not safe and hygienic.

The finding revealed that 61.9% of the respondents were of the opinion that the management of the firms comply with the regulations guiding recruitment of casual workers, so they rated them “High”, 26.9% rated the management “moderate”; while 11.2% rated them “low”. This is further supported by the opinion of one of the management staff, who asserted that;

The ILO standard is adhered to in this firm. We are careful not to violate the labour law by the way we engaged the service of our workers, if a worker is employed, the conditions of work are spelt out in their letter of contract. We use casuals because of the nature of our job. As an indigenous firm, I can tell you that we are doing better than those foreign firms in terms of conditions of work for casual workers. We usually have visitors from the Ministry of Labour, who visit from time to time; we are also on our toes in terms of decent standard of work. We have to sometime instil discipline into the workers in order to achieve our aim. These sometime do not go down well with the casual workers. The management will continue to do it best to improve the workers working conditions **(IDI/ Male/Manager/PL/2013)**

Reacting to this, a union representative from Julius Berger said:

The union usually engages the management and it has successfully got the management to build clinics on all sites which offers first aid to injured workers **(IDI/ Male/Union Member/JBN/2013)**

Therefore, it is evident that most construction firms need to work together with the workers’ representatives to seek ways to regularize casual workers’ employment. In regularizing their employment, the rates to be paid will be in accordance with the prevailing procedural and substantive collective agreements. This will protect the rights of the workers.

4.8 Test of hypotheses

Socio-demographic factors affecting casual workers' working conditions

An analysis of the socio-demographic attributes of the casual workers vis-a-vis working conditions is presented in Table 4.8.1.

H₁ There is significant relationship between socio-demographic attributes of the casual workers and workers perceptions on working conditions

H₀ There is no significant relationship between socio-demographic attributes of the casual workers and workers perceptions on working conditions

Table 4.8.1: Chi-Square analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and perception on working conditions

Variables	Chi-Square	Df	P-value
Sex	7.784	2	0.000
Age Group	410.2	6	0.000
Marital Status	261.3	4	0.000
Ethnic Group	191.8	6	0.000
Religion	72.3	2	0.000
Education	184.3	6	0.000
Length in Service	88.6	2	0.000
Monthly income	431.1	6	0.000

Source: Field Survey (2013)

As seen in Table 4.8.1 above, a calculated p-value of 0.000 ($P > 0.05$), which is less than 0.05, confirms that there is a significant relationship between sex of the casual workers and their working conditions. The result revealed that the sex of the respondents involved in this research will determine whether or not they will seek better working conditions as casual workers in the selected construction firms. This is buttressed by this study, as 79.4% of the respondents were male. Okafor (2010), in his study of casual workers in Asian firms in Lagos State, notes that most of the populations were male. This may be due to the fact that men are expected to be breadwinners in the family or it may be that the types of work done in these firms require special skills.

Also, with a calculated p-value of 0.000 ($P > 0.05$), it is clear that there exist a strong relationship between the age group of the respondents and their working conditions. The casual workers' marital status has a lot to do with whether or not they will seek for better working conditions. The calculated p-value of 0.000, which is less than 0.05, confirms that there is a significant relationship between the marital status of the respondents and their working conditions. This is further buttressed by this study as the majorities (51.5%) of the respondents were married men and women.

The findings also revealed that there is significant relationship between ethnic background of the respondents and their working conditions. A total of 65.5% of the respondents were Yoruba. This implies that the location of the firms has a significant relationship with the chance of gaining employment. The firms were located within the territory of the Yoruba speaking ethnic group; this may determine how they will view their working conditions.

Considering the fact that all the respondents were adherents of one faith or the other (83.3% Christians and 16.7% Muslims), one would expect that religion would play a role in determining the respondents' desire for a better working conditions or otherwise. The analysis of the interaction between the respondents' religion and their working conditions ($\chi^2 = 72.3$, $df = 2$ and $p = 0.000$) showed that there was significant relationship between the two. Their religion ($P > 0.05$) influenced whether or not they will seek a better working conditions.

The finding indicates that religion, though a super-structure in Nigerian cultural environment is emphasized as a strong factor in determining the choice whether to seek better working conditions or not. The educational qualification of the respondents was impressive; this was expected to influence the choice of seeking better working conditions. The analysis did not point to the contrary. The interaction of the respondents' level of education and their choice of working conditions yielded a p-value of 0.000, less than 0.05. The existing literature reveals that some casual workers in Nigeria had University degrees and other higher qualifications that would have enabled them to get a permanent job (Okougbo, 2004; Adenugba, 2006). In the opinion of this researcher, it is not the general education, but specific specialized skills, that plays significant role in obtaining a job in the construction firms with decent working conditions. Most of the respondents (56.5%) had spent less than three years on their job, while 43.5% had spent three years and above. Against this background, the length of service of the respondents would have been expected to impinge their choice for a better working conditions given the peculiar nature of the construction sector, but the analysis was not to the contrary ($\chi^2 = 88.6$, $df = 2$ and $p = 0.531$).

With a p-value of 0.000, the respondents' length of service on their job has significant relationship with their choice for better working conditions or otherwise.

Most of the respondents 46.4% earned a monthly income of eighteen thousand naira (N18, 000) and above. This is contrary to the view of Adegboro (1992), that casual workers in the construction industry, generally, earn wages below the national minimum wage. The crucial role of finance in determining better working conditions cannot be ignored. The better the financial status of a casual worker, the higher will be his/her living standard. A casual worker with higher income would often seek to improve his standard of living.

The result of the analysis ($\chi^2=431.1$, $df= 6$ and $p=0.000$) of the interaction between the monthly income of the respondents and their working conditions strengthen the fact that finance plays a significant role in casual workers standard of living. As expected, there was a strong relationship ($P>0.05$) between the monthly income of the respondents and their working conditions. This buttresses the fact that casual workers need to be enhanced financially to improve their standard of living (Fapohunda, 2012).

4.9 Chi-Square Analysis between variables

Table 4.9.1: Chi-Square Analysis showing size and age of firms, mode of recruitment, coping strategies, perception of challenges of work and working conditions

Variable		Firms			Mode of recruitment		Challenges of Work	Coping Strategies	Perception
		JBN	CCECC	PNL	Direct	Indirect			
Working Conditions	X^2	138.3	238.9	25.6	285.6	304.9	181.4	186.2	121.0
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Df	6	6	4	6	6	4	2	2

Source: Field Survey (2013)

The result showed that there was significant association between the selected construction firms and their working conditions. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed for each firm ($\chi^2=138.3$, $df=6$, $p=0.000$; $\chi^2=238.9$, $df= 6$, $p=0.000$; $\chi^2=25.6$, $df=4$, $p=0.000$). The implication of this is that the size and age of the firm as well as seasonal nature of its activities and operations may determine the kind of incentives the firm may offer its workers.

The findings further indicated that there was significant association between casual workers' mode of recruitment ($\chi^2=285.6$, $df= 6$, $p=0.000$, $\chi^2=304.9$, $df=6$, $p=0.000$) and their working conditions. This presupposes that the respondents' mode of recruitment affected their working conditions.

