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**MANAGEMENT**

##### Employment Practices and Working conditions among Contract Employees in the American Oil Companies in Nigeria and the United States of America

**A Thesis**

**Submitted to the School of Postgraduate Studies, University of Lagos, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Industrial Relations and Personnel Management of the University of Lagos**

**By**

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## CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the Thesis:

##### Employment Practices and Working conditions among Contract Employees in the American Oil Companies in Nigeria and the United States of America

Submitted to the School of Postgraduate Studies, University of Lagos; for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) is a record of the original research carried out

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## DEDICATION

This Thesis is dedicated to God, to whom all honour and glory is due. The giver of life and the Alpha and Omega

Psalm 129: 1-4

***…..“they have greatly oppressed me from my youth, but they have not gained the victory over me.***

***Plowmen have plowed my back and made their furrows long. But the Lord is righteous;***

***HE has cut me free from the cords of the wicked.”***

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## ABSTRACT

This study examined employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the United States of America (USA) with a focus on comparative analysis of their working hours, remuneration, occupational health and safety, and degree of access to social protection. From a list of 12,736 contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA, a total of 600 respondents were randomly selected from Chevron and ExxonMobil through the simple and stratified sampling techniques. Based on a cross-sectional survey research design, a structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews were used for data collection. The questionnaire was validated and a Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient (0.86) was established. The data from the structured questionnaire were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics. The data from in-depth interviews were analysed through content and narrative analysis. The main finding revealed a significant difference in some aspects of the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA in terms of remuneration, occupational health and safety, and working hours in Chevron. The level of remuneration among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria was significantly different from that of the USA (t = -10.944; mean difference = -.52383; p = 0.000). There was a significant difference in the working hours among contract employees in Chevron Nigeria compared to their counterparts in the USA (t = - 3.984; mean difference = - 0.175; p = 0.000). In contrast, the findings showed that there was no significant difference in some aspects of the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA in terms of managerial control, the degree of access to social protection, and working hours in ExxonMobil. The degree of managerial control of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria was not significantly different from that of the USA (t = -0.722; mean difference = -0.037; p = 0.471). Also, there was no significant difference in the working hours among contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and their counterparts in the USA (t = -1.199; mean difference = -.06269; p = 0.232). The study concluded that the contract employees in the American oil companies in the USA enjoyed better working conditions compared to their counterparts in Nigeria. Therefore, there is need for improvement in the working conditions among contract employees in Nigeria, through public policy and advocacy.

**Key Words:** employment practices, working conditions, contract employees, America, Nigeria, oil companies.

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# ABBREVIATIONS

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 401(K) PLAN | 401(k) plan is the tax-eligible, clear-contribution retirement fund account defined in subsection 401(k) of the Internal Revenue Code |
| ACAS | Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service |
| API | American Petroleum Institute |
| BP | British Petroleum |
| CA | Content Analysis |
| CE | Contract Employees |
| CIETT | International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies |
| CW | Contract Workers |
| EEPNL | Esso Exploration and Production Nigeria Limited |
| EP | Employment Practices |
| EPC | Engineering Procurement and Construction |
| EPGR | Ethnocentric, Polycentric, Geocentric & Regioncentric |
| FDI | Foreign Direct Investment |
| FLSA | Fair Labour Standards Act |
| FNV | Confederation of Dutch Trade Unions |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GOR | Global Oil Research |
| HIV/AIDS | Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| HRM | Human Resource Management |
| HRMP(s) | Human Resource Management Practices |
| IBAGU | International Business Association & Georgetown University |
| ICEM | International Federation of Chemical, Energy, Mine and General Workers’ Union |
| IEA | International Energy Agency |
| ILO | International Labour Organisation |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |

IOC(s) International Oil and Gas Companies

IRS Industrial Relations System

LMRDA Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act MNC(s) Multinational Corporations

MON Mobil Oil Nigeria

MOU Memorandum of Understanding

MPN Mobil Producing Nigeria Unlimited

MUA Maritime Union of Australia

NA Narrative Analysis

NALEDI National Labour & Economic Development Institution NIC National Industrial Court

NLRA National Labour Relations Act

NLRA National Labour Relations Act

NLRB National Labour Relations Board

NNPC Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation

NOC(s) National Oil Companies

NOPSEMA National Offshore Petroleum Safety and Environment Management Authority

NSWA(s) Non Standard Work Arrangements

NUPENG Nigerian Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Union OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development OML(s) Oil Mining Leases

ORNL Oak Ridge National Labouratory

OSH Occupational Safety and Health

OSHA Occupational Safety and Health Administration

OWIU Oil Workers International Union

PAC Proportional Affixation Criterion

PACE Paper, Allied-Industrial, Chemical and Energy Workers International Union

PENGASSAN Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| PESTEL Analysis | Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Environmental and Legal Analysis |
| PIB | Petroleum Industry Bill |
| PPP | Purchasing Power Parity |
| PSA | Petroleum Safety Authority Norway |
| PWC | Price Waterhouse Coopers |
| R&D | Research and Development |
| RLA | Railway Labour Act |
| ROGWU | Russian Oil, Gas and Construction Workers Union |
| SAP | Structural Adjustment Programmes |
| SPSS | Statistical Product and Service Solutions |
| TU | Trade Union |
| TUC | Trade Union Congress |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Project |
| UNRISD | United Nations Research Institute for Social Development |
| USA/US | United States of America |
| USW | United Steel, Paper and Forestry, Rubber, Manufacturing, Energy, Allied-Industrial and Service Workers International Union (United Steel Workers) |
| WC | Working Conditions |
| WEO | World Energy Outlook |
| WHO | World Health Organisation |
| WTO | World Trade Organisation |

# CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

### Background to the Study

The extensive rise in non-standard employment since the early 1990s has prompted a series of studies on new types of employment. In recent years, questions dealing with the future of wage employment and its quality have become especially prominent (Beck, 1999; Gorz, 1999; Graham, 2010). In the 21st century, economic trends account mainly for the changes in the nature and patterns of work in the developed and developing countries (McGovern, Smeaton & Hill, 2004). Such changes affect patterns of employment, employment contract, legal issues concerning employment and employment relations as a whole in the developed and developing countries. The rise in non-standard employment stemmed from capitalism which is a concept that encourages maximisation of profit for organisations at the detriment of workers’ welfare.

Broad (1995) posits that capitalism is full of interesting contradictions. Braverman (1974) postulates that labour and capital are the opposite poles of capitalist society. “Capitalism has been marked by a steady increase in the proportion of workers engaged in proletarian labour since the emergence of a capitalist world economy around 1500, often at the interstices of what has come to be called the informal economy but never different from formal, capitalist production” (Broad, 1993, p.123). In the Broad’s (1995) view, from the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, workers fought for shorter working hours. In various countries, labour struggles that brought the eight (8) hours/day were seen as great triumphs. As noted by Moody (1992) states that working hours in the developed capitalist nations dropped by almost half from 1850 to 1950; largely as a result of labour's recurrent struggles for shorter work time (Broad, 1995; Moody, 1992).

As cited in Otobo (2005), Braverman (1974, p. 46) shows the variance of the “conscious and purposive” activities of human beings which is work from the instinctive “work of other creatures”. In addition, it has been established that the distinctness of this “conscious and purposive work of human lies in the fact that; the unity of conception and execution may be disintegrated” (Otobo, 2005, p. 114). This is at the root of division of labour such that the labour process could be so organized socially as to ensure that some other persons not necessarily involved in the execution of work could appropriate the wealth created by the labour of numerous other people. Labour creates not only wealth; it is at the heart and soul of social-human life itself. As Braverman (1974, p. 50) puts it “Labour that transcends mere instinctual activity is thus the force which created humankind and the force by which humankind created the world as we know it”.

The structure of the working class has been undergoing a transformation in the 21st century owing to events in the global market and economic exigencies (TUC, 2008; McGovern, Smeaton & Hill, 2004). The gender composition of the class is changing. Full-time employment is declining steadily while part-time work is increasing dramatically, and life- time patterns of work are altering too, as are work statuses. Self-employment is growing as more and more employers are subcontracting, and temporary and contract work are on the increase as employers search for more flexible ways of organising work (Okafor, 2007b) which is based more on lower cost and (Benson, 2000; Buultjens, 2001) ideology rather than genuine economic calculation, especially amongst small businesses (Smith & Ewer, 1999).

In the case of the United States of America (USA), in addition to sectoral shifts in employment, work itself is being restructured. Part-time, homework, temporary, and other

forms of "cost-free" labour are replacing traditional employment in both service and manufacturing sectors (Okafor, 2007b). Such forms account for the expansion of employment in the United States. The official celebration of the growth of employment in the United States in the 1980s ignored the fact that it was part-time work that had increased while the number of hours worked and weekly earnings had declined (Okougbo, 2004b; Cairns & Malloch, 2008; Graham, 2010).

Among the singular events that the U.S. dailies and broadcasts have considered newsworthy between 1983 and 1985 is a large number of plant closings in traditional industrial communities. This led to the reduction in union membership, increasing willingness of organised labour to grant concessions or accept wage cuts from employers, and the revival of sweatshops, homework, and the so-called underground economy (Broad, 1993; Sallaz, 2004). Furthermore, more visible attention has been given to advanced technology as a radical transformer of social life (Fernandez-Kelly, 1985, p. 206 as cited in Broad, 1995).

Studies have shown that 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 contract employment (Hipple, 1998; Bielenski & Ebenhard 1999; Kalleberg, Reskin, & Hudson, 2000; Zeytinoglu & Muteshi 2000; Campbell & Burgess, 2001). The features mentioned above replicate the general factors of labour market segmentation (Brosnan, 1996; Hudson 2001). In many ways the basic characteristics of contract employees (CE) in Nigeria are consistent with the mainstream in industrialised Western economies such as the USA. Otobo (1987) opines that in Africa, colonial administration accelerated the creation of labour force. The colonial administration needed to

secure labour for the construction of infrastructural activities like railroads, residential buildings, roads and ports; this brought about wage employment. Wage employment brought about a change in the pattern of work which is similar to what is obtainable in the industrialised societies. In the Nigerian 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 being placed on contract employment (Oshiokpekhai, 2016) (Interview with the secretary general of PENGASSAN). This is almost contrary to the majority of studies, which tend to stress the connection between low education and contract employment in western and some developing countries. Hipple (2001) in a very different context analyses the situation in the USA which also finds signs of a similar structure: Contract employment was distinctive for both ends of the scholastic measure.

A brief examination of comparative analysis of casualisation and contracted employment in Nigeria and the USA shows some similarities and distinct characteristics. As noted by Bamidele (2000), casualisation in the Nigerian labour market is a subject of great concern. Casual employees are increasingly filling positions that are permanent in nature. In line with employee susceptibility in Nigeria is the high rate of unemployment and supplementary poverty (Anugwon, 2007). The global economic meltdown has bred a dangerous work environment where many desperate job seekers in the labour force are willing to take any job for survival purposes rather than dignity (Standing, 2011).

Labour exploitation is prevalent in many organisations in Nigeria (Kazeem, 2004) and around the world (Standing, 2011). It manifests in different forms including poor remuneration, training, promotion, motivation, sense of belonging, job satisfaction and dehumanisation of

work and workers. This class of labour is being classified by Standing as the “Class B- Denizens (workers who are temporary, casual, dependent contractors and so on with few entitlements or rights, essentially, lacking at least one of the civil, cultural, economic and political rights” (Standing, 2011, p. 14). Casualisation is the other name for a contract employment, which is manifested in industries, whether in transnational, multinational, public or private and in the informal economy. As Campbell (2004) aptly notes, definitions of casual employment are often a site of confusion and controversy, marked by tensions between vernacular, regulatory and contractual meanings.

Casualisation can be defined as work occupations in which the demand for employment is highly variable such as port, farm migratory and other works of unskilled intermittent nature (Standing, 2011). Casualisation can also be a form of involuntary servitude, making work less secure globally (Standing, 2011). It is the changing of working practices so that workers are employed on a freelance and occasional basis instead of being offered full time contracts.

The origin of casualisation in developed economy like the USA, Great Britain and Australia can be traced to the late 1880s and early 1900s and it was commonly referred to as the ‘sweat shop or sweating system’ (Goldstein, 2006; Hall, 2000). The exact origin in Nigeria is not clear. The emergence of casualisation in Nigeria’s labour market can however be traced to the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) in 1986 in line with the neo - liberal economic policies prescribed and the adoption of International Monetary Fund (IMF) directives and World Bank loans (Fashoyin, 2000; Alozie, 2009; Adeleye, 2011; Danesi, 2011; Fapohunda, 2012; Okafor, 2012). Fapohunda (2012) posits that the combination of these factors led to a slump in the economy. Many factories shut down, some operating below minimum installed capacity and many organisations found it difficult to compete in the

globalised economy which is tilted more in favour of the developed economies. Although Alozie (2009) argues that the subsequent effect of the policy was unprecedented retrenchment of workers in the public sector which created a large scale of unemployment, globalisation and trade liberalisation added to competition from imported goods. Fapohunda (2012) surmises that it forced enterprises in Nigeria to reduce their staff strength and to replace them with contract and casual workers in order to cut costs of production and remain competitive.

Labour acts on objects using implements (technology). The historical process of humankind’s development involves these implements or tools getting more sophisticated. “As more the extraordinary development of scientific technology is introduced into the workplace” (Braverman, 1974, p. 10), the unskilled workers become more disadvantaged (Campbell & Brosnan 1999). Nevertheless, this technological impact cannot totally or adequately explain the presence of this circumstance, particularly in developing countries where the level of technological growth and adoption is low compared to the developed world. Apart from this, investigation into the 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).

Okafor (2007a) argues that casualisation has been a long standing issue in the oil and gas industry and multinational corporations. In Nigeria, it is possible to get as much as 2000 workers in an industry out of which about 1500 workers may be contract workers. It is possible to get situations whereby virtually all the employees of some industries in the informal economy located in rural areas to be casual staff (Okougbo, 2004a). As already stated, in the oil and gas industry, where the practice of casualisation is common, many contract workers are graduates from higher institutions or skilled technicians, experienced

drivers with long years of service, clerical and auxiliary staff with administrative skills, and so on. Most of these workers have spent several years in their organisations. Yet they are referred to and treated as casual workers. In some oil and gas companies especially those owned by indigenous entrepreneurs, in spite of the fact that their contract staff are qualified to be made permanent staff, they are made to remain casual workers on a slave wage with a view to keeping on maximizing super normal profits at the barest minimum labour cost (Adenugba, 2003; Okafor, 2005). In most cases, it is contract labour without a human face (Budd, 2004). In manufacturing companies owned by Asians, contract workers are locked up like prisoners in their factories so that no external body can gain access to them (Vanguard, 2002; World Socialist Website, 2002).

Capitalism in effect has failed to modernise the creaky labour regulation system. Some of its initiatives such as *Workplace Relations Act* and degree of control have been carried out under the banner of ‘workplace reform and flexibility’ and do not seem to bear any relationship to modernisation. Degree of control rather than contribute to the solution of casualisation, this initiative served to open up more oppurtunities for casual work to be deployed at individual workplaces in developed countries around the world. In effect, degree of control has helped to widen each of the crucial gaps in the system—loosening award restrictions, enhancing employer power and contributing to changes in employer perceptions (Campbell & Brosnan, 1999, p. 374). Degree of control describes whether the employer has the right to control or direct how the worker performs the job (Bosworth, 2016). Control includes the types of instructions and degree of instructions given to contract employees as well as training and evaluation systems in place (Internal Revenue Services, 2016). Therefore, the degree of control is a function of the amount of professionalism inherent in contract employees which is a function of how much the human resources management (HRM) in the oil and gas sector

invests institutional skills and competence in contract employees. The extent to which management and administration in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA implements the Human Resource Management policies on training is also determined by the pressure and ability of the regulatory bodies to detect manipulative tendencies in the industry. Thus, in this study, degree of control is the amount of freedom contract employees have to perform their tasks using their own initiatives without supervision. This study therefore measures the amount of differences in degree of control among contract employees in the industries as indicators of favourable or unfavourable working conditions.

Wage and hour standards constitute a very important and emergent area of working conditions. These standards include minimum wage, overtime pay, and underpayment in a variety of public and private workplaces, as well as family and medical benefits. Prevailing wages for government service and construction contracts fall within this area, as do work authorization criteria for non-U.S. citizens undertaking temporary, migrant, or agricultural work under the Immigration and Nationality Act. Wage and hour standards also cover workplace conditions for working children and protect children and adults alike from exposure to detrimental or unfair working conditions, such as those found in contract employment, sweatshops and throughout the global human trafficking system; and a recent focus within wage and hour work has been working on “wage theft” particularly with immigrant workers.

Corporations use contract or casual employees not only to reduce labour costs but to also increase capacity beyond permanent employees’s normal working hours (National Labour & Economic Development Institution [NALEDI], 2006). Contract employees more often worked late and worked on Sundays and public holidays. This is certainly an approach to

increase total employment but avoid obligations in the law to pay overtime. In addition, contract employment is an approach to extend the working hours that would usually be for workers on permanent employment. Corporations in this regard also use contract employment as a form of numerical flexibility to make up for the off and peak times. They find it easier to hire casuals during peak periods and dismiss them during lean times (NALEDI, 2006). This is a mechanism to evade the provision relating to the hiring and dismissal of permanent employees. Research information shows that corporations dismissed casuals and contract workers more easily than permanent workers (NALEDI, 2006; Ofreneo, 2010; Bosworth, 2016)

Working hours of contract employees is a measure of their working conditions. It is a measure of the degree of flexibility of work contract employees have to perform. Apart from the normal working schedules, contract employees have the right to flexible work schedules (Ofreneo, 2010). This, however is a function of recognition and observance of statutory rights and flexible human resources management practices. Under provisions set out in employment rights and regulations made under it, all employees have a statutory right to ask their employer for a change to their contractual terms and conditions for employment to work flexibly (ACAS, 2014). The number of hours spent working by contract employees is determined by human resources management practices that make provisions for consistent commensurate pay for any extra time worked (Lawler & Jenkins, 1992). Thus, working hours of contract employee is a measure of the degree of flexibility of human resources management practices and statutory rights. The present study will examine the similarities or differences in working hours of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and the USA.

Working conditions of contract employees can also be defined by their remuneration. In developed economies, remuneration of contract employees in the oil and gas is determined by the type of work done by contract employees and the number of hours they spend working (Graham, 2010). The remuneration may also be determined by agreements reached by bargaining parties, condition of employment, economic conditions, and statutory provisions. Empirical literature has confirmed the sectoral influence on the remuneration of contract employees having stated that the nature of wage given to contract employees in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria is not encouraging (Graham, 2010; Danesi, 2011). However, Blank (2016) external economic factors has a role to play in the structure of remuneration and many of these factors concern the broader economic picture in the USA and elsewhere. Thus, factors such as unemployment levels, globalisation, industry condition, cost of living were listed (Blank, 2016). It has also been stated that minimum standards are set in most countries through legislation to determine wages (Graham, 2010). Thus, it is expected that there should be similarity or differences in remuneration of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies with subsidiaries in Nigeria. This study will test the hypothesis on differences or similarities in remuneration of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and the USA.

This study will also examine the differences or similarities in health and retirement plan of contract employees in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. This is because concern for working conditions of contract employees is defined by the health status and retirement provision made available for these set of employees through employment practices and adherence to health and safety statutory policies. Occupational health and safety is an area concerned with the [safety](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Safety), [health](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Health) and [welfare](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quality_of_life) of workers. The goals of occupational safety and health programs includes; fostering a safe and healthy work environment (Oak

Ridge National Laboratory [ORNL], 2015). In view of these, the hypotheses to examine the amount of differences that occur in health and retirement plans of contract employees will be stated.

This study will examine the differences or similarities in benefits offered to contract employees in the American oil and gas companies just as remuneration. It has been stated that contract employees in American oil and gas industry in the USA enjoys compensation by receiving part of the company’s share of profit benefits and other health insurance measured (Graham, 2010). Also, health and safety benefits have not really led to serious disagreements between employers and employees in oil and gas companies because they are both aware of its implications to lives, to the organisational image, to relationships and also its financial implications as well. This awareness has led to improvements in occupational health and safety movements in the oil and gas industry as a whole (Graham, 2010). It is expected that the contract employees that are working with the American oil and gas companies with subsidiaries in Nigeria should receive similar benefits. However, benefits are in form of added cost to organisations in the light of economic conditions.

Training is an important indicator of good working conditions among contract employees in the oil and gas sector. This is because of the nature of the technical job performed by these set of employees. Untrained workers could be more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and can hamper the competitiveness of the enterprise (ILO, 2003). Graham (2010) postulates that the Nigerian oil union (NUPENG) alleged that contract employees lack proper on-the-job training. Enterprises can be reluctant to invest in training workers who will probably not be with them for long (ILO, 2003) and this defines the nature of agreement of contract

employees. Apart from this, most employers feel training is an additional cost on non - permanent employees. Training has its cost on organisations (ILO, 2003). Thus, examining the differences or similarities in training of contract employees in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA would provide a leeway for more awareness on the issue.

The labour union in the Nigerian oil and gas industry (NUPENG) has alleged that contract workers suffer from increased work pressure, unclear responsibilities and inadequate health and safety protection (Okougbo, 2009; Ezigbo, 2008). The user enterprise of a subcontractor is unlikely to train the workers supplied by that firm, except for very specific purposes; which accounts for the accidents contract employees are exposed to at the workplace. The amount of health and safety policies made available for contract employees could define the well- being of the employees. Thus, this study will examine the differences or similarities in health and safety of contract employees in the oil companies.

Social protection deals with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affect employees’ [wellbeing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Well_being) (UNRISD, 2010; World Bank, 2001). Social protection comprises policies and platforms intended to moderate poverty and susceptibility by promoting efficient [labour markets](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Labour_market), reducing people’s exposure to risks, and enhancing their ability to manage economic and social risks, such as unemployment, exclusion, sickness, [disability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disability) and old age. A collective issue in employing effective labour market interventions is how to integrate contract employees and workers in the informal economy, which comprises a significant portion of the workforce in developing countries (Lund, 2009). Most contract employees and informal workers are not covered by social security schemes, occupational safety and health measures, working conditions regulations and have inadequate

access to health services and work-related measures of social protection (Ransom, 2002; Mares & Carnes, 2009; Lund, 2009; UNRISD, 2010). Hence, contract employees serve as a means of cheap labour which organisations could use to reduce cost and withstand competition in the market. The use of contract employees is a form of flexible nonstandard work arrangements in the management of labour (Danesi, 2011). Thus, it is expected that the amount of training made available to contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA should be similar. However, the extent of social protection of contract employees in these countries is determined by the extent to which management observe and implement social protection policies in their various organisations in these countries. It has been revealed that instances where social protection laws are meant to guide contract employees, it has not been recognised or ignored by employers and contract employees are denied the right to organize and bargain collectively under the National Labour Relations Act (Emsellem & Ruckkelshaus, 2010). Hence, the study examines the differences or similarities in social protection of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and the USA.

Globalisation has had a huge influence on the increase of unemployment and the de- regulation of labour markets which is construed as a move towards varieties of flexibility with an affiliated removal of worker’s protection, lowering of social protection and the weakening of labour unions (Schmidt, 2005). The point of departure is that although the discourse on globalisation has preserved workfare as a new socio-economic objective for capitalist societies, the results of this strategy have left the trend of casualisation as a pain on the society of employment.

Globalisation is observed from different perceptions by scholars. Otobo (2000) states that globalisation is definitely at the heart of the new millennium after establishing its presence in the 20th century. It means that, globalisation can exist as dynamism for good with the prospect of making the world a better place. Iyayi (2010) postulates that globalisation is a process of increasing capitalist economic interest to all parts of the globe on agreed terms and conditions advantageous to leading capitalist countries, organisations and institutions.

Globalisation has accentuated job losses through down-sizing, outsourcing, rationalisation and casualisation in Nigeria because the structural basis of most businesses is weak coupled with the harsh operating environment characterised by competitiveness and hostility. Employers in the oil and gas sub-sector in Nigeria have exploited poverty and saturated market condition that promotes unemployment to entrench casual labour with its obnoxious conditions for the workers. In contrast, in developed economies like the USA, contract labour is well remunerated for in cash, even better than permanent jobs in some cases (Fapohunda, 2012; Adewumi, 2008), except that a contract worker is not placed on pension at the end of service. In the United States, a 401(k) plan is the tax-eligible, clear-contribution retirement fund account defined in subsection 401(k) of the Internal Revenue Code. Under the 401(K) plan, retirement savings contributions are made available through deductions from the employee’s income before taxation (tax is deferred until the employee or individual is willing to withdraw which is usually after retirement or as otherwise permitted by related law) and occasionally proportionately matched by an employer. Consequently, the 401(K) plan is personalised as pension/retirement fund in the USA for all classes of workers, which includes: permanent; part-time; small business owners and individuals (solo or self directed 401(K)); and those on contract employment. In addition to this, there are other benefits accrued to US citizens in their old age that could also be classified as pension under social security/social protection. Ironically, the same employer in those developed economies go to

Nigeria and other third world countries to perpetrate the payment of peanuts to casual workers as wages (Adewumi, 2008) without any form of retirement benefit or plan of any form in place. This they do through introduction of poor conditions of service reminiscent of industrial revolution era in British history (Hyman, 1975) which workers fought very hard to overcome through trade unionism and focused labour struggle.

The American oil and gas companies are chosen for this study because they are the only two American Oil and Gas Corporations with subsidiaries in Nigeria among their peers. More so, these American oil and gas companies are major players in the Nigerian oil and gas industry. The oil and gas industry in Nigeria is noted for the high use of contract workers. Finally, there is a dearth of literature on comparative studies in respect of working conditions among contract workers in these oil and gas companies in their home country and Nigeria.

### Statement of the Problem

Contract employment is originally designed for seasonal work or work that arises periodically and continues for a relatively short period; 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. The practice of casualisation abounds in the manufacturing industry, banking industry and the oil and gas sectors in Nigeria and around the world. It is a practical option of socio-economic problem on the part of the contract workers to subject themselves to this precarious employment while on the part of the employers, it is to cut costs and remain competitive in a capitalist environment of increasing competition, cost minimisation, flexibility and wealth accumulation (Standing, 2011). Where the worker is faced with the choice between contract work and no work at all, the former will be the choice in order to eke out a living. Casualisation within the Nigerian workplace environment poses threat to

employment relation issues. This is so because most issues concerning contract employment are not defined or captured by the employment relations practice and this will likely have consequences on the employment relations practices in the American oil companies in Nigeria.

This work arrangement was predominant in the construction industry (Braverman, 1974) and agricultural sector and it was mainly for the unskilled in Nigeria, USA and around the world. However, both the skilled and the unskilled are engaged as contract workers in the informal economy, the organised private sector and the public sector of the Nigerian and the U.S economies.

The practice of nonstandard work arrangements (NSWAs) now transcends the earlier scope and it forms a large component of the labour force. In Nigeria, it has been observed that government pays little attention to the issue of contract employment; subjecting vulnerable group of workers to exploitation and derogatory employment status and conditions. Many organisations in the private and public sectors in Nigeria are known to have as much as 50 per cent of their work force as either casual or contract employees. In respect to the Baker’s Panel report into safety at British Petroleum’s (BP) refineries in the United States, it is noted that the proportion of contract workers employed in refineries is high (Baker, 2007).

The most alarming trend is the increasing gap between the rich and the poor, the terms of employment are not fair in developing countries due to the economic situation of their citizens; getting the raw deals while the developed nations seem to be getting all the benefits. This can be termed as modern day imperialism (World Bank, 2011; Standing, 2011). Owing to this domination and profit maximisation, some corporations have taken advantage of these

to relocate businesses to countries with cheap labour and weak environmental laws, and increasing environmental degradation (Standing, 2011).

Employers claim that the use of outsourcing in some cases may not necessarily be to cut costs but to help them concentrate on their core services but in true sense it is to give them the freedom to hire and fire contract employees at will without any financial consequences (Danesi, 2012). Also, in developing a more flexible work force, employers use contract employment to avoid obligations imposed by employment laws and protection. Contract employees are usually denied the right to organise; therefore these allow employers to avoid the problems they associate with union representation and collective bargaining (Danesi, 2011; Rees & Fielder, 1992; Kalleberg, 2000).The dangers emanating from the perception of labour union is a problem that must be dealt with at the workplace most importantly in both multinational and indigenous oil and gas companies in Nigeria. This perception includes violation of labour rights, lack of workplace justice, and erosion of labour standards. However, the implication of this practice on the part of the worker, is that there are no better options available to meet the worker’s economic needs (Standing, 2011). Where the worker is faced with the choice between contract work and no work at all, the former will be the choice.

The use of labour contractors or employment agencies to engage contract workers has been a source of constant conflict between unions and employers in Nigeria (Danesi, 2011). This is because contract 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. Employment relations could become more problematic especially on issues such as compensation and benefits in the organisation, dispute and conflict resolutions,

trade unions and unionism, as well as labour management relations. These conditions have been a source of hardship and challenges to contract employees globally. These problems have informed this study.

### Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the United States of America. The specific objectives of the study are to:

* + 1. Investigate the differences in the degree of managerial control and working conditions of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
    2. Ascertain the differences in working hours and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
    3. Examine the differences in benefits/remuneration and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
    4. Investigate the differences in access to social protection and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
    5. Examine the differences in trade union membership and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
    6. Identify the recruitment and selection practices of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

### Research Questions

Based on the objectives of the study, the following research questions were raised:

1. Is there any significant difference in the degree of managerial control and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and USA?
2. Is there any significant difference in working hours and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA?
3. Are there differences in the benefits/remuneration and working conditions enjoyed by contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA?
4. How adequate is the level of social protection and working conditions for the contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA?
5. Is there difference in trade union membership and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA?
6. With respect to recruitment and selection practices of contract employees, what policy is preferred by the companies?

### Research Hypotheses

The following are the null hypotheses stated for the study.

Ho1: There is no significant difference in the degree of managerial control and working conditions of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

Ho2: There is no significant difference in working hours and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

Ho3: There are no significant differences in the benefits/remuneration and working conditions enjoyed by contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

Ho4: The level of social protection and working conditions among the contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA does not differ.

Ho5: There is no significant difference in trade union membership among the contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

### Significance of the Study

The main thrust of this study is to examine the impact of Employment practices on working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA with a view to establishing similarities or differences in practices and patterns of contract employment in both countries. Considering the dearth of reliable data on working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas industry globally, this study will provide a reliable data on working conditions among the contract employees in the American oil companies.

In Nigeria, it has been observed that government pays little attention to the issue of contract employment; subjecting vulnerable group of workers to exploitation and derogatory employment status and conditions. It has also been observed that there is dearth of reliable data on working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas industry globally therefore this study will provide necessary perceptions on gaps on the legal frameworks regulating working conditions, and optimistically proffer possible solutions for contract employees, trade unionists, industrial relations practitioners; human resource management professionals, employers, consultants and other stakeholders in dealing with issues of contract employment by adopting the ILO Convention on Decent Work Agenda.

From an understanding of the issues of policies and code of conduct governing the oil and gas industry concerning working conditions of contract employees, this study will recommend

policies and framework that will govern the management of contract employment in Nigeria and the USA. Also, this study will provide theoretical and empirical evidence on contract employment and its implications for contract employees and managers in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA.

The study could provide theoretical and empirical evidence on contract employment and its environmental implications on employment practices and working conditions of contract employees in Nigeria and USA. The study will establish the similarities and differences in the working conditions of contract employees. It will also develop a model that will provide insights to how environmental factors can determine the HRM Practices affecting the working conditions of contract employees in Nigeria and the USA.

### Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study examines the differences in Employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA from a comparative perspective. The focus of this study is on contract employees in the American oil and gas corporations with subsidiaries in Nigeria. The aspects of employment practices under investigation include the degree of managerial control, working hours, remuneration, occupational health and safety benefits, training opportunities, level of access to the social protection health insurance and retirement plans; and membership of trade union. This study is limited to the contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA, especially in Chevron and ExxonMobil.

The American oil and gas corporations under investigation have their parents head offices in the USA namely San Ramon, California (Chevron) and Houston, Texas (ExxonMobil); while their subsidiaries head offices are both located in Lagos State, Nigeria.