It is expected that casual workers who were directly employed by the construction firms are mostly likely to enjoy some better working conditions than those casual workers who were not directly employed by the firms, that is, the management may not be indebted to this category of workers in any way. Although the mode of recruitment of the respondents varied, it is expected that this will impinge on their working conditions. This result pointed to the contrary. The result showed that all workers on site were treated equally irrespective of their mode of entry into the firms.

The study showed that there was a relationship between the challenges faced by the casual workers and their working conditions ($\chi^2=181.4$, $df= 4$, $p=0.000$). The challenges faced as casual workers, as indicated, suggest that the precarious nature of their work could impinge on their livelihood, as well as that of their immediate family. Furthermore, the study revealed that there was statistical association between coping strategies of the respondents and their working conditions. Therefore, the hypothesis was confirmed ($\chi^2=186.2$, $df =2$, $p=0.000$).

The finding shows that there was a significance relationship between casual workers perception about their working conditions ($\chi^2=121.0$, $df= 2$, $p=0.000$). This was based on chi-square test done at 0.05 significant level. The implication of this result is that respondents' coping strategies will affect how they view their working conditions. This result supports the observation of Fapohunda (2012), who argue that casual workers will always seek for a way to better their working conditions. Therefore, casual workers' coping strategies as indicated by Hall (2002) brings about better deployment and development of their labour power.

4.10 Case study analysis on casual workers in the selected construction firms:

The data used for discussion here were generated basically through the case study, besides the interview conducted with the respondents. The respondents were purposively selected on the account of their experience as casual workers in the construction firms.

4.10.1 Casualization and its effect on casual workers: A case study of Respondent A

This respondent was born on 1st July, 1968. His parents were of the Mbise extraction in Imo State. His grandfather was the second son of the family; he worked as a railway clerk before the Civil War. After the war, the family moved to Akaboin Imo State and, thenceforth, his descendants became natives of Akabo. He was privileged to acquire both primary and secondary education. He started his education at the age of six, when he was enrolled in a community primary school. After six years of knowledge acquisition at the school, he was enrolled as a student into a Catholic school, in 1980.

After his Secondary education, he proceeded to Lagos in 1990 to live with his uncle. He worked briefly in a fast food company in Apapa, Lagos till 1995 before venturing into selling of building materials. The acquisition of a store where he sold building materials, signalled his economic breakthrough as he gained control over a profitable means of livelihood, the profit of which he invested in other businesses. He ventured into real estate business, and then got involved in buying and selling of landed property as well as building of houses without having pre-knowledge of the nitty-gritty of the business. While, he was getting himself entangled in a business deal, he got involved in a deal that has to do with government lands, which eventually led to a court case that saw him spending most of his resources in executing the case. This brought about the demise of his economic affluence. On how and when he decided to work for a construction firm as a casual worker, he said;

Indeed, I did not just decide to work for this firm as a casual; it was as a result of the circumstances that befell my business. I lost the case in court; I had nobody to help me to get back to business. I have to do something to help myself and my immediate family. I lost all that I had to execute the court case. So when I got this job I was grateful to God (**Case study Interview, 2013**)

He was asked why he chose to work in the construction firm, while he could have joined other organizations, he responded thus:

As at the time I was in my predicament, the job that was readily available to me then was to work in this firm as a casual. That is, this construction firm was where I find succour to my problem. I wonder if not for this firm that came to my rescue, how would I have explained things to my children! How do I explain to them that I have lost all? How would I explain this to them. Since I got this job some six years ago, I never bothered myself seeking for job in any other firm; after all there are no jobs to go round (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

The implication of this is that, in a broader sense, the construction firms serves as an avenue whereby individuals who are unemployed could get employed, either through direct mode or indirect mode of recruitment.

The respondent opined that he joined the firm through one of his friends, who informed him about the opportunity and vacancy in the firm. Apparently, he had no skill and so was employed as a security officer. When asked, what was the learning system like as a casual worker when he joined the firm? He stated that:

As a security officer, which was the position I was employed in provides for a minimum level of special skill and experience. Therefore, I learnt everything on the job, every day as I work in the firm. There is no special process or structure, the only thing is that I learn by watching others who have been in the job before me. The relationship between my position as a casual and my family status is never the same. But all the same I could still cater for my family, but not as when I was self-employed(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

As a casual worker, he was able to recollect that, for the six years he had put into the job, he had worked in eight construction sites in Lagos and outside Lagos. He had also worked in different capacities and units for the firm as a security officer. Central to the issue of social relation to learning is that, in the construction firms, workers sustain social survival and job skills through social interactions. By extension, this has to do with how social interactions enhance access to job skills, commitment and contentment. This opportunity enabled him to work in different construction sites; he had the opportunity to interact with different people. This expresses the central concept of social capital on how individuals sustain social survival through social interactions (Omobowale, 2006).

With respect to skills learnt, he noted that regardless of status, as a casual worker, coming to the firm for the first time with limited skill, he had to depend on fellow casual workers or their supervisors for interpretation and translation of what was to be done. According to him, sometimes the more you stay on the job, the better your opportunity to be chosen to go for training concerning a specific kind of skill. On issue of what is the social status like as a casual worker in his community while still on the job, he said:

To the glory of God, for the past six years that I have been working for this firm as a casual, I have no regret, because I have built a house of my own, send my two children to the institutions of higher learning, and do things men of my age are expected of them. The way people see me does not matter compare to the way I see myself. As far as I can do the necessary things my family required of me, I'm satisfied. In my community, the moment I do not fail in my responsibility to the community, my social status remains intact (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

This suggests that, as a casual worker, an individual's social status does not really matter the moment he/she is able to perform his /her responsibilities to the family and community. Furthermore, he was of the opinion that he would have still preferred to work as a casual worker in the construction firm than to work in any other organization. This shows that he considered his work in the construction firm as decent work by any standard.

This negates the claims of Okafor (2010), that most casuals do not consider their work as decent work by any standard.

4.10.2 Casualization and its effects on casual workers: a case study of Respondent B

This respondent was born on 3rd August, 1973 in Awe in Oyo State. She was educated in Local Authority Primary School, Apapa and Dr. Lucas Memorial High School, Apapa Lagos for her secondary school education. Born into a family of six, she was the only daughter and the third child. While still a teenager, she became a trained elementary school teacher. In 2002, she enrolled into Data Computer Institute in Lagos. After earning a Diploma Certificate in Data Processing from the institute in 2003, she got employed as a casual worker in Plycon Limited, an indigenous construction firm based in Phase 1 Lekki, Victoria Island, Lagos. She was employed as a time-keeper for the firm before she was redeployed to the position of a store-keeper. She eventually became a supervisor for the firm on their site situated at Brown Street in Surulere, Lagos. She helped organize the casual workers by posting them to the various duties post as the situation of job demands.

On how and when she decided to work in the firm as a casual worker, she said:

Immediately after my secondary school education, I could not proceed to the University, since my parents made two attempts to see to it that I sat for JAMB examination, and I did not succeed. I then decided to take up a teaching job which I did for a year and eight months before the school was closed down and I have to enrol into a computer institute, since that was what was on as at that time. After my computer training, I was told by my friend that there was a vacancy for the post of a time-keeper in this firm, so I applied. Through the help of my friend, I got the job. That was how I got into this firm (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

This suggests that the respondent was employed into the firm directly through the help of her friend, who also worked in the firm. This might have a positive effect on the kind of incentive she enjoyed in the firm. She stated that, what really prompted her into applying for the job was the fact that among her mother's six children, being the only female, and having attempted Joint Admission and Matriculation Board Examination twice, it was better for her to give her other siblings a chance to be educated.

On why she chose a construction firm and not any other organization, she said:

As at the time I finished my computer training, I spoke with relatives and friends concerning job opportunities, but the one that was readily available was this one. So I took it and never thought of seeking for job in any other organization, since I was enjoying the job I do here (**Case Study Interview, 2013**).

The implication of this is that working as a casual in a construction firm is a better option to unemployment. Owing to the seasonal nature of the industry, there is likelihood of getting a job when the need arises.

In addition, she indicated that the learning process was more of on-the-job training and through the help of supervisor and co-casual workers. She was of the opinion that regardless of one's status, casual workers are always in need of the support and assistance of their fellow casual workers or their supervisors for interpretation of their job descriptions. Sometimes, there may be educational and cultural barriers to effective communication, for example, a casual worker who does not speak English and has very low level of literacy.

She further stated that lack of information also affects the process, structure and social relations of learning adding that:

Due to physical and social isolation, casual workers are not aware of workplace rights and protections. They were not aware of the amount that constitute the minimum wage, whether insurance benefit contributions are being made by their employer, and what requirements govern work pay rates, and whether pay check deductions are legal etc.; they are not informed about government enforcement agencies and may assume that if they file a complaint or make a report, they will lose their jobs, and this affect their social status (**Case Study Interview, 2013**).

Justifying her argument that casual workers' lack of information affects their status, as an example, she said:

In this firm, most casual workers did not know if they were covered by workers' compensation for a work-related illness or injury. Workers also lack information about how to change employers or find new jobs. Casual workers may never have been informed about what they should do to complain about abusive supervisor or PM, since they often do not have written work contracts, meaning they do not know their actual terms of employment (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

The above excerpts make it evident that workers are afraid of losing their jobs and any other opportunity that is linked to employment. They fear that if they complain about work conditions or quit working, they will never receive their wages owed them by the firm management. If they are on seasonal work, they may fear not being invited to return for work when the opportunity arises.

Also, with regard to the relationship between casual employment and family occupational status, it is clear that casual workers may be at or below subsistence level. Immediate survival is their central pre-occupation. Taking time off work to find help or file a complaint is simply not an option. Casual workers may believe that filing a complaint with the Personnel Manager is a costly procedure, since casual workers are not entitled to legal aids.

On how many construction sites she has worked as a casual worker, she said:

You will understand that women and children are two vulnerable groups. Women bear less of the brunt of casual labour in the construction industry. Stereotypes of males as the main casual workers in the construction firms still persist among the general public and policy-makers in most firms. This perception is then reflected, for instance, in the numbers of construction sites I have worked in as a casual worker and the types of construction job I have done so far, I will say I have been involved for the past eight years in nothing less than seven construction sites(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

This shows that the perception with regard to the nature of construction works on sites demand strength and vitality reflects on the recruitment practices and casual workers policies in relation to selection and types of work done, favours female casual workers, or makes the contribution of female casual workers less visible.

This practice could be said to contribute not only to the limited recruitment of women into work positions that demand physical strength, but also makes the women less visible on construction sites to important actors (for example, social workers, trade unions and government authorities) who could assist in the prevention of abuse and provide subsequent assistance to those in need. Women also face discrimination in obtaining higher-skilled jobs, like machine operators. The result of this study showed that 20.6% of the casual workers studied were females, as against 79.4% males. It is important to note that not all construction works undertaken by female casual workers are harmful to them. The fact that the construction industry is historically under-regulated means that women may lack proper training for the use of equipment and industrial machinery. Moreover, that women presence on construction sites is often invisible due to the fact that women are assisting their male counterparts work at home. Therefore, female casual workers are subjected to more subtle forms of coercion and control; this affects their work conditions.

On the issue of how she has been able to cope with the work conditions, in terms of skills learnt, special training for new skill, where and when the training took place and the process of the training and the retraining, she noted that;

In the area of training and expertise, the firm is a devoted partner and is committed to supporting this effort through a continual enhancement of its multi service competence. When I said expertise it includes all facets of construction. The ability to provide comprehensive training and retraining to their casual workers makes them more than a construction firm. I have been trained in a variety of fields which is commensurate with my orientation and skills needed for better performance. I have undergone a broad technical diversity of training that facilitates the delivery of top quality on my schedule performance. (Case Study Interview, 2013)

This implies that to the firm, casual workers remain the greatest asset of the firm; the ability of the casual workers to perform is predicated on a continual investment for training.

Furthermore, on the issue of social status as a casual worker in her community, she asserted that:

When comparing women casual workers' social status in relation to prestige accorded them as casuals and between women casual workers and other social actors in their communities. I will say that the position of family wage or female wage is a myth. A woman needs good benefits in order not to depend on a man's wages. Having a job as a woman does not mean meeting all the needs of a typical working class family, when you are employed. It is argued that women need the flexibility of a temporary position. This will allow them to look after their children and supplement the income of their husbands. All I will say is that to further improve the social status of women as casual worker; we need a 'living wage for all female casual workers, in order for them to care for their children, ageing parents, relatives etc. (Case Study Interview, 2013)

This presupposes that most female casual workers need the "flexibility" of temporary positions, which will allow them to look after their children and supplement the income of their husbands. Employers (even construction firms) will look for any justification to keep their costs down. There is need to recognize that not all women find secure, paying jobs that are attached with benefits and dignity. Female casual workers might be highly qualified and highly educated, but find themselves working in casual jobs and this has a lot to say about their social status.

On whether she would have preferred to work in any other organization as a casual than the construction firm, she replied thus:

Again, there may be one or two areas of the work in this firm that may not be good, but I'm comfortable working here, I have benefited so much from this firm, I do not think I would prefer to work in any other organization(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

From this response, the casual worker rated her working conditions as "good" and her work as decent; hence, she derived high job satisfaction and, by extension, she was committed to working in the firm. Basically, Nigeria, is characterized by collapsed infrastructure and total paralysis of the key sector of the economy, which have resulted into unemployment and poverty, This has, in fact, predisposed workers to pick up jobs as casual workers in order to survive (Okafor, 2007).

4.10.3 Casualization and its effect on casual workers: A case study of Respondent C

Respondent C was born on 29th June 1976 in Zango Kataf in Kaduna State. He attended Government Day Secondary School Fadan-Kaje in Southern part of Kaduna State. He came to Lagos in 2003 to seek "greener pasture" and eventually found himself in CCECC, as a casual worker. He had worked for the firm for five years and had risen to become a foreman in the firm. He acquired Secondary School Certificate and Diploma in Public Administration. This enhanced his opportunity to move up the ladder in status in the firm to the post of a supervisor. Before coming to Lagos to seek for better means of livelihood, he had worked for a while as a taxi driver in Kafachan before the outbreak of religious riots that killed so many people, including his parents and three siblings. He was married, with four children. Every two months, he would visit his family in Kafachan in Kaduna State. He was in the Transport section of the firm.