### Operational /Conceptual Definition of Terms

According to Deming (2000); [Shoemaker](https://uk.sagepub.com/en-gb/afr/author/pamela-j-shoemaker), Tankard and [Lasorsa](https://uk.sagepub.com/en-gb/afr/author/dominic-l-lasorsa), (2004); Burnette (2007), an operational definition is a procedure agreed upon for translation of a concept into measurement of specifics study –as they placed great importance on the value of using operational definitions in all agreements in business. Deming (2000) and Woodhouse (2003) state that there is no true value of any characteristic, state, or condition that is defined in terms of measurement or observation. Change of procedure for measurement (change of operational definition) or observation produces a new number. The following terms will be used in this study as defined below:

**Casualisation:** In this study, this refers to jobs that attract wage rate of 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, etcetera), that are normally associated with ‘permanent’ (or ‘continuing’) jobs for employees.

**Contexts:** In this study, these refer to environmental factors affecting the industrial relations practices in an organisation. The contexts may include the political system, economic situation, socio-cultural factors, technology, environment, legislation, labour market institutions, degree of unionisation and management style which can positively or negatively affect the policies, operations of an organisation and the working conditions of its employees.

**Contract Employee:** A contract employee is defined in this study as an individual in an oil and gas company who is under the categories of “direct hire, manpower contract, or service contract; day labourers and informal workers in any employment relationship with the oil company or a contractor or subcontractor to the oil or gas company, including those providing services to one company on behalf of another; who has obtained a written contract of employment and has offered his or her labour effort temporarily in exchange for wages.

**Contract Employment:** In line with this study, this is when an individual or independent contractor mainly in the categories of “direct hire, manpower contract, or service contract” enter into a contract for a specific task or series of tasks for a substantial period or the placing of contracts with third party service providers to deliver essential support services to an organisation which is normally dependent on such services to be able to achieve its own core business objectives. However, the contract may contain precise terms such as materials used and methods of performance.

**Contracted Work:** This refers to jobs performed by an individual employed as hired labour, manpower labour or service labour without any defined benefit, who will; perform work as part of their institutional appointment; have a pragmatic decision making responsibility; manage technical and administrative aspects of a portion of an overall project statement of work and use facilities as well as the full time or regular employees of the organisation.

**Employment Relations:** This refers to the relationship between individual organisation, workers (individual and collective) and the regulation of employment in the wider social context.

**Employment Practices (EP):** In this study, these are the day-to-day operations essential to meeting the needs of an organisation, including recruitment, compensation management, human capital development, social protection, working hours and degree of management control. While predicting outcomes and ensuring that the organisation has enough of the most qualified human capital to reach its goals.

**Labour Management Relations (LMR):** This refers to the interaction of workers and employers, whether or not they are organised, concerning their relations in the world of work.

**Outsourcing:** This is when any operation or process that could be – or would usually be – performed in-house by an organisation’s employees is sub-contracted to another organisation for a substantial period. The outsourced tasks can be performed on-site or off-site.

**Trade Union (TU):** In this study, this refers to an officially recognised association of employees, practicing a similar trade or employed in the same company or industry, who have joined together to present a united front and collective voice in dealing with management, with the aim of securing and furthering the social and economic interests and well-being of their members.

**Working conditions (WC):** Working conditions as used in this study refers to certain rights and privileges given to employees by the employer or management of an organisation. The working conditions may include length of working hours, career advancement opportunities, training opportunities, job security and improvement in workers’ right to join trade unions and participate in collective bargaining.

# CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

### Preamble

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature addressing the issues associated with contract employment practices and working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas sector with a view to identifying the gap in the literature. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework adopted for the study, the empirical review of the literature and conceptual framework of the study.

Amongst the theories used are the Human relations theory, Industrial Relations Systems Theory; Scientific Management Theory; Labour Process Theory, Labour Market Segmentation Theory, Perlmutter’s theory and Pluralist/Pluralistic theory.

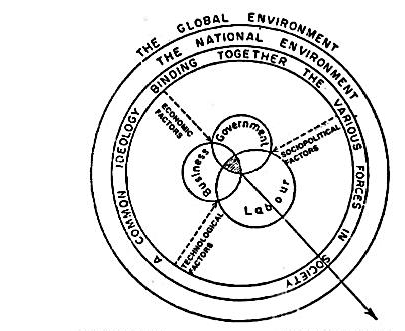
### Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study examines employment practices and the working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria and the USA to gain comparative insights. Working conditions encompass advancement opportunities, organisational commitment, training opportunities, job satisfaction, social security and benefits, health facilities, transport facilities, flexible work arrangement, decent pay, improvement in workers’ right to organise and bargain. However, the thesis is anchored within the ambit of relevant theories such as: Industrial Relations Systems Theory which is an offshoot of the Open System Theory; Scientific Management Theory; Labour Process Theory, Labour Market Segmentation Theory, Perlmutter’s Theory and Pluralist/Pluralistic Theory. In this study, the Industrial relations open system’s theory is applicable because it comprises a large number of parts that are open to various external forces and measures such as political, economic, social, legal and

technological factors influencing employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies. The open system operates within an environment and it exchanges information, materials and energy with the environment (Sapru, 2009). Thus, in a dynamic environment, an open system gets its inputs from its environment, transforms the inputs into outputs using its internal processes. The relevance of the scientific management theory to this study is that it captures the extent to which management possesses control and power over their employees to deliver results efficiently. The labour process theory helps in explaining that apart from this practice of contract labour being a practice of value creation; it is a specific practice for profit maximisation and cost minimisation and control, which helps in explaining the reason behind the use of contract employees in the oil and gas industry in the American oil and gas companies.

### The Industrial Relations Systems Theory

The industrial relations systems theory was propounded by John Thomas Dunlop in 1958 (Otobo, 2005). Dunlop (1958) argues that “An industrial-relations system at any one time in its development is regarded as comprised of certain actors, certain contexts, an ideology which binds the industrial-relations system together and a body of rules created to govern actors at the workplace and work community” (Otobo, 2005, p.19).



##### Figure 2.1 Dunlop’s System Model



**Source: Adopted from Dunlop, 1958.**

In its most basic terms, the Dunlopian Industrial Relations Systems Theory is about the

structure and development of relationships among the three integral members of labour

relations (labour, management, government) and about resolving labour-management

problems based upon *agreement* on a common set of facts that affect or are affected by

labour, management and government (Otobo, 2000).

Dunlop defined industrial relationships as analytical sub-strata of the industrial nations. He

defined the sub-strata as operating under the same logic as the discipline of economics; since

Dunlop was primarily an economist, this is a significant element of his definition because he is positing that labour relations problems can be resolved through a system of logic, not chance, and that the development of labour relationships over time can be guided through logical steps and by logical means, with nothing left to disruptive chance.

Dunlop's (1958) theory of industrial relations system centralized the rules and norms--the *agreements*--of industrial relations at the heart of *analysis*. This *diverged* from the previous system, which made labour-management conflict and resultant collective bargaining the heart of industrial relations, which left a good deal to chance and to the illogical emotions of conflict.

Dunlop identified what he called a "web of rules" that are the elementary components that govern industrial relationships. He identified the institutions and norms that constitute the framework within which industrial relations are carried out and which govern the outcomes of these relationships. The substantive norms focus on issues such as wages and wage rates, working hours, occupational safety and health (OSH) regulations, etc. The procedural rules include institutions, governmental regulating agencies, conciliation and arbitration boards, etc. Dunlop (1958) identified the three "contexts" of industry as technologies, industry markets, and power distribution within labour unions and corporate organisation. Finally, Dunlop posits an "ideology" that "binds" an industrial relations system together, binding them with a common set of beliefs about society, human worth, and government oversight. Other requirements for a system are inputs, transformational process, output, and the feedback procedure.

Muller-Jentsch (2004) says in his [*Theoretical Approaches to Industrial Relations*](http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1015&context=books)that the Industrial Relations System (IRS) was theorised in relations to both process and product: as a

directional guide process generating other rules governing the actors and managed by the systems of industrial relations at the national, industry, or plant level.

While Dunlop's IRS does not account for the means or mode by which rules come to be made, it might be assumed that the rules devolve from the ideological commonality between actors. Because of Dunlop's IRS foundation in economics and logic, he developed a formulation representing all these components just as shown in Figure 2.1 above: rules (R), actors (A), contexts (T, M, P) and ideology IR = f(A, T, M, P, I).

What Dunlop is saying relating to actors and ideologies is, as briefly stated above, that all actors (managers, workers, governing bodies) share a common society, thus share a common ideology.

Ideology is defined as the set of beliefs common among members of a society in relation to philosophy, religion, politics, culture, art, etc.

While our societies are more complex, especially Western societies, Dunlop's post-World War II society was far more homogenous with less divergent roots in religion, politics, culture, art and philosophy than ours today. Still, it might rightly be said that there is a common ideology that governs the premise of how management, labour and government is expected to relate among one another.

There are indeed two types of system; a closed system and an open system. Dunlop, to all intent and purposes, meant that the IRS is an open system. An open system is believed to have the capacity to share information and other activities with the environment in which it operates. On the other hand, a closed system does not have interaction with its environment; it operates within an enveloping environment (Sapru, 2009). In this study, the open system is

applicable because it is made up of a large number of parts that are open to various external forces and measures such as political, economic, social, legal and technological influencing Employment practices and working conditions of contract employees. The open system operates within an environment and it exchanges information, materials and energy with the environment (Sapru, 2009). Thus in a dynamic environment, an open system gets its inputs from its environment, transforms the inputs into outputs using its internal processes.

##### Open System Theory

Pearce & Robinson (2011) argued that an organisation external environment was first recognised by open systems theorists who observed that organisations operate not as self- contained isolated units but in continuous and inevitable interaction with the large system surrounding them and within which they exist. It is this surrounding system that these theorists recognised as the external environment. External environment consists of factors that affect a business organisation from outside such as rivalry, consumer behaviour, supplier behaviour, macroeconomic dynamics, government policy, and global dynamics (Pearce & Robinson, 2007; Alkali, 2012). In general, the analysis of the external environment will include the macro environment and the environmental aspects of the industry. External environment includes aspects related to the political, legal, economic, social, environmental and technological that may affect the employment practices and working conditions of contract employees (Wheelen & Hunger, 2009).

External environment is extremely dynamic, globalisation and incredible technological advances has created a new chapter that has reshaped the organisation’s external environment. An organisation can manage increasing dependence by adapting to or avoiding external demands; changing the patterns of interdependence through employment practices,

growth, merger, and diversification; establishing collective structures to form a negotiated environment; and using legal, political or social exploit to form Best Practices (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

Porter (1980, 1985), suggests that the central tenets of an organisation’s competitive advantage rest on the ability of the firm to position and differentiate itself in a given context. This requires strategic capabilities.

Wilensky (1967) opines that when the environment is seen as hostile or threatening, or when the organisation depends heavily on the environment, more resources are allocated to the environmental scanning function.

Powell and DiMaggio (1991) in their institutional theory generally regard organisations as being forced to respond to, adapt to, or imitate the ebb and flow of normative and regulatory currents in their environments. Porter (1980, 1985), observed that competitive forces in an organisation’s environment drive its business strategy. It’s further emphasised that the attributes of the environment determine the most appropriate type of strategy for a firm (Campbell & Garnett, 1989; Poister, Pitts & Edwards, 2010).

### Scientific Management Theory

The theory of scientific management was propounded by Frederick Taylor in 1911. As a management practice, this theory holds that the employment relations choices of management must start from the assumption that employees are immature in the ways of work, are prone to avoid it whenever possible, and have limited, self-centred aspirations and time-horizons. In so far as this clashes with the aspirations and time-horizons of organisations, efforts to reduce the outward manifestation of internal tension are to be undertaken by direct and highly

rigid control of the workplace activities of employees. To scientifically determine the optimal way to perform a job, Taylor performed experiments that he called “*time and motion**studies*”.

The time and motion studies were characterized by the use of a stopwatch to time a worker's sequence of motions in *The Pig Iron experiment and the Science of Shoveling*, with the goal of determining the one best way to perform a job. Indeed it is the task of management to show rational leadership when recruiting and directing workers, to have a clear understanding of the tasks employees are expected to perform, and to have untrammelled prerogatives to control the pace and processes under which they work. Companies subscribing to this form of management practice would reduce work to its basic elements, such that the skills of workers necessary to undertake tasks are kept to a minimum. Employees would be treated impersonally and collectively, with any workplace issues being referred to management. Under these conditions the management approach to employee relations is one that seeks to suppress internal tension over the distribution of organisational power by ensuring that management retains superior knowledge about the structure and organisation of work, and has the authority to direct workers as it sees fit. It captures the extent to which management possess control and power over their employees. Its inadequacies brought about the Human Relations Theory.

### Human Relations Theory

The Human relations theory is from the human relations school propounded by Mayo (1933). In this case the reduction of organisational tension is held to rest on the ability of individuals to achieve self-fulfillment in the workplace. Workers are regarded as qualitatively different to other resources used in production. Thus, if workers are denied autonomy on the job, or are

reduced to acting as mere extensions of the machinery they operate, or are given work that inhibits their capacity to create and think, it is argued that they will invariably find ways to subvert the methods of control that enforce these conditions (Maslow, 1954; Mayo, 1933; Child, 1967).

It has now been increasingly recognized that a lot can be attained by the managers and the worker, if they understand and apply the techniques of human relations approaches to industrial relations (Hills, 1995; Lewin, 2001). The workers are likely to attain greater job satisfaction, develop greater involvement in their work and achieve a measure of identification of their objectives with the objectives of the organization; the manager, on their part, would develop greater insight and effectiveness in their work (Levine, 1995).

Relationships between employees and management are of substantial value in any workplace. Human relations is the process of training employees, addressing their needs, fostering a workplace culture and resolving conflicts between different employees or between employees and management (Hills, 1995; Lewin, 2001). Understanding some of the ways that human relations can impact the costs, competitiveness and long-term economic sustainability of a business helps to underscore their importance (Budd, 2004).

The principal task of management on this conception is to manipulate workplace relations in ways that enable employees to feel personal satisfaction with being involved with the organization (Levine, 1995). To this end, companies operating on this basis are expected to recognise the right of employees to have a say in how they are governed. They are also expected to take an active interest in developing the skills of employees as a means of demonstrating a commitment to their personal well-being.

Without a stable and inviting workplace culture, difficult challenges can arise both in the logistics of managing employees and in the bottom line. Businesses with engaging workplaces, a well-trained workforce and decent work arrangement are more likely to retain and attract qualified employees, foster loyalty with customers and more quickly adapt to meet the needs of a changing marketplace. In whatever form, the aim of this managerial approach to employee relations is one that seeks to reduce internal tensions by developing the sense of workplace satisfaction felt by employees through techniques that involve them in the organisation and regulation of work.

### Pluralism Theory

Pluralism was propounded by Fox (1966). Though the theory of pluralism originated in the last quarters of the nineteenth century and developed in the beginning of the twentieth century, however its background can be traced down to the Feudal Age (Clegg, 1975; Fox, 1974; Hyman, 1975).

In Feudal Age, the church and the organisation of the State in Europe were loose, vocational associations and Guilds played their significant role in society. In the sixteenth and seventeenth century, national sentiment gathered force in Europe and as a consequence national states emerged.

These national states became powerful and all the powers, in these states, were centered with the ruler. In due course of time, these national states faced revolt and public- movements and the result was the dawn of democracy.

In Democracy, the authority of the ruler was confined, the cabinet became more powerful but the state remained sovereign and supreme. With the advent of the Welfare State there came a rapid increase in the functions of the State and there remained no sphere of life with which

the State did not interfere, the sovereign and the supreme state also faced revolt and reaction. This reaction against the sovereign and supreme state resulted into the dawn of pluralism (Clegg, 1975; Fox, 1974; Hyman, 1975).

Pluralism is of a set of assumptions and values that workplace conflict is inevitable. Typical of those holding this perception is the view that business organisations are complex social constructions made up of different interest groups (Fox, 1974). State, management and employees constitute such groups, who, because of the very nature of the factory system, are seen as invariably subscribing to different values and objectives (Hyman, 1975). The nature of work and workers’ lives were graphically apparent to the early institutionalists through the labour problem of the early twentieth century—excessive working hours, low wages, dangerous working conditions, and widespread worker insecurity from business cycles, seasonal labour demand, accidents or disease, old age, and discriminatory or arbitrary firings (Kaufman 1993, 1997). According to Kaufman (1993, p.13) these objectives remains important in the contemporary industrial relations paradigm, “greater efficiency in production; greater equity in the distribution of economic rewards, the utilization of labor, and the administration of employment policies in the workplace; and greater individual happiness and opportunities for personal growth and development”. From this frame of reference it is also assumed that there will be different sources of authority within an organisation, and that the potential for conflict between them will always exist over the organisation of work tasks and the allocation of rewards. By recognising the inevitability of workplace conflict, those holding this perspective tend to regard conflict as necessary for the health of an enterprise as it serves to bring grievances held by workers to the surface. It is also argued that the potential for conflict provides a spur to managers to explore innovative methods for handling it in a way that will produce the best results. Acknowledging the existence of competing sources of authority, most notably in the form of shop stewards or

trade unions, is held by pluralists to offer benefits by allowing organisations to deal with industrial relations issues on a collective basis (Dunlop, 1993). In this regard it is argued not only to provide management with the most efficient means for institutionalising employment rules and minimising the level of workplace conflict, but to also encourage fairer outcomes by enabling employees to organise and counter-balance the power of managers when negotiating workplace contract (Walton & McKersie, 1965). It is on the basis of these conceptions that pluralists generally accept the legitimate right of employees to bargain collectively and trade unions to act in this capacity on their behalf (Walton & McKersie, 1965; Fox, 1974; Clegg, 1975).

Pluralist assumption helps management to realise that efforts should be made in creating an enabling work environment for employees. Resolving conflicts, understanding of human behavior (both individual and groups) is a pre-requisite for the employers, the union leaders and the government – more so for the management. Thus, the interest of employers and employee are divergent. Employers want to maximise profit at the expenses of the employee and employee want to enjoy social benefits inform of increased wages, decent work arrangement, conducive environment. Therefore, conflict is inevitable hence the need for trade union to protect the interest of both parties. Conflicts cannot be resolved unless the management learns and knows what the basic needs of employees (permanent and temporary) are and how they can be motivated to work effectively.

Consequently, the role of management would tilt less towards enforcing and controlling and more toward persuasion and co-ordination. Trade unions are deemed as legitimate representatives of employees; conflict is resolved by collective bargaining and, if managed properly, could be channelled towards evolution and positive change. Also, there is dual

authority/loyalty in this approach; employees are loyal to the management as well as their labour leaders.

### Labour Process Theory

There is a wide range of ‘radical’ theories informed by a Marxist frame of position. Some draw more prominently on economic assumptions pertaining to capitalist modes of economic organisation being inherently exploitative and prone to conflict. Others draw more on sociological assumptions pertaining to the existence of class-based value systems that serve to legitimise the dominant position of capitalist interests (Otobo, 1994). Braverman’s (1974) labour process theory is a widely referred to example of the Marxist frame of reference. In the manner of Marx, this particular theory argues that the primary role of management is to convert raw materials into products through the use of labour and machinery; that the only way management is able to do this is through the establishment of structures of power and control that convert the capacity of employees to perform work (i.e., labour power) into actual work effort (i.e., labour); and that it is only through this conversion that profitable production and capital accumulation can take place.

It is on the basis of these three observations that the theory asserts that since the turn of the century the ability of managers to control the activities of workers has been increasingly facilitated by the advancement of technology and the spread of scientific management techniques. These developments have altered the labour process by deskilling work and fragmenting the tasks involved until they are devoid of any meaningful content by those performing them. They have also served to centralise the knowledge of work in the hands of managers and diminished the autonomy of employees to determine the pace and conduct of work. In so far as these developments are intrinsic to the reasoning of modern forms of

capitalist production, they are held to be the outcome of the ever-present necessity for business organisations to find new ways to employ labour more efficiently and more cheaply.

Conversely, the other side of this reason is that the deepening alienation and on-going exploitation involved in such moves are perpetually resisted by employees, either openly or secretly, making them unreliable contributors to the labour process or disposed to act in ways that are against the interests of the organisations employing them. On this conception workplace conflict is not merely the outcome of the recalcitrant behaviour of individuals or inappropriate management selection and promotion practices, as unitarists assert. Nor is it simply the product of competing group interests in the workplace, as pluralists assert. It is instead the result of the very nature of capitalist industrial development itself.

Braverman (1974) also specifies that labour process starts with an agreement or pact that rules the context of the sale of labour power by the labour and the acquisition of the same labour power by the manager. This is so because a worker may not have an alternative than to enter into a contract employment due to socio-economic reasons. Also, this relatively informs the tension on the part of the trade unions for better wages and improved working conditions for this group of workers who may have entered into precarious work arrangement. Hence, the labour process theory helps in explaining that apart from this practice being a practice of value creation; it is a specific practice for profit maximisation and cost minimization and control, which helps in explaining the reason behind the use of contract employees in the oil and gas industry.

### Dual Labour Market (Labour Market Segmentation) Theory

Doeringer and Piore (1970, 1971) and Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) are the pioneers of the Labour Market Segmentation theory. Doeringer and Piore (1970) theoretical framework is

an extension of the principal steps taken by Kerr (1954) and Dunlop (1957) towards a theory of internal (also known as the institutional labour market) and external labour markets. Kerr (1954) anticipated what he called the institutionalisation of labour markets; boundaries are set more precisely by institutional rules. These rules are commonly referred to as the activities of workers, the activities of employers and the activities of government (Williamson, Wachter & Harris, 1975); and are indicated in management handbooks or collective bargaining agreements or can be referred to as an unwritten set of rules.

In respect to Doeringer and Piore perspective (1971), the internal labour market is characterized by the occupational structure, wage determination, job content, opportunities for job specific training, entrance and exit, and the allocation of labour within them are largely determined by bureaucratic (administrative) rules. The internal labour market has limited ports of entry connecting it with the external market. Admittance to the internal market is reserved only to certain individuals with the desirable traits and those who control the points of entrance have substantial influence on the job distribution process and thereby largely determine the employment opportunities of certain groups of workers and the distribution of welfare in society (Kerr, 1954). Just as Kerr stated that: “for society to remain free and open, many ports of entry should exist and the immigration barriers should not hold outside the able and the willing” (Kerr, 1954, p. 103).

With reference to Dunlop (1966), Doeringer and Piore (1971, p. 1) define the internal labour market as:

***…an administrative unit, such as a manufacturing plant, within which the pricing and allocation of labor is governed by a set of administrative rules and procedures...[and] is to***

***be distinguished from the external labor market of conventional economic theory where pricing, allocating, and training decisions are measured directly by economic variables.***

As stated above, both internal and external labour markets are interconnected at the ports of entry. Employees in the external market compete directly with one another for those jobs at the entry level and not with workers already inside the internal market. Due to the institutional rules with regard to the allocation and pricing of labour (e.g. internal promotion hierarchies, training opportunities, internal wage structure) the internal workforce enjoys certain rights and privileges not available to the outsiders. In addition, the absence of direct competition with the outsiders implies that employment in the internal labour market is more secured than the external. Also, job stability is one of the main features of the internal labour market. This is due to the more favourable conditions in the internal market.

Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) argued that development in the labour market during the period of competitive capitalism pointed towards the homogenisation of the labour force and not in the direction of segmentation. Labour market segmentation arose both from deliberate strategies and systemic forces. The fundamental drive for the adoption of the new strategies was to attempt the breakdown of the increasingly unified employees’ interest which bred out of the proletarianisation of labour and the concentration of workers in urban areas. On the other hand, certain systemic forces also helped to intensify segmentation within the establishments in the primary sector.

The dual labour market theory comprises two major segments – the formal and informal sector or the core and periphery (Fajana, 2000; Krahn & Lowe, 1998; Orr, 1997 & Sloane et al., 1993). This model proposes that while the core sector contains primary labour market

with better jobs characterised by high wages, stable employment, good employment conditions and opportunities for promotion and career advancement. The periphery sector is made up of secondary labour markets with jobs characterised with lower wages with little or no attachment with the firm, job insecurity, low opportunities for promotion and poor employment conditions (Doeringer & Piore, 1971; Launov, 2004). This segmentation can also be seen in the form of permanent or standard work and temporary or non-standard work arrangements. Fajana (2000) opined that temporary workers are only short-term employees that can have their contract of employment terminated at any time that is suitable for the Business.

The dual labour market assumption is pertinent to this study as it gives an understanding of the internal market structure of the organisations. Hence, it helps to focus on the difficulty that may be traced to the dual arrangement of the organisations’ internal labour market. A short history of segmentation under capitalism traces recent phases of development in both developed and lesser-developed nations. It is demonstrated that the coercive international regulatory dynamic extends the competitive principle of the capitalist mode of production.

### Perlmutter’s EPGR Theory

Perlmutter (1969) opines three terms that multinational companies are driven by certain orientations which influence their behaviour, policies, management and employment practices which are ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric orientations. The International Human Resource Management literature uses these four terms to describe Multinational Corporations (MNCs) approaches to managing and staffing their subsidiaries (Dowling & Welch, 2004). In respect to recruitment, these four terms are the ethnocentric, polycentric, geocentric and regiocentric orientations which are taken from the seminal work of Wind,

Douglas and Perlmutter (1973) which is an extension of the EPG model by another factor – regiocentrism EPGR.

##### Ethnocentric Orientation/Strategy

Ethnocentric orientation refers to the home-country oriented attitude or belief. This orientation gives the locals (host-country nationals) the feeling that they represent an inferior group as compared to the home-country nationals. The employment of home-country nationals as opposed to the host-country or expatriates exemplifies the ethnocentric orientation or strategy.

##### Polycentric Orientation/Strategy

Polycentric orientation refers to the host-country oriented attitude or belief. Thus, owing to cultural diversities, it is believed that host-country nationals are well versed in the culture or way of life of the host country and as such should be better able to understand management practices and policies of the host country. Polycentrism is driven by the need to reduce the level of unemployment in the host country or developing countries as well as to reduce the cost of operation to name a few.

##### Geocentric Orientation/Strategy

Geocentric orientation refers to global or world-wide attitude or belief. It focuses on the employment of staff from any part of the world irrespective of country of origin or nationality.

##### Regiocentric Orientation/Strategy

Regiocentric orientation refers to the spread or transfer of best or successful employment practices or policies from one geographical region of the world to another.

Adopting Perlmutter’s typology of orientation of multinationals, then one is led to say that the geocentric (world-wide) or polycentric (host-country) orientation of MNCs will be better able to accommodate the goals of developing countries than the MNCs with ethnocentric (home-country) orientation. As regards geocentric firms, the ultimate objective is to institute a world-wide approach at both headquarters and affiliate or subsidiary levels.

Perlmutter was interested in how MNCs were thinking about doing business on a global scale, and how this mindset was shaping the companies’ orientation towards doing business around the world. The orientation of a MNC can be reflected in its product offerings; organisational culture; way of managing foreign workers and recruitment of employees.

It has been mainly used to describe the stages firms go through during internalization and as a prescriptive tool for deriving relevant strategies on the basis of firms' orientation. It analyses and evaluates the type of affiliation and its strategic role in the intra-company division of labour.

The American oil and gas practice polycentric orientation in the employment of contract employees which focuses on individualities of foreign markets and all their local specificities. This orientation is based on the philosophy that it is better to use local methods to cope with the local problems, rather than force alien solutions.

The EPRG framework assists in predicting the propensity in determining the type of labour force (permanent or temporary employees) that is recruited for particular functions or departments (procurement, production, marketing, research and development (R&D)) to the affiliate, and is, therefore, a useful analytical tool in reaching an optimal decision as regards

the question of selecting employees who can best maximise profit; contribute to creating and upgrading competitive advantages of host country's companies; national cheap development of developing nations and enrich their corrupt leaders.

### Empirical Review of the Literature

This section focuses on the review of past studies that address the research questions and hypotheses of the study. In doing this empirical review, each of the variables is used to develop a sub-heading under which previous research works and their findings are discussed. Below are the highlights of the empirical studies that address the research questions and hypotheses.

Okafor (2007a) has explained how vulnerable contract staff in the oil and gas sector were in his critical review of globalisation, casualisation and capitalist business ethics in Nigeria. According to Okafor (2007a), in an attempt to maximise profit and keep up with competition some work organisations have resorted to unethical business practices like casualisation of workers thereby hurting workers interest and violating some fundamental labour laws. In the work, the term globalisation was conceptualised as a process that is beneficial—a key to future world economic development—and also inevitable and irreversible. It was stated that some regarded it with apprehension and fear, believing that it increases inequality within and between nations, threatens employment and living standards and thwarts social progress (Adeboye, 2002; World Bank, 2003; Van Der Bly, 2005 in Okafor, 2007a).

The oil and gas sector in Nigeria represents one major area where unfair labour practices (Okafor, 2007a) have been perpetuated for a long time under globalisation thereby giving rise

to a recourse to the period of Scientific Management era of Taylor ([1903]; 1911) as a way of maximising profit and productivity with little or no obligation to meeting the social needs of workers. Thus, the study attempted to critically examine the extent to which contract employees in the American oil and gas sector with subsidiaries in Nigeria have been affected.

Contract labour is a form of involuntary servitude for a period of time, the type of employment that existed in the United States of America till the end of the 19th century with draconian laws to enforce its existence before its abolition (Okafor, 2007a). Contract staff is supposed to work occasionally and intermittently with any company, usually skilled or semi- skilled and always moving with seasonal fluctuating demands of the labour market (Adenugba, 2004). Labour and service contracts are terms used by management to describe contract labour. Management sometimes refers to it as “*body shop*” or “*direct hire*” while others refer to contract staff as service providers. Once employed, the contract employee in some companies is made to sign the *yellow dog* contract. The yellow dog contract is a compulsive undertaking not to join the union while in employment (Okafor, 2007a). These nomenclatures are being used to describe contract labour to inject into it internal contradictions. In seasonal employment it also exists with a lot of colorations (Adenugba, 2004; Okougbo, 2004a in Okafor, 2007b).

Okafor (2007a), observed that the yellow dog contractual concerns has been a long standing issue in the oil and gas industry as well as other multinational corporations. In some companies in Nigeria it is possible for one to get workers as many as two thousand in an industry out of which about one thousand five hundred may be contract employees. In some local industries in the informal sector, it is possible to get situation whereby virtually all the employees are casual/contract staff (Okougbo, 2004b). The contract employees have either

profession or administrative skills. No matter how important their services may be they should be paid wages that should sustain them, a good standard of living (Okafor, 2007a).

In the oil and gas industry, contract employees are professionals, graduates or skilled technicians, experienced with long years of service. Most of these employees have spent several years in their organisations. Yet their treatment is questionable.

It is contract labour without a human face (Budd, 2004). In a recent case at Ikorodu about 120 factory workers who are contract employees were feared dead after a massive fire swept through West Africa Rubber Products Limited (a rubber slippers manufacturing company) (Vanguard, 2002). These workers were locked up like prisoners in their factories so that no external body can gain access to them (World Socialist Website, 2002). In some oil and gas companies especially those owned by indigenous entrepreneurs, in spite of the fact that their contract employees are qualified to be made permanent staff, they are made to remain mere informal on wages. (Adenugba, 2004; Okafor, 2005; Akanbi, 2006) Some of the losses of contract employees as enumerated by Okougbo (2004b) include; insufficient wages as compared to their peers abroad; absence of medical care or allowances; no job security or promotion at work; no gratuity and other severance benefits; no leave or leave allowance; freedom of association is often jeopardised; no death benefit or accident insurance at work; no negotiation or collective bargaining agreement and endangering human lives through unfair practices. The Ikorodu incident raised a fundamental question about the premium placed on human lives by the Nigerian government, which could not ensure that maximum safety standards are complied with in the workplace

Okafor (2007b), argued further that these unfair labour practices embarked upon in order to keep up with competition and ensure profit maximisation in oil and gas sector in Nigeria is an

obstruction of sound business ethics on one hand, and on the other, to recourse to the era of brutish Scientific Management. Further he argued that it is an unethical business practice that violates the right of workers to decent job and freedom of association. He concluded that these unfair labour practices are meant to promote capitalists quest for greater productivity and profit maximisation in line with the terms and dictates of scientific management postulations to the detriments of workers (casual) while ignoring the social needs of workers to associate and unionise (Okafor, 2007b).

Contract employment and casualisation of labour contravenes Section 7 (1) of the Labour Act, Cap 198, Laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1990. The law provides that:

***“……not later than three months after the beginning of a worker’s period of employment with an employer, the employer shall give the worker a written statement, specifying the terms and conditions of employment.’’***

Reverse is the case, as the action of the management of the International Oil and Gas companies amount to, not just a violation of the fundamental rights of the workers, but also a clear violation of the Nigeria’s labour laws, constitution and international conventions and standards. Section 7(1) (d) stipulates that if the contract is for a fixed term, the date when the contract expires should be indicated.

They employ these set of people and sack them within three months and still reemploy the same set of people repeatedly. In USA, it is specified that you cannot be using people to do your job for years without regularising their employment.