On how and when he decided to work for CCECC, he said:

It's a long story, but if you insist then I will tell you. I was a driver in Kafachan and trouble broke out one day and my bus was burnt and I had nothing left to do, a family friend of mine came home to check on his family and I accosted him with regards to coming to Lagos to seek for better livelihood, he obliged and I came. In the area where he stays there was a construction work going on. I often visit the site with the expectation that I will be able to get a job. So I spoke with one of the foremen, who promised to help. I came one day and he said there is need for a driver. So I was called in and the rest is history(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

With regard to whether he would have preferred to work for a construction firm and not any other organization, he simply said:

As at the time I was looking for a job, this one was readily available. So I stick to it, and no regret. It was a personal decision which paid off as a result of my social interaction with the workers and the foreman on site(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

He was of the opinion that the learning system as a casual worker and a driver was one of interest, since the process and structure were well planned. Since he was not conversant with the route, a “motor boy” was attached to his truck for assistance. He went further to state that, whenever he was to embark on a trip, he would have to ask from his other colleagues on the best way to go about it. Again, most times, the trucks moved in convoy, so as a driver he learnt about the route following the drivers of other trucks. The relationship between casual employment and family occupational status is one in which the casual worker saw himself not with disdain, but with pride, having the satisfaction to contribute in his own little way to the service of mankind. In his words:

In terms of my status, I’m grateful to God. I see myself as someone who is contributing to the development of the country, by taking part in road construction (**Case study Interview, 2013**)

When asked to recall how many construction sites he has been involved in as a driver, he said:

For the past five years of my working with CCECC, I have worked in fifteen different sites, both in Lagos and outside Lagos, and I have not been involved in any other types of job except driving of trucks (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

As for how he has been able to cope with the work conditions over these years, he averred that:

Though in this job apart from pay, a worker is also exposed to work hazard, it is still an exciting job to me, considering my position here as a supervisor and the head of my family. I consider myself grateful and this job as my dream job, since it has offered me much of my livelihood. For now this is all I have. I will proudly tell you that for this long I have gained a lot of experience and known a lot of places as a driver and attended training organized by Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC) and other agencies on safety on the road(**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

In addition, he said that his family was the first building block in determining his social status. With respect to social perception and prestige accorded casual workers, he opined that trust and willingness to cooperate allow casual workers to form groups and associations, which facilitate the realization of shared goals. This is crucial to the social perception and prestige accorded casual workers in their communities. Since this provides opportunities for participation and gives voice to those who do not have access to more formal avenues to effect change. Common ties as casual workers are a clear example of how individuals who share common values and experience can band together for mutual benefit. As a member of a society, according to him, it is the responsibility of every individual whether casual worker or otherwise, to be involved in community development.

This element of social capital is significant because it affects the community's capacity to organize for development. It helps groups to perform key development tasks effectively and efficiently. Casual workers are part of the social actors in their communities. This determines the social perception and prestige they are accorded in their communities.

Finally, on whether he would have preferred to work in any other organization as a casual worker than the one he is currently involved in, he commented;

I have served this firm for over five years, my appointment has been regularized and I'm a supervisor. I have been surviving all these while; the management are doing their best, since you cannot separate decent work from the economic environment in which a firm is operating. As a matter of fact, this firm needs commendation and not condemnation (**Case Study Interview, 2013**)

He added that;

This firm is providing jobs for the teeming unemployed population in this country. I will continue to Work for this firm and no one else (**Case study Interview, 2013**)

From the above submissions, it is obvious that the casual worker had put up spirited efforts in his attempts to defend and justify his positions as a casual worker as well as the position of his firm in relation to the decision to work for his firms, how he was recruited into the firm, what learning system as a casual worker is like, his exploits in the different sites and types of job and how he has been able to cope with the work conditions in relations to social perception, prestige and social status accorded him as casual workers in his community.

Finally, the study identified the evidence of the concept of social capital, which refers to connections within and between social networks which have sustained the casual workers in their various firms.

This social capital which exists in the firms serves as “something of a cure-all” for the problems of modern organizations, such as the construction industry. All the casual workers shared the core idea that social networks have value. Just as a physical capital or human capital can increase productivity (both individual and collective), so do social contacts affect the productivity of individuals and groups in the construction firms. From the responses, there is evidence of relationship among the casual workers, which highlights the value of social relations and the role of cooperation and confidence to get collective or economic results. The study showed that the cooperation among the casual workers is the fruit of social relations, and consists of the benefits derived from the cooperation between casual workers and the management of the selected construction firms. However, this kind of relationship also leads to inequality among the casual workers in terms of social status, instead of attempting to resolve it. In the view of Coleman (1988), social capital, as a relatively neutral resource, could not deny the class reproduction that could result, given that individuals’ work toward their own benefit.

4.11 Theoretical discussion of findings

Findings from this study confirmed the theoretical framework for the study. The theoretical positions of Labour Market Segmentation theory (LMS) and Rational Choice (RC) theory are understood in the context of the findings. The study showed that, in Nigeria, jobs offered by employers in the construction industry had increasingly differentiated standards of wages, conditions and security. For some workers, this has meant experiencing wages and working conditions that challenge the tradition that employment will be sufficient for avoiding poverty and securing the reproduction of labour. The two most significant developments in the construction industry were (i) the rise in casual employment and (ii) the masculinization of the industry. These two developments occurred in the context of prolonged decline in employment in Nigeria (Onyeonuru, 2004). Labour segmentation in the construction industry was most evident in wages, hours of work and by employment status.

Analysis of labour segmentation in the firms studied revealed a dynamic relation between the degradation and segmentation of labour market standards. The disadvantages of casual employment relative to the advantages of permanent employment mean that its expansion contributed to segmentation. But employment decline and casualization

(particularly through labour hire and outsourcing) were found to have placed pressure on the standards and working conditions of permanent workers (Okafor, 2010). So, degradation was evident.

Nevertheless, the decline in employment and the casualization of employment also made permanent work much more valuable because of its relative scarcity. This change in relativity between permanent and casual employment represents segmentation, regardless of the degradation in the standards experienced by permanent workers. However, segmentation in the construction industry is different from traditional labour market segmentation because labour market disadvantage is not limited to those workers traditionally considered to have secondary or marginal status (Martinez and Garcia, 2005). This finding supports various studies which show that casual workers experience continuous failure on the part of the management in obtaining better conditions of work, like better salary, decent working standard and better safety and health standards (Friedman and Hechter, 1988).

The causes of segmentation, when considered, place most weight on the role of employers in line with the seasonal nature of the industry, when explaining labour market advantages and disadvantages. Such an explanation, when also assessed relative to competing explanations and construction industry employers, gives market forces and the choices of individual casual workers most weight.

Labour market segmentation theory, in this study, has been shown to provide a much plausible explanation of segmentation in the construction industry on empirical ground. As seen in the study, construction industry contributes immensely to the development of gross domestic product of the Nigerian economy and it is one of the major sectors of the national economy. Despite the immense benefits accruing from segmentation of construction sector as promoted by the labour market segmentation theorists, the use of casual workers by the various construction firms under the current dispensation has become a burden to the casual workers, the management of the firms, construction workers' union and the government. This idea is well articulated in this study, which informed the use of rational choice theory to further explain the behaviour of the casual workers.