In the United States of America, Labor-management relations are governed by three major statutes that set forth standards Regulating unions, their internal structure, and their interactions with employers. These three statutes are: the National Labor Relations Act

(NLRA), the Railway Labor Act, and the Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act of 1959 (LMRDA). The NLRA also known as the Wagner Act was enacted on July 5, 1935 governs the means by which employers may react to union organisers, engage in collective bargaining, and take part in strikes and other forms of concerted activity in support of their demands. The second major federal statute that addresses the rights of union workers is the Railway Labor Act of 1926 (RLA). The primary purpose of the RLA is to offer employees of the railway and airline industries a process by which they are able to unionise and engage in collective bargaining while simultaneously protecting commerce from damaging work stoppages and delays, both domestically and internationally. Since the RLA provides similar legal protections to workers as the NLRA, workers who are covered by the RLA are not covered by the NLRA. The third major piece of federal legislation that pertains to the governance of unions is the Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act of 1959 (LMRDA), commonly called the Landrum-Griffin Act. The Landrum-Griffin Act, which addresses union officer elections and financial controls, was established to ensure basic standards of democracy and fiscal responsibility in private sector labour organisations.

The Nigerian Labour Act 2004 defined terms and conditions of employment to include: hours of work and overtime; provision of transport; periodicity of payment of wages; sick leave; duty of employers to provide work; annual holidays with pay and sickness benefits. The Act also provides that hours of work and overtime can be fixed by mutual agreement, collective bargaining or through an industrial wages board where there is no machinery for collective bargaining. On the contrary, the applicability of the provisions of Labour Act 2004 in respect to the arrangement of contract employees in the oil and gas is doubtful due to the precarious nature of employment that characterises their employment.

Shonuga (2015) observed that workers and representatives often have to deal with oppression and aggression from the government and the employers alike. The implication is that employment law tends to favour employers over employees. As a result, wages, work hours and other conditions of employment continue to remain an issue. Therefore, a legislative intervention that will reinforce that section of the Nigerian Labour Law that says a worker after putting three months in service should be regularised. Also, a legislative order that says, Nigerians should be employed on a permanent basis and if at the end of the day, the job does not exist any longer, a policy should be put in place for severance benefit for such people.

Organisation cannot operate on its own without the influences of internal and external environmental factors. The external environment influences HRM practices, thereby affecting the working conditionss of contract employees. Duncan (1972) observed external business environment as the entirety of influences outside an organisation that are taken into consideration by an organisation in its decision making. These influences depend basically on the complexity and dynamics of the environment (Duncan, 1972; Dess & Beard, 1984). Thus, external business environment has been classified as being stable when it does show any changes, unstable when it shows relative changes, and dynamic when it shows changes continuously (Aguilar, 1967). However, perceptions of the organisations about the type of the external business environment to a large extent depend on their size and industry in which it operates. The American oil and gas companies are multinational corporations and thus its external environmental influences can be subsumed under political, economic, social, technological, ecological and legal.

### The Degree of Managerial Control of Contract Employees

Merchant and Van der Stede (2007) posit that control in organisations can be obtained by managing “inputs” (personnel control), including employees, rather than “outputs” by explicit

incentive contracting on financial performance. In this way, input based controls are fundamentally ex ante control mechanisms that are likely to be used when ex post mechanisms of degree of control like explicit performance contracting are difficult or unavailable. This is supported in a study by Simons (2000).

Hamilton (2006) conducted an empirical research on contract staff management system in the construction industry in Nigeria. The study showed that the important variables that make up contract staff management control system significantly affected the performance level of contract staff in the construction industry in Nigeria. The study recommended, among other things, the transparency in contract administration. This will lead to stable contract administration and aid human resource planning in the construction industry.

Campbell (2010) examined employee selection as a control system. The study investigated the idea of empirically using personnel control and lending data from a financial services organisation that implemented a highly decentralised business model. He demonstrated employee selection as an important, but understudied, element of organisational control systems.

Anwar and Nahid (2012) conducted a study on the influence of perceived organisational support, supervisory support, and working environment on employee service quality. They deduced that if the service qualities of the employees are not efficient and up to the mark, the organisations profitability would be at stake in the long run. They found that there is a significant relationship between perceived organisational support, supervisory support, and working environment on one hand and the employee service quality on the other hand.

### Working Hours and Remuneration among Contract Employees

Oil and gas jobs tend to be relatively well paid. This is an industry where high skills are required in their core occupations at the minimum. This is so because mistakes can prove very costly in terms of human lives, lost revenue, damage to expensive equipment, and environmental clean-up. This is the reason most countries have legislation on wages, as it is aimed mainly at setting minimum standards (Amaeshi & Amao, 2008). As pay rates in the oil and gas industry are, in most cases, substantially higher than the manufacturing average, wage legislation like minimum wage, will have little or no impact in practice on pay levels in the oil and gas industry of most countries.

However, in exceptional cases, the application of minimum wage standards might be of benefit to some workers in the oil and gas industry. For example, Graham (2010) claims that the Nigerian oil unions alleged that contract workers are subjected to "various degrees of exploitation notwithstanding that they possess the requisite qualifications and skills needed to be employed directly on permanent jobs in which some of them have been rendering services as contract labour for over 20 years. In some cases; “they are paid pittance wages and have no collective bargaining agreements; their employment is increasingly precarious; they lack proper on-the-job training” (Graham, 2010, p.16).

Baker (2007) observed that contract employees in the USA are not well remunerated as their permanent counterpart, though they performed the same function as them. Fapohunda (2012) observed that casual employees do not have any other working conditions except for the diminutive remuneration they receive at the end of the day or month. Contract employees in general are vulnerable to poor remuneration in terms of wages and salaries due to their informality in the labour market. As stated by Fajana (2008) and Shonuga (2015), wages

offered to contract employees are far below the legal and subsistence wage structure and the present economic situation. The reason that accounted for the persistent low wage structure is that the dynamic increase in the size of the labour force indicates that the country has surplus labour. Also, development gave rise to a weak bargaining position to request for higher pay. One of the reasons is to avoid threat and the eventual take-over of enterprise by the employees.

Das, Ashis, Pandey and Dhananjay (2004), studied the economic and social issues relating to contract employees. They noted that the contract workers (CWs) got minimum statutory wages with few instances where they receive higher wages for skilled work. Also, incidents of contractors deducting token money from contract employees’ wages were reported from the cement and white goods companies (Das et al., 2004).

Feldman (1990) examined the nature and consequences of part-time work, thereby showing that temporary workers worked on average fewer hours per week compared to permanent ones because in most cases they were allocated less involving duties compared to permanent workers. In addition, the very nature of temporary employment reduces their level of commitment and hence their productivity.

Also, Bohle, Quinlan, Kennedy and Williamson (2004) examined the impact of precarious employment on working hours, work-life conflict and health using thirty-nine convergent interviews in two five-star hotels. It was revealed that there was strong convergence amongst casual staff regarding concerns about working hours and their negative effects. Casuals reported substantially greater variation in working hours than full-time staff. Casuals were more likely to work highly irregular hours over which they had little control. Long working

hours, combined with low predictability and control, produced greater disruption to family and social lives and poorer work-life balance for casuals.

Karabchuk (2012) examined wage differentials between permanent and non-permanent employees in Russia using the representative household survey of welfare dataset. The study discovered that permanent employees worked 40.7 hours per week, while temporary employees worked 43.3 hours.

Comparing the average hourly wage rates, it was deduced that temporary workers earned even less per hour by about 12%, although they worked longer by 6%. The study showed that, in terms of hourly wages, temporary workers suffered from the precarious nature of non- standard employment.

The function of remuneration is very important to work organisations and it is sometimes referred to as compensation administration. Through job evaluation and cost of living indices, wages and salaries are fixed for particular jobs. Job analysis and evaluation is the work of human resource departments in organisations generally; this department should also ensure that wages paid in the organisation are comparable with salaries in similar organisations in the same industry or same industry in other countries. It is also their responsibility to ensure that minimum wages paid, meet the physiological needs of contract employees. This follows with the movement of cost-of-living indices with a view to advising management on salary and wages adjustments. The department should conduct periodic wage and salary surveys of the labour market in order to enable it advise top management appropriately.

The implication of this function in relation to the workers in nonstandard employment is that in most work organisations, contract employees are paid fixed wages with no benefit. Their

wages are hardly reviewed from time to time. When jobs are outsourced, for example, the burden of payment of salaries and wages of this category of staff is placed squarely on the outsourced agency. When workers are paid in this manner, it can hardly inspire them for higher commitment, productivity and efficiency (Fajana, 2005).

### Training Opportunities among Contract Employees

In every organisation, training and development of employees is important and is indeed a core function of human resources management (Delahaye, 2005) in a dynamic environment like Nigeria and the USA. The management of these organisations, considering the cost of training and development, always assumed that it is not their responsibilities to train and develop this category of staff. Thus, it is important to note that in most work organisations in Nigeria; only permanent employees are entitled to training and development. Thus, the commitment of organisations to train and develop their permanent employees on regular basis is not always there because most cannot guarantee that they would stay behind to serve the organisation upon the completion of training and development programme considering the volatility of labour market in Nigeria and the quest to survive. This no doubt reduces the core functions of human resource management in Nigeria.

Skill inadequacy is an important characteristic of the informal sector and this is one of the problems that constraints the growth of the Nigerian and other developing nations informal sector in which contract employees belong. This is one of the problems that constraints the growth of the Nigerian Informal sector in which contract employees belong. Lack of suitable skills and low level of educational accomplishment contribute immensely to low productivity of the sector” (Fajana, 2008). Okougbo (2009), Okugbawa (2009) and Ezigbo (2008) claimed that one of the Nigerian oil unions alleged that contract workers lacked proper on-the-job

training. Contract employees in the USA are expected to be trained by the contracting agent or supplier.

Delahaye (2005) and Adewumi (2008) posit that the heterogeneity of the contract employees requires the formulation of different training responses in order to effectively meet the range of their training needs; their occupational success and mobility, as well as the upgrading of technical skills. It is important to note that in most work organisations in Nigeria; only permanent employees are entitled to training and development. The implication is that most workers who are in nonstandard employment do not benefit from training and development programme of the organisations where they work. This hardly ensures human capital development and healthy working conditions among contract employees (Dale & Bamford, 1988; Nollen, 1996; Delahaye, 2005).

As Okafor (2012) observed, the three major strategies employed to address the training needs of contract employees, which have been explored and studied in greater depth. These are; orienting existing training systems, which provides contract employees professional skills; development of new training methodologies which is more suitable to contract employees in terms of low-cost training inputs, special instructional methods for those with low literacy levels; and lastly, adopting new training methodologies that build on existing means of acquisition and the transfer of skills.

Altman (2003) asserts that a sound apprenticeship system has a good capacity to deliver training to contract employees. However, to maximise its potential it should be kept in mind and addressed; that apprenticeships are based on appropriate technologies and traditional ideas. Further, reorienting training systems for contract employees requires action at both the

micro and macro levels. Specific measures at the micro level are mainly concerned with the development of methodologies to assess training needs, the delivery of training and the adjustment of the skills of trainers and other actors in the training system, as well as access to sources of financing. Macroeconomic measures are aimed at sensitising national training authorities to the training needs of contract employees, training those authorities in assessing the training needs of contract employees, and adapting national training policies to reflect the prevailing needs of the employees (Altman, 2003).

More so, Altman (2003), states that as regards action at the microeconomic level, one method to make formal and non-formal training systems accessible and responsive to contract staff is the training and production method. This method uses actual production activities in structured vocational training programmes. Trainees earn while they learn; and parts of the training costs are offset by income from sales. The training experience is supposed to cover a total production and business cycle, from design to sales and accounting. Experience from several projects showed that the training method is particularly effective in the transfer of skills involving new technology and modern equipment, also when training low income individuals who cannot afford to forego income for any appreciable period (Okafor, 2012).

Alonge (2009) suggests that, as regards apprenticeship schemes, the following strategies to improve the quality of training have been identified and developed. These are complementary training for apprentices, covering theoretical aspects of trade, management, technology, and occupational safety and health; the extension of advisory services before, during and after apprenticeships, such as vocational guidance, information on apprenticeship conditions and available master craftsmen, and assistance in resolving complaints and disputes; providing support to master craftsmen in the improvement of apprenticeship methods, productivity at

the workplace, improved products, training materials and exchanges with other master craftsmen. Improvements in training activities of contract staff can only be effective and sustained if they are integrated into a national training policy framework. It is also crucial to ensure that training projects are not designed in isolation from other inputs necessary to the contract employees, such as access to credit, infrastructure and legislative or policy support, which are required for the successful utilisation of the acquired skills (Alonge, 2009; Alozie, 2009).

### Social Protection and Working conditions of Contract Employees

Social protection is the set of public measures that a society provides for its members to protect them against economic and social distress that would be caused by the absence or a substantial reduction of income from work as a result of various vulnerabilities and contingencies (sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age, and death of the breadwinner); the provision of health care; and, the provision of benefits for families with children and working in safety (ILO, 2000). This concept of social protection is also reflected in the various ILO standards. By classification, social protection is broader and more inclusive than social security since it incorporates non-statutory or private measures for providing social security, but still encompasses traditional social security measures such as social assistance and social insurance which is believed to have contributed significantly to poverty reduction in developed and developing countries in the last few decades (ILO, 2000). It is important to note, that there are significant differences among societies of how they define and approach social protection. Differing cultures, values, traditions and institutional and political structures affect definitions of social protection as well as the choice of how protection should be provided. The ILO’s definition is broader in scope than the definition adopted by some countries, and it does not imply value judgments (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

The existence of social protection can be recognised as one of the most significant social achievements of the 20th century. Systems of social protection enable societies to advance the well-being and security of their citizens by protecting them from vulnerability and deprivation so that they can pursue a decent life. On the one hand, social protection can meet the essential needs of human survival by ensuring that all men and women have basic social and economic security (Deacon, 1997). At the same time, it can play a more far-reaching role in enhancing the quality of life of individuals and societies by developing and unleashing human potential, facilitating structural change, increasing stability, advancing social justice and cohesion, and promoting economic dynamism (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

Social protection in recent times has been noticeable since the 19th century, categorised by commodification of labour, which was facilitated by the industrial revolution. In Nigeria, Social Protection Policy was developed in 2004 after a workshop held in Helsinki, Finland (World Bank, 2001). Considering the fact, that both previous and modern scholars indicate that there is dwindling of workers protection once there is a long sequence or large numbers of casual workers involved (Tilly, Agarwala, Mosoetsa, Ngai, Salas, & Sheikh, 2013).

In respect to the assertion by Canagarajah and Sethuraman (2001) that the ultimate aim of social protection policy in developed countries such as USA, are measures and laws put in place by government to ensure workers relish different benefits and freedom of association in enabling them to organise as trade unions in defence and advancement of their working conditions (Otobo, 1987). Hence, as good as the objectives of these policies are, workers are still exposed to precarious employment caused by economic conditions while in some developing countries like Nigeria, social protection has been deserted and the least of the nation’s priorities (Yesufu, 2000).

The focus of social protection in this phase is to maintain and enhance sustainable personal and social potential, and opportunities including active disability. At working age, social protection has multifaceted objectives including the promotion of decent work and employment, protection against the risk of unemployment, the advancement of a productive and healthy life expectancy and life-long learning, as well as preparing the foundation for an active life after the maximum working age is attained. Again, these dimensions are present in differing degrees. Specific measures include safe and healthy work, orderly labour migration, elimination of discrimination and trafficking, labour integration and inclusion, income security, HIV/AIDS prevention and so on. Investments in health and safety in the work place, regardless whether it is in the formal or the informal economy, increase productivity and reduce losses due to accidents. Poor or unsafe working conditions will inevitably diminish commitment and productivity and it will increase costs and vulnerability. Investment in continuous education and training directly increases commitment, productivity and lifetime earnings. Moreover, increased literacy and competence also serve to improve labour market job matching, and reduce wage and income differentials of contract and permanent employees.

Adequate social protection as a right for all is far from realization. This is particularly true for the poorest in the informal economy and contract workers (ILO, 2000; Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012). Contract employees are majorly working hard just to survive. They experience many forms of insecurity. They are mostly in need of support and protection yet they are the least protected.

Socio-economic security is important to the well-being of the individual and the family. By responding to people’s needs, social protection fosters social inclusion and cohesion. Secured families are the building blocks of secured communities and stable societies (Van Ginneken,

1999). When social inclusion and cohesion is properly managed, it is an instrument of empowerment and social progress. It affects capacity to work and productivity at work. And social protection provides individuals a platform to move from struggling for subsistence to working for an enhanced future and staying out of poverty (García & Gruat, 2003).

The decent work agenda is a universal agenda. This is the purpose social protection is not optional but a necessary component of strategies for working out of poverty and assisting people in precarious employment (ILO, 2000; Standing, 2011). The highest priority is to reach those not covered by any system. This alone is a formidable challenge and it will not be accomplished abruptly. With long-term goals in mind, short term actions can be steered towards universalism and inclusive systems of social protection.

As Social Protection is a key element of the Decent Work Agenda (ILO, 2000). Its objective to enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all is a complex one, particularly in the current era of globalisation. Indeed, the effective and efficient incorporation of social protection in the current process of globalisation is a significant challenge. The challenge, however, does not lay so much in identifying ways to enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection, but rather in securing the resources to achieve them (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

Certain individuals and groups have a much higher exposure to risk than others because of socio-demographic characteristics, economic status, physical or mental condition, age, lifestyle and so forth (García & Gruat, 2003). Vulnerability is a state of high exposure to certain risks, combined with a reduced ability to protect or defend oneself against those risks and cope with their negative consequences. The limitations faced in seeking to extend formal

social security systems to workers and their families outside the formal sector are well documented. Contract workers cannot join formal national social security systems on a voluntary basis. Most are in categories of work that are excluded from formal systems. It is estimated that 75 percent of all Existing ILO Conventions and Recommendations provide concepts and standards for the formulation of social security policies (García & Gruat, 2003; Van Ginneken, 1999). For the purpose of developing new approaches to social security and protection, a broader definition of social security has been adopted by the ILO’s social security programme. The definition stipulates that households and individuals should be provided with benefits through public or collective arrangements so as to protect against low or declining living standards resulting from a number of basic risks and needs.

Four major strategies have been identified by which social security can be extended to contract employees. These involve – specially designed insurance schemes; social assistance (health, nutrition and education services); the extension and reform of formal sector social insurance; innovative social security schemes (Van Ginneken, 1999). The difficulty with the first strategy is that to expand coverage generally requires many years and substantial financial resources. The weakness of the second strategy is that a sophisticated administration is required to effectively identify, screen and reach the target groups.

Extensive research has been undertaken within the ILO on the extension and reform of formal sector social insurance. However, country case studies have shown that it is impossible to effectively reach out to the contract staff as a whole through the extension of formal insurance schemes. It has been estimated that only about 50 per cent of the target group can be reached with existing schemes (Barchiesi, 2007).

According to Barchiesi (2007), another alternative way of extending social security to the contract staff is through so-called innovative social security schemes. Most of these are insurance schemes aimed at providing or securing the basic needs of their members, including mutual health funds, death benefit funds, and thrift savings schemes for emergencies. In some cases, groups conclude a social contract with the public service: if the groups are providing improvements to local infrastructure, the public services provide social security to the group in question. In most cases, however, the groups seek the services of a local service provider for which they pay the costs out of the mutual contributions. The creation of group-based schemes has proven successful. But it should be noted that the schemes vary in the scope and magnitude of benefits and in the level of organisation and management (Okafor, 2012; Van Ginneken, 1999).

Several studies have highlighted the following issues regarding the effectiveness of insurance schemes established in Africa (Baumann, 2002; Barnett & Whitestoke, 2002; Bhorat & Lundall, 2002). In order to be successful, insurance schemes must fulfil three conditions: they must be simple, affordable and located close to their members. In addition to their low cost, it is important for the schemes to be flexible enough to enable their affiliates to pay when they can on account of their fluctuating income; it is important to base insurance schemes on the specific priority needs of would-be beneficiaries and not on comprehensive packages. Insurance schemes could improve their effectiveness by including waiting periods for new members, social controls to avoid abuses, co-payments or ceilings on the amounts of coverage, and some level of obligatory membership, association or target-group level; given the only recent appearance of such schemes however, their long-term sustainability could not be assessed. Examples of medical aid societies created in South Africa and Zimbabwe can illustrate how insurance schemes might grow in the future and scale up to become larger

organisations, and even, eventually, how they might participate in or coordinate their activities with compulsory social health insurance schemes. However, only little experience has been gathered in general about the replication of the schemes (Baumann, 2002).

According to Akinwale, Shonuga and Olusanya (2014), The Nigerian workers generally lack access to sufficient healthcare due to intensification of social inequalities in health-care delivery system. Consequently, the Nigerian working class faces many obstacles in a attempt to finance their personal health services. This situation exacerbates the level of poverty in Nigeria but the concerns of the poor are yet to attract serious attention from the state and the dominant class, who constitute the key decision makers in the Nigerian health system. As a result of the neglect of the majority of the Nigerian population in the health-care delivery system, Nigeria has hitherto failed to meet the health target in the Millennium Development Goals.

A series of considerations can be made in the costs of social protection and the costs of not having social protection. In this regard, it must be kept in mind that the costs as well as the benefits of ensuring effective access to social protection should be considered both in short and long-term perspectives since short-term savings might imply long term, and possibly much larger, liabilities in economic, social and developmental terms (Garcia & Gruat, 2003). Furthermore, in the global era, it is necessary to view costs as having a national, regional and international dimension. It is worth remembering that, for example, emigration, asylum- seeking, etc., are often provoked by the lack of opportunities and attention to social rights and social protection within certain countries (Deacon, 1997), which means that other countries must pick up the costs of this lack of attention, different levels, including the state, communities, the voluntary sector, families, enterprises and individual citizens. There are

several sets of costs and impacts resulting from neglect or abandonment of social protection (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

The first two sets are poverty and vulnerability since there is a clear positive correlation between poverty and vulnerability and weak or non-existent social protection (Deacon, 1997). These are huge costs since they not only lead to people being chronically socially excluded but also to people being dissatisfied and disaffected by society. Impoverished populations not only suffer from exclusion from essential goods, services and rights but also suffer the loss of potential for individual development and to contribute positively to collective development in the social, political and cultural fields.

A second type or set of costs relates to the economy or economic development. If there is a situation where many people are living in poverty or are unemployed, then this is a productive loss to the economy. Secondly, without social protection or any means of support, wage demands will rise (a cost that must be met by the employers and/or the state). Thirdly, there is the fact that cutbacks in social and health services can lead to greater costs for the state in the long term (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

A third type of cost is the cost to human capital. A lack of investment in public benefits and services means a decrease in life expectancy, health, education and skills, and a lack of investment in the younger generation. Hence the current and future stock of a country’s human capital is diminished (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

A fourth type of cost relates to a loss of social capital. Here again, a number of relevant costs can be identified. Firstly, there is the related question of burden upon the family.

When a family receives support it is most likely to be from the state. Cutbacks and withdrawal by the state therefore risk the future sustainability of the family (which is already under huge pressure). Another point of relevance relates to the costs in terms of values such as social trust, social solidarity, etc. It is now widely recognised that these kinds of values are not only a key form of social capital but are essential for the functioning of democratic societies. If people lose such values – which are generally stronger in a society based on social solidarity – then this is a significant cost to society (Garcia & Gruat, 2003).

The fifth, there are political costs in terms of the reduction of political capital. Neglecting or abandoning social protection reduces the legitimacy of the state and therefore endangers the functioning of democracy. If these costs are considered to be cumulative, then social sustainability itself is at stake. Not only are social cohesion and social stability threatened but there is a danger of political unrest. This also fuels the growth of extremist politics. In addition, there may be political unrest amongst countries because of inequalities across countries (between those that adhere to a social protection system and those that do not) (Cornia 1999; Stewart, 2000).

### Occupational Health and Safety and Working conditions of Contract Employees

As defined by World Health Or[ganisation](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organization.html) (WHO), health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Health is a [dynamic](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/dynamic.html) [condition](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/condition.html) resulting from a body's constant [adjustment](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/adjustment.html) and [adaptation](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/adaptation.html) in [response](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/response.html) to stresses and [changes](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/changes.html) in the [environment](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/environment.html) for maintaining an inner [equilibrium](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/equilibrium.html) [called](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/call.html) [homeostasis](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/homeostasis.html). Legislation providing for the health and safety of people in the workplace apply to all employers, employees (including contract, fixed-term, open ended, temporary and

permanent employees) and the self-employed in their workplaces. These Acts set out the rights and obligations of both employers and employees and provides for substantial fines and penalties for breaches of the health and safety legislation. The Occupational Safety and Health Act empowers the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) to enforce workplace standards (OSH Act 1910, (2) (c)). According to U.S. Constitution, Section 654(a) (1), The Occupational Safety and Health Act’s general duty clause requires employers to keep workplaces “free from recognised hazards likely to cause death or serious physical injury”. Since its enactment, conditions have become much safer for American workers.

Benach, Muntana and Santana (2007) posits that it is important to recognize that in most, if not all, low-income countries a substantial level of economic activity (50 per cent or more of total employment in many cases) occurs in the informal and formal economies characterised by a concentration of vulnerable worker such as contract employees (Benach et al., 2007; Lowensen, 1998; Nilvarangkul, Wongprom, Tumnong, Supornpun, Surit, Srithongchai, 2006; Santana & Loomis, 2004); which is largely exempted from any regulatory or institutional oversight (including basic labour standards and OSH laws). To do an assessment of occupational safety and health (OSH) performance, it is important to take into account the significant global changes to work organisation that have taken place over the past decades, including the greater use of outsourcing and temporary and self-employed workers. A large body of evidence indicates that, overall, these changes have led to deteriorating OSH outcomes (Benach, Muntaner & Santana, 2007; Quinlan & Bohle, 2008).

As stated by the ILO (2003), untrained workers are more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and contract employees are one such vulnerable group. Okougbo (2009) and Ezigbo (2008) assert that the Nigerian oil unions alleged that contract workers suffer from

increased work pressure, unclear responsibilities and inadequate health and safety protection. Graham (2010) showed a statistically high rate of occupational accidents among temporary workers in developed countries.

Throughout the industries, there is some evidence that contract workers have a higher likelihood of being involved in workplace accidents. ILO (2006) report on the employment relationship noted that a link between accident risks and a lack of workers' protection has been observed in situations where there is extensive use of subcontracting. The issue is not subcontracting itself but its improper use, which can create or aggravate risks. Some of the accidents involved "can also impact on the health and safety of third parties and society in general"(Self Emphasis). Contract employees in the oil and gas sector are vulnerable to health hazards due to the nature of the work which is dangerous and risky and their sheer unfamiliarity with the work. They are not used to the work standards, safety procedures and are not really committed to them (Okougbo, 2009; Ezigbo, 2008).

In Graham (2010) report, the main causes of fatalities with oil and gas contract workers were vehicle incidents (25 per cent) and individuals being struck by falling or moving objects (23 per cent). There were 19 deaths (18 per cent) due to explosions or bums reported. Seven of these were the result of a single incident in Nigeria, where an explosion killed seven contractor employees and injured two others during repair work on a pipeline. A total of 22 of all fatalities occurred in Africa and 20 in the Middle East. The situation may, of course, differ from one company to another, and trade unions have frequently expressed concern over the impact of contracting on fatalities in the sector (Graham, 2010). Positively, there is evidence (at least from developed countries) that occupational accident and stress is more often reported in large organisations (Smith, Johal & Wadsworth, 2000; Smith, 2000)

Dieese report, (2006) also made a distinction between the number of permanent employees and contract employees that suffered from fatal accidents with reference to Petrobas, Brazil. The latest of the results showed that while 3 permanent employees suffered accidents in 2004, none suffered in 2005. On the other, while 14 contract employees were injured in 2004, only 13 were injured in 2005, in which the difference in the number of casualties between contract and permanent employees within a year was insignificant. Also, Graham (2010) corroborates this claim. Lippel et al. (2011) observed that studies have acknowledged evidences that contract workers have a higher likelihood of being involved in workplace accidents generally.

Another reason that was adduced to health and safety vulnerability of health and safety of contract employees is working time. Issues as regards how timing at work has affected the health and safety of contract employees vary across the globe. Reports showed that in Ecuador, both the operating companies and the contractors use very strict safety and health standards. The recorded rates of accidents at work and occupational illness are not higher than those generally applying across other economic activities (National Federation of Chambers of Industry of Ecuador, 2009 ILO survey response). In the Russian Federation, the organisation of working time "is carried out in accordance with the rules of safety" (ROGWU, 2009 ILO survey response). In Australia, while Australian occupational safety and health regulations are reasonably good, the Maritime Union of Australia [MUA] (2009) is concerned about the jurisdictional issues of which authority, i.e. maritime or oil and gas, cover particular sectors of the industry at particular times. That is why Australian trade union movement is always pushing harder for stronger workplace health and safety representation with authority to ensure that they are respected by the employer and employees, and have the ability to carry out their legislated functions without fear of intimidation or persecution

(MUA, 2009 ILO survey response; Bletsas & Charlesworth, 2013); Unions are calling on the Federal Government to launch a review into the National Offshore Petroleum Safety and Environment Management Authority (NOPSEMA), which is responsible for the investigation into the deaths of two workers on the Stena Clyde oil rig in the Bass Strait off the coast of Victoria because no action has been taken over long-standing safety concerns (Telford, 2014). In 2014, Labour Senators vocalised their support for the MUA and International Transport Workers’ Federation campaign to get oil and gas giant Chevron to do the right thing (Telford, 2014). Occupational safety and health in Norway's offshore industry is subject to regulatory measures and close follow-up by the authorities (Petroleum Safety Authority Norway (PSA), 2009 ILO survey response; National Offshore Petroleum Safety and Environment Management Authority (NOPSEMA)).

The problem of poor working environment of contract staff has been commonly raised by researchers and surveys. Contract employees are vulnerable to diseases and poor health result from a combination of undesirable working conditions (Graham, 2010). To address the problem, ILO projects such as training individuals within the target group to identify problems; emphasis on low-cost improvements in working conditions (PSA, 2009 ILO survey response).

Training must be simple and practical. The public primary health care system has certain advantages over conventional labour inspection machinery, in particular its presence at local levels. Moreover, it is institutionalised, and operates nationwide (Satterthwaite, 2001). However, the inadequacy of public resources for basic social services is a real constraint, and it is therefore uncertain whether promotional and educational health services will have a guaranteed place in the scheme of social services delivery (Rwomire & Raditlhokwa, 1996).

Use of the health care system is only sustainable with the support of an appropriate national policy. There is also a need to ensure institutionalised training programmes for health workers that integrate a clearer mandate for primary care units and effective collaboration between labour ministries and health ministries.

As stated by Graham (2010) working and living conditions are inseparable for most contract employees. Poor infrastructure and lack of basic services result in poor working conditions. However, lasting improvements in working conditions can be achieved primarily through better infrastructure and better basic services in specific areas. The role of government agencies, which are responsible for investment in infrastructure and the delivery of basic services, is crucial here. Facilitating dialogue between authorities, public health workers, NGOs concerned with health issues, and workers could help identify and promote priority improvements. Organisation among contract employees help to address problems concerning their working conditionss, since they are able to take self-help initiatives, and the organisation provides a link between the workers and the institutional structure that provides services.

Therefore, these claims go in line with Barley and Kunda (2004) that temporary employees are merely seen as commodities rather than been treated as indispensable human resources of the organisation. Based on these, it can be concluded that contract employees are more exposed to hazardous work.

### Involvement of Contract Employees in Trade Union Activities

Employees in non-standard arrangements of employment, such as contract, casual, agency or temporary work are frequently depicted as ‘outcasts’, with no time to partake in union activity (Crush, Ulicki, Tseane & Van Veuren, 2001; Hatton, 2014). These observations show

the tenuous and vulnerable situations in which many employees with ‘non-standard’ jobs find themselves. They may simply not be able to join a union (by law); may fear reprisals for joining a union, or may not be able to afford union membership because of their unstable income.

Though, in many countries, unions, as social actors acting on behalf of the entire workforce have become increasingly concerned with the conditions of work of workers in contract, casual, temporary and part-time work. This is propelled by a concern to protect susceptible employees and a concern that the rise in non-standard employment will undermine existing wage and working-time standards. Some unions like the Confederation of Dutch Trade Unions (FNV) in Netherlands have prioritised the recruitment of such workers and launched intensivesystematising drives (Gumbrell-McCormick, 2011; Keune, 2013; Serrano, 2014;

Keune, 2015).

However, collective bargaining has an obvious impact on the structure, level and conditions of employment. It also provides a forum for negotiations on the form and content of social security. The implications for contract employees are also well understood by trade unions. “Workers everywhere need to be protected by a well-established 'employment relationship”, insists the International Federation of Chemical, Energy, Mine and General Workers' Unions (ICEM 2008:27). It believes that "more work should be done with the ILO to make sure that legal protection for contract and agency labour workers are strengthened. In particular, there is a need to guarantee the contract and agency labour workers' rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining" (ICEM, 2008:27). According to Okougbo, (2009); Okugbawa, (2009) & Ezigbo, (2008) the Nigerian oil unions allege that contract workers are paid little wages and have no collective bargaining agreements.

Graham (2010) reports that, although, it is sometimes suggested that contract workers might be more effectively organized in separate trade unions, no evidence has been found of such a tendency in the oil and gas companies. On the contrary, union organizers in the industries stress the mutual advantages to be gained from contract workers and operator employees being in the same union. In the case of the United States of America, the Oil Workers International Union (OWIU) and the United Gas, Coke, and Chemical Workers of America (UGCCWA) merged on March 4, 1955 to form the Oil, Chemical, and Atomic Workers Union (OCAW). In 1956, after only one year of the merge, OCAW represented approximately 210,000 workers. During this time, it represented more workers than any other union in the oil and chemical field. OCAW finally merged with the 250,000-member United Paper workers International Union on January 4, 1999, to form the Paper, Allied-Industrial, Chemical and Energy Workers International Union (PACE).

PACE merged with the United Steelworkers in 2005 to form the United Steel, Paper and Forestry, Rubber, Manufacturing, Energy, Allied-Industrial and Service Workers International Union (although the merged union is still more commonly known as the United Steelworkers).This amalgamation cannot but make the union very strong in demanding for their right. According to Anyim, Ekwoaba and Shonuga (2013), merging several unions into one large industrial union creates room for huge savings programmes for the mutual benefit of the unions and Employers. Also, taking cognizance of one of Nigeria’s national objectives which focus’ on establishing the country firmly as a just and egalitarian society, uniform conditions of service in industry will lead not only to an equitable system of remuneration package for all employees in the industry but will also contribute immensely towards the maintenance of a stable and reasonably contented labour (Anyim, Ekwoaba & Shonuga,

2013). In the Norwegian oil sector, the unions actually found it easier to organize the contract workers because they were treated worse and were more open to the unions than the permanent employees/operators (Fulton, 2015; Friberg, & Eldring, 2013; Mather, 2004). In Australia, company employees and contractors share the same agreement (MUA, 2009 ILO survey response). Furthermore, Bargaining on one platform basis permits the pooling of bargaining strength and provides administration of collective agreement. Industry-wide agreements have also been found to give greater protection to the workers, establishing more uniform working conditions and guaranteeing the same advantages to all including those less capable (contract employees) of defending themselves effectively in their own undertaking (Anyim, Ekwoaba & Shonuga, 2013). Sometimes, though, these two groups of workers may not immediately see things that way. Permanent employees, in particular, may not wish to associate with contract workers, whom they may regard as a threat to their jobs and their safety (Graham, 2010).

This led to the convocation of an industry seminar on the issue and where a tripartite agreement was reached (Young, 2003). The unions drew attention to the moves then by the Schlumberger and Chevron Groups to force all its employees to resign from the company and be paid off only to be re-engaged as casuals (contract employees) without the right to belong to a union in the same company although they would become employees of a new company known as “Schlumberger services” (Schlumberger labour contractor) and “Service Contract” (Chevron) respectively. Such an arrangement whereby workers are asked to resign and are reengaged as casual workers, and with no right to organize, violates their right to organize” (Danesi, 2012)

Danesi (2012) examined contract labour and the right to freedom of association in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria. She observed that casualisation practices in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria discriminates against casual and contract workers in terms of pay and other terms and conditions of employment including violations of their right to join or form trade unions. Also, the violations are reported every day from different industries in the private sector. There have been increasing waves of agitation by the senior and junior oil and gas union in Nigeria, namely: Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria (PENGASSAN) and Nigerian Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Union (NUPENG) over the growing trend of casualisation in the Nigerian oil and gas industry over the last decade and the freedom to be organised as a union.

While in most developed economies such as the USA, Norway and Australia, the oil and gas unions actually found it easier to organize the contract workers (Mather, 2004; ILO (MUA), 2009). In Australia, company employees and contractors share the same agreement (MUA, 2009 ILO survey response). In the USA, both the contract and the permanent employees of the oil and gas workers are organised collectively thereby unifying the workers and creating a strong platform to bargain collectively. This is in support of the study conducted by Anyim, Ekwoaba and Shonuga (2013) that merging several unions into one large industrial union creates room for huge savings programmes for the mutual benefit of the unions and Employers. This is not the case in the Nigerian environment as claimed by the Nigerian oil and gas unions. Also, taking cognizance of one of Nigeria’s national objectives which focus on establishing the country firmly as a just and egalitarian society with uniform conditions of service in industry will lead not only to an equitable system of remuneration package for all employees in the industry but will also contribute immensely towards the maintenance of a stable and reasonably contented labour (Anyim, Ekwoaba & Shonuga, 2013).

Fajana (2005) studied industrial relations in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria. The aim of the work was to explore practices in industrial relations and social dialogue in the oil industry in Nigeria. It examined essential elements for good industrial relations in the sector. It addresses such topics as the positive contribution social dialogue can make towards promoting mutual respect, trust and confidence between the social partners and the Government of Nigeria. Fajana (2005) did a general overview of the situation of oil and gas industry in Nigeria, and amongst which examined was the working conditions of staff in the sector. Emphasis were made on working conditions such as; the General policy on wages and conditions of work in the oil industry, wage adjustments to inflation, wages and fringe benefits; wage levels; working time , conflicts involving hours of work, overtime, paid leave, training in the oil sector, occupational accidents and health services. Fajana (2005) further discussed about industrial relations in the oil sector with reference to freedom of association, right to strike, collective agreements, grievances, casualisation, and expatriate workers. However, what is of more interest to this work, amongst others was Fajana’s conceptualisation of social dialogue in the oil sector.

According to Fajana (2005) social dialogue is a process of exchanging information and viewpoints that may ultimately facilitate harmonious labour relations. It may be tripartite or bipartite. In its tripartite form, dialogue involves cooperation among government, employers' and workers' organisations in formulating and implementing labour, social or economic policies. In the oil sector, periodical consultations between management and union representatives is the most useful dialogue mechanism enabling an exchange of information at all levels. This is particularly effective in the absence of a trade union, when there are no collective agreements. Social dialogue to enhance productivity requires a constant dissemination of information between employers and employees on such matters as corporate

plans and strategies, business trends and labour policies. Other information shared between employers and employees in the oil sector includes general policies of corporate performance and plans for structural change, as well as job requirements, the reporting system, disciplinary rules, social and welfare facilities, safety rules and suggestion schemes. Oil companies are aware that they must inform their workers of these matters.

Fajana (2005) emphasise’ on expatriate workers and social dialogue as regards consultation and dialogue between contract employees and expatriate workers and their employers, the attitude of the multinational oil companies needs to be noted. Parent companies often consider that contract workers are not their responsibility but that of the contractor, they do not therefore intervene in matters concerning their unionisation. As a general rule, the unionization of contract and expatriate workers is rare in the oil sector, as are collective agreements. Dialogue with employers at the parent company exists in an extremely limited number of cases. However, parent companies often encourage their outsourced firms to observe the laws of the country, which includes freedom of association.

Danesi (2012) explained some factors affecting the right to freedom of association of contract workers in Nigeria. According to Danesi (2012), factors hindering the right of contract workers to freedom of association were; inadequate legislation, lack of enforcement of the current legislation and employment policy and attracting foreign direct investment in Nigeria. Labour legislation is inadequate because it does not specifically define the broad range of various types of worker. It is the lack of clarity or ambiguity of the term ‘worker’ that has left the contract worker in Nigeria vulnerable to exploitation. It is submitted that the current definition should be complimented with a clear and qualitative definition of all categories of employees including those in contract employment. Danesi (2012), observed that, this is what

has been done in developed and developing economies of the world including, Ghana and South Africa where labour legislation clearly mentions and defines different categories of workers. It was further stated that, to adopt such an approach in Nigeria would remove the inadequacy of the current Nigerian Labour Act. Thus, a clear definition of contract employment relationship and the rights that go with them should be the focus of the legislature in remedying unfair labour practices especially in the area of freedom of association. The right to freedom of association is crucial to attaining other rights in the workplace because it offers workers the platform of collective bargaining which is the gateway to negotiating improved terms and conditions of their employment. The courts would also have a significant role to play in monitoring these remedies through the process of adjudication. Such reforms would ensure that contract workers in Nigeria are duly identified and given the protection and rights at work which they deserve (Danesi, 2012).

Another challenge was from the foregoing discussions about the sources of the right to freedom of association as it is clear that Nigeria has ratified many international instruments. Nigeria is therefore bound by these international instruments on labour law standards, which guarantee various labour law rights including the right to freedom of association. The issue here, as has been seen from the foregoing, is not the lack of Nigeria law or the lack of international instruments guaranteeing the right to freedom of association and the right to organize, and other labour law rights, but rather the lack of enforcement of these laws by the Nigerian government and its agencies with regard to contract workers. Therefore, the problem is that of enforcement and the fact that employers often breach these laws with impunity (Danesi, 2012).

According to Danesi (2012), one of the Nigerian government’s employment policies is to ensure that more jobs are created through the process of attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). It is concerned with economic growth and development as well as with compliance with the requirements of the World Trade Organisation (WTO). This, in her view, has made the Nigerian government complacent in failing to ensure those companies investing in the Nigerian economy operate lawfully. According to Danesi (2012), contractors should be monitored to ensure that they do not exploit contract workers or deny them the right to organize because it is a right that is guaranteed by the Nigerian Constitution, the Nigerian Trade Unions Act and the Labour Act, as well as by international labour standards (Danesi, 2012).

Collective bargaining can reduce the vulnerability of workers in non-standard forms of employment and help ensure that work is decent. This is only possible where the right of these groups of workers to freedom of association and collective bargaining is recognized and protected. The efforts of the social cohorts are important in providing a framework that can foster these innovative practices, as are the efforts of government to support collective bargaining.

### Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is based on reviews of literature and the theoretical framework of this study. In this section, effort was made to establish differences and similarities between nature of working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and in the United States of America (USA). The study further made clarification on terms such as remuneration, training, health and safety, social

protection and unionization of contract employees in the oil and gas sector with respect to Nigeria and USA.

The conceptual framework shows the interactions among contract employment, working conditions, employment practices and environmental factors as presented in Figure 2.2. In this framework, Environmental factors are construed as moderator/moderating variables. Employment practices are independent variables while working conditions is the dependent variable. Figure 2.2 shows that working conditions is viewed as the dependent variable being determined by the interaction of the independent variables and contexts. Thus, the functioning of Employment practices and/or environment factors is to establish a set of rules for the workplace and work community. In a dynamic society, working conditions will frequently alter as a result of changes in the employment practices and environment factors.

##### CONTEXTS

**External Factors**

* Economy
* Political
* Culture
* Labour Market
* Technology

**Internal Factors**

* Degree of Unionisation
* Size of the organisation
* Corporate Culture
* Management Style

**American Oil and Gas Industry in Nigeria**

##### Recruitment & Selection

* + Permanent
  + Temporary

##### Compensation Management

* + Remuneration/Benefit

##### Human Capital Development

* + Training

##### Social Protection

* + Occupational Safety & Health
  + Health Insurance

**Degree of Management Control Working Hours**

**American Oil and Gas Industry in**

##### Contract Employees in Nigeria

**Advancement Opportunity Organisational Commitment Training Opportunities**

**WORKING CONDITIONSS**

##### Job Satisfaction Flexible Work Arrangement

**Decent Pay**

**Improvement to workers right to organise and bargain**

**Length of working Hours**

#### the USA Contract Employees in the USA



**EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES**

**Convergence or Divergence FEEDBACK LOOP**

##### Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework showing the relationship among the variables

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**Source:** Developed by the Researcher, 2016

### Description of the Conceptual Framework

This section explains the conceptual framework of the study represented in figure 2.2 The model is used to depict the interrelationship among the variables of the study. The study adopted the industrial relations systems theory in explaining the conceptual framework. The theory is used to explain interconnection between the input, the process and output of contract employment and its implication on working conditions. The input includes the global environment, technology, the national environment and other environmental factors.

The global contexts impacts on the national environment thereby influencing the employment practices under which the organisations operate. The environmental factors could be internal or external. In this study, the internal and external contexts are degree of unionisation, the political, economic, socio-cultural, labour market and technological factors. These are incidents that influence the employment practices and the kind of employment contract to adopt. The process which forms the independent variables include contract employment and human resources management practices which the contract workers are exposed to such as remuneration, benefits, training and development, trade unionism, health and safety practices among others. The output which are the dependent variables, are the employment outcomes which are expressed in how these workers are treated in the workplace. The dependent variables which are articulated as employment outcomes are transformed as opportunities for career growth, membership and participation in union activities of contract workers. The arrows are used to show the flow of influence or effect the variables have on one another.

### Remuneration of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

Remuneration is the [compensation](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/compensation) that one receives in exchange for the work or services performed. Remuneration is one component of r[eward management](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reward_management). It can also be seen as

reward for [employment](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/employment.html) in the [form](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/form.html) of pa[y,](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/pay.html) [salary](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/salary.html), or [wage](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/wage.html), including [allowances](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/allowance.html), [benefits](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/benefit.html) (such as [company](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/company.html) [car](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/construction-alteration-repair-CAR.html), medical [plan](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/plan.html), [pension plan](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/pension-plan.html)), bonuses, [cash](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/cash.html) [incentives](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/incentive.html), and [monetary](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/monetary-value.html) [value](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/monetary-value.html) of the noncash incentives.

Wage, being a form of remuneration to contract employees is a monetary compensation (or [remuneration](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Remuneration), personnel expenses, labour) paid by an [employer](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Employer) to an [employee](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Employee) in exchange for work done. Payment is a fixed amount for each task completed (a *task wage* or [piece](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Piece_rate) [rate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Piece_rate)), or at an hourly or daily rate, or based on an easily measured quantity of work done.

Payment by wage contrasts with [salaried work](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Salary), in which the employer pays an arranged amount at steady intervals (such as a week or month) regardless of hours worked, with [commission](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commission_%28remuneration%29) which conditions pay on individual performance, and with compensation based on the performance of the company as a whole. Waged employees may also receive tips or [gratuity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gratuity) paid directly by clients and [employee benefits](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Employee_benefits) which are non-monetary forms of compensation. Since [wage labour](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wage_labour) is the predominant form of work, the term "wage" sometimes refers to all forms (or all monetary forms) of employee compensation.

The use of labour contractors or employment agencies has been a source of on-going conflict between unions and employers in Nigeria. This is because contract employees are not given the same benefits that accrue to permanent employees by virtue of their employment status (Danesi, 2011). Thus, the nature of wage given to contract employees in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria is not encouraging. That was why the Nigerian oil unions alleged that they were paid pittance wages and as well have no collective bargaining agreements (Graham, 2010). While most countries have legislation on wages, this is aimed mainly at setting minimum standards. As pay rates in the oil and gas companies are, in most cases, substantially higher than the manufacturing average, wage legislation will have little or no impact in practice on

pay levels in the oil and gas companies of most countries. In exceptional cases, however, the application of minimum wage standards might be of benefit to some workers in the industry, for example, the Nigerian contract workers on pittance wages (Graham, 2010).

In the United States’ oil and gas companies, Derrick operators (oil and gas contract workers who use Rig derrick equipment and operate pumps to circulate mud through drill hole) receives $20.15 hourly, $41,920 annually. Also gas plant operators who distributes or process gas for utility companies and others by controlling compressors to maintain specified pressures on main pipelines) receives $26.81 hourly, $55,760 annually. Petroleum engineers who devise methods to improve oil and gas well production and determine the need for new or modified tool designs; oversees drilling and offer technical advice to achieve economical and satisfactory progress receives $51.93 hourly, $108,020 annually amongst others and all these category of workers are contract employees (Graham, 2010).

##### Table 2.1 showing selected United States occupations in the oil and gas companies: Median hourly and annual wages for 2008

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Occupation** | **Temporary** | | **Permanent** | |
| Hourly | Annually | Hourly | Annually |
| **Derrick Operators** | $20.15 | $41,920 | $28.20 | $60,912 |
| **Plant Operators** | $26.81 | $55,760 | $34.87 | $75,319.2 |
| **Petroleum**  **Engineers** | $51.93 | $108,020 | $59.99 | $129,578.4 |
| **Petroleum pump**  **system operator** | $26.45 | $55,010 | $34.95 | $75,492 |

**Source:** Graham, 2010; 0\*NET OnLine: United States Department of Labour, Employment & Training Administration, (2010).

Table 2.1 compares average hourly and annual earnings for permanent and temporary employees in the United States oil and gas extraction sector. This table show that temporary employees' earnings are significantly lower. This may be due in part to their predominance as contract workers, and to the lack of seniority steps in their pay scales.

### Training and development of contract staff in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

Training involves a process of teaching oneself or others in any [skills](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skill) and [knowledge](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knowledge) that relate to specific [useful](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Practicality) c[ompetencies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Competence_%28human_resources%29). Training has specific goals of improving the trainees’ [capability](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/capability), capacity, [productivity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Productivity) and [performance](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/performance). It forms the core of [apprenticeships](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apprenticeship) and provides the backbone of content in every institution.

A type of training is on-the-job training. [On-the-job training](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/On-the-job_training) method takes place in a normal working situation, using the actual [tools,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tool) equipment, documents or materials that trainees will use when fully trained. On-the-job training has a general reputation as most effective for vocational work. It involves employee training at the place of work while the trainee is doing the actual job.

Training has its cost on organisations. It is however questionable, whether oil and gas companies in Nigeria are willing to invest on contract employees. According to a report by ILO (2003) enterprises can be reluctant to invest in training workers who will probably not be with them for long. The user enterprise of a subcontractor is unlikely to train the workers supplied by that firm, except for very specific purposes. However the implication of this to organisations is that untrained workers are more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and can hamper the competitiveness of the enterprise (ILO, 2003). This training is important for organisations in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria. Training of contract employees in Nigerian

Oil and Gas companies is poor as; according to Graham, (2010) the Nigerian oil union alleged that contract employee’s lack proper on-the-job training.

### Occupational Safety and Health of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

Occupational Safety and health is an area concerned with the [safety](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Safety), [health](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Health) and [welfare](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quality_of_life) of people engaged in [work or employment](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Employment). The goals of occupational safety and health programs include to, foster a safe and healthy work environment (Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL, 2015). Occupational safety and health may also protect co-workers, family members, employers, customers, and many others who might be affected by the workplace environment. In the United States the term occupational health and safety is referred to as occupational health and occupational and non-occupational safety and includes safety for activities outside work (Fanning, 2003).

According to Graham (2010) health and safety issue has not really led to serious disagreements between employers and employees in oil and gas companies because they are both aware of its implications to lives, to the organisational image, to relationships and also its financial implications as well. This awareness has led to improvements in occupational health and safety movements in the oil and gas industry.

Despite these improvements, contract workers are still vulnerable groups to health and safety problems in these organisations. Throughout the industry, there is some evidence that contract workers have a higher likelihood of being involved in workplace accidents. An ILO report (2006) on the employment relationship noted that a link between accident risks and a lack of workers' protection has been observed in situations where there is extensive use of subcontracting. The issue is not subcontracting itself but its improper use, which can create or aggravate risks. Some of the accidents contract employees are involved in can also impact on

the health and safety of third parties and society in general (ILO, 2003). The user enterprise of a subcontractor is unlikely to train the workers supplied by that firm, except for very specific purposes. Untrained workers are more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and can hamper the competitiveness of the enterprise.

Another reason why contract employees in the oil and gas sector are vulnerable groups is due to the nature of their work which is temporary employment. This nature of lack of continuity in their work has led to unawareness of safety policies, unfamiliarity to work processes or changes that takes place and behavioural tendency like lack of commitment. The reality, or the perception, that contract workers are more accident-prone can increase tensions between them and any permanent employees who are working alongside them. Such tensions can in themselves lead to increased risks (Graham, 2010).

### Social protection of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

Social protection, as defined by the [United Nations Research Institute for Social](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Research_Institute_For_Social_Development) Development, (UNRISD) is concerned with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affect people’s [wellbeing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Well_being) (UNRISD, 2010) Social protection consists of policies and programs designed to reduce [poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poverty) and vulnerability by promoting efficient [labour markets](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Labour_market), diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to manage economic and social risks, such as [unemployment](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unemployment), [exclusion](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_exclusion), sickness, [disabilit](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disability)y and old age (World Bank, 2001).

Contract employees form as much as 50 per cent of component of labour force used in many organisations in Nigeria. They are workforce options that allow flexibility of organisations in this era of globalisation and trade liberalization. They also serve as a means of cheap labour in which organisations could use to reduce cost and withstand competition in the market. The

use of contract employees is a form of flexible nonstandard work arrangements in the management of labour (Danesi, 2011).

However, despite benefits accrued to organisations with respect to the use of contract employees, the nature of their work arrangements deprived them from social protection. There is currently no statutory protection for workers in nonstandard work arrangements which Danesi (2011), argued that is responsible for their exploitation and the denial of the right to organise. 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 nonstandard work arrangements especially the right to organise. Giving statutory protection to contract employees in Nigeria would protect their right in the workplace and curb exploitative practices by employers (Danesi, 2011).

The nature of social protection of contract employees in the Unites States is rather appreciable. Although Emsellem and Ruckkelshaus (2010) explained that contract employees lack adequate protection unlike that which protects full time-employees. Explaining further, that some casual employees such as domestic workers do not receive minimum wage and overtime as required by the Fair Labour Standards Act (FLSA), and they are denied the right to organise and bargain collectively under the National Labour Relations Act and are mostly excluded from other Acts in the United States (Emsellem & Ruckkelshaus, 2010).

This issue was curbed in United States as many States have made legislations covering all categories of nonstandard work and many laws have been enacted establishing specific protections for temporary workers, part-time workers, independent contractors, day labourers and other nonstandard workers. In the United States, current labour laws and the design of social security insurance programmes were based on the traditional industrial relations notion

that most workers have regular full-time employment with a single employer. However, in the new economy, as many as 36% of Americans are said to work in nonstandard employment as temporary, part-time, contract and independent workers (Horowtiz, 1997; Golden, 2001).

In Nigeria where there are available laws in the constitution that serves as protection and as avenue for the implementation of rights and privileges and freedom of contract employees, however, these have been ignored (Nwabueze, 1989). 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 (Danesi, 2011).

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 Non Standard Work Arrangement [NSWAs] (Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). 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. 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 and “employer who prevents his employee from joining a trade union is infringing the constitutional right of his or her employee (Danesi, 2010).

There are labour laws that protect workers or employees in organisation, but these laws do not recognize contract employees which make them more vulnerable to lack of social protection. For example, the Nigerian labour act chapter 198 that makes General Provisions as to protection of wages, contracts of employment and terms and conditions of employment does not apply to contract employees. Even environments in which issues or cases that relates

to manipulation, denial of rights and exploitation of contract employees to court has not been established. The reason for this is because the employment contract of casual workers is insecure by its nature, so these workers are scared of losing their jobs if they initiate a court case against their employers. In any case one could argue here that from the judgements of the National Industrial Court (NIC) in the foregoing, it is predictable that the court will judge in favour of casual workers concerning their right to organise if such cases are brought before it (Danesi, 2011).

### Unionisation among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

Unionisation is a [process](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/process.html) of [organizing](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organizing.html) the [employees](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/employee.html) of a [company](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/company.html) into a [labour union](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/labor-union.html) which will [act](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/act.html) as an [intermediary](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/intermediary.html) between the employees and company [management](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/management.html). In most [cases](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/case.html) it requires a [majority](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/majority.html) vote of the employees to authorize a [union](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/union.html). If a union is [established](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/establish.html), the company is said to be unionised. It is however allowed by constitutions that permanent workers have the right to form unions and that is why they can make demands for their expected rights and privileges through effective collective bargaining.

Contract employees are not granted this opportunity to form unions due to their nature of employment as temporary employees. They are collectively known as nonstandard, contingent, atypical, precarious and alternative work arrangements in international labour law (Kalleberg, 2000). Casual workers are usually denied the right to organise; therefore this allows employers to avoid the problems they associate with union representation and collective bargaining (ILO, 2008). In the USA, under common law an employee is a person who works under the contract of employment and so has a contract of service with the employer. Therefore all the rights and obligation under common law should apply to him

(Danesi, 2000). However, contract employees in Nigeria do not have the freedom to form unions or to associate.

According to Danesi (2011) freedom of association is based on the principle that people can do what they like as long as their actions do not cause harm to someone else. Okene (2007) posits that the concept of freedom of association in labour relations means that workers can form, join or belong to a trade union and engage in collective bargaining. The freedom of workers to associate is regarded in international labour law as a fundamental right and is also protected by local legislations. 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 authorisation from the state, employers and any administrative body (Danesi, 2011).

There are different sources that support freedom of association and unionisation both locally and internationally. The universal declaration of human rights, the international covenant on economic, social and cultural right, the European convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedom and the international labour organisation supports freedom of association (Danesi, 2011). Four key issues that form the core declaration by international labour Organisation (ILO) are 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.

In Nigeria, rights to unionise are protected by constitutions, trade union act, labour act and the African charter of human rights. In the section 40 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 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”*** Chp IV (40).

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 (National Industrial Court [NIC], 2006; Danesi, 2011, 2012). This also means that contract employees in Nigeria and especially those in the oil and gas sector have the rights to unionize as granted by the constitution.

Thus, it is important for contract employees in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria to realize that their right to freedom of association is well-protected right under Nigerian law. The right to form or join a trade union of one’s choice is the basis for the exercise of other rights at work. Without the right to collective bargaining one of the rights derived from freedom of association, workers will not be able to enjoy other rights at work.

In the United States, there are instances where contract employees are allowed the right to unionize and also there are instances where these rights are disallowed. Concerning freedom of association the National Labour Relations Act (NLRA) provides that employees have the right to form or join unions of their own choice and bargain collectively with their employers. The National Labour Relations Board (NLRB) is the body that determines the appropriate unit for collective bargaining purposes and also conducts an election in order to determine

whether a majority of the employees in the unit want to be represented by the union (Stone, 2006). In a ruling in 1990, the NLRB declared that long-term temporary employees could not be included in a bargaining unit with regular employees of a user-employer unless both the provider agency and the user-employer consented (Lee, 1991). This decision was said to have made it impossible for temporary workers to organize.

According to Danesi (2011) the NLRB reversed itself in 2000 in the case of ***Sturgis v Textile Processors*** and held that both regular and temporary employees could be in the same bargaining unit as long as “they shared a community of interest” (Stone, 2000). It also held that temporary employees could unionise in a bargaining unit of all the employees of a single temporary work agency (Stone, 2006). This resulted in the NLRB permitting the inclusion of temporary employees in bargaining units that comprised of temporary and regular employees of a single employer, or employees of a single temporary agency (Stone, 2000). This ruling was hailed as having expanded the possibilities for temporary workers to claim the protection offered by the labour law (Stone, 2000).

Four years after the above ruling the NLRB reversed itself again in the case of ***Oakwood Care Center v N & W Agency***, and reinstated its earlier ruling of dual consent requirement from both the user employer and the provider-agency for temporary workers to organise. This ruling has therefore put paid to temporary workers being able to organise in bargaining unit with the permanent workers they work hand in hand with as they can only unionise in the same union with the workers employed by their temporary agency (Stone, 2006) This in the true sense of the word has curbed the right to freedom of association of temporary employees in the United States.

### Environmental Contexts Influencing Employment practices and working conditions of contract employees.

However, since an organisation in itself cannot exist in a vacuum but operates within an external environment; invariably these external environmental factors will definitely affect the Employment practices of the organisation. Stoffels (1994) suggests in his model of the organisation and its environment that, management’s enlightenment begins with the recognition that a firm is not isolated from the environment but interactive with it. Since external environment plays a significant role in the growth and profitability of firms, better understanding of the external environment would enable organisations obtain accurate formulation of organisational policy that would enhance employment practices and industry insights, and more likely to satisfy employees and explore new market segments (Ahituv, Zif & Machlin 1998; Kohn, 2005), establish better image, all of which would ultimately contribute to the financial performance. With sufficient environmental intelligence, organisations would be able to manage strategic surprise and response quickly even to weak indicators (Ansoff, 1965).

The environmental conditions currently facing organisation are diverse, complex and altering from those of past decades. Many companies now compete globally, rather than in their domain or domestic markets. Firms must be aware and understand the implications of these environmental realities to compete effectively in the global economy (Hitt, Ireland & Hoskisson, 1997).

There had been divergent views about the concept of environment through contributions of different authors and scholars. Okoh and Munene (1986) postulated two views of perceived environment as: inter-organisational view, which considers the environment as a collection of person, groups and other organisations that provides inputs to, or receives outputs from a

local organisation. The other view considers environment to be a set of general, social, economic and technological conditions. Obasan (2001) opines environment to be the sum total of the physical and social forces and institutions that are pertinent to the organisational goal setting and goal attainment which are taken directly into consideration by members of the organisation when making business decisions and plans. Osuagwu (2001) postulates that environment has been seen as the totality of the factors that affect, influence, or determine the operations or performance of a business. The environment determines what is conceivable for the organisation to achieve. In summary, environment is the combination of many factors both tangible and non-tangible that provides the essence for the organisations success by serving as a source of resources to others.

The environment of an organisation in business is described as “the pattern of all the external conditions and influences that affect its life and development” (Minzberg & Quinn, 1992). For the contextual analysis which is the macro-environment; Johnson and Scholes (1993), suggest the PESTEL Framework/Open System Theory, which is used to categorize environmental influences into six main types: Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Environmental and Legal.

* + - * **Political factors** are government stability, taxation policy, foreign trade regulations and social welfare policies.
      * **Economic factors** are business cycles, GNP trends, interest rates, money supply, inflation, unemployment and disposable income.
      * **Socio-cultural factors** are population demographics, income distribution, social mobility, lifestyle changes, attitudes towards work and leisure, consumerism and levels of education.
      * **Technological factors** are government spending on research, government and industry focus and technological effort, new discoveries/development, speed of technology transfer and rates of obsolescence.
      * **Environmental factors/Ecological** are environmental protection laws, waste disposal and energy consumption.
      * **Legal factors** are monopolised legislation, employment law, health and safety and product safety regulations.

### PESTEL Analysis

The “radical and on-going changes occurring in society create an uncertain environment and have an impact on the function of the whole organisation” (Tsiakkiros, 2002). A number of checklists have been developed as ways of cataloguing the vast number of possible issues that might affect an industry. A PESTEL analysis is one of them that is merely a framework that categorizes environmental influences as political, economic, social and technological, environmental (ecological) and legal forces. The environmental and legal factor can easily be subsumed in the other factors. The analysis examines the impact of each of these factors (and their interplay with each other) on the working conditions of contract employees and HRMPs (Cooper, 2000; Abdullah & Shamsher, 2011). PESTLE also ensures that company’s performance is aligned positively with the powerful forces of change that are affecting business environment. PESTEL is also useful when a company decides to enter its business operations into new markets and new countries (Porter, 1985; Abdullah & Shamsher, 2011).

### Environmental Factors Influencing Working conditions

Applicable regulations regarding environmental protection standards may encompass both the protection of indigenous natural resources as well as bans on the import of goods that may

be harmful to the environment, such as large vehicles with excessive emissions that pollute the air, products containing heavy metal compounds such as lead, very noisy vehicles or machines and devices or fuels that may be harmful to the environment (Wysokińska & Witkowska, 2004).

Thus, business organisations had perceived the environment as opportunities and threats presented by such external environment as variables as socio-cultural, legal, political, economic, technology, labour market and infrastructural factors. This is not to conclude that other factors found in the micro (internal) and intermediate business environments are not important. It shows how important the scanning of the macro (external) environment is, because this in turn affects the other two environments.

### Environmental Factors Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

Due to the rapid changes in today’s emerging business practices, it is more likely for an organisation, to fall behind by not keeping up with trends of their external environments (Albright, 2004). Organisations are open systems which interact with their environment and the environment helps to shape the organisation. The environment is perceived as key determinant of organisation’s performance (Porter, 1981).

The environmental factors approach offers a starting point for linking the firm's external environment to its Employment practices and activities. This approach suggests that a firm's capacity to cope with environmental uncertainty is critical to its continued viability (Grant, 2002).