The position of the rational choice theory is that the action of a casual worker is directed towards the satisfaction of needs at the lowest cost possible (Ritzer, 2008). The assumption is that every individual is rational and purposive, motivated to pursue a meaningful course of action. Although the use of casual workers yielded some positive changes in the firms studied, there were several challenges and inadequacies which seemed to undermine the benefits enjoyed by the casual workers. This was particularly concerned with

problems inherent in the utilization of casual workers. Findings showed that, with the effects of globalization, casual workers are especially at risk for exploitation and the nature of the job embarked on by the casual workers is hard (Okafor 2010).

The rational choice theory posits that every individual initiates action that prevents hindrance to job satisfaction (Coleman, 1990). Hence, the challenges identified, in the opinions of the respondents, helped to explain their dissatisfaction with their work conditions. These challenges are not imaginary, but they are real to the casual workers. The fact is that casual workers are rational beings consciously calculating the cost and benefits of working as casuals and are always craving for better working conditions from the management, which will provide maximum job satisfaction with least cost.

Therefore, it is not uncommon to see how casual workers spend their break time on site and the various coping strategies adopted by the casual workers toward their job, as demonstrated by this study. The rational choice theorists have maintained that analysis of structure must proceed from the micro base as it provides valid data to appreciate development in the society in general (Ritzer, 2008). It follows that the challenges inherent in the utilization of casual workers by construction firms give insight to assess the policy of government toward casualization of labour in the construction industry in Nigeria.

Although the use of casual labour is of immense benefits to construction firms, various challenges facing casual workers tend to undervalue the benefits enjoyed by construction firms. This reinforces the need intervention at the level of individual, as argued by the rational choice theorists (Coleman, 1990; Ritzer, 2008). Hence, interventions in the case of the findings will not only address dissatisfaction of the casual workers in the construction firms, but they will also be directed to tackling policy failures on the part of the Ministry of Labour, National Union of Construction Workers and the management of the construction firms.

In recent attempts to account for human behaviours in organizations, theorists have become increasingly aware of the fact that outplants factors (that is factors or characteristics that are peculiar to the individual that work in the organizations) are important determinants of human behaviours in work situations (Salawu et al., 2009). This means that in the construction firms casual workers were compelled to sell their labour power at any cost – and/or rely on extended, informal family based networks of support. The demands of the latter place great strains on those already in employment, and make having work inherently far more stressful than would otherwise be the case. Again, across Nigeria, the hollowing out of government as a result of both structural adjustment programmes and internal failings has

greatly weakened the capacity of governments to enforce the labour law in this area, whilst the continued ideological hegemony of labour market segmentation has emasculated the political will, making the enforcement of any type of labour legislation at best patchy.

Also, the state may regulate the employment relationship by the deployment of labour power. This would include union organisational rights, restrictions on working hours, health and safety legislation, employment protection, including anti-discrimination and anti-harassment measures, and formal grievance proceedings. It can be argued that, in the operation of such networks, labour standards continue to receive a low priority when compared to cost or quality concerns (Salawu, 2008).

The dominance of labour market segmentation ideology in setting government policies in most industries has generally resulted in the positive aspects of unionism being ignored; rather, through labour market deregulation, or more commonly, through poor enforcement of existing labour laws, casual workers have been forced onto the defensive, a process exacerbated by the kind of incentives enjoyed by workers in the construction firms. Construction industry tends to adopt and implement the labour market segmentation policy in the form of direct or indirect employment which invariably affects the working conditions of the workers. This adopted company policy left with the casual workers with no other rational choices other than to adopt coping strategies in the form of gossiping about management, depending on mutual aid and support, work overtime and to be involved in multiple job holdings.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Preamble

The main thrust of the study was to investigate the working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State, Nigeria. From the findings, a number of important issues were established.

5.2 Summary

Casual work is usually seasonal in Nigeria and the need for casual workers in the construction firms fluctuate according to the demands of clients. Casual labour in the construction firms is especially prevalent in road construction works, building construction, railway construction, bridge and foundation construction, shore protection work, borehole engineering work, drainage and dredging works as well as furniture and wood works. In practice, casual workers in the construction firms, as shown by this study, often lack workplace protection, including unemployment compensation and health insurance, as well as job security and stability. The casual workers sampled were not provided with welfare facilities in most of the project sites. The firms provide welfare facilities mainly to permanent workers. On only three project sites was the provision of welfare facilities considered to be adequate. These were project sites at Mile 2, Trade Fair and Apapa/Betachland.

Construction work requires physical strength and is a hazardous industry. Workers' accommodation were located on the work site and provided by the employer, as observed in one of the selected construction firms. On 9 of the 13 sites visited, working hours were well in excess of 45 hours per week. The maximum number of hours worked per week is 84 hours on two project sites (Orile and National Arts Theatre) and these were project sites where all payment was made for overtime.

Construction work was relatively unregulated and workplace inspections rarely occurred. Health insurance benefits were not extended to some of the construction workers. The general conditions of contract for the labour laws place responsibility for the health and safety of the workers on the management. The law and regulations are quite explicit on the steps that have to be taken, which include first-aid facilities, training, protective gear,

transport, in case of emergency, safety officers, insurance and compensation to injured workers. But on many of the project sites visited, only few of these items were provided.

Social isolation is one factor evident in the construction firms. For instance, in a situation whereby casual workers or management staffs are foreign expatriates, as found in CCECC, they may have limited language skills. They were usually dependent on fellow expatriates or their employers (or labour contractors or supervisors) for interpretation and translation. There were also educational and cultural barriers to effective communication.

In CCECC, for example, many management staff who were Chinese and supervisors who spoke Chinese as their mother tongue had low level of communication skill.

There were low levels of unionization or participation in workers' organizations, despite the fact that the ILO Conventions No. 97 and No. 143 (2008) require equality of treatment for construction workers in relation to trade union rights. Although Convention No. 87 applies to all workers regardless of nationality, the level of trade union representation among construction workers, and especially among casual workers, was extremely low. However, this study revealed that most of the casual workers claimed to be members of trade unions and yet, there was no evidence of trade union activities on the vast majority of the sites, though management of Construction firms generally claimed to allow their workers to join trade unions and to hold union meetings on the site. But there was evidence of limitations on the freedom of association on all project sites. Females constituted less than 20.4 per cent of the total casual workers studied and most were working in the offices on the project sites. No evidence was found of discrimination in the wages paid to men and women executing the same amount of work and there was no child labour found in any of the project sites.

5.3 Conclusion

It is concluded that most casuals were employed into the firms through a direct mode of recruitment. What this implies is that casual workers who were employed directly by the firms are most likely to enjoy some kind of incentive. There were no direct employments letters from the management of the firms. This is contrary to section 7(10) of the labour Act, Cap 198, laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990, which provides that: "Not later than three month after the beginning of a worker's period of employment with an employer, the employer shall give to the worker a written statement specifying: the terms and conditions of

employment, which include the nature of the employment and if the contract is for a fixed-term, and the date when the contract expires”.

Also in spite of the provision in section 17(e) of the Constitution, which guarantees “equal pay for equal work without discrimination on account of sex, or any other ground whatsoever,” the discrimination in pay between permanent and casual employees still persisted. That these firms recruit all the time is a clear indication of the seasonal nature of the construction industry, which determines the kind of working conditions enjoyed by the casual workers.

The casual workers’ perception of their working conditions as well as their levels of job satisfaction and work commitment may differ from one person to another, but they all rest on the prevailing objective and the social and economic conditions in which the casual workers find themselves.