Best HRM Practices arise when the organisation is able to predict or control its external environment, a condition that can profoundly influence the working conditions of employees

and the organisation's operations. It is essential that organisations are able to quickly and strategically place themselves to minimize the effects of negative events and take advantage of opportunities (Vinzant & Vinzant, 1996). As Rogers (1999) put it, international managers need to take an interest in both the economic structures of the countries in which they do business and in the international economy as a whole in order to; establish the sizes and characteristics of various markets, assess the degree of risk attached to operating in specific nations, identify high growth sectors, make investment decisions and deploy company resources and policy in the most effective way which should affect employees positively to achieve great performance and productivity.

Ansoff and McDonnel (1990) opines that organisations are environment dependent. An organisation does not operate in a vacuum but within an external environment. Multinational oil and gas organisations are ultimately involved in the same basic activity, namely, the transformation of inputs (resources) into outputs (goods and services) however they operate within different environments. This environment comprises a wide range of influences; economic, demographic, social, political, legal, technological among others which affect corporate activity in a variety of ways and which can impinge on it (Worthington & Britton, 2003). Impinging on corporate activities will not only be on employment practices which will affect working conditions of both temporary and permanent staff; it will affect the transformation process itself, the process of resource acquisition and the creation and consumption of output.

In the late 1970s, Management theorists largely adopted the open systems perspective of organisation and agreed on the importance of the external environment management (Anderson & Paine 1975; Emery & Trist, 1965). Thompson (1967) opines that the environment is self-sufficiently given to the organisation; and the organisation benefits from

resources provided by the environment (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The Industrial organisational paradigm of the 1950s and 1960s was based on principle that the environment is a deterministic influence to which an organisation adopts its strategy, structure and processes.

Hunger and Wheelen (1996) states that the environment consists of variables that form the context within which the firm exists. These two variables can be divided into two main subsets as noted in Pearce and Robinson (2002) as; the internal and the external environments. They point out that the internal environment comprises factors such as the organisation’s competitive capabilities and both tangible and intangible resources that affect the organisation’s abilities to meet its objectives. These include the organisational culture, structure and resources (Hunger & Wheelen, 1996).

External environment has played a significant role in formulation, implementation and controlling of the business strategy (Hiriyappa, 2009). The external environment covers many aspects of an organisation (Vrontis & Pavlou, 2008). The external environment of the organisation is made up of several economic, social, demographical, management and ecologic factors. It can directly or indirectly influence the activity and the performance of an organisation. The subsistence or achievement of an organisation occurs when an organisation creates and maintains a match between its corporate strategy and environment and also between its internal capability and its strategy (Grant, 2002).

### Political Factor Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

According to Kumar (2004), Law and order, stability of government, etc. are essential for high productivity in the oil and gas industry. The government’s taxation policies influence willingness to work and expansion of plants. (Kumar, 2004).

The political environment of multinational oil and gas corporations include any national or international political factor that can affect the corporation’s operations or its employment practices. Politics has come to be recognised as the major factor in many multinational business decisions, especially in terms of whether to invest and how to develop markets (Grosse, 2005). Politics is intrinsically linked to a government’s attitude to business and the freedom within which it allows firms to operate. Unstable political regimes expose multinational businesses to a variety of risks that they would generally not face in the home country or market. This often means that the political arena is the most volatile area of oil and gas multinational corporations in subsidiary countries (Buckley, 2003).

The tendencies of governments to change regulations can have a profound effect on Multinational Oil and Gas Corporation, providing both opportunities and threats. For instance, the invasions of Afghanistan and Iraq have brought business development opportunities for some but business devastation for others and higher political risk in neighbouring businesses for all. The instability in the Middle East and the continued threat of global terrorism have served to heighten multinational oil and gas corporation’s awareness of the importance of monitoring political risk factors in the countries in which they operate. Lesser developed countries and emerging markets pose particularly high political risks, even when they are following reforms to solve the political problems they have. The stringency of such reforms can itself lead to civil disorder and rising opposition to governments, as has

been seen recently in Indonesia, Venezuela, Brazil and Argentina (Lowe & Doole, 2008). Lowe and Doole (2008), defines Political risk as a risk due to a sudden or gradual change in a local political environment that is disadvantageous or counterproductive to foreign firms and markets.

The types of action that governments may take which constitute potential political risks to organisations fall into three main areas: (1) Operational restrictions: These could be, employment policies, insistence on locally shared ownership, particular product requirements and exchange controls; (2) Discriminatory restrictions: These tend to be imposed on purely foreign organisations and, sometimes, only organisations from a particular country. The USA has imposed import quotas on Japan in protest at non-tariff barriers which they view as being imposed unfairly on US exporters. They have also imposed bans on imports from Libya and Iran in the past. Such barriers tend to be such things as special taxes and tariffs, compulsory subcontracting, or loss of financial freedom; (3) Physical actions. These actions are direct government interventions such as confiscation without any payment of indemnity, a forced takeover by the government, expropriation, nationalization or even damage to property.

In 2001 the Nigerian government claimed ownership of Shell’s equipment and machinery without any prior notice. Investment restrictions are a common way governments interfere politically in international markets by restricting levels of investment, location of facilities, choice of local partners and ownership percentage (Doole & Lowe, 2008).

### Economic Factor Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

Economic environment includes factors and trends related to income levels and the production of goods and services. Economic conditions affect how easy or difficult it is to be

successful and profitable at any time because they affect capital availability, cost, and demand (Thompson, 2002). Economic trends affect the purchasing power of these markets (capital availability, cost, and demand). Thus, it is not enough for a population to be large or fast growing, as in many developing countries, to offer decent employment and good market opportunities; the economy must provide sufficient purchasing power for employees or consumers to satisfy their wants and needs (Linnemann, 1966). Economic trends in different parts of the world can affect basic and all activities in other parts of the world. For example, changes in interest rates in Germany can affect the value of the dollar on world currency markets, which affects the price, and subsequently sales, of American exports and imports (Clay, 2005). Today, the changes in the international economy affect all of the national economies in a short time. This is because of the integration of world economies. Accordingly, any recession in a country which is important in world economy, might easily stimulate same conditions in other economies. In other words, negative developments for economies would result in undesired situations. That is, employment rates and sales would decrease, unemployment would rise up, and these will in turn weaken the social status of workers.

Hence, the stabilisation or growth of world economy as a whole would affect any national economy in the positive way. So, the unemployment rates will decrease, the general wage and salary levels will increase, and as a result employees will be stronger; not subjecting themselves to precarious employments just for subsistence reasons. Thus, unions can gain more in bargaining for the rights of employees and top managements of firms would also behave in the favor of their personnel because of the increased revenues. Therefore, human resource (HR) policies of companies would change in the affirmative way. In particular, positive developments in international economy would increase production and exportation

rates rather than the reversal (alarming high rates of importation) Nigeria is currently experiencing. This will enlarge manufacturing, which needs an increased employment proportion. Rosman, Shah, Hussain and Hussain (2013) stressed the significant interference of national economy on HR policies. In the same way, Mello (2006) points out that, organisations should predict the future of economy and plan their functions. Employment opportunities are a function of both economic size and growth. The gross domestic product (GDP) represents the total size of a country’s economy measured in the amount of goods and services produced. Changes in GDP indicate trends in economic activity. The US has the largest economy in the world, followed by Japan, Germany, France, Italy, and Britain (Vitullo-Martin, 1997; Taylor, 1997; PWC, February, 2015).

Another important economic factor is the level of economic activity per person. Per capita data integrate population and economic data to provide an assessment of the purchasing power of individual consumers in a country. The US ranks at the top of the pack in per capita GDP, followed by Switzerland, Canada, Luxembourg, Germany, and Japan. Some smaller countries, such as the United Arab Emirates and Kuwait, have large GDPs relative to their small populations, although their overall level of economic activity is small in comparison to the larger countries. Consumers in these countries may have a lot of purchasing power, but there are not that many of them.

These countries typically offer attractive employment opportunities to their citizens. Conversely, many developing countries have large populations relative to their economic strength; that is, individual do not have much choice or bargaining power relating to employment (Clay, 2005; Choi & Mattoni, 2010; Russow, 2006).

### Socio-Cultural Factor Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

The socio-cultural environment encapsulates demand and tastes, which vary with fashion, disposable income, and general changes, can again provide both opportunities and threat to the oil and gas companies (Lowe & Doole, 2008). Organisations should be aware of demographics changes as the structure of the population by ages, affluence, regions, and numbers working and so on can have an important bearing on demand as a whole. Threats to existing occupation might be increasing: opportunities for differentiation and market segmentation might be emerging (Pearce & Robinson, 2005). National culture and traditions may affect human resource management activities in terms of transferring related national characteristics to organisational life. Behavioral types or attitudes of top managers and human resource managers are under the influence of local culture therefore it has direct or indirect impacts on human resources activities. In countries that are more closed to the entire world, firms could have HR activities which are more affected from national characteristics, but this is related to the size, institutionalisation level and international operations of those firms. Countries that are fully integrated to the international business and economics should have organisations which are more open to the impacts of universal culture.

As Bingöl (2006) stated, organisations should consider the values, myths, behavioral types, rituals, and expectations of society, when they are identifying HRM policy and strategies. Thus, organizations would be stronger. Equally, if institutions put the ethics of people into account, it would be easier for them to behave in socially responsible way. In relation with this, Kane and Palmer (1995) cite the linkage between the differences of employment practices and national cultures. Tsui and Milkovich (1987) examined the multiple constituency approach, which explains the practice of human resource department through expectations. Tiwari and Saxena (2012) argued the link between national culture and HRM

activities. Chandrakumara and Sparrow (2004) achieved the result that, national culture is one of the important elements which determine organisational perspectives in establishing structure for effective employment practices.

As a result of the economic situation in Nigeria, the HRM strategy and policies can be determined more independently by companies, especially wages and salaries. In relation to this, another reason can be the characteristics of labour market, as low cost, much populated, and largely educated. In addition, Nigeria labour has close links with city life or urbanization. In other words, they have no other means of livelihood, which leaves no room for other income opportunities, and make them more hostile considering the economic condition of the people.

The social environment includes all factors and trends related to groups of people, including their number, characteristics, behaviour, and growth projections. Since employees in different countries have specific needs and problems, changes in the social environment can affect employees differently. Trends in the social environment might increase the size of some country labour, decrease the size of others, or even help to create new employment. The two important components of the social environment: the demographic environment and the cultural environment. The demographic environment refers to the size, distribution, and growth rate of groups of people with different characteristics. The demographic characteristics of interest to employers relate in some way to employment behaviour, because people from different countries, cultures, age groups, or household arrangement often exhibit different behaviours (Buckley, 2011).

A global perspective requires that employers be familiar with important demographic trends around the world. Population size and growth rates provide one indication of potential employment opportunities. There is a tremendous disparity in population size and growth rates across countries. Nigeria currently has a large population of unemployment with a huge distance to the USA. The rapid growth of the Indian population is expected to make it the world’s most populous nation by the year 2100. Other countries with large and growing populations are the developing nations of Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nigeria (Lowe & Doole, 2008).

The cultural environment refers to factors and trends relating to how people live and behave. Cultural factors, including the values, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, and activities of specific population subgroups, greatly affect human resource practices and working conditions of workers in general. Thus, employers or management must understand the important cultural characteristics and trends in different countries. Cultural differences are important in both international and domestic markets (Rugimbana, 2003).

### Legal Factor Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

Legal framework of regulations is the implementation of law puts into practice. Law structures employment practice. All of the policies for human resource management should be in accordance with legal necessities. Accordingly, Tiwari and Saxena (2012) pointed out that, HRM implementations should be adapted to the regulations of countries. Therefore, the differences of employment practices also depend on these legislation and regulations. Equally, Kane and Palmer (1995) discussed that equal opportunity, occupational health, and industrial relations can be influenced primarily by the legislation. Also, Mello (2006) argues that, legislation and regulation have impacts on every function and activity of an

organisation, so, on human resource management decisions. Similarly, Mabey and Salaman (1995) identify the importance of government policies and legislation on strategic training and development activities. According to the current United States Constitution, no one can be employed in jobs which are not suitable to their age, gender, or strength with exception to domestic workers. Equally, children and women, and people who have disabilities should be supported. Besides, everyone has a right to have a rest. In addition the conditions of retirement, as an obligation for firm the employment of former convicts, and disabled people are all regulated by law (Pavalko, 1989; Fishback & Kantor, 1998). Therefore, related law protects American people or who are employed in USA as workers or any types of personnel. Environmental regulations can lead to notable improvements relating to health benefits. But they impose additional costs on firms and may reduce productivity, earnings, and employment, especially in sectors exposed to intensive in labour. The limited empirical evidence suggests that the benefits are likely to outweigh the costs.

The legal environment regulates the operations of organisations. Legal systems vary both in content and interpretation. An organisation is not just bound by the laws of its home country but also by those of its host country and by the growing body of international law. It is sufficient for an organisation operating at the domestic level to stick to regulations of the land, but organisations operating in different countries need to know and comply with the laws of the domestic country as well as all the host countries they operate in.

Governments impose laws to protect the home industry from cut- throat global competition (Grosse, 2005). They impose different kinds of tariffs, enter into agreements and sign treaties to protect indigenous industry and promote local trade. When governments feel that the home industry is affected because of dumping, they can impose heavy anti-dumping duties. For

instance, the oil spillage in the Ogoni-Land by foreign corporation; heavy duties are imposed on them to clear the spillage. To protect domestic industry, they can also impose non-tariff barriers and frame regulations on foreign investments. In international business, disputes and litigation are common. To resolve differences between countries, all member nations of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) have established a Dispute Settlement Body. It is the final authority which passes rulings and frames regulations on disputes between and among member countries (Jayaraj, 2011).

It is important, therefore, for oil and gas corporations to know the legal environment in each of its host country. These laws constitute the ‘rules of the game’ for business activity, thereby affecting the working conditions of their employees. The legal environment in international trade is more complicated than in domestic markets since it has three dimensions: local domestic law; international law; domestic laws in the organisation’s home base Law and Policy (Law & Policy in International Business Association, & Georgetown University [IBAGU], 1969). Local domestic laws; the only way to find a route through the legal maze in overseas markets is to use experts on the separate legal systems and laws pertaining in each country targeted. International law; there are a number of international laws that can affect the organisation’s activity. Some are international laws covering piracy and hijacking; others are more international conventions and agreements and cover items such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Trade Organisation (WTO) treaties, patents and trademarks legislation and harmonisation of legal systems within regional economic groupings.

Domestic laws in the home country: The organisation’s domestic (home) legal system is important for two reasons. First, there are often controls which limit the free export of certain practices to some particular countries. Secondly, there is the duty of the organisation to act

and abide by its national laws in all its activities, whether domestic or international (Lowe & Doole, 2005).

For many multinationals, the legal challenges they face in international markets are almost a double-edged sword. Often organisations operating internationally face ethical challenges in deciding how to deal with differing cultural perceptions of legal practices (Buckley, 2011). In many developed countries they face quite specific and, sometimes, burdensome regulations. In Germany, for instance, environmental laws mean a firm is responsible for the retrieval and disposal of the packaging waste it creates and must produce packaging which is recyclable, whereas in many emerging countries there may be limited patent and trademark protection, still evolving judicial systems, non-tariff barriers and instability through an ever-evolving reform programme. Some governments are reluctant to develop and enforce laws protecting intellectual property partly because they believe such actions favor large, rich, multinationals (Lowe & Doole 2008).

Legislation impacts all Human Resource activities. Federal and state legislations typically dictate how long a business must retain personnel records and other employee data, what can be stored, and how. For example, the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act, Americans with Disabilities Act and the Genetic Information Non-discrimination Act all place obligations on employers to safeguard the confidentiality of employees medical information and to make sure company managers operate within the confines of law. Human Resource professionals must stay abreast of legislation and train managers and employees (both contract and permanent employees) on their responsibilities. Every business organisation should consider related law and regulation for any of its functions. Unclear or “empty” areas, in terms of the absence of law should be fulfilled by lawful actions. Legality

of any function, say human resources function, makes the image of an organisation stronger. Consequently, firms should take national and international legislation into account while “managing” their human resource.

### Technological Advancement Influencing Employment Practices and Working conditions of Contract Employees

Technology has transformed society at many different levels. But it has had the most remarkable and pervasive effect upon global employment and business. From the desktop computer to advanced robotics, from television to satellite communications, technology has connected the world in a way no other innovation has done before. And with the technology, have come problems for labour (Feldman & Santangelo, 2008). As corporations become more dependent upon technology to manage their production, databases, finances, inventories, etc., it will result in more productivity, efficiency, time management, more economical in terms of resources spent on labour thereby making the demand for labour irrelevant in oil and gas multinational corporations (bringing about use and growth of contract employees). Although, the advent of technology has made it increasingly difficult for organisations to protect their personnel, products, services, trade secrets, customer base from those determined to gain access to privileged information (OECD, 2014).

Corporations of all sizes need to develop skills, ability and knowledge to compete effectively internationally. Moreover, with the advancement of technology, it has become faster and more convenient, and increase opportunities for corporations to look beyond their domestic countries and facilitate their engagement in international operations (Feldman & Santangelo, 2008). Technological advancement is an important environmental factor impacting productivity, commitment and the use of labour. Information technology together with

technological skills can create new opportunities for companies to improve on the working conditions of their contract employees (Chirapanda, 2012).

Issues of compatibility, interoperability and connectedness affect employees within multinational or organisation. The problem is compounded by the fact that differences in technology from one company or region to another may make it difficult to ensure good productivity between the host organisation and home organisation. Likewise, differences in standards and quality control may occur due to the age, obsolescence, or condition of technology used by employees in less developed parts of the world (Feldman & Santangelo, 2008). Technological practices and standards may differ as a result of cultural, political or religious factors. However in Nigeria, due to the highly technical nature of exploration and production, the sector depends substantially on imported technology, equipment and manpower for its operations.

Local workforces may be unskilled in the use of technologies and this may affect the quality of the final product. The ability to maintain good communications with employees and to monitor compliance with organisational standards and practices is critical to company branding, consumer confidence, and market share (Ball, 2005).

Kane and Palmer (1995) pointed out that, especially the prevalent usage of microprocessor based technology, affects recruitment, staffing, the knowledge, skills and abilities of workforce. In addition, Jackson, Schuler and Rivero (1989), stated that producers, which use flexible specialization require less skills than manufacturers that use mass production. Tiwari and Saxena (2012) pointed out that, technology provides new methods for employment practices. DeFillippi (2002) suggests that, technology alters the roles of human resource. Changes in technology can also have negative impacts on human resource policies. This type

of circumstance can decrease the need for labour, which can result in a lower employment level. As a result, the demand for qualified workers would be higher, so educating and training costs will increase. Also, policies, such as encouragement for retirement could take place more dominantly, which increases the spending of social security. At the same time, technological developments can make some employees functionless, who are very valuable in conventional or old style manufacturing/engineering. Therefore, some workers can become low-spirited, and can be put out of organization by retirement, redundancy, or other ways. This can be called “social costs of technological developments”. On the other hand, the need for qualified workers for using technology can increase personnel spending.

### Overview of the Global Oil and Gas Industry

The oil and natural gas industry, though relatively young, is one of the world's largest industries. The international energy agency estimated market value of oil and gas produced globally in 2012 to be around $4.2 trillion. Crude oil is the largest segment of the global oil and gas market, accounting for 87.7% of the market's total value. The Natural gas segment accounts for the remaining 12.3% of the market (United Nations Development Project [UNDP], 2013).

Recent drops in the price of oil and gas have largely driven the Global Oil and Gas Exploration and Production industry's contraction over the past five years. Although the price of crude oil fell before 2015, the decline was minimal compared to the drops experienced in 2015 and 2016. The estimated market value of oil and gas produced globally in 2016 is $2 trillion. (Global Oil Research report [GOR], 2016). Who are the players in the oil and gas industry? This is a very significant question that needs answer is.

Oil and gas mining is categorised highest on the most lucrative industries listed. The sector has long been dominated by large, international companies with vertically integrated operations throughout oil exploration, production, refining, transportation and marketing. In 2013, BP, Chevron, ConocoPhillips, Exxon Mobil, and Shell which are the global big five oil companies earned a combined total of $93 billion or $177,000 per minute (World Energy Outlook [WEO], 2013).

##### Table 2.2 showing the Big Five Oil Companies Earning in 2013

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Big Five Oil Companies Earning in 2013 ($93 Billion)** | | | | | | |
| **Ranking in 2013**  **Fortune Global 500 list (by**  **profit)** | **Company** | **Net profit, 2013 (in**  **billions)** | **Cash reserves as of December 31,**  **2013**  **(in billions)** | **Total Stock Buyback, 2013** | **Percentage of 2013 profit used for repurchase** | **CEO**  **Compensation, 2012**  **(in millions)** |
| **30** | **BP** | **13.4** | **$22.5** | **$5.5** | **41%** | **6.8** |
| **8** | **Chevron** | **21.4** | **$16.3** | **$5.0** | **23%** | **22.2** |
| **50** | **ConocoPhilli**  **ps** | **9.2** | **$6.2** | **N/A** | **N/A** | **19.3** |
| **1** | **Exxon Mobil** | **32.6** | **$4.9** | **$16.2** | **50%** | **40.9** |
| **7** | **Shell** | **16.7** | **$9.7** | **$5.0** | **30%** | **6.6** |
|  | **Total** | **93.3** | **$59.6** | **$31.7** | **38%** | **95.8** |

**Source:** Fortune Global 500 Company Profit Reports (2013); Sageworks (2013)

Hence, the following list is based on average daily global oil production for all publicly traded companies during the most recent fiscal quarter 2016. As noted in the article on natural gas producers, some of the largest producers in the world are either not publicly traded, are largely government owned, and/or they don’t regularly publish production data. Thus, some major producers are missing from this list, such as Saudi Aramco (not yet publicly traded) and Russia’s Lukoil (no production data for the most recent fiscal quarter).

##### Table 2.3 showing daily global oil production & earnings for 10 publicly traded companies’ second fiscal quarter of 2016

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **NAME** |  | **HQ** | **VOL** | **EV** | **EBITDA** | **FCF TTM** | **EV/**  **EBITDA** | **Debt/**  **EBITDA** |
| **Rosneft** |  | Russia | 4.1 | $84.3 | $16.4 | $6,738.0 | 5.1 | 1.6 |
| **PetroChina Co. Ltd.** |  | China | 2.7 | $289.8 | $37.2 | $1,235.5 | 7.8 | 1.8 |
| **ExxonMobil Corporation** |  | U.S.A | 2.1 | $409.1 | $25.0 | $348.3 | 16.4 | 1.6 |
| **BP Plc.** |  | U.K | 1.9 | $141.1 | $9.2 | $626.5 | 15.4 | 3.5 |
| **Royal Dutch Shell Plc** |  | Netherlands | 1.7 | $282.0 | $17.3 | -$5,156.6 | 16.3 | 4.3 |
| **Chevron Corporation** |  | U.S.A | 1.7 | $229.4 | $14.7 | -$8,150.8 | 15.6 | 2.4 |
| **Total S. A.** |  | France | 1.2 | $150.6 | $18.8 | -$2,913.8 | 8.0 | 1.6 |
| **CNOOC Ltd** |  | China | 1.1 | $64.4 | $10.3 | $691.0 | 6.3 | 0.9 |
| **Statoil ASA** |  | Norway | 1.0 | $68.6 | $13.4 | -$338.4 | 5.1 | 1.3 |
| **China Petroleum**  **Chemical Corp.** | **&** | China | 1.0 | $134.5 | $25.9 | $12,599.2 | 5.2 | 1.1 |
|  |  | **Average** | **1.9** | **$185.4** | **$18.8** | **$567.9** | **10.1** | **2.0** |

Data source: S&P Global Market Intelligence (2016)

**Vol**. – Million barrels per day (bpd) of oil produced globally on average in the most recent fiscal quarter

**EV** – Enterprise value in billions of U.S. dollars at the close of business on August 26, 2016

**EBITDA** – Earnings before interest, tax, depreciation and amortization, in billions for the trailing twelve months (TTM)

**FCF** – Levered free cash flow in millions

**Debt** – Net debt at the end of the most recent fiscal quarter

To make the picture more complex, oil and gas companies contract out many of their business activities including one-off tasks and routine tasks. The investment is highly profitable, yet they look for avenues to maximise these profit by the use of contract labour. Among the operations these oil companies outsource are exploration drilling, construction, design and maintenance of facilities, labouratory analysis, catering, transport and security services (ILO 2009: 15).

Barely a hundred years old, then it is imperative to question what makes the oil and gas industry, so vibrant and important. The answer lies in how the world’s energy demand is met. According to the International Energy Agency, oil and natural gas currently meet some 60% of the world’s primary energy needs. They also provide the building blocks for a wide range of products such as chemicals, medical products and road surfaces, directly fuelling a number of other industries such as petrochemicals, pharmaceuticals and construction. Oil is also the largest internationally traded commodity by both volume and value (Bridge 2008:7).With such volume and impact, it goes without saying that the oil and gas industry creates jobs for tens of millions of people across the globe. The US direct and indirect employment in oil and gas alone was estimated to be nearly 10 million (American Petroleum Institute [API], 2013).

The processes of the oil and gas industry are traditionally divided in upstream, midstream and downstream operations. Upstream operations include pre-exploration, exploration, production, and decommissioning. While the downstream operation encompasses transmission, refining, distribution, up to consumption. The midstream involves the transportation (by pipeline, rail, barge, oil tanker or truck), storage, and wholesale marketing of crude or refined petroleum products. Midstream’s operations are usually included in the downstream category.

Oil extraction activities, for instance, are geographically widespread—56 countries produced at least 88,673 barrels a day in 2014 (BP Statistical Review 2015) (Bridge 2008:3). Interestingly, though, global production of oil and gas is dominated by huge formations in Saudi Arabia, other parts of the Middle East, Nigeria and Russia. Reserves, however, remain concentrated in the Middle East and its unit costs of production remain consistently lower than elsewhere (BP Statistical Review 2015).

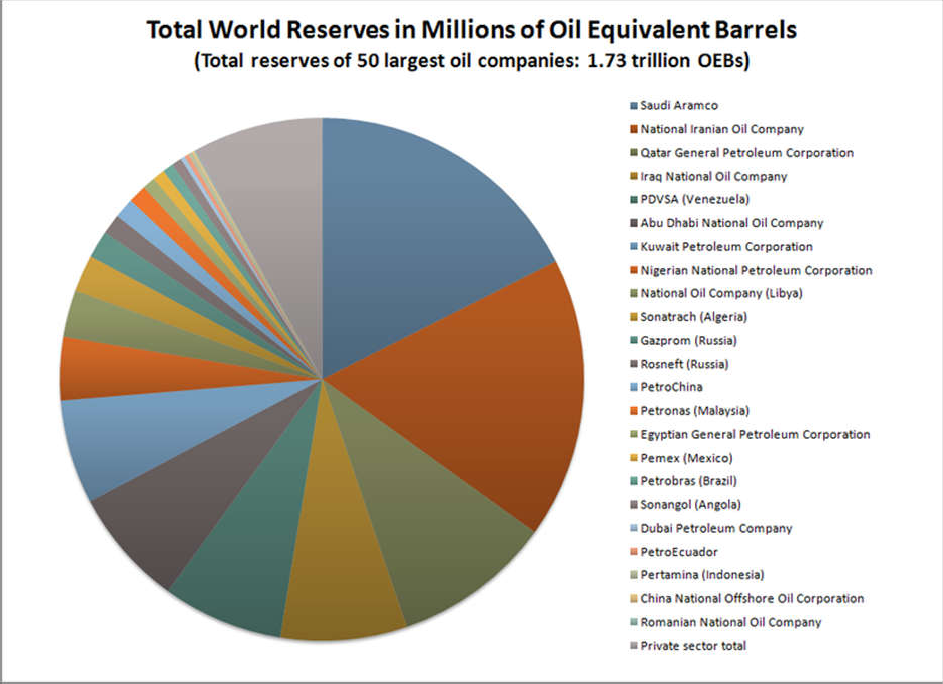
The industry produces a standardized set of products that are essential to modern life and are widely distributed via market exchange and consumed in some measure across nearly all demographic groups. (BP Statistical Review 2015)

##### Table 2.4 showing Global Geographical Segmentation of Oil and Gas Global oil and gas market geography segmentation: $ billion, 2011

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Geograghy** | **2011** | **%** |  |
| **Americas** | **1,085.3** | **33.7** |  |
| **Asia-Pacific** | **1,064.8** | **33.0** |  |
| **Europe** | **817.1** | **25.4** |  |
| **Middle East & Africa** | **255.9** | **7.9** |  |
| **TOTAL** | **3,223.1** | **100%** |  |
| Source: United Nations | Development | Project [UNDP], (2013); World Energy | Outlook |

[WEO], (2013), International Energy Agency [IEA].

##### Figure 2.3 showing Total World Reserves in Millions of Oil Equivalent Barrels



**Source:** Source: Bridge (2008). Global production networks at the Governing resource-based development.

extractive sector:

### The Oil and Gas Value Chain

The oil and gas sector is characterised by a complex value chain conventionally divided into

upstream (such as exploration and production/extraction), and downstream (such as refining,

retailing).

The oil and gas industry can be explained as involving many work processes involving

exploration, extraction or production, refining, distribution, consumption and carbon capture,

considering the production chain analysis of material transformation and product flow of oil

and gas production (Bridge, 2008).

Hydrocarbons are ‘captured’ at the initial stage of the chain from the environment. They are then commodified and shunted into the economy through extraction and production of crude oil and natural gas (Bridge, 2008). The hydrocarbons are then processed, refined and distributed in the global economy. At the end of the chain hydrocarbons are de-commodified through their consumption, dissociation and disposal they accumulate in the natural environment as, for example, urban air pollution, pesticide residues, plastics in landfills or rising atmospheric stocks of carbon dioxide. Carbon capture is part of a wider attempt to decrease emissions and/or steer a greater proportion of the carbon flux away from the atmosphere and towards sequestration in terrestrial stocks (Bridge 2008).

Large upstream operations often involve a number of specialist firms to whom different work processes are outsourced. A large-scale drilling operation managed by BP, Exxon or Shell, for example, may have one or more equity partners to reduce exposure to geological and financial risks. Drilling operations are often outsourced to a contract drilling company which may also provide the rig or drill-ship and undertake to crew the rig. Drilling tool supply may be contracted to a specialist tool company with data logging, data analysis and well- maintenance contracted to another firm (Bridge 2008).

For many large oil and gas projects, engineering, design and procurement functions are outsourced and contracted to specialist Engineering Procurement and Construction (EPC) companies. The construction, maintenance, design, and procurement activities of these large oil and gas projects are often contracted to firms which may have contracts with several other extractive operations (Bridge 2008).

##### International Oil Companies (IOCs)-Mission Responsible

Nigeria houses a number of international oil companies that explore and develop its oil and gas resources. The list includes ExxonMobil, Chevron, ConocoPhillips, Royal Dutch Shell, Total, and others. These companies have formed joint venture partnerships with each other and with local companies, most importantly National Oil Companies (NOCs) of their subsidiary countries in order to share operational and financial risks. An example of that in Nigeria is NNPC. In addition, they either operate assets themselves or have a stake in oil and gas operations run by their partners.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher has chosen the two American Oil and Gas companies operating in Nigeria who are also of oil ‘super majors’, namely ExxonMobil and Chevron.

##### Table 2.5 Showing companies of Nigerian petroleum joint venture of jointly held oil mining leases (OMLs) and facilities with the NNPC and a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with the Federal Government.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **S/N** | **Partners** | **Equity Interest** | **Operators** | **No. of OMLs** |
| **1** | Shell | 30% | Shell | 58 |
|  | Agip | 5% |  |  |
|  | Elf | 10% |  |  |
|  | NNPC | 55% |  |  |
| **2** | ExxonMobil | 40% | ExxonMobil | 4 |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |
| **3** | Chevron | 40% | Chevron | 16 |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |
| **4** | Agip | 20% | Agip | N/A |
|  | Philips | 20% |  |  |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |
| **5** | Elf | 40% | Elf | 14 |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |
| **6** | Texaco | 20% | Texaco | 6 |
|  | Chevron | 20% |  |  |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |
| **7** | Pan Ocean | 40% | Pan Ocean | 1 |
|  | NNPC | 60% |  |  |

Source:<http://www.nipc.gov.ng/venture.html>;(NNPC Business Upstream Ventures (2016).

##### ExxonMobil:

ExxonMobil is a US multinational IOC headquartered in Irving, Texas, United States. ExxonMobil has had a presence in the United States since 1870 when John D. Rockefeller and his associates formed the Standard Oil Company (Ohio), with combined facilities constituting the largest refining capacity of any single firm in the world (www.corporateexxonmobil.com). Formed by the merger of Exxon and Mobil in 1999 and currently with approximately **75,300 employees** globally, the company is mainly engaged in Upstream, Downstream and Chemical businesses (Agnihotri, 2015; Rapier in Forbes 2016). It is world’s second largest company by market capitalization and second largest in the USA by revenue (Agnihotri, 2015). However, its revenues have dropped by more than 7 per-cent from the previous year along with decreased oil production and increasing exploration expenditures. As of 2013, the company had about 71.9 million barrels of natural gas and 13.2 million barrels of liquid proved reserves. Exxon has three divisions: Upstream, Downstream and Chemical with upstream being the biggest of them all. Exxon is also the biggest refiner in the world with a refining capacity of around 5.5 million barrels per day, with Royal Dutch Shell in second place with a refining capacity of around 4.1 million barrels per day (Agnihotri, 2015; Rapier in Forbes, 2016).

ExxonMobil has three affiliates operating in Nigeria: Mobil Producing Nigeria Unlimited (MPN) – Upstream; Esso Exploration and Production Nigeria Ltd. (EEPNL) – Upstream; and Mobil Oil Nigeria (MON) – Downstream.

ExxonMobil, together with Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) and other joint-venture partners have developed and expanded the North Field, which is one of the largest gas fields in the world. In 2012, a joint-venture of exploration financing agreement of

$1.5b was signed to boost the nation’s crude oil reserve and production between ExxonMobil

and NNPC (NNPC News & Update 2012). On April 22, 2013, Mobil Producing Nigeria Unlimited (MPN) (an affiliate of ExxonMobil), operator of the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) / MPN Joint Venture, signed a Seller’s Representative Agreement (SRA) for the Qua Iboe Power Project, located at MPN’s Qua Iboe terminal in the state of AkwaIbom (ExxonMobil Nigeria News, 2013)

"We welcome the dialogue on the Petroleum Industry Bill (PIB) on how to reshape and reposition the industry. Your reform process is commendable” (NNPC News & Update 2016:1), A statement made by the chairman/CEO of ExxonMobil Mr Rex Tiller to the Group Managing Director (GMD) of NNPC, Dr. Mohammed S. Barkindo. According to him, ExxonMobil will participate actively in the on-going reform process, consultations and dialogue to rejuvenate Nigeria's oil and gas industry on the PIB and will work with the NNPC so that obstacles to both companies various joint venture operations are not put in jeopardy ((ExxonMobil Nigeria News, 2013).

##### Chevron:

Chevron's corporate headquarters are located in a 92-acre campus in San Ramon, California. Chevron’s origin can be traced to an 1876 oil discovery at Pico Canyon, north of Los Angeles, which led to the formation of the Pacific Coast Oil Co. That company later became Standard Oil Company of California and, subsequently, Chevron. Chevron took on its name when Gulf Oil Corporation was acquired in 1984. At the time, its merger with Gulf was the largest in U.S. history.

Another part of its history is The Texas Fuel Company, formed in Beaumont, Texas, in 1901. It later became known as The Texas Company and, eventually, Texaco. In 2001, the two companies merged.

The acquisition of Unocal Corporation in 2005 strengthened Chevron's position as an energy industry leader, increasing its crude oil and natural gas assets around the world.Chevron’s diverse and global workforce consists of approximately 64,700 employees, including more than 3,200 service station employees (Chevron Corporate Fact Sheet, 2015).In 2014, Chevron's average net production was 2.571 million oil-equivalent barrels per day. About 74 percent of that production occurred outside the United States. Chevron had a global refining capacity of 1.9 million barrels of oil per day at the end of 2014 (Chevron Corporate Fact Sheet, 2015).

Chevron began doing business in Nigeria in 1913, when Texaco products were first marketed in the country. Chevron's oil and gas exploration and production operations are primarily in the US, Australia, Nigeria, Angola, Kazakhstan, and the Gulf of Mexico. Its exploration and production work began in Nigeria in 1963. In the onshore and near-offshore regions of the Niger Delta, Chevron operates under a joint venture with the NNPC, operating and holding a 40% interest in 13 concessions in the region. In addition, Chevron operates the Escravos Gas Plant and the Escravos gas-to-liquids plant (NNPC Business Upstream Ventures (2016)

##### The Use of Contract Labour in Oil and Gas Industry

Every year, millions of contract workers (i.e. contract labour) are engaged in different professions around the world. In 2014, over 11.5 million agency workers were employed to fill the spaces of full-time jobs worldwide while the turnover of the world is more than 137,300 private employment agencies reached Euros 299.3 billion (CIETT, 2014). In 2007, there were only 62,000 private employment agencies globally with turnover of euros 234 billion (CIETT, 2014) The 27% rise in the turnover of private employment agencies during

this period, despite the global financial crisis, indicates the vibrancy of the sector and strong demand for contract labour (CIETT, 2014).

With the vibrancy in the sector, would it not make sense for companies to hire and retain full time employees that can be relied upon anytime when needed? This question may have a combination of many possible answers.

The 2014 International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies (CIETT) report shows that among the top reasons for companies to hire contract workers are to staff short term projects and absorb business fluctuation which can be seasonal or unexpected (CIETT 2014, p. 42). Contract workers can certainly help out in once-off activities such as projects for which there is no need for permanent employees. Many businesses have also seasonal increases of business activities which require additional labour on a temporary basis. In practice, it has been observed that these multinationals use contract employees on both core and peripheral or non-core aspect of their activities; therefore, businesses hire temporary staff to avoid fixed-personnel costs (ICEM 2006, p. 23). As it is in other sectors, there has been a trend throughout the oil and gas industry with regards to increased use of contracting and thus contract workers – for both blue and white collar jobs- as many companies outsource many aspects of their business (Graham 2010, p. 14). Contractors play a key role in the oil and gas activities by providing the most people (contract workers) to the industry. For instance, as of 2016 ExxonMobil Beaumont Area Complex had about 2,000 employees and over 1,000 contract workers (ExxonMobil, 2016).

# CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Preamble

This chapter presents the methods and procedures adopted in the process of data collection and analysis for the study. The study is based on a survey research strategy through a cross- sectional research design. Also, a structured questionnaire was adopted for the study in order to obtain first-hand information from a cross-section of the study population including different categories of contract employees ranging from exploration and production staff, finance and administrative staff, Human Resource, etc. who were on ground.

This chapter discusses the procedures for gathering data, which includes the following: the study setting, the research design, the population of the study, the sample size and sampling techniques, source of data and collection strategies, research instrument and measurement of variables, validity and reliability of research instrument, administration of instruments, method of data analysis adopted in analysing data, ethical considerations and field experiences.

### The Study Setting

The setting for the study is Nigeria and the United States of America. Nigeria is located in the western part of Africa. Nigeria encompasses an area of 923,768 km2 or 356,667 sq. m and is the most populous country in Africa and the seventh most populous country in the world with an estimated population of 182,202,000 based on the report of the National Population Commission, 2016. Nigeria overtook South Africa to become Africa’s largest economy in 2014. As of 2015, Nigeria is the world's 20th largest economy, worth more than $500 billion and $1 trillion in terms of nominal GDP and purchasing power parity respectively. Nigeria is

important to this study because it is the 12th largest producer of petroleum in the world and the 8th largest exporter, and has the 10th largest proven reserves. Petroleum plays a large role in the Nigerian economy, accounting for 40 per cent of GDP and 80 per cent of Government earnings (Williams, 2008). Also, it houses the American oil and gas subsidiaries with head- offices in Lagos State and other locations in Eket, Benin and Port Harcourt.

The United States of America is located in North America covering an area of 9,826,675 km2 or 3,794,101 sq. mi with an estimated population of 322,315,000 based on 2013 estimate. The USA is a superpower, and the only superpower in the world (U.S. Department of State, 2009). It has a great influence on world finance, trade, culture, military, politics, and technology. Based on 2012 estimate, it is worth $15.685 trillion GDP (nominal) and $15.685 trillion GDP (PPP). The USA is germane to this study as it houses the parents companies of the American oil companies under study.

### Research Design

This study was based on a cross-sectional survey research design and descriptive design given its suitability for an assessment of the respondents’ opinions on employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. As observed by some researchers, a cross-sectional survey research design can be used when information is to be collected only once (Babbie, 1989; Mallhota, Jackofsky & Indik, 1996). The use of a cross-sectional survey research design is justified on the ground that the study requires one-time observation, involving proximate and ultimate variables (Levin, 2006). However, descriptive designs focus on the phenomenon of interest, which according to this study, is to find out whether there is a difference in the way contract employees in the American oil and gas in Nigeria and contract employees in the American oil

and gas in the USA (their counterparts in the USA) perceive their working conditions. This approach is suitable for a comparative analysis of employment practices and working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

### The Study Population

The study population from which the sample was drawn for the study comprises contract employees in two American Oil and Gas companies in Nigeria and the United States of America. The opinion of management staff of the corporations and those of union executives were sought through in-depth interviews. All were taken as the study sample through probability sampling method and questionnaires were administered to the available contract employees ranging from the e[xploration](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hydrocarbon_exploration) and [production](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Petroleum); [refining](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Refining), marketing and transport; manufacturing and sales; finance and administration; human resources; [power generation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Power_generation) and other departments. The total number of contract employees in the selected American oil companies is 12,736 (Researcher‘s Field Survey Report, 2016). The American Oil and Gas companies chosen for this study are: (1) Chevron Oil and Gas Corporation: and (2) ExxonMobil Oil and Gas Corporation. The choice of Chevron Oil and Gas Corporation and ExxonMobil Oil and Gas Corporation is based on the fact that they are the only two American Oil and Gas Corporations with subsidiaries in Nigeria among their peers.

### Sampling Frame

To achieve the objectives of the study, the sampling frame was drawn from the contract employees of the American oil and gas corporations in USA and Nigeria. In addition, sample was drawn from technical, operations and administrative contract employees of these corporations ranging from the engineers, technical support teams, secretary, drivers, cleaners etc. The sample frame was drawn from the staff record/distribution list of all the departments

of these corporations in the study. The questionnaires were personally administered to the American oil and gas corporations under study both in the USA (Texas: (Houston Campus) California: (San Ramon, Joliet), Beaumont, Alaska, Montana: (Billings)) and in Nigeria; (Eket and Port Harcourt (Rivers State); Benin (Edo State); Victoria Island and Lekki (Lagos State)).

##### Table 3.1 Sampling Frame showing Contract Staff Distribution List of Sampled Oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the United States of America.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **OIL AND GAS** | | **NIGERIA** | **UNITED STATES OF AMERICA** | **TOTAL POPULATION** |
| **CHEVRON** | |  |  |  |
| **Business Services**   * **Health**   **Environme nt & Safety** | | 22 | 40 | **62** |
|          | **Informatio**  **n Technology** | 67 | 20 | **87** |
| **Content**  **Developme nt** | 4 | 2 | **6** |
| **NNPC/DP**  **R Relations** | 22 | - | **22** |
| **Supply Chain Mgt.** | 159 | 100 | **259** |
| **Security** | 81 | 100 | **181** |
| **Deep Water/PSCs & Production** | | 54 | 200 | **254** |
| **Marketing, Sales**  **&Transport** | | 22 | 100 | **122** |
| **Applied Research/Develop ment &**  **Technology services; JV**  **Exploration & Asset Development; JV Operations; Facilities Engineering & MCPs** | | 1,740 | 2,000 | **3,740** |
| **Finance & Administration** | | 16 | 30 | **46** |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Policy, Govt. &**  **Public Affairs** | | 48 | 60 | **108** |
| **Human Resources& Medical** | | 218 | 200 | **418** |
| **Drilling &**  **Completion** | | 120 | 100 | **220** |
| **Downstream Gas** | | 37 | 50 | **87** |
| **Legal** | | 1 | - | **1** |
| **Strategy &**  **Business Planning** | | 1 | 10 | **11** |
| **TOTAL** | | **2,612** | **3,012** | **5,624** |
| **EXXONMOBIL** | |  |  |  |
| **Business Services**   * **Health**   **Environme nt & Safety** | | 25 | 48 | **73** |
|          | **Informatio**  **n Technology** | 80 | 68 | **148** |
| **Content**  **Developme nt** | 23 | 19 | **42** |
| **NNPC/DP**  **R Relations** | 30 | - | **30** |
| **Supply Chain Mgt.** | 160 | 100 | **260** |
| **Security &**  **Cleaning** | 95 | 100 | **195** |
| **Deep Water/PSCs**  **& Production** | | 166 | 200 | **366** |
| **Marketing, Sales**  **&Transport** | | 73 | 100 | **173** |
| **Applied Research/Develop ment &**  **Technology services; JV**  **Exploration & Asset Development; JV Operations; Facilities Engineering & MCPs** | | 2,554 | 1,804 | **4,358** |
| **Finance &**  **Administration** | | 82 | 50 | **132** |
| **Policy, Govt. &**  **Public Affairs** | | 97 | 30 | **127** |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Human Resources&**  **Medical** | 234 | 250 | **484** |
| **Drilling & Completion** | 150 | 184 | **334** |
| **Downstream Gas** | 158 | 80 | **238** |
| **Legal** | 15 | - | **15** |
| **Strategy & Business Planning** | 72 | 15 | **87** |
| **TOTAL** | **4,014** | **3,098** | **7,112** |
| **GRAND TOTAL** | **6,626** | **6,110** | **12736** |

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Report, 2016.

### Determination of Sample size.

One of the most important tasks for the researcher is to select work environment and negotiate access to the participants or respondents (Steyn & VanWyk, 1999). The study is based on a sample frame of the American oil companies with subsidiaries in Nigeria based on the information from the US consular. The two American oil and gas are: Chevron Oil and Gas Corporation: and ExxonMobil Oil and Gas Corporation.

In order to adopt scientific approach in calculating the appropriate sample size for the study, Saunders, Lewis and Thorhills (2009) proposed different minimum sample sizes of 95% confidence level and arrived at 384 for a population of 1 million and above. Thus, adopting Saunders *et al* proposition allowing for 5% margin of error, the total sample size of 403.2 respondents is appropriate and representative.

However, below is the statistical information regarding the selected American oil and gas corporation contract employees as at 2016. Furthermore, to arrive at appropriate sample size for the study, the scientific computation of the sample size proposed by Yamane (1967, p. 886) was adopted. The computation states that:

n = N

(1+N(e)2)

In which

n = the sample size

N = actual/estimated population = 12,736 e = margin of error (0.05)

Therefore, the sample size is computed as follows:

n = 12,736

(1+12,736 (0.05)2

n = 387.8197

Since there cannot be 0.8person, the sample size is adjusted to 388.

Based on Yamane (1967) formula, the sample size of 388 was derived from the total population size of 12736. However, the researcher increased the number of questionnaire administered to 600 copies to increase precision and to reduce sampling error (Israel, 2013).

Thus, this study proposed a total of six hundred copies of questionnaire to be administered with the intention of covering demographic dimensions such as age, gender, marital status, qualification, job level/status etc.

### Sampling Techniques.

Stratified random sampling technique was used for this study because the nature of the study population is heterogeneous. This work corroborates Cooper and Schindler’s (2006) criteria for usage of stratified random method namely: (a) increased sample‘s statistical efficiency;

(b) adequacy of data for analyzing the various sub populations or strata; and (c) the usage of different research methods and procedures for different strata. In addition, the work adopted

stratified random sampling to ensure that the American oil and gas corporations with their different numbers of contract employees are well represented in all the departments going by the statistical information regarding the selected American oil and gas corporation contract employees as at December, 2015 as shown in the Table 3.1 above.

The justification for the use of 600 as the sample size is that the population of the contract employees in these corporations in the United States of America and Nigeria is relatively large, and the fact that the researcher wanted to avoid incidence of low response rate from the respondents. This is in line with Isreal (2013); Asika (1991) and Otokiti (2005) assertions that the larger the samples size the more the degree of representative the sample is to the population in order to achieve a robust sample. This will make the sample statistics valid estimates of the population parameters.

The distribution of the sample size over the subsidiaries in Nigeria and home country, (i.e. Chevron Nigeria and USA and ExxonMobil Nigeria and USA) were carried out using Proportional Affixation Criterion (PAC), i.e. Corporations sample in each stratum is proportional to the relative weight of the stratum in relation to the population. Within each American Oil and Gas Corporation, selection is conducted through simple random sampling.

### Research Instruments

The study adopted a structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews as the research instruments. The questionnaire was designed in such a way that information about a large number of people was deduced from responses obtained from a smaller group of subjects (the sample). The study adopted the Likert scales in the design of the questionnaire which measures the intensity or degree of agreement by the respondent to a statement that defines a

situation, phenomenon, item or a treatment (Asika, 1991). The study used the Likert 4-point scale instead of the most commonly used 5-point scale. This is to avoid the tendency of large number of respondents responding to the ‘neutral’ option on the 5-point scale which could adversely affect both the analysis of data and findings. There was no established number of categories that deemed optional for research scaling. In practice, scales of four categories are representative (Osuagwu, 1999; Lassitz & Greche, 1975).

The 4-point scale ranges from strongly agreed (4) to strongly disagree (1). The questionnaire had three sections: A, B and C. Section A dealt with the respondents’ socio-demographic characteristics including the years of experience, gender, highest academic qualifications, and so on. Section B contained questions directed to contract employees covering major areas of this research including the degree of managerial control, organisational commitment, working hours, remuneration, retirement plan and health insurance. Section B also focused on the issues of training, occupational health and safety, and participation in trade union activities. Lastly, Section C contained six open ended questions about the respondents’ views on their career development, work environment, and their involvement in decision making.

The following steps were followed in going about the research:

1. A pilot study was conducted to establish the adequacy and reliability of the instrument in wording, content, question sequencing and bias. It is a way of providing ideas and to test the relevance of the instrument to the local environment and working conditions in which the contract employees are employed.
2. The unstructured interviews were conducted with the contract employees, union officials and management after the pilot study to ascertain that all the questions in the study are simple and easy to comprehend.
3. The final stage was the administration of the questionnaire to a sample from the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA

A pilot study is a small-scale version or trial run done before the main study on a limited number of subjects for the same population as intended for the eventual project. Such a pilot study would be carried out to investigate the feasibility of the proposed study and to detect possible flaws in the data collection instruments such as time and length of the questionnaire, ambiguous instructions or wording, inadequate time limits and whether the variables defined by operational definitions were actually observable and measurable (Brink, 1996). For the pre-testing, 10 copies of the questionnaire were given to my supervisors, senior colleagues, colleagues, and a statistician from University of Lagos, and thereafter a pilot study was conducted. It was established in the literatures cited below that between 5-10 copies of the questionnaire to representative respondents are enough to identify problems in a questionnaire (Narver & Slater, 1990; Burns & Bush, 1998).

The questionnaire had three sections: A, B and C. Section A dealt with the respondents’ bio- data information (i.e. the demographic and biographical details of contract employees including the years of experience, gender, highest academic qualifications) with three measuring questions. Section B contained questions directed to contract employees covering major areas of this research with sixty-two measuring questions. Lastly, Section C contained six open ended questions about what the respondents feel about their organisations’ personal career development, their work environment, professional career development and their involvement in decision making. Four-point Likert scale was used in the design of the questionnaire. There was no established number of categories that deemed optional for research scaling. In practice, scales of four categories are typical (Osuagwu, 1999; Regoniel, 2012). Also, Cronbach (1950) and Weems and Onwuegbuzie (2001) in an investigation of the

effects of scale points on reliability, conclude that midpoints are not necessary to benefit the internal consistence of measurements. Midpoint seems to attenuate the reliability rather than enhance it.

This purification exercise revealed the degree of internal consistency and overall homogeneity among the items comprising the scales. It also showed the extent the model fits the data which depended on the loading of the items on the hypothesized constructs.

### Validity of Research Instrument

Validity is the ability of an instrument to measure the variable it is intended to measure (Asika, 1991). Every measuring instrument is designed for a specific measurement. If it is correctly designed, it measures what it is supposed to measure. If it is faulty, then it measures what it may not be supposed to measure. Polit and Hungler (1991), refer to validity as the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. According to Polit and Hungler (1991), there are four types of validity for measuring instruments designed to collect quantitative data, these are; Construct validity, Content validity, Criterion validity and Face validity. However, for this study, content validity, construct validity and face validity were applicable and are discussed below: Content validity of an instrument is the degree to which a test appears to measure a concept by logical analysis of the items. The emphasis is on adequate coverage by the instrument of the scope implied by the topic of study.

Thus, for this study, experts reviewed the objectives of the study and questionnaire items to decide on the appropriateness of the test items and to ensure that all the questions asked in the questionnaire fully examined all that are implied by the research questions and hypotheses. Polit and Hungler (1991) described validity as the degree to which an instrument measures

what it is supposed to measure. For this study, content validity, construct validity and face validity were applicable.

The following took part in the evaluation of the content validity: a statistician, the researcher‘s supervisors, and senior colleagues in the field of Industrial Relations (IR) and Human Resource Management (HRM). They examined each item and made judgments on the test items to ensure they represent adequately hypothetical content in correct proportions, paying particular attention to their relevance to the subject matter and their coverage of the entire topic of study. Brink (1996), describes content validity as an assessment of how well the instruments represent all the different components of the variables to be measured. To do this effectively, literature was reviewed and key concepts identified and used in the formulation of questions, which were sent to the experts (statisticians, my supervisors) to evaluate the content and items against the study. Face validity or logical validity involves an analysis of whether the instrument appears to be on a valid scale. By looking at the instrument, the investigators decided that it has face validity. According to Treece and Treece (1986), face validity should be included in every test for validity. In this study, face validity was done to check whether the instrument contained the important items to be measured. Face validity is to ensure that all the relevant dimensions of the topic are being fully explored; and that, the measuring instrument adequately covers all the dimensions or at least a good representation of all the dimensions of the topic of research. The Construct validity of this study determines how well a test or experiment measures up to its claims (Brown, 2000). Construct validity was used in measuring how well the operational definition of the variables actually reflect the true theoretical meanings of the concept of this study by demonstrating differences between differential groups and the use of pretest-posttest intervention studies.

### Reliability of Research Instrument

Reliability is the extent to which measurement of the test are repeated. Thus, this implies that measuring instrument results should be consistent when the instrument is repeated. A researcher who designs a measuring instrument must ensure that the instrument gives similar, close or the same results if the study to which the instrument is applied is replicated. Asika (1991) defines reliability as the consistency between independent measurements of the same phenomenon. Reliability is then the stability, dependability and predictability of the measuring instrument. It is the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument. There are four ways a researcher can possibly test for reliability (Asika, 1991). These are: Test-re-test reliability, multiple (alternate) form, split-half technique and Cronbach‘s alpha test. In test-re- test reliability, the same measuring instrument is used to take two separate measurements on the same population at different times. The higher the correlation between the two measurements, the higher will be the reliability of the measuring instrument.

Multiple (alternate) reliability attempts to test for reliability through the use of the same measuring instrument administered on different dimensions of the same variables. A high association among the forms shows a high reliability of the instrument. Low association between the forms shows that the forms are not equivalent and may indicate low reliability. In split-half technique, the assumption is that the measurement items can be randomly assigned to two equal parts. That is, the measurement items can be randomly split into half and each half is now treated as an alternative form of the same measurement. The Cronbach‘s alpha test proceeds by associating each measurement item with every other measurement item and obtaining the average inter-correlation for all the paired associations.

However, in this study, a set of questions were used to measure the degree of working hours, remuneration/benefits, level of social protection, training and the degree of managerial control at which contract employees have or work independently.The study conducted reliability test with the aid of SPSS version 21.0. The Cronbach alpha was used to estimate the measure of internal consistency and the Cronbach alpha reliability value of 0.86 was obtained which is higher than 0.50. This implies a strong internal consistency of the research instrument. Thus, this implies that the measuring instrument is consistent and reliable and can be used for the study**.**

### Method of Data Collection and Administration of the Research Instruments

The study adopted both the primary and secondary sources of data collection. The information gathered through the questionnaire and in-depth interviews represent the primary data while the secondary source of data includes company reports and journals. A total of 600 copies of the questionnaire were administered and also self-administered by the researcher in the sampled oil and gas companies with the support of research assistants while 12 persons (4 management staff; 4 contract employees and 4 union officials) were interviewed.

Measurement such as content validity, face validity and construct validity were used to ensure validity of the instrument. Data collected from the participants during the pilot study were analysed to ensure that instrument measured the variables it was intended to measure.

Data collection is a process of identifying subjects and gathering data from this focus (Burns, 2000). Data was collected through a well-structured questionnaire. Questionnaire according to Polit and Hungler (1991) is a method of gathering self-report information from respondents through administration of questions. Treece and Treece (1986) submitted that questionnaire facilitates gathering of data from a widely scattered sample. Asika (1991)

defines a questionnaire as consisting a set of questions designed to gather information or data for analysis, the result of which are used to answer the research questions or used for the test of relevant hypotheses. Survey research method was used for this study through the distribution of copies of questionnaire to collect necessary information from respondents. The researcher utilised one structured questionnaire for both the contract employees in Chevron and ExxonMobil corporations in USA and Nigeria. Thus, this enhanced uniformity of response bearing in mind the degree of variations in perception of what the working conditions are. A structured questionnaire gives respondents a number of alternative options from which they must choose the one that most closely approximates the view of the respondents (Polit & Hungler, 1991). The value of the study and the instructions were explained to the respondents. Respondents were requested to complete the questionnaires which were collected personally by the researcher from individual respondents which ensured a high return rate and encouraged freedom of expression from the respondents.

### Method of Data Analysis

The collected data were coded, entered and analysed by making use of the Statistical Product and Service Solutions, which is also known as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (HO, 2006); formerly Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The tool employed was the descriptive and inferential statistics, which enabled the researcher to synthesize and summarise the quantitative data. The descriptive statistics described the sample in terms of the responses to the questions using standard deviation, mean, frequencies and percentages (Salkind, 2000). Frequencies are the number of times a response has occurred (Salkind, 2000). The inferential statistics used was independent samples t-test. An independent t-test measures the difference between two independent, unrelated groups. It ascertains the degree of significance of the measured variation among contract employees in this study. When two mean scores are compared, the t-test is used. More so, the mean score

of contract employees in the two corporations were compared by means of an independent sample t-test. Thus, in the study, the independent samples t-test was used to measure the differences in working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. Using the independent t-test, differences in working conditions such as the degree of control, working hours, remuneration, health and retirement benefits, health and safety, training, unionization amongst others, between contract employees in Nigeria and the USA were tested.

Qualitative data was accessed through the in-depth interviews and were analysed, using Content Analysis (CA) and Narrative Analysis (NA). The tools find relevance in qualitative research data or open-ended questions and have been combined to deepen the analysis in this study.

### Ethical Considerations

A research is an enquiry directed into a given circumstance with the aim of instituting the facts about the circumstance. In order to get the best from such study, the research had to be focused and tactical in selecting participants for the study. In this study, the principle of voluntary contribution was upheld and clearly conversed to participants. Participants were made to participate in the research on their own free will. Participants were well-informed about the purpose of the research and assured that their responses to the study would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Part of research ethics is that information gathered from organisations would not be used without the organisations in question’s permission and report would be given to the respective organisation on request.

### Field Experiences

Accessing the participants was not easy. First of all, despite the numerous mails to the Human Resource Departments of the organisations in question, I was reluctantly given appointments not without the interventions of some notable friends of the organisations. Reaching the six different states in the USA was a huge task physically and financially not considering having to self-administer some of the questionnaire to the respondents. Getting to some of the respondents on location plants was not practical as a lot of the location plants are in volatile environment coupled with the location constraint; hence four location plants were visited in USA and three in Nigeria respectively. Due to the nature of work at the different location plants, participants were under pressure and unwilling to spare their time to attend to the questionnaire. However, the researcher was able to get considerable access to participants through supervisors and team leads, Union leaders who gave information encouraging participants that filling the questionnaire would only take about 5 minutes of their lunch break. In the United States of America, the morning and afternoon shifts contract employees were considered in order to achieve full concentration from the participants. Most truck drivers in the USA participated on the road, at rest stations during their rest hours. The researcher found it a bit stress-free administering the questionnaires to participants at the Head Offices since their work is not as time-bound as that of the plants and the road (truck drivers) employees. Thus, the experience is memorable.

The limitation of the study stems from the researcher’s inability to get the companies’ reports. Surveys are known to be inclined to superficiality. Participants do not have a chance to make clarifications and the researcher is unable to make direct observation that can enhance research work. Besides, there is the issue of sensitivity of human nature to contend

with. Participants often dwell in self-denial thereby responding to questionnaires in a way they wish to be portrayed rather than the reality of their experience in the situation. Time constraints would make a participant respond to questionnaire statements in a rush and haphazardly not considering that their response is vital to the outcome of the study. Also, respondents’ attitude to questions as well as statements that they deem as too personal, may receive refusal or false response. Again, the “Gratification before participation syndrome” was another setback, as some respondents expected financial gratification before attempting the questionnaire, such respondents have the impression that the researcher would make a great fortune from the research and that they should be compensated for being mechanism in the research process; thus providing partial attribution to the pervasive problem of field research and data generation in a developing country context.

* There is critical lack of information and data on working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria. Even regulatory bodies such as the ILO do not have sufficient data on variables on working conditions such as Advancement Opportunity, Organisational Commitment, Training Opportunities, Job Satisfaction, Flexible work Arrangement, Decent Pay, Improvement to Workers right to Organise & Bargain concerning contract employees in Nigeria. On top of that, contract employees’ records are not easy to find as companies fear negative publicity. Unfortunately, the researcher’s attempts to obtain data from trade unions on contract employees through interviews were difficult but successful.

# CHAPTER FOUR

**DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES**

### Preamble

This chapter is the presentation and analyses of data used during the study. The first section is the presentation and analyses of respondents’ socio-economic and demographic characteristics of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and USA were presented such as gender, age, marital status, educational qualification, degree, income amongst others. The second section is a description of the nature of employment practices and environmental factors in the countries. The third section which is the test of hypotheses is a comparative measure of differences in working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria. The fourth section is the discussion of findings.

### Response Rate

##### Table 4.1 Summary of Questionnaire Administration, Returned and Analysed

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **S/N** | **Name Of Oil And Gas Corporation** | **Copies Of Questionnair e**  **Administered** | **Copies of Questionnair e Returned** | **Total % of No Returned** | **Copies of Analyzed** | **Total % of No. Analyzed** |
| **1** | Chevron Nigeria | 200 | 120 | 60% | 100 | 50% |
| **2** | Chevron USA | 100 | 57 | 57% | 55 | 55% |
| **3** | ExxonMobil Nigeria | 200 | 182 | 91% | 152 | 76% |
| **4** | ExxonMobil USA | 100 | 73 | 73% | 71 | 35.5% |
|  | Total | 600 | 432 | 72% | 378 | 63% |

**Source: Researcher’s Field Survey Report, 2016.**

From Table 4.1 above, the total number of questionnaires distributed to the respondents in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA were 600 but the number of questionnaires returned was 432 representing 72 per cent. However, 378 (63%) were properly filled and used for the purpose of analysis. Therefore, the valid response rate is 63 per cent. The return rate which represents 63 per-cent is good enough for purpose of analysis based on Visser, Krosnick, Marquette, Curtin, (1996) and Curtin, Presser, Singer, (2000) that states that surveys with lower response rates yielded more accurate measurements than did surveys with higher response rates. Also with a sample size of 378 is appropriate and representative for a population size of up to or less than 1million for the purpose of analysis according to Mitchell and Jolley (2007). The valid return rate per the oil and gas company and location which was analysed is as follows; ExxonMobil Nigeria accounted for 76 per cent, ExxonMobil USA,

35.5 per cent, Chevron Nigeria, 50 per cent, and Chevron USA 55 per cent.

### Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of Contract Workers

The socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the contract workers from the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA that were examined for this study include gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, total monthly income, percentage contribution to retirement plan, employer contribution to retirement benefits, health insurance, job status, position/rank (level) within the organisation, years in current job, years as contract employee, duration of contract, and department.