The findings of the study revealed that most of the casual workers rated the challenges they faced as “high”, and their coping strategies as “good”. This rating suggests that the coping strategies adopted by the casual workers have brought about better deployment of their labour power. By using mostly casual workers in their operations, these firms are offering jobs to the teeming unemployed Nigerians, in the absence of any real alternative work.

Also, the labour practices in the selected construction firms were generally inadequate. There is a serious lack of monitoring and enforcement of Nigerian labour law. The government and its agencies have been weak in monitoring labour practices on construction sites and enforcing the laws and regulations designed to protect the casual workers. The workers were generally not aware of their rights and entitlements under the labour law in relation to their terms of contract. Lack of monitoring and enforcement and lack of awareness on the part of the workers have allowed the construction firms the freedom to choose how they wished to treat their casual workers and whether or not they would abide by the regulations of the government in this regard. In some project sites studied, management chose to ignore the regulations governing the overall welfare of the workers at construction sites. On most of the projects sites, the benefits to which the workers were entitled by law were not provided for by the managements. Such a situation led to labour unrest in three of the sites.

Finally, there were a few sites where labour practices were of a good standard (Apapa/Beach-land Estate sites, Trade Fair and National Arts Theatre). Workers were treated well and they received the benefits they were entitled to by law. The great diversity in labour standards found in 10 projects sites was an unexpected finding of the research.

The fact that the multinational construction firms practiced very different standards in the treatment of their workers raises important questions about the fairness of the competition. Four of the six project sites with the lowest labour standards were operated by Chinese Construction Engineering Company Corporation (CCECC). This means that the success of the Chinese firm in winning an increasing number of tenders in Lagos State may, to some extent at least, be at the expense of the casual workers.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Policy recommendations for the government

The study has revealed that generally, the laws governing employment and rights of workers are inadequate. The prevailing labour practices in construction sites in Lagos State, Nigeria are humiliating to the casual workers. In view of this, the government should:

1. Visit the sites regularly and ensure the enforcement of all laws governing employment Procedures and rights of workers on construction sites.
2. Create awareness among construction workers of the laws governing their employment rights.
3. Ensure that contractors allow the creation of trade union branches and workers' associations at construction sites and support their activities in line with the relevant laws.
4. Ensure that clauses on health and safety, welfare facilities, working duration and remuneration packages are incorporated in the Conditions of Contracts for Work and enforced for the well-being of the casual workers.

5.4.2 Policy recommendations for National Union of Construction Workers (NUCW) (Workers' Representatives)

Workers' representatives should do the following:

1. Get casual workers into the bargaining unit, so employers cannot divide organized and unorganized workers.
2. Fight for changes to labour legislations to provide union rights to casual workers and to limit the employer's use of such workers.

3. Develop bargaining strategies to convert casual into full-time positions
4. Negotiate a ceiling on the number of casuals in the unit or a ratio of part-time to full-time positions.
5. Start to represent casual workers and negotiate on their behalf even if they cannot belong to the union; act as if they are members to persuade the employers to recognize them.

5.4.3 Policy recommendations for casual workers

Casual workers should embark on the following:

1. Engage themselves against the management with all the strengths, energies and alliances that they can muster collectively and individually.
2. Open up so that those workplace activities which are contrary to the ideal industrial relations practices can be exposed and expunged.
3. Identify with the goals and values of the firm, which will forestall better working relationship.
4. Portray a desire to belong to the firm and a willingness to display effort on behalf of the firm.

5.4.4 Policy recommendations for the management

1. The management should implement proper human asset management practices to reduce high rates of unscheduled turnover, for example by integrating casual workers into the firm.
2. The management should offer induction and investment in skills of casual workers by training them in order to increase their productivity in the firm and increase their motivational levels. This would enhance the casual workers' commitment to their work.
3. Given the increasing tendency by managements to use casual workers to reduce labour costs, opportunities for abusing them abound. To curb this, there is a need to organize casual workers, make sure they are represented by workers' representatives and included in the collective bargaining process and agreements.

5.5 Contributions to knowledge

5.5.1 The study makes the following contributions to knowledge:

1. The results from the study show that there was a great diversity in labour standards in the selected firms, especially between the multinational construction firms in terms of

the kind of incentives offered to casual workers. In other words, size variation and duration of existence of the firms determined the kind of incentives and working conditions they offered to their casual workers. That is, in some firms, casualization existed only in theory and not in practice.

2. This study also contribute to existing body of knowledge by revealing that the continuous use of casual workers has in it numerous consequences on the construction firms, and invariably on industrial development. One is job dissatisfaction, which is identified as the major factor of poor casual workers' commitment and low productivity.
3. The study adds to knowledge by revealing that, although most of the casual workers claimed to be members of trade unions and also pay union dues, there was no evidence of trade union activities on most of the sites. Management also claimed to allow their workers to join trade unions and to hold union meetings on site. But there was evidence of limitations on the freedom of association on most of the project sites, especially in the Chinese Construction Engineering Company Corporation (CCECC).

5.6 Limitation of the Study

This study is not without some limitations. The construction firms in which the study was conducted is seasonal in nature, the workers are more on sites during the dry seasons and not stable as well, so most of them could not give a proper account of their working conditions due to the unstable nature of their activities. It is imperative that the Labour Laws need to be reformed, the term workers should be extended to include all categories of workers including workers in casual work arrangement (CWAs). Currently, this category of workers are not mentioned anywhere in the Laws relating to labour. The reference to casual workers in section 7(1) of the Labour Act is only by deduction not by specific references or definition by the Act. A clear definition of these new reforms of employment relationship and the rights that go with them should be the focus of the legislation in remedying unfair labour practices especially in the area of freedom of association.

5.7 Prospect for further Study

The study identified the following areas for further study:

1. In order to address the inadequacy of our labour Laws, further study may investigate government's policy on casualization.
2. The issues of casualization is such that emerging debates should be properly articulated in the form of objectives and philosophies taking into views current perspectives, trends and impact on the contract employment viz a viz the impact of

globalization and Neo-liberalization on the labour market and international labour standards.

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APPENDIX ONE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Serial No:

Date:

Department of Sociology
Faculty of the Social Sciences
University of Ibadan, Ibadan
Dear Respondent,

STATEMENT OF INTRODUCTION

I am a postgraduate student of the above-named department and I am carrying out a study on '**Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria**'. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation. May God bless you!

Yours Sincere,

Rasak Bamidele
(**Matric No: 79144**)

INTRODUCTION: Please kindly indicate your answers to the following by marking your choice answer.