##### Table 4.2.1a: Demographic Characteristics of Contract Workers

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | **Country** | | | | | | | | **Total** | |
| **NG**  **Chevron** | | **NG**  **ExxonMobil** | | **US**  **Chevron** | | **US**  **ExxonMobil** | |
| N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| **Job Status**  Contract Staff | 14  8 | 100.  0 | 107 | 100.  0 | 85 | 100.  0 | 36 | 100.  0 | 376 | 100.0 |
| **Total** | **14**  **8** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **376** | **100.0** |
| **Sex**  Male | 10  5 | 70.5 | 91 | 85.0 | 58 | 68.2 | 22 | 61.1 | 276 | 73.2 |
| Female | 44 | 29.5 | 16 | 15.0 | 27 | 31.8 | 14 | 38.9 | 101 | 26.8 |
| **Total** | **14**  **9** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **377** | **100.0** |
| **Age**  15-24 Years | 4 | 2.7 | 6 | 5.6 | 0 | 0.0 | 2 | 5.6 | 12 | 3.2 |
| 25-34 Years | 47 | 31.8 | 51 | 47.7 | 46 | 54.1 | 8 | 22.2 | 152 | 40.4 |
| 35-44 Years | 88 | 59.5 | 49 | 45.8 | 38 | 44.7 | 18 | 50.0 | 193 | 51.3 |
| 45-54 Years | 9 | 6.1 | 1 | 0.9 | 1 | 1.2 | 8 | 22.2 | 19 | 5.1 |
| **Total** | **14**  **8** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **376** | **100.0** |
| **Marital Status**  Married | 11  6 | 77.9 | 83 | 77.6 | 41 | 48.2 | 10 | 27.8 | 250 | 66.3 |
| Single | 26 | 17.4 | 20 | 18.7 | 31 | 36.5 | 8 | 22.2 | 85 | 22.5 |
| Divorced/Separated | 6 | 4.0 | 4 | 3.7 | 12 | 14.1 | 14 | 38.9 | 36 | 9.5 |
| Widowed | 1 | 0.7 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 1.2 | 4 | 11.1 | 6 | 1.6 |
| **Total** | **14**  **9** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **377** | **100.0** |
| **Highest Educational Qualification**  Elementary Education/High School | 2 | 1.3 | 6 | 5.6 | 2 | 2.4 | 18 | 50.0 | 28 | 7.4 |
| OND/NCE/College Diploma | 11 | 7.4 | 11 | 10.3 | 7 | 8.2 | 13 | 36.1 | 42 | 11.1 |
| Bachelor's Degree or Its Equivalence | 11  0 | 73.8 | 77 | 72.0 | 65 | 76.5 | 5 | 13.9 | 257 | 68.2 |
| Master's Degree | 26 | 17.4 | 13 | 12.1 | 11 | 12.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 50 | 13.3 |
| **Total** | **14**  **9** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **377** | **100.0** |
| **Total Monthly Income**  Less than N18,000 | 3 | 2.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 3 | 0.8 |
| N18,000-N100,000 (<$500) | 12 | 8.1 | 17 | 15.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 29 | 7.7 |
| N100,000-N200,000 ($500-$1000) | 51 | 34.2 | 30 | 28.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 81 | 21.5 |
| Above-N200,000 (>$1000) | 83 | 55.7 | 60 | 56.1 | 85 | 100.  0 | 36 | 100.  0 | 264 | 70.0 |
| **Total** | **14**  **9** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **377** | **100.0** |

**Source: Field Survey (2016).**

Table 4.2.1a shows that all the respondents (100%) from the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA were contract staff. The majorities (73.2%) were male indicating the presence and dominance of men in the oil and gas sector.91.7 per cent were between the ages

of 25 and 44 years while only 3.2 and 5.1 per cent were below and above the ages of 25 years and 44 years respectively. This means that most of the respondents were in their prime working years. A total of 66.3 per cent were married while only 22.5 per cent were single, meaning that most of the respondents were people with responsibilities and dependents. Only few workers (13.3%) possessed educational qualifications above bachelor’s degree or its equivalent, most were first degree holders (68.2%) while others (18.5%) had lower qualifications. Correspondingly, a better percentage (70%) of the oil and gas workers earned above 200,000 naira or 1000 dollars (the exchange rate as at the time of survey was around

$1 to N200). It can therefore be safely concluded that workers with higher qualifications earns higher income than others in these oil and gas companies.

##### Table 4.2.1b: Socio-economic Demographic Characteristics of Contract Workers

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | | **Country** | | | | | | | | **Total** | |
| **NG**  **Chevron** | | **NG**  **ExxonMobil** | | **US**  **Chevron** | | **US**  **ExxonMobil** | |
| N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| **What percentage of your current salary do you contribute to the retirement plan(s)?** | 1-3 % | 3 | 2.8 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.8 | 4 | 1.2 |
| 4-6% | 6 | 5.6 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 12 | 33.3 | 18 | 5.5 |
| 7-10% | 93 | 86.1 | 96 | 95.0 | 85 | 100.  0 | 23 | 63.9 | 29  7 | 90.0 |
| 11-13% | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 2 | 0.6 |
| 14-17% | 4 | 3.7 | 5 | 5.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 9 | 2.7 |
| **Total** | **10**  **8** | **100.**  **0** | **101** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **33**  **0** | **100.**  **0** |
| **Do you know approximately how much your employer contributes to this plan to pay for your retirement benefits?** | 1-3 % | 3 | 3.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.8 | 4 | 1.4 |
| 4-6% | 4 | 5.2 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 11 | 30.6 | 15 | 5.2 |
| 7-10% | 65 | 84.4 | 93 | 100.  0 | 85 | 100.  0 | 24 | 66.7 | 26  7 | 91.8 |
| 11-13% | 1 | 1.3 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.3 |
| 14-17% | 4 | 5.2 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 4 | 1.4 |
| **Total** | **77** | **100.**  **0** | **93** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **29**  **1** | **100.**  **0** |
| **Health Insurance Types**  NHIS | | 80 | 78.4 | 40 | 42.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 12  0 | 37.7 |
| Health Insurance Benefit | | 9 | 8.8 | 1 | 1.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 10 | 3.1 |
| Old Age Benefit | | 4 | 3.9 | 5 | 5.3 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 9 | 2.8 |
| Medicaid | | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 4 | 11.1 | 4 | 1.3 |
| Medicare | | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 5 | 5.9 | 2 | 5.6 | 7 | 2.2 |
| Others | | 9 | 8.8 | 49 | 51.6 | 80 | 94.1 | 30 | 83.3 | 16  8 | 52.8 |
| **Total** | | **10**  **2** | **100.**  **0** | **95** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **31**  **8** | **100.**  **0** |
| **Position/rank**  Contract staff | | 7 | 4.8 | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 9 | 2.4 |
| Lower management staff | | 54 | 37.0 | 46 | 44.7 | 29 | 34.5 | 36 | 100.  0 | 16  5 | 44.7 |
| Middle management staff | | 61 | 41.8 | 54 | 52.4 | 55 | 65.5 | 0 | 0.0 | 17  0 | 46.1 |
| Senior management staff | | 24 | 16.4 | 1 | 1.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 25 | 6.8 |
| **Total** | | **14**  **6** | **100.**  **0** | **103** | **100.**  **0** | **84** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **36**  **9** | **100.**  **0** |
| **Department**  Production | | 29 | 19.9 | 24 | 23.3 | 19 | 22.4 | 3 | 8.3 | 75 | 20.3 |
| Workshop | | 9 | 6.2 | 1 | 1.0 | 8 | 9.4 | 0 | 0.0 | 18 | 4.9 |
| Production Office | | 9 | 6.2 | 4 | 3.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 13 | 3.5 |
| Leading position/Human Resources | | 2 | 1.4 | 0 | 0.0 | 7 | 8.2 | 0 | 0.0 | 9 | 2.4 |
| Finance and Administration | | 10 | 6.8 | 8 | 7.8 | 1 | 1.2 | 0 | 0.0 | 19 | 5.1 |
| Transport | | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 1.2 | 31 | 86.1 | 32 | 8.6 |
| Research & Development | | 3 | 2.1 | 14 | 13.6 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 17 | 4.6 |
| Sales | | 3 | 2.1 | 11 | 10.7 | 5 | 5.9 | 2 | 5.6 | 21 | 5.7 |
| Others | | 81 | 55.5 | 41 | 39.8 | 44 | 51.8 | 0 | 0.0 | 16  6 | 44.9 |
| **Total** | | **14**  **6** | **100.**  **0** | **103** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **37**  **0** | **100.**  **0** |

**Source: Field Survey (2016).**

Table 4.2.1b shows the socio-economic demographic characteristics of the respondents in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA. When asked the percentage of current salary each contributes to the retirement plan(s), majority (90%) indicated 7 to 10 per cent while only few (6.7%) indicated below 7 per cent and very few (3.3%) made contributions above 10 per cent of their salary. The result was similar to what was obtained with regards to the employers’ contribution to the workers’ retirement plan. 91.8 per cent agreed that the employer contribute 7 to 10 per cent, few (6.6%) below 7 per cent while very few opted for contributions above 10 per cent. Most (52.8%) of the respondents however have other health insurance policy while majority from Nigeria (37.7%) were covered by NHIS.

The table also indicated that majority (90.8) of the respondents were in the lower management staff (44.7) and middle management staff (46.1) levels in the American oil and gas companies examined. Only few (6.8%) were in the senior management staff level while other (2.4%) were simply identified as contract staffs. It was however revealed that most respondents were fairly distributed into various departments with those in production taking the majority (20.3%).

##### Table 4.2.1c: Socio-economic Demographic Characteristics of Contract Workers

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | **Country** | | | | | | | | **Total** | |
| **NG**  **Chevron** | | **NG**  **ExxonMobil** | | **US**  **Chevron** | | **US**  **ExxonMobil** | |
| N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| **Number of Years in Current Job**  1-3 years | 34 | 23.1 | 18 | 16.8 | 8 | 9.4 | 5 | 13.9 | 65 | 17.3 |
| 4-6 years | 46 | 31.3 | 30 | 28.0 | 37 | 43.5 | 5 | 13.9 | 118 | 31.5 |
| 7-10 years | 46 | 31.3 | 55 | 51.4 | 26 | 30.6 | 16 | 44.4 | 143 | 38.1 |
| 11-13 years | 18 | 12.2 | 3 | 2.8 | 8 | 9.4 | 3 | 8.3 | 32 | 8.5 |
| 14 years and above | 3 | 2.0 | 1 | 0.9 | 6 | 7.1 | 7 | 19.4 | 17 | 4.5 |
| **Total** | **14**  **7** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **375** | **100.0** |
| **Number of years as contract worker**  1-3 years | 24 | 16.2 | 18 | 16.8 | 6 | 7.1 | 5 | 13.9 | 53 | 14.1 |
| 4-6 years | 44 | 29.7 | 26 | 24.3 | 34 | 40.0 | 5 | 13.9 | 109 | 29.0 |
| 7-10 years | 55 | 37.2 | 56 | 52.3 | 29 | 34.1 | 16 | 44.4 | 156 | 41.5 |
| 11-13 years | 18 | 12.2 | 6 | 5.6 | 10 | 11.8 | 3 | 8.3 | 37 | 9.8 |
| 14 years and above | 7 | 4.7 | 1 | 0.9 | 6 | 7.1 | 7 | 19.4 | 21 | 5.6 |
| **Total** | **14**  **8** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **376** | **100.0** |
| **Duration of contract**  1-5 months | 6 | 4.2 | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 8 | 2.2 |
| 6 months -1 years | 48 | 33.8 | 52 | 48.6 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 100 | 27.0 |
| 1-2 years | 50 | 35.2 | 16 | 15.0 | 4 | 4.7 | 0 | 0.0 | 70 | 18.9 |
| 3 years and above | 38 | 26.8 | 37 | 34.6 | 81 | 95.3 | 36 | 100.  0 | 192 | 51.9 |
| **Total** | **14**  **2** | **100.**  **0** | **107** | **100.**  **0** | **85** | **100.**  **0** | **36** | **100.**  **0** | **370** | **100.0** |

**Source: Field Survey (2016).**

From Table 4.2.1c, it is evident that slightly more than half (51.1%) of the contract workers had spent between 7 years and above on their current jobs in oil and gas companies while only 48.8 per cent had spent below 7 years. The number of years spent as contract workers also indicated similar trend with more than half (56.9%) in the range of 7 years and above while only 43.1 per cent had spent below 7 years. Also, the contract duration shows that more (51.9%) had duration of contract extending from 3 years upward while others (48.1%) were below. Implications of these is that close to half of the contract workers are taken for a short, renewable duration while majority work as contract staff for longer period (i.e. permanent contract workers).

### Test of Hypotheses

In this section, independent sample t test was used to test the differences in working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. Independent samples t- test is an inferential statistical test that determines whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means in two groups (Adedayo, 2006). The analyses are shown below.

##### Justification of Hypothesis 1

Degree of managerial control describes whether the employer has the right to control or direct how the worker performs the job (Bosworth, 2016). Managerial control includes the types of instructions and degree of instructions given to contract employees as well as training and evaluation systems in place (Internal Revenue Services, 2016). Therefore, the degree of managerial control is a function of the amount of professionalism inherent in contract employees which is a function of how much the human resources management in the oil and gas sector invests institution of skills and competence in contract employees. The extent to which management and administration in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria implements the HRM policies on training is also determined by the pressure and ability of the regulatory bodies to detect manipulative tendencies in the industry. Thus, in this study, degree of managerial control is the amount of freedom contract employees have to perform their tasks using their own initiatives without supervision. This study therefore measures the differences in degree of managerial control among contract employees in the industries as indicators of favourable or unfavourable working conditions. This justifies the first test of hypotheses below.

***Test 1:****Ho: There is no significant difference in degree of managerial control of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table 4.3 : Independent Samples Test of Differences in degree of Management Control** | | | | | | | | | |
| Company | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | Chevron  Nigeria | -1.552 | 226 | .122 | 2.8944 | -.07937 | .051 | -.180 | .021 |
| Chevron USA |  |  |  | 2.9738 |  |  |  |
| Company | |  | | |  | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | ExxonMobil Nigeria | -.722 | 142 | .471 | 2.9196 | -.03713 | .051 | -.139 | .065 |
| ExxonMobil  USA |  |  |  | 2.9568 |  |  |  |

##### Source: Field Survey (2016).

Table 4.3 measures the differences in management degree of control on contract employees in the oil and gas industries in Nigeria and USA. A comparison of Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA made on the table shows that (t = -1.552; mean difference = -0.079; p value =

0.122 > α = 0.05). The t value implies that the mean management degree of control in Chevron Nigeria is not significantly greater than the mean management degree of control in Chevron USA. More so, the p value also implies no statistically significant difference in management degree of control in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA. Also, a comparison of ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA made on the table shows that (t = -.722; mean difference = -0.037; p value = 0.471 > α = 0.05). The t value implies that the mean management degree of control in ExxonMobil Nigeria is not significantly greater than the mean management degree of control in ExxonMobil USA. More so, the p value also implies no statistically significant difference in management degree of control in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. The above analyses justifies hypothesis one that there is no significant difference in degree of management control among contract employees in American oil companies in Nigeria and USA.

##### Justification of Hypothesis 2

Working hour of contract employees is a measure of their working conditions. It is a measure of the degree of flexibility of work contract employees have. Apart from the normal working schedules, contract employees have the right to flexible work schedules. This, however is a function of recognition and observance of statutory rights and flexible employment practices. Under provisions set out in employment rights and regulations made under it, all employees have a statutory right to ask their employer for a change to their contractual terms and conditions for employment to work flexibility (ACAS, 2014). The number of hours spent working by contract employees is determined by employment practices that makes provisions for consistent commensurate pay for any extra time worked. Thus working hours of contract employee is a measure of the degree of flexibility of employment practices and statutory rights. The hypothesis below seeks to measure the differences is working hours of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and USA.

***Test 2:*** *Ho: There is no significant difference in number of working hours among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table 4.4: Independent Samples Test of Differences in Working Hours among Contract Employees** | | | | | | | | | |
| Company | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | Chevron Nigeria | -3.984 | 224 | .000 | 2.4676 | -.17525 | .044 | -.262 | -.089 |
| Chevron  USA |  |  |  | 2.6429 |  |  |  |
| Country | |  | | |  | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | ExxonMobil Nigeria | -1.199 | 142 | .232 | 2.5103 | -.06269 | .052 | -.166 | .041 |
| ExxonMobil USA |  |  |  | 2.5730 |  |  |  |

##### Source: Field Survey (2016).

Table 4.4 measures the differences in working hours among contract employees in the

American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. A comparison of Chevron Nigeria and

Chevron USA made on the table shows that (t = - 3.984; mean difference = -0.175; p value =

0.000 < α = 0.05). The p value also implies statistically significant difference in working hours in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA. Also, a comparison of ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA made on the table shows that (t = -1.199; mean difference = -.06269; p value = 0.232 > α = 0.05). The p value implies no statistically significant difference in working hours in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. The above analyses justifies hypothesis two that there is a statistically significant difference in working hours among contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA oil and gas industries in Nigeria and USA. However, there is no statistically significant difference in working hours in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA.

##### Justification of Hypothesis 3

Working conditions of contract employees is also defined by the condition of their remuneration and benefits. Remuneration and be of contract employees in the oil and gas is determined by the type of work done by contract employees and the number of hours they spend working (Graham, 2010) on one hand. On the other hand, remuneration and benefits is also determined by agreements reached by bargaining parties, condition of employment, economic conditions, and statutory provisions. Empirical literature has confirmed the sectorial influence on the remuneration of contract employees having stated that the nature of wage given to contract employees in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria is not encouraging (Graham, 2010; Danesi, 2011). However, according to Blank (2016) external economic factors has a role to play in structure of remuneration and many of these factors concern the broader economic picture in the USA and abroad. Thus, factors such as unemployment levels, globalisation, industry condition, cost of living were listed (Blank, 2016). It has also been stated that minimum standards are set in most countries through legislation to determine

wages (Graham, 2010). Thus, it is expected that there should be similarity in remuneration of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA. This study tests the hypothesis of differences in remuneration of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA as results would provide much evidence as to the cause of differences if any.

***Test 3:*** *Ho: There is no significant difference in the level of remuneration and benefits among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table 4.5 : Independent Samples Test of Differences in the Level of Remuneration and Benefits among Contract Employees** | | | | | | | | | |
| Country | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | Chevron  Nigeria | -10.944 | 226 | .000 | 2.0913 | -.52383 | .059 | -.909 | -.675 |
| Chevron USA |  |  |  | 2.6151 |  |  |  |
| Country | |  | | |  | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | ExxonMobil Nigeria | - 1.71712 | 142 | .088 | 2.3477 | -0.10999 | .086 | -.527 | -.186 |
| ExxonMobil USA |  |  |  | 2.4577 |  |  |  |

##### Source: Field Survey (2016).

Table 4.5 measures the differences in the level of remuneration and benefits received by contract employees in the oil and gas industries in Nigeria and USA. A comparison of Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA made on the table shows that (t = -10.944; mean difference = -.52383; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05). Since the p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05, it implies a statistically significant difference in remuneration and benefits received by contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA. However, a comparison of ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA made on the table shows that (t = -1.71712; mean difference =

-0.10999; p value = 0.088 > α = 0.05). Since the p value = 0.088 > α = 0.05, it implies no

statistically significant difference in the level of remuneration and benefits among contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. The above analyses justifies hypothesis three that there is no significant difference in the level of remuneration and benefits among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

##### Justification of Hypothesis 4

Social protection, as defined by the [United Nations Research Institute for Social](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Research_Institute_For_Social_Development) [Development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Research_Institute_For_Social_Development), (UNRISD) is concerned with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affect people’s [wellbeing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Well_being) (UNRISD, 2010; World Bank, 2001). Contract employees serve as a means of cheap labour in which organisations could use to reduce cost and withstand competition in the market. The use of contract employees is a form of flexible nonstandard work arrangements in the management of labour (Danesi, 2011). Thus, it is expected that the amount of training made available to contract employees in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA should be similar. However, the extent of social protection of contract employees in these countries is determined by the extent to which management observe and implement social protection policies in these countries. Literature has revealed instances where social protection laws meant to guide contract employees has been recognised or ignored by employers are denied the right to organize and bargain collectively under the National Labour Relations Act” (Emsellem & Ruckkelshaus, 2010). The stated hypothesis is meant to observe the difference in social protection of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and USA. Thus, differences can be adduced to have been caused by adherence to implementation and adherence to social protection policies in these companies.

***Test 4:*** *Ho: There is no significant difference in degree of access to social protection and health and Safety facilities for contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table 4.6: Independent Samples Test of Differences in Protection/Safety for Contract Employees** | | | | | | | | | |
| Company | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | Chevron Nigeria | - 16.317 | 226 | .000 | 1.7035 | -.95360 | .051 | -.180 | .021 |
| Chevron USA |  |  |  | 2.6571 |  |  |  |
| Country | |  | | |  | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | ExxonMobil Nigeria | -5.880 | 141 | .000 | 2.0321 | -.63819 | .109 | -.853 | -.424 |
| ExxonMobil USA |  |  |  | 2.6703 |  |  |  |

##### Source: Field Survey (2016).

Table 4.6 measures the differences in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. A comparison between Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA made on the table shows that (t = -16.317; mean difference = -.95360; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05). Since the p value of 0.000 < α = 0.05 implies a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA. Also, a comparison between ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA made on the table shows that (t = - 5.880; mean difference = -0.638; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05). The p value of 0.000 < α = 0.05 implies that there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. Thus, there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees between Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA and there is a statistically

significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees between ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA.

##### Justification of Hypothesis 5

Unionisation is a [process](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/process.html) of [organising](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organizing.html) the [employees](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/employee.html) of a [company](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/company.html) into a [labour union](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/labor-union.html) which will [act](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/act.html) as an i[ntermediary](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/intermediary.html) between the employees and company [management](http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/management.html). According to literature, contract employees are not granted this opportunity to form unions due to their nature of employment as temporary employees. They are collectively known as nonstandard, contingent, a typical, precarious and alternative work arrangements in international labour law (Kalleberg, 2000). Casual workers are usually denied the right to organise; therefore this allows employers to avoid the problems they associate with union representation and collective bargaining (ILO, 2008). Allowance for unionization of contract employees would permit them to bargain for their rights and privileges. According to Danesi (2012) organisations ignore provisions made by law which allows freedom of rights to association as granted by the Federal republic of Nigeria. Stone (2006) has revealed instances where bargaining or unionisation power of contract employees in USA has fluctuated. This study attempts to adduce differences found in working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas industry to the extent to which the organisations adhere to the rules that provides for right to association of contract employees.

***Test 5:*** *Ho: There is no significant difference in the level of unionization among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Table 4.7.: Independent Samples Test of Differences in Level of Unionization of Contract Employees** | | | | | | | | | |
| Company | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence  Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | Chevron  Nigeria | -0.972 | 226 | 0.332 | 1.5781 | -.06176 | .064 | -.187 | .063 |
| Chevron USA |  |  |  | 1.6399 |  |  |  |
| Country | |  | | |  | | | | |
| T | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
|  | ExxonMobil Nigeria | -0.504 | 141 | 0.615 | 1.7689 | -.04870 | .097 | -.240 | .142 |
| ExxonMobil  USA |  |  |  | 1.8176 |  |  |  |

##### Source: Field Survey (2016).

Table 4.7 measures the differences in level of unionization of contract employees in the oil and gas industries in Nigeria and USA. A comparison between Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA made on the table shows that (t = - 0.972; mean difference = -0.062; p value = 0.332 > α

= 0.05). Since the p value = 0.332 > α = 0.05, it implies no statistically significant difference in level of unionization among contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA. Also, a comparison between ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA made on the table shows that (t = - 0.504; mean difference = -0.049; p value = 0.615 > α = 0.05). Since the p value = 0.615 > α = 0.05, it implies that there is no statistically significant difference in level of unionization among contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. Thus, there is no statistically significant difference in level of unionization among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA.

### 4.5. Analysis of the Data from the In-depth Interviews

Some in-depth face to face and telephonic interviews were conducted with twelve participants drawn from the oil and gas corporations and trade unions. The management of the oil and gas corporations was of the view that the contract employees were not fully their employees and as such could not decide for such employees on several convergence issues within the contract group concerning working hours and trade unionism. On the part of the contract employees and trade union officials, the unions in Nigeria were cautious in their bid to getting the contract employees unionised as this could result in redundancy. A different situation was observed in the USA. The Nigerian unions however were confident that the efforts being made to get the contract employees fully organised would yield progressive result in their working conditions as their counterparts in the USA. With respect to recruitment and selection practices of contract employees, the companies have preference for national contract employees than foreigners.

##### TABLE 4.8 Interview Responses

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **S/N** | **QUALITATIVE QUESTIONS** | **RESPONSES OF NIGERIAN RESPONDENTS** | **RESPONSES OF UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**  **RESPONDENTS** |
| **1** | According to your | *“I work more than 48hours a week; even weekends if there’s need for it. My colleagues who are permanent staff of the company work less but they get more money”* | *“I work between 48hours and above weekly. I felt that time was never an issue, that whatever hours I work, it was relevant because I get paid hourly. The other permanent workers do not have to work for more than 40hours in a*  *week and they earn more.”* |
|  | contract how many |
|  | hours do you need to |
|  | work per week? |
| **2** | Do you feel the company (Oil and Gas) is doing enough to promote personal career development? | *“The organisation sometimes organise in-house training for the contract employees i.e. they would rather send their core staff on training and make them give us on the job training and supervision.”* | *“……independent contractors are allowed to develop themselves independently without the interference of the company they work for. Direct labour can be*  *developed on only specific* |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | *jobs that*  *training.”* | *require* | *special* |
| **3** | How do you feel about your work  environment? | *“It’s averagely okay but there’s a lot of discrimination going on between the contract staff and the permanent staff.”* | *“As you can see, it’s a great environment but it would be better if everyone could have equal opportunity, rather than working long hours and getting peanuts unlike our*  *permanent counterparts.”* | | |
| **4** | Do you feel the | *“The organisation is not doing anything…..except you are willing to help yourself by self- sponsorship and creating your personal time for growth.”* | *“…..hardly. We have very limited free time available and found it difficult to encourage ourselves on professional career growth”* | | |
|  | organization is doing |
|  | enough to promote |
|  | professional career |
|  | development? |
| **5** | Do you feel free to carry out a task from beginning to the end and also involved in decision-making? | *“We have supervisors who monitor task given to us….in retrospect; we cannot carry out our jobs independently.”* | *“I am free to carry out my job independently from beginning to the end without a hitch.”* | | |
| **6** | Which other types of benefits do you like to have? | *“We do most part of the job, I do not see any reason why we cannot have the same benefits the permanent employees get. Most especially, good retirement package and accident, injury and death on the job compensation.”* | *“If I should share my innermost thoughts, I’d probably like to have some kind of permanent affiliation with my job. Otherwise, if not all, I need at least some other*  *benefits accrued to permanent jobs.”* | | |
| **7** | What are the unionisation provisions made available to you as contract employee in your organisation | *“…for a long time now, we have not been allowed to join the organisation union nor allowed to form our own union not until recently when union officials(NUPENG/PENGASSAN) try to organise us to form our own union. It was a long battle between the union officials and management.”* | *“The organisation cannot hold back a worker from unionisation….In USA, it is every worker’s right to be unionised voluntarily. All oil and gas workers fall under the United Steel, Paper and Forestry, Rubber,*  *Manufacturing, Energy, Allied-Industrial and Service Workers International Union commonly known as the United Steelworkers.”* | | |
| **8** | How available are you for union  activities/participation? | *“Contract employees seldom have time for union activities….this is in respect of their employment situation in order not to loose*  *their job….so they try as much as possible to avoid being* | *It’s voluntary, it depends on individual’s time and schedule….except it’s a situation involving a lot of*  *workers…then you will have a large congregation of* | | |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | *antagonistic with the management…..except on rare occasions when their rights is being tampered with…..an example was the protest at chevron for arrears of unpaid wages we had on the Wednesday,*  *16th-09-2015 that you were lucky to witness.”* | *workers in attendance for this purpose. Most times…you have your complaints written to union officials and issues will be addressed accordingly.”* |
| **9** | What are your experience(s) working as a contract employee in a multinational Oil and Gas? | *“Though very discriminatory….It is quite positive. It is quite reassuring too when it concerns survival means (socio-economic problem); although you did feel that you are being monitored and not wanted.* | *“I love what I do…I love my job. “I found it helpful and interesting. It made me feel that my existence had some purpose. Though I want better service condition. I would like it if I can have a secured work contract and not get fired because of some errors any other person could*  *make and still have his job.”* |
| **10** | What is the experience(s) that you have had that you don’t want other contract employees ever have to experience | *“Being a contract employee is enough experience you don’t want or wish on anyone. You can appear at work in the morning and you would not have a job again….so when you go home everyday…..you go with heavy heart thinking your job might not be available the next day despite the renewal of your contract……..* | *“This is United States of America…litigation country. No one wants to mess with anyone……Everyone knows his/her rights. If you are not comfortable with a way you are being treated, you go to the court of law to address the situation.”* |
|  |  | *Accident/Injury and death on the job are terrible things to experience because he would not be duly compensated as permanent employees”* |  |
| **11** | What are the experiences you had that you hope a contract employee who comes to this organization to work  would have | *“One of the things I appreciate is the staff bus. It reduces the stress I have to go through hiking bus to and fro work.”* | *“I get better pay than some of my counterparts (independent contractors) who work for some other industries.”* |
| **12** | Discuss any special needs and desires you believe a contract employee should have when coming into this  organisation. | *“Get themselves professionally equipped so that when there is opening for permanent position…they can easily be absorbed.”* | *“Some good education will do….with that…you get the good jobs rather than being a labourer.”* |

**Source: Field Study, 2016.**

### 4.6 Discussion of Findings

The result of the first hypothesis showed that there is no significant difference in the degree of managerial control of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. This was due to significant differences in the ability of contract employees to utilize their talents in Nigeria Chevron when compared to USA Chevron. This was also significant in Nigeria ExxonMobil when compared to USA ExxonMobil. This was indicated through the table which shows that a comparison of Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA shows that (t = - 1.552; mean difference = -0.079; p value = 0.122 > α = 0.05). The table also shows that (t = - 7.22; mean difference = -0.037; p value = 0.471 > α = 0.05). This implies that there is no significant difference in the degree of managerial control with respect to freedom and independence of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. Thus degree of control of contract employees between the two countries does not significantly vary. Hence, this finding has to do with the seeming pervasive prevailing influence of the ethnocentric approach to performance management as applicable to headquarter workforce and subsidiary workforce in overseas location alike.

The result of the interviews with some of the contract employees in Nigeria oil and gas subsidiaries point to the fact that they were controlled and could not carry out a task from beginning to the end without supervision amongst other factors. This is consistent with Hamilton (2006), as well as Anwar and Nahid (2012) positions that management control system significantly affects the performance of contract employees.

The result of the second hypothesis showed that there is a statistically significant difference in the number of working hours among contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron

USA. This implies that the difference in working hours within 8 hours is statistically significant. However, there is no statistically significant difference in the number of working hours in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. This was indicated on the table that (t

= - 3.984; mean difference = -0.175; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05); and (t = -1.199; mean difference = -.0627; p value = 0.232 > α = 0.05).

The result of the interviews with some of the contract employees in the American oil companies in both Nigeria and the USA supported the positions of Bohle, Quinlan, Kennedy and Williamson (2004) and Karabchuk (2012) that there is substantially greater variation in working hours for contract staff than full-time staff and they earned less even though they perform the same quantity of work if not more than full-time staff. Although contract employees in Nigeria get fixed pay, their counterparts abroad get paid for any extra time spent on the job since wages are paid on hourly rate.

The result of the third hypothesis shows that there is a significant difference in the level of remuneration and benefits among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. This was revealed on the table which shows that (t = - 10.944; mean difference = -0.52383; p value = 0.000 <α = 0.05); and (t = -1.71712; mean difference = - 0.1099; p value = 0.88 > α = 0.05). This implies that the difference in payment is commensurate with the volume of work which is statistically significant. Another result on the table shows that the differences in means of salary of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA is statistically significant. Thus, there are significant differences in remuneration and benefits among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigerian and USA. This finding is in line with Baker

(2007); Fajana (2008), Graham (2010), and Fapounda (2012) that they are paid pittance in terms of wages compared to their full-time counterparts and they do not have any other working conditions other than the diminutive salary received at the end of the month. Okafor (2012) and Akinwale, Shonuga and Olusanya (2014) also noted that contract workers lack proper on-the-job training and sufficient health insurance plan.

Result of the fourth hypothesis showed that there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/health and safety for contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA and there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. The result on the table indicates that there is a statistically significant difference in entitlement of contract employees to retirement plans in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. The result also showed that there is a statistically significant difference in entitlement of contract employees to death benefit in Chevron Nigeria when compared to Chevron USA and ExxonMobil Nigeria when compared to ExxonMobil USA.

The table revealed that (t = - 16.317; mean difference = -0.95360; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05) and (t = - 5.880; mean difference = -0.638; p value = 0.000 < α = 0.05). Thus, there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and Chevron USA and there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of access to social protection/safety for contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and ExxonMobil USA. This claim is in line with the assertion of Yesufu (2000); Tilly et. al. (2013) that there is dwindling workers’ protection,

which has been abandoned in some developing countries. Also, Graham (2010) and Lippel et. al. (2011) have shown that contract workers have a higher likelihood of being involved in workplace accidents. Again, this is seemingly an extended function of differential national or organisational labour policies and practices within the contemporary world of work.