SECTION A

Table 1Distribution of the Casuals' Socio-Economic and Demographic characteristics by Firms

	Characteristics	Category	Code(s)
1	Sex	Male Female	1 2
2	Age (In Years)	18-24 25-31 32-38 39 and above	1 2 3 4
3	Marital Status	Single Married Divorced/Separated Widow/Widower	1 2 3 4
4	Ethnic group	Yoruba Igbo Hausa Others (please specify)	1 2 3 4
5	Religious Affiliation	African Traditional Religion Islam Christianity	1 2 3
6	Educational qualification	Secondary OND/NCE HND/B.Sc Others (please specify)	1 2 3 4
7	Length of Service in the present job	Less than 3 years 3 years and above	1 2
8	Monthly Income (in Naira)	Less than 10,000 10,000-15,000 15,000-20,000 20,000-and above	1 2 3 4
9	Firm		Actual
10	Unit/Department		Actual

11	Designation		Actual

SECTION B: Recruitment of Casual Workers

KEY

12. How did you get into this firm? ----- 1 Friends 2. Advert in print media
 3. Family members 4. Advert in electronic media 5. Others (specify) _____
13. Are you happy working for this company in this capacity? (i.e. as a casual worker) Yes ---
 ----- No ----- If “yes” specify reasons-----
 If “No” specify reasons-----
14. How easy is it to be recruited into this organization? Specify-----
15. After your recruitment did you under go any training? Yes ----- No-----
16. Do you think this firm is justified by recruiting casual workers because of seasonal nature
 of construction in Nigeria? Yes----- No-----

SD= strongly disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

S/N	STATEMENT	SD	D	UN	A	SA
17	Recruitment of workers as casual is always carried out in this firm.					
18	Recruitment of workers as casual is fraught with irregularities such as tipping some officials, paying some agencies or consultant, as well as entering into a contract of given some percentage of your wages for a certain number of months.					
19	Recruitment of workers for casual position by management is guided by internal procedures such as test, interview etc.					

SECTION C: Casual workers’ perception toward their working conditions

20. Based on your interest in this company, do you see the failure of this company as your own personal failure? Yes ----- No ----- If “Yes”/ “No” state reasons-----

21. As a casual worker, how would you describe your present condition of work? A. Poor B. Good C. Undecided
22. Is this the kind of work you aspire to do throughout your lifetime? A. No B. Yes

23. As a casual worker, do you consider your present work a decent work? A. Yes B. No C. Undecided

24	Will you still prefer to work in this firm next year?	Yes	1
		undecided	2
		No	3
25	If yes, how long will you prefer to stay?	1-year	1
		2-years	2
		3-years	3
		4-years	4
		5-years and above	5
26	Are the wages paid by your firm low?	Yes	1
		No	2
27	Safety at your work place is poor?	yes	1
		No	2
28	Your supervisor on site is rigid?	Yes	1
		No	2
29	Job insecurity in your firm is high?	Yes	1
		No	2

30. Is there problem(s) with converting from a casual worker to a permanent worker? Yes or No

31. How do you cope when efforts to get regularised fails? -----

32. To what extent do you feel committed to this company? a. strongly committed b committed c. Not committed d. fairly committed

33. What is the mode of organizations reward system? 1. Pay 2. Fringe benefits 3.Housing 4. Transport allowance

34. Based on the organization's reward how satisfied are you in tends of your expectation on the job as well as the entire work process? -----

35. Which aspect of your job is the least interesting?

- 1. Monotony -----
- 2. Physical Tiredness -----
- 3. Demands of work -----
- 4. Poor Remuneration -----
- 5. Poor Social Relations -----
- 6. Poor Management Attitude -----
- 7. Others(specify) -----

Give reason (s) for your answer_____

36. Which aspect of your job is the most interesting?

- 1. On- the- job training opportunity-----
- 2. Job satisfaction -----
- 3. Demands of work -----
- 4. Better Remuneration -----
- 5. Better Social/work Relations -----
- 6. Better Management Attitude -----
- 7. Other specify -----

Give reason (s) for your answer-----

SECTION D Strategy Adopted by Casual Workers' to cope with the challenges of work

S/N	STATEMENT/ QUESTION	YES 1	NO 2	Undecided 3
37	I sleep during my break time when on site.			
38	I play in-door games with other interested workers during break time on site.			
39	My relationship with my supervisor is cordial			
40	We gossip about management			
41	We depend on mutual aids support			
42	I do other jobs after closing hour			
43	In all, how would you describe your break time when on site.	Well spent Wisely spent Well and wisely spent Neither well nor wisely spent	1 2 3 4	
44	I work over-time in order to meet my needs.			
45	I do other jobs after my closing hour.			
46	I attend evening classes in order to further my education.			

S/N	STATEMENT /QUESTIONS	YES 1	NO 2	Undecided 0
47	Do you belong to any union in your firm?			
48	Have you ever gone through on-the-job training, since you joined your firm?			
49	How many times have you sought for medical treatment since you joined this firm?	None Once Twice Three Four times and above	1 2 3 4 5	
50	How do you assess the relationship of casual workers and the permanent staff?	Excellent Good Fair Poor	1 2 3 4	

51	How would you describe the nature of your relationship as a casual worker with the management of the firm?	Excellent Good Fair Poor	1 2 3 4
52	How would you describe the nature of your behaviour in relation to your job?	Very Active Active Fair Poor	1 2 3 4

SECTION E: Reaction of the Management towards Labour Law on recruitment of casual workers

53. What is the position of the management on the social effects of economic globalization on casual workers in your construction firms?

54. Are you aware of the regulation guiding hiring of casual workers in Nigeria? 1. Yes 2. No
3. Undecided

55. What reforms is the management putting in place to address the issue of casual employment in the construction firms?

56. What is the position of the management towards labour law, with regards to hiring of casual workers in construction firms in Nigeria?

57. Employment agencies have been involved in Casual employment in Nigerian construction firms in recent time. What is the reaction of the management to this trend?

58. Casual employment in Nigerian construction firms is governed by well-defined International Labour Organization (ILO) employment procedures. What is management position on this?

59. Most managers of construction firms do not see the adoption and application of the International Labour Organization (ILO) employment procedures as compulsory in Nigeria,

so they do not bother on the legal implication of using casual workers in their firms. What is management position on this?

60. Are you allowed to establish or join work-based association or unions? _____

61. Are all workers on site treated equally irrespective of race, ethnic or gender?

62. Do women working on site receive the same pay as men for work of equal value?

63. Are wages always paid in full and on time?

64. What is your monthly wage pay?

65. When are your normal working hours?

66. Is overtime compulsory? _____

67. What are the various methods implore in order to elevate the standard for safety, health and welfare of workers in your firm?

68. Which of the following actually inspired you to work for your present organization?

1. Economic growth -----
2. Social well-being-----
3. Career improvement-----
4. Other (Specify) -----

APPENDIX TWO

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED FIELD SUPERVISORS AND FOREMEN

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

AGE	
SEX	
POSITION IN FIRM	
FIRM	
LENGTH OF WORKING EXPERIENCE	
MARITAL STATUS	

INTRODUCTION

My name.....I am a postgraduate student of the department of Sociology University of Ibadan and I am carrying out a study on '**Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria**'. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible. You have been purposively selected for this interview. I will need your consent before I will proceed with the interview.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the extent of participation of casual workers in your construction firm?
2. How would you evaluate the casual workers behaviour in your firm during working hours?
3. How would you describe the casual workers in your construction firm? Probe for:
 - a. Wages paid
 - b. Health insurance benefit
 - c. Holiday/ Recreational benefit
- d. Over time wage benefit
- e. Means of seeking redress.
4. How would you describe casual workers behaviour during break time? Probe for:
 - a. Relationship with other casuals
 - b. Relationship with permanent staff
 - c. Relationship with management
5. To what extent are the external factors affecting the behaviour of casual workers in your firm?
Probe for:
 - a. Activities of other casuals
 - b. Perception of casuals to their condition
 - c. Firm's rules and regulation
 - d. Strategies adopted by Firms to encourage workers
 - e. National Labour Law

6. What kind of reforms would you want to see in terms casual employment and utilization of workers in the Construction firms.
7. What do you think should be done to increase and maximize workers' potentials in the construction firms?
8. What do you think should be done to improve and sustain job satisfaction of casual workers in your Firm?

APPENDIX THREE

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED MANAGEMENT STAFF SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

AGE	
SEX	
POSITION IN FIRM	
FIRM	
LENGTH OF WORKING EXPERIENCE	
MARITAL STATUS	

INTRODUCION

My name.....I am a postgraduate student of the department of Sociology University of Ibadan and I am carrying out a study on '**Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria**'. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible. You have been purposively selected for this interview. I will need your consent before I will proceed with the interview.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

QUESTIONS

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2. How would you evaluate the casual workers behaviour in your firm during working hours?
3. How would you describe the casual workers in your construction firm? Probe for:
 - a. Wages paid
 - b. Health insurance benefit
 - c. Holiday/ Recreational benefit
- d. Over time wage benefit
 - e. Means of seeking redress.
4. How would you describe casual workers behaviour during break time? Probe for:
 - a. Relationship with other casuals
 - b. Relationship with permanent staff
 - c. Relationship with management
5. To what extent are the external factors affecting the behaviour of casual workers in your firm? Probe for:
 - a. Activities of other casuals
 - b. Perception of casuals to their condition
 - c. Firm's rules and regulation
 - d. Strategies adopted by Firms to encourage workers
 - e. National Labour Law

6. What kind of reforms would you want to see in terms casual employment and utilization of workers in the construction firms.
7. What do you think should be done to increase and maximize workers potential in the construction firms?
8. What do you think should be done to improve and sustain job satisfaction of casual workers in your firm?

APPENDIX FOUR

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED CASUAL WORKERS REPRESENTATIVE (National Union of Construction Workers) **SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

AGE	
SEX	
POSITION IN FIRM	
FIRM	
LENGTH OF WORKING EXPERIENCE	
MARITAL STATUS	

INTRODUCTION

My name.....I am a postgraduate student of the department of Sociology University of Ibadan and I am carrying out a study on **‘Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria’**. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible. You have been purposively selected for this interview. I will need your consent before I will proceed with the interview.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the extent of participation of casual workers in your construction firm?
2. How would you evaluate the casual workers behaviour in your firm during working hours?
3. How would you describe the casual workers in your construction firm? Probe for:
 - a. Wages paid
 - b. Health insurance benefit
 - c. Holiday/ Recreational benefit
- d. Over time wage benefit
 - e. Means of seeking redress.
4. How would you describe casual workers behaviour during break time? Probe for:
 - a. Relationship with other casuals
 - b. Relationship with permanent staff
 - c. Relationship with management
5. To what extent are the external factors affecting the behaviour of casual workers in your firm?
 Probe for:
 - a. Activities of other casuals
 - b. Perception of casuals to their condition
 - c. Firm’s rules and regulation
 - d. Strategies adopted by Firms to encourage workers

- e. National Labour Law
6. What kind of reforms would you want to see in terms casual employment and utilization of workers in the construction firms.
 7. What do you think should be done to increase and maximize workers potential in the construction firms?
 8. What do you think should be done to improve and sustain job satisfaction of casual workers in your firm?

APPENDIX FIVE

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED KEY MINISTRY OF LABOUR REPRESENTATIVE

SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

SEX	
POSITION	
FIRM	
LENGTH OF WORKING EXPERIENCE	

INTRODUCTION

My name.....I am a postgraduate student of the department of Sociology University of Ibadan and I am carrying out a study on **‘Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria’**. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible. You have been purposively selected for this interview. I will need your consent before I will proceed with the interview.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the position of the Ministry of Labour on the social effects of economic globalization on casual workers in construction firms in Nigeria?
2. What is the position of the Ministry of Labour on the effects of deregulation on workers in the construction firms in Nigeria?
3. What have been the reactions of the Ministry of Labour to casualization of workers in the construction firms?
4. What reforms have the Ministry of Labour put in place to address the issue of casualization of workers in the construction firms?
5. What does the Ministry of Labour expects from the management of Nigerian construction firms to do in order to improve the working conditions of the casual workers?
6. How would you describe the casualization of workers in Nigerian construction firm?
Probe for:
 - a. Wages paid
 - b. Health insurance benefit
 - c. Holiday/ Recreational benefit

- d. Over time wage benefit
- e. Means of seeking redress.
- 7. Casual employment in Nigerian construction firms has been hijacked by employment agencies, what is the reaction of the Ministry of Labour to this trend?
- 8. Casual employment in Nigerian construction firms is characterized by well-defined International Labour Organization employment procedure, what is the Ministry of Labour position on this?

APPENDIX SIX

CASE STUDY ANALYSES SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED CASUAL WORKERS
SECTION A: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

SEX	
POSITION	
FIRM	
LENGTH OF WORKING EXPERIENCE	

INTRODUCTION

My name.....I am a postgraduate student of the department of Sociology University of Ibadan and I am carrying out a study on **‘Working conditions of casual workers in selected construction firms in Lagos State Nigeria’**. The study is purely for academic purposes and as a part of the fulfilment of the requirements for a higher degree programme. All responses supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Hence, your name is not required. I solicit for your sincere cooperation by providing your time to answer the questions herein as honest as possible. You have been purposively selected for this interview. I will need your consent before I will proceed with the interview.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation.

QUESTIONS

- 1. How and when did you decide to work in this firm as a casual?

Probe for: (the social circumstances of parents/family occupation/ kin network).

- 2. Taking it for granted that you could have joined other sector of the economy such as manufacturing, why and how did you decide to work as casual in a construction firm and no other firms.

Probe for: nature and dimension of influence on decision:

- (a) Personal decision versus parental influences;
- (b) Kin networks versus other social or attractions of the job
- (c) The circumstances under which an individual is said to have joined a construction firm as a casual

- 3. Under whom did you join this organization?

Probe for (when and where the information of the vacancy was made known.

- 4. What was learning system of casual work like when you joined the firm?

Probe for: (a) process, structure and social relations of learning (b) The relations between casual employment and family occupational status.

- 5. Please recall how many construction sites you have been involved in as a casual worker.

Probe for (a) numbers of construction works involved in on sites (b) types of construction work involved in.

6. Given the fact that for this long, tell me how you have been able to cope with the work conditions?

Probe for: (a) skills learnt (b) if the casual worker had to specially train for new skill (c) where and when the training took place (d) the process of the training and retaining as the case may be.

7. What is your social status as casual worker in your community while still on the job?

Probe for: (a) social perception and prestige accorded casual workers (b) the relationship between casual workers and other social actors in their communities.

8. Would you have preferred to work in any other organization as casual than the one you are doing (why?).

APPENDIX SEVEN



JULIUS BERGER

Memo

Date: 19th April, 2013
Sender: Suszan Obi
To: Site Workers

Pleas kindly assist the bearer in his Research Survey study in your site.

He is Mr Rasak Bamidele with Matric No 79144 a Ph.D Sociology student in the University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Suszan Obi

JULIUS BERGER NIGERIA PLC

Public Affairs Department

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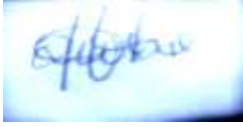
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