The result of the fifth hypothesis showed that there is no statistically significant difference in the level of unionisation among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA. Result on the table indicates that (t = - 0.972; mean difference = -0.062; p value = 0.332 > α = 0.05) and (t = - 0.504; mean difference = -0.049; p value = 0.615 > α = 0.05). This implies that there is no statistically significant difference in the level of unionisation among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. According to the interview report, there is a significant difference in time to attend meeting by contract employees in Chevron Nigeria when compared to Chevron USA and ExxonMobil Nigeria when compared to ExxonMobil USA. The result on the involvement in trade union membership and its activities differ in these countries and this is in line with the claim made by Danesi (2012) that it is the violation of contract workers’ right to be denied the right to form or join trade union activities. This abjuration of right to unionise is contrary to the provisions of the ILO Conventions 98 and 97 which grant workers the right to freedom of association and participation in collective bargaining.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Preamble

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the objectives of this study. The summary focuses on the main facts of the study, while the conclusion contains inferences from the findings of the study. The recommendations are identified in the light of the conclusions. The chapter ends with the contributions to knowledge, limitations of the study and suggestions for further studies.

### Summary

This study examined the working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. This is because the use of contract employees in the oil and gas industry is on the increase as their nature or employment status enhances strategic flexibility. Contract employees constitute more than 50 % of employment contract in the oil and gas industry (Danesi, 2012). Thus, motivation of contract employees is important for the enhancement of a good work place relations and productivity. This study adopted a comparative approach to examine the nature or condition of work among contract employees in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria and the USA.

The aim of this study is to examine the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. The objectives are to examine the differences in degree of control, number of hours worked, remuneration and benefits, differences in social protection, training, health and safety of work and differences in level of

unionization between the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA. Six research questions and research hypotheses were stated to support the aim of the study.

The study comprises five chapters arranged in ascending order: chapter 1, chapter 2, chapter 3, chapter 4 and chapter 5 respectively. Chapter 1 presents the introduction and background information including statement of the problem, research questions, objectives of the study, research hypotheses, significance of the study, scope and delimitation of the study and operational definition of concepts. The chapter provides basis for exploring the concepts of employment practices and working conditions of contract employees.

This study was supported with theories such as Labour process theory propounded by Braverman; Industrial Relations Systems’ theory propounded by John Dunlop; Scientific Management theory propounded by Frederick Taylor; Human Relations theory propounded by Mayo Elton; Doeringer and Piore (1970, 1971) and Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) are the pioneers of the Dual Labour Market (Labour Market Segmentation theory); Allan Fox (1966) propounded the pluralist theory and unitary theory and the Perlmutter’s EPGR theory was propounded by Perlmutter (1969).

The labour process explains that the primary role of management is to convert raw materials into products through the use of labour and machinery; the only way management is able to do this is through the establishment of structures of power and control that cover the capacity of employees to perform work (labour power) into actual work (labour); and that it is through this conversation that profitable production and capital accumulation can take place; which helps in explaining the reason behind the use of contract employees in the oil and gas industry (Braverman, 1974). Dunlop (1958) in Industrial Relations Systems’ theory states that “an industrial relations system at any one time in its development is regarded as

comprised of certain actors, certain contexts, an ideology which binds the industrial-relations system together and a body of the rules created to govern actors at the workplace and work community” (Otobo, 2000, p.19). Scientific Management theory captures the extent to which management possesses control and power over their employees (Taylor, 1911). Mayo (1933) in Human Relations theory states that the aim of this managerial approach to employee relations is one that seeks to reduce internal tensions by developing the sense of workplace satisfaction felt by employees through techniques that involve them in the organisation and regulation of work. Fox (1966) in Pluralist theory, opines that Pluralist assumption generally accepts the legitimate right of employees to bargain collectively and trade unions to act in this capacity on their behalf enabling management realise that efforts should be made in creating an enabling work environment for employees. Doeringer and Piore (1970, 1971) and Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) in the Labour Market Segmentation theory give an understanding of the internal market structure of the organisations and how it helps to focus on the difficulty that may be traced to the dual arrangement of the organisations’ internal labour market. While the Perlmutter’s theory helps in predicting the propensity in determining the type of labour force (permanent or temporary employees) that is recruited for particular functions or departments (procurement, production, marketing, research and development) to the affiliate, and is, therefore, a useful analytical tool in reaching an optimal decision as regards the question of selecting employees who can best maximise profit; contribute to creating and upgrading competitive advantages of host country's companies; national cheap development of developing nations and enrich their corrupt leaders.

The study designed a conceptual model to show a link between the working conditions of contract employees, environmental factors and employment practices. This was based on the fact that while employment practices predicts the working conditions of contract employees

in the oil and gas sector, environmental factors also determine the nature of employment practices deployed which will as well affects the working conditions of contract employees. Thus, in this study changes in working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas companies was adduced to changes in environmental factors and employment practices deployed in the countries.

Chapter 3 presented the methodology of the study. The chapter comprised fourteen sections covering preamble, the study setting, research design, population of the study, sampling frame, determination of sample size, sampling techniques, research instruments, validity of research instrument, reliability of research instrument, method of data collection and administration of research instrument, method of data analysis, ethical consideration and field experience. The methodology of the study involved a triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative techniques of data collection and analysis. The study was conducted in Nigeria and USA and the stratified sampling technique was adopted for the study in the selection of two American oil and gas across 10 locations both in Nigeria and USA. Thereafter, simple random sampling technique was utilised to select 10 percent of the workers on each of the selected 10 locations visited.

Survey approach was used to gather information from two hundred and fifty two (252) contract employees from both Exxon Mobil and Chevron, Nigeria and one hundred and twenty (126) contract employees from both Exxon Mobil and Chevron in USA. Primary data was collected with the use of both open and closed ended questionnaire. Independent samples t-test was the data analyses tools deployed for the comparisons made in the analyses. Summary of the findings are that:

* The result of the first hypothesis showed that there is no significant difference in the degree of managerial control of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA.
* The result of the second hypothesis showed that the differences in the number of working hours among contract employees the American oil and companies in Nigeria and the USA is statistically significant.
* The result of the third hypotheses showed that there are differences in the level of remuneration and benefits among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA.
* The result of the fourth hypothesis showed difference in the degree of access to social protection and health and safety facilities for contract employees is statistically significant in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA.
* The result of the fifth hypothesis showed that there is a statistical significant difference in the level of unionization among contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and the USA.

### Conclusion

The study has revealed some significant degrees of similarities and differences in the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA. Some significant degrees of similarities were observed in the areas of the working conditions such as the degree of managerial control, degree of access to social protection and health and safety for the contract employees, and the level of unionization. In contrast, some significant degrees of similarities were observed in the working conditions such as the level of remuneration and benefits, training opportunities, and working hours among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.

It has been revealed that there is difference in ability among contract employees in American oil and gas industry in using their talent. Also, significant differences occur in degree of freedom and independence to work among contract employees in the industries. Differences also occur among contract employees in their ability to perform work from the beginning to the end. Furthermore, significant differences occur among contract employees in their ability to perform tasks with the use of their talents. Thus, working conditions of contract employees in American oil and gas companies in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA is defined by the fact that they have more degree of control on their work when compared to contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and ExxonMobil Nigeria. In determining whether an employee is a contract employee, information that provides evidence of the degree of control and independence must be considered. These are categorized into behavioural, financial and type of relationships (Internal Revenue Services, 2016; Bosworth, 2016). Behavioral control describes whether the employer has the right to control or direct how the worker performs the job (Bosworth, 2016). Control includes the types of instructions and degree of instructions given as well as training and evaluation systems in place. An employee can expect instructions about when and where to work; the tools and equipment to use; whether to hire workers to assist; where to purchase supplies; and the order in which the work is performed. This is an indication that the employment practices used on contract employees in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA appear flexible when compared to the practices used for contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and ExxonMobil Nigeria.

Working conditions of contract employees in the American oil and gas industry in Nigeria and USA differ according to working hours. Contract employees in Chevron USA worked more hours daily when compared to Chevron Nigeria. This state of working hour is also similar in ExxonMobil USA when compared to ExxonMobil Nigeria as contract employees in ExxonMobil USA worked for more hours than contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria.

Contract employees in oil and gas companies in both countries worked more than 8 hours daily. Summarily, contract employees in the USA get paid for hours worked because the system pays on hourly rate for contract employees while their Nigerian counterparts gets fixed pay rate despite long hours of working.

Remuneration differs between contract employees in USA when compared to Nigeria. Result revealed that contract employees Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA received adequate remuneration than contract employees in Chevron Nigeria and ExxonMobil Nigeria. Difference in payment as commensurate to the volume of work and differences in means of salary of contact employees in the oil and gas companies in the country is statistically significant. The implication of this result is that remuneration of contract employees in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria is not commensurate with that of contract employees in American oil and gas industry in USA.

A comparison of working conditions of contract employees’ in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria and USA has shown that compensation, retirement and health insurance plan of contract employees in this industry differ. However, both contract employees in American oil and gas industry in USA has enjoyed compensation by receiving part of the company’s share of profit benefits and other health insurance measured. This result is consistent with Graham (2010) who stated that health and safety issue has not really led to serious disagreements between employers and employees in oil and gas companies because they are both aware of its implications to lives, to the organisational image, to relationships and also its financial implications as well. This awareness has led to improvements in occupational health and safety movements in the oil and gas industry (Graham, 2010). Also, contract employees in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA as well as Chevron Nigeria and

ExxonMobil Nigeria both enjoyed benefits offered such as incentives, stock options. Contract employees in ExxonMobil Nigeria and Chevron Nigeria enjoy benefits such as canteen facilities, transport allowance and staff bus when compared contract employees in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA. Benefits in terms of annual leave is both enjoyed by contract employees in the industries in Nigeria and USA.

Training differs significantly between contract employees in the oil and gas companies. The significance implies that contract employees in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA received more benefits when compared to Chevron Nigeria and ExxonMobil Nigeria. The implication of this is that contract employees in American oil and gas industry in Nigeria requires more training to perform their work effectively. Untrained workers are more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and can hamper the competitiveness of the enterprise" (ILO, 2003). This training is important for organisations in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria. Training of contract employees in Nigerian Oil and Gas companies is poor as; according to Graham (2010) the Nigerian oil union alleged that contract employee’s lack proper on-the-job training. Well trained contract employees in the oil and gas industry in USA can apply skills to work. That is why they receive more benefits (Graham, 2010).

Significant differences occur between health and safety of contract employees in Chevron Nigeria when compared to Chevron USA and ExxonMobil Nigeria when compared to ExxonMobil USA. This implies contract employees in USA oil and gas enjoy more health and safety benefits when compared to contract employees in Nigeria. The implication of this deficiency in training has been confirms by ILO (2003) that untrained workers are more vulnerable to accidents in the workplace and can hamper the competitiveness of the enterprise. The lack of effective training of contract employees is common in Nigeria among

American oil and gas contract employees in Nigeria. That is why the Nigerian oil unions allege that contract workers suffer from increased work pressure, unclear responsibilities and inadequate health and safety protection (Okougbo, 2009; Ezigbo, 2008).

Significant difference occurs in social protection of contract employee in American oil and gas companies in Nigeria when compared to USA. Social protection benefits accrued to contract employees in Chevron USA and ExxonMobil USA covers death benefits, re- absorption back into the organisation in case of injuries and follow due process. Thus, statutory provision for social protection of contract employees in the USA is recognised and implemented in these oil and gas companies. That is why the nature of social protection of contract employees in the Unites States is rather appreciable (Emsellem & Ruckkelshaus, 2010; Danesi, 2010). It was also confirmed that more than 36 per cent of employees in America work as contract employees and legislations have been made to protect them (Horowtiz, 1997; Golden, 2001). Thus, social protection of contract employees which and human resources management practices that is concerned with preventing, managing, and overcoming situations that adversely affects people’s well according to ([United Nations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Research_Institute_For_Social_Development) [Research Institute For Social Development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Research_Institute_For_Social_Development), (UNRISD), 2010), is encouraged by the state, recognised and implemented in the USA. However in Nigeria where there are available laws in the constitution that serves as protection and as avenue for the implementation of rights and privileges and freedom of contract employees, however, these have been ignored. 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 (Danesi, 2011). Contract often denied access to other forms of protection and social assistance by the state. Within the Nigerian context, nonstandard workers do not enjoy any form of social protect either from their employers or the state (Okafor, 2012).

Further, differences occur in level of unionization of contract employees in the American oil and gas companies in USA and Nigeria. According to the findings in this study there is a statistical significant difference in time to attend meeting by contract employees in Chevron Nigeria when compared to Chevron USA and ExxonMobil Nigeria when compared to ExxonMobil USA. These imply difference in level of unionization of contact employees in the oil and gas companies. In Nigeria, rights to unionize are protected by constitutions, trade union act, labour act and the African charter of human rights (Danesi, 2011). However some environmental factors such as inadequate legislation, lack of enforcement of the current legislation and employment policy and attracting foreign direct investment in Nigeria has prevented the unionization rights of contract employees (Danesi, 2012). Also, Okafor (2012) stated that in Nigeria, workers in nonstandard employment are denied of several rights. The Nigeria 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 place of work so many of their rights could be denied (Okafor, 2012). Contrary to this, in the United States, there are instances where contract employees are allowed the right to unionize and also there are instances where these rights are disallowed. Concerning freedom of association the National Labour Relations Act (NLRA) provides that employees have the right to form or join unions of their own choice and bargain collectively with their employers (Stone, 2006).

Thus, disparity in some aspects of the working conditions has been adduced to the influence of various environmental factors such as fluctuating economic condition, organisational financial limit, political decision, political law and ethics, rapid changes in technology, lack of technical know-how amongst others which in turn affects human resources management practices in the oil companies in both countries. Findings have indicated better results in terms of the socio political and economic stability in the USA compared to Nigeria. Unstable

political system and fluctuating economic variables have adverse effects on organisational systems that are supposed to work inter-relatedly or interdependently to reach synergistic results.

Hence, the external environment of international oil companies in Nigeria impinges upon the working conditions of contract employees in general and operations of business other than the availability of resources itself. The study also revealed that all things being equal, controlling of the external business environment can be done to certain extent. This entails and calls for constant monitoring and conducting environmental scanning.

However, a company that wants to succeed must develop a clear understanding of the trend of external business environment and forces that shape the success of the organisation (human resources and customers). This understanding will enable an organisation to choose the appropriate strategies that fit the trend in the external business environment. Also, given the dynamic and rapidly changing environment in which most organisations operate, it is imperative that organisations maintain their routine measurement system and provides information that is relevant to the issues that are of current importance.

The conclusion of this study should be considered in the light of its limitations. First, the sample used was just for American oil and gas industry; considering other sectors of the economy will be important to other studies. Second, the generalisation of the results was rather limited due to the fact that the sample covers only the American oil and gas industry with subsidiaries in Nigeria. Thirdly, there might be element of biasness in the information given by the respondents. This however does not rob this study of its generalisation. Hence,

the frontier of this study could be expanded by using other environmental variables, the internal environmental variables and combining other sectors of the economy.

### Recommendations

It is therefore recommended that the government should make efforts to stabilize its political and economic system as decisions made in this sector of the economy determine the nature of decisions made by human resources managers in these oil companies. This in turn determines the working conditions of contract employees in these countries. Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations are made:

* + 1. The Nigerian Government should formulate policies to relax the degree of management control where workers can have a say in the organisational decision making i. e. to encourage participative management to enhance both employees and organisational performance.
    2. Extra working hours put in by contract employees should be adequately compensated.
    3. The Nigerian Government and organisations should formulate policies that encourage payment of competitive wages to contract employees to increase their loyalty thereby improving their performance and the overall productivity of the organisation.
    4. Laws should be put in place to allow contract employees some protection i. e. the Nigerian Pension Act should be reformed to accommodate and protect contract employees.
    5. Employees Compensation Act should also cover contract employees with regard to injury and death.
    6. The Nigerian Government should implement the ILO Conventions 87 and 98 signed in 1960; as part of ensuring Decent Work Agenda.
    7. Multinationals with subsidiaries in Nigeria should be made to abide by Section 40 of the 1999 Constitution, which allows workers, including contract staff to participate in Trade Union activities in line with the Trade Union Act 1973 which states that trade union comprises “any combination of workers or employers, whether temporary or permanent”.
    8. The provisions of labour laws and international labour standards of the ILO in, and by, themselves are not enough guarantees for the protection of contract workers and as such there is the need to look beyond these instrument and institution in protecting the rights of contract workers.
    9. Workers, their organisations and allies within the labour movement should develop and adopt extrajudicial means such as political (radical) and social actions to secure their rights at work. This is the experience of the Port Harcourt oil and gas workers who are the origins of Rivers State. There is a monitoring forum put in place to properly place origins of this state in both indigenous and International oil and gas companies (IOCs) who operate in this state.
    10. On the part of government there must be the political will to address the loopholes in labour laws and stop employment practices that encourage casualisation of labour.
    11. Nigerian government should make and implement policy that will address the issue of social security (social protection) for all categories of workers and the unemployed for old age or retirement purposes just as adopted in other foreign countries.
    12. Nigeria’s natural resources must be used to build broad-based economic stability and support equitable economic development, with decent jobs for all.
    13. Accordingly, disciplined Labour inspectors should be put in place in Nigeria to put checks and balances on companies for their related human resource practices and report any illegality that results in penalties.
    14. In view of the plight of contract workers particularly in the Nigerian oil and gas industry, this study has brought to the fore the need for government to create a policy framework to protect the career of contract workers in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria by making their employment contract equitable with full-time staff.

### Contributions to Knowledge

This study has thus far, examined the working conditions of contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA, with a focus on the situation in Chevron and ExxonMobil in both countries. This is based on the idea that there should be similarities in working conditions of contract employees in the oil companies in these countries. However, this study has shown some variations in the working conditions of contract employees in the American oil companies. The study has contributed to knowledge in the following ways:

1. The thesis has developed a framework for a comparative analysis of the linkages between contract employment and working conditions in the American oil companies in Nigeria and the USA.
2. The study has empirically established some areas of convergence and divergence in the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies.
3. The thesis has developed an integrated conceptual framework from a combination of theories such as The Industrial Relations Systems Theory, Labour Process Theory, Scientific Management Theory, Labour Market Segmentation theory and Perlmutter’s EPGR Theory.
4. The thesis has identified the shortfalls in the working conditions among contract employees in the American oil companies in Nigeria.
5. The study has developed a research instrument measuring the influence of Employment Practices (EP) on working conditions of contract workers.

### Limitations of the Study

The research only covered selected related variables to the study, due to the constraint of personal financial resources available to the researcher and time allotted to the completion of Ph.D. programme at the University of Lagos. Time management is essential in the execution of projects in the oil and gas sector and most of the research participants were working within the constraints of time. As a result, data were collected at varied time: during lunch hour, at close of work, cigarette break, short break arranged by supervisors, during rest hour for truck drivers to overcome limitations posed by time constraint.

Moreover, studies with findings contrary to those of this study may be a result of context or geographical location and may not necessarily represent differing ideologies. The simplification of this study is limited to the American oil and gas industry operating in Nigeria only, rather than all international oil and gas companies (IOUs) operating in Nigeria. Also, since the study was conducted in USA and Nigeria, the findings may not cover the situations in other American oil and gas companies situated in other countries.

### Suggestions for Further Studies

This study has only examined the working conditions of contract employees in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria and USA. However, it has not examined:

* + 1. The differences in working conditions of these contract employees with respect to the tasks they perform. Examining the task specific working of contract employees’ cuts deeply into ascertaining the risk exposure of/and benefits associated with task

performed. Enough comparisons can be made which would assist to raising likely questions that measure differences in working conditions based on specific task performed. Contract employees that work within the administrative department might not be exposed to such risks as those that works as drillers or oil explorers.

* + 1. More so, differences in benefits such as remuneration, health and insurance policies among contract employees, industry-specific and country-specific can be ascertained.
    2. Thus, more studies should be carried out to examine difference in working conditions of contract employees’ with reference to their work environment on the task performed. Doing this would provide a leeway to establishing a link between the environmental benefits or risks faced by these contract employees in their respective tasks. By so doing, differences among working conditions of contract employees would be assessed based on the types of work they perform, benefits and risks exposed to such work performances in the industries within or even between countries.
    3. Since Occupational safety and health are a continuing concern for the sector's workers and employers in particular, therefore it is imperative to examine the gap between operators' and contractors' safety performance. On the evidence available, that gap appears to have narrowed in the upstream sector; however, no differentiated worldwide statistics have been found to provide information for the downstream sector.
    4. To investigate whether there is a significant difference in accident rates for contractors and principal employers in the sector; if so, to identify causes and remedies. To collect and compile differentiated safety performance figures for the worldwide downstream industry, similar to those already produced for the upstream industry.
    5. To encourage exchanges of best practices in the industry, in particular for training, recruitment, and occupational health and safety.
    6. To examine the role of labour inspection, regulation and legislation in improving conditions for contractors and contract workers in the oil and gas companies.
    7. To collect good examples of operator-contractor agreements on legal responsibility for working conditions.
    8. To encourage the conclusion of international framework agreements or global framework agreements between each oil and gas company and the international trade union movement, with a clause on contract labour in those agreements.

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# APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Industrial Relations and Personnel Management Faculty of Business Administration

University of Lagos Akoka-Yaba

Lagos Nigeria.

8th September, 2015. Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student of the University of Lagos and I am conducting a research on “**Working conditions among Contract Employees in the American Oil and Gas Industry in Nigeria and USA”**. This research is for academic purpose only. Your participation in this study is voluntary and any information from you will be treated in strict confidence.

However, for further enquiries or questions regarding this questionnaire or the study please contact:

Phone: +2349091912558

Email: [adedoyinsolashonuga@gmail.com](mailto:adedoyinsolashonuga@gmail.com)

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Miss Olajumoke Adedoyinsola Shonuga

##### Who should answer the questionnaire?

It would be greatly appreciated if the questionnaire is answered by contract employees of this oil and gas industry in USA.

##### SECTION A

**BIO DATA OF RESPONDENT**

**Instruction:** Please tick the appropriate answer in the box provided.

1. What is your gender? Male: [ ] Female: [ ]
2. What is your age category?

15-24 Years[ ] 25-34 Years[ ] 35-44 Years[ ] 45-54 Years[ ] 55-64 Years[ ] 65 Years and above [ ]

1. What is your marital status?

Married [ ] Single [ ] Divorced/Separated [ ] Widowed [ ]

1. What is your highest educational qualification?

Elementary Education/High School [ ] OND/NCE/College Diploma [ ] Bachelor’s Degree or Its Equivalence [ ] Master’s Degree [ ] Ph.D. [ ] Others [ ]

1. Total Monthly Income (American):

Less than $500 [ ] $500-$1000 [ ] $Above $1000 [ ]

1. What percentage of your current salary do you contribute to the retirement plan(s)?
2. Do you know approximately how much your employer contributes to this plan to pay for your retirement benefits?
3. What kind of health insurance or health coverage do you have?

[Medicaid](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Medicaid) [ ] State Health Insurance Assistance Program (SHIP) [ ] Medicare [] Old Age Benefit [ ] Others [ ] Specify

1. What is your job status? Contract Staff: Core Staff:
2. What is your position/rank (level) within the organization?
3. What is your department?

Production [ ] Workshop [ ] Production Office [ ] Human Resources [ ] Finance and Administration [ ] Transport [ ] Research & Development [ ] Sales [ ] Others [ ]

Specify…………………..

1. How many years have you been in your current job?

……………………………………… (Write in years).

1. How many years have you spent as a contract employee generally?

……………………………… (Write in years).

1. What is the duration of your contract?

(years)

##### SECTION B

**Instruction:** Please indicate the option that suits your opinion by ticking (X) in the box provided. We are interested in the number that best shows your views on the expectation of the study. **SA (Strongly Agree), A (Agree), D (Disagree) and SD (Strongly Disagree).**

##### WORKING CONDITIONS

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **SN** | **STATEMENTS** | **OPTIONS** | | | |
| **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| **DEGREE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT** | | | | | |
| 15 | I feel comfortable with my working conditions as a  contract employee |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | I enjoy good relationship with my co-workers |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | I have to work co-operatively at my work with other  people |  |  |  |  |
| 18 | My job is meaningful to me |  |  |  |  |
| **DEGREE OF CONTROL** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 19 | I receive feedback about my work performance from  other persons (co-workers, superiors) |  |  |  |  |
| 20 | I have much freedom and independence to do my job. (That means I can decide on my own how and when my  work is done). |  |  |  |  |
| 21 | I can perform an entire piece of work from beginning to  end. |  |  |  |  |
| 22 | My job requires the performance of many different tasks |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | I am able to utilize my talents in the company to the best  of my ability |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 24 | I work within 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |
| 25 | I work more than 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | I work less than 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | I work during the weekends |  |  |  |  |
| 28 | I work during the public holidays |  |  |  |  |
| **REMUNERATION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 29 | I am adequately commensurated for the volume of work I do |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | My salary is good considering the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | My salary is enough/sufficient for me alone |  |  |  |  |
| 32 | My salary is enough/sufficient for my whole family |  |  |  |  |
| 33 | I feel fairly paid considering the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | Contract employees are covered by the same collective agreement on pay rate with permanent employees |  |  |  |  |
| **Entitlement to workers compensation, retirement & health insurance** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 35 | As an employee I receive a part of the company's profit |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | My organization contributes/participates towards pension deduction for categories of employees like me |  |  |  |  |
| 37 | I am well informed about the details of the retirement program |  |  |  |  |
| 38 | I am satisfied with the retirement program offered by my current employer |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | My organization prepares projections of retirement expenses/plan |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 40 | I currently have health insurance policy with my  organization |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | My insurance plan was provided by the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 42 | My insurance plan was purchased directly from an insurance company or through a group (government programme) by me |  |  |  |  |
| 43 | In the last 12months I got treatment, care or tested through the organization health plan |  |  |  |  |
| 44 | My health care coverage benefits are limited because of the pre-existing condition of my job status |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | My organization has adequate retirement plan for workers of my job status (contract, part-time etc) |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | My organization retirement plan has turned out to be very satisfying, moderately satisfying |  |  |  |  |
| **Benefits Offered (incentives): leave, facilities, feeding & transportation allowance, recreational facilities** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 47 | I receive benefits & incentives from the organization |  |  |  |  |
| 48 | I feel that the benefits I receive are sufficient |  |  |  |  |
| 49 | I partake in the organization stock option |  |  |  |  |
| 50 | The organization provides contract employees with annual leave |  |  |  |  |
| 51 | The organization provides paid sick leave for contract employees |  |  |  |  |
| 52 | The company pays for my sport/recreational activities |  |  |  |  |
| 53 | The company provides canteen facilities for contract  employees |  |  |  |  |
| 54 | The organization is responsible for my daily transportation to work (transport allowance) |  |  |  |  |
| 55 | The organization is responsible for my daily transportation to work (staff bus) |  |  |  |  |
| **TRAINING** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 56 | At my work I am able to sufficiently develop myself |  |  |  |  |
| 57 | My work allows me to enhance my education |  |  |  |  |
| 58 | My work allows me to develop myself |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | My work has provision for career development |  |  |  |  |
| 60 | I am frequently sent on training |  |  |  |  |
| 61 | It is important to have opportunities to learn new things from my work |  |  |  |  |
| 62 | I feel motivated at my work to use my personal qualifications |  |  |  |  |
| **HEALTH AND SAFETY** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 63 | As a contract staff I am assigned to dangerous jobs |  |  |  |  |
| 64 | At my job I have adequate health and safety measure |  |  |  |  |
| 65 | I am entitled to my organization’s health insurance |  |  |  |  |
| 66 | I am entitled to compensation for any injury or disability sustained at my place of work |  |  |  |  |
| 67 | I am provided with adequate health and safety equipment (first Aid box, protective helmet, life jackets etc) |  |  |  |  |
| **SOCIAL PROTECTION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 68 | I am entitled to a retirement plan with the organization I  work for |  |  |  |  |
| 69 | As a contract staff my beneficiary(s) are entitled to my death benefit |  |  |  |  |
| 70 | In case of accident, contract staff are easily reabsorbed back into the organization |  |  |  |  |
| 71 | The termination of contract staff follow due process |  |  |  |  |
| 72 | When appointment is terminated, we are paid adequate terminal benefit |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **LEVEL OF UNIONISATION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 73 | As a contract employee I belong to a trade union |  |  |  |  |
| 74 | I have time to attend union meetings during working hours |  |  |  |  |
| 75 | My organization willingly allows me to participate in union activities |  |  |  |  |
| 76 | Contract workers are covered by the same Collective Agreement with permanent workers |  |  |  |  |

**SECTION C**

##### OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

**Instruction:** Please give precise answer to the following questions. You may give practical examples where possible.

1. According to your contract how many hours do you need to work per week? ----------------
2. Do you feel the company (Oil and Gas) is doing enough to promote personal career development?
3. How do you feel about your work environment?
4. Do you feel the organization is doing enough to promote professional career development?

81. Do you feel you are involved in decision-making? -----------------------------------------------

82. Which other types of benefits do you like to have? -----------------------------------------------

##### THANK YOU AND GOD BLESS

Department of Industrial Relations and Personnel Management Faculty of Business Administration

University of Lagos Akoka-Yaba

Lagos Nigeria.

8th September, 2015.

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student of the University of Lagos and I am conducting a research on “**Working conditions among Contract Employees in the American Oil and Gas Industry in Nigeria and USA”**. This research is for academic purpose only. Your participation in this study is voluntary and any information from you will be treated in strict confidence.

However, for further enquiries or questions regarding this questionnaire or the study please contact:

Phone: +2349091912558

Email: [adedoyinsolashonuga@gmail.com](mailto:adedoyinsolashonuga@gmail.com)

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Miss Olajumoke Adedoyinsola Shonuga

##### Who should answer the questionnaire?

It would be greatly appreciated if the questionnaire is answered by contract employees of this oil and gas industry in Nigeria.

##### SECTION A

**BIO DATA OF RESPONDENT**

**Instruction:** Please tick the appropriate answer in the box provided.

1. What is your gender? Male: [ ] Female: [ ]
2. What is your age category?

15-24 Years[ ] 25-34 Years[ ] 35-44 Years[ ] 45-54 Years[ ] 55-64 Years[ ] 65 Years and above [ ]

1. What is your marital status?

Married [ ] Single [ ] Divorced/Separated [ ] Widowed [ ]

1. What is your highest educational qualification?

Elementary Education/High School [ ] OND/NCE/College Diploma [ ] Bachelor’s Degree or Its Equivalence [ ] Master’s Degree [ ] Ph.D. [ ] Others [ ]

1. Total Monthly Income (Nigerians):

Less than N18,000 [ ] N18,000-N100,000 [ ] N100,000-N200,000 [ ] Above N200,000 [ ]

1. What percentage of your current salary do you contribute to the retirement plan(s)?
2. Do you know approximately how much your employer contributes to this plan to pay for your retirement benefits?
3. What kind of health insurance or health coverage do you have? NHIS [ ] Health Safety Program [ ] Old Age Benefit [ ]
4. What is your job status? Contract Staff: Core Staff:
5. What is your position/rank (level) within the organization?
6. What is your department?

Production [ ] Workshop [ ] Production Office [ ] Leading position [ ] Finance and Administration [ ]

Research & Development [ ] Sales [ ] Others [ ] Specify…………………..

1. How many years have you been in your current job?

……………………………………… (Write in years).

1. How many years have you spent as a contract employee generally?

……………………………… (Write in years).

1. What is the duration of your contract?

(years)

##### SECTION B

**Instruction:** Please indicate the option that suits your opinion by ticking (X) in the box provided. We are interested in the number that best shows your views on the expectation of the study. **SA (Strongly Agree), A (Agree), D (Disagree) and SD (Strongly Disagree).**

##### WORKING CONDITIONS

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **SN** | **STATEMENTS** | **OPTIONS** | | | |
| **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| **DEGREE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT** | | | | | |
| 15 | I feel comfortable with my working conditions as a  contract employee |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | I enjoy good relationship with my co-workers |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | I have to work co-operatively at my work with other  people |  |  |  |  |
| 18 | My job is meaningful to me |  |  |  |  |
| **DEGREE OF CONTROL** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 19 | I receive feedback about my work performance from  other persons (co-workers, superiors) |  |  |  |  |
| 20 | I have much freedom and independence to do my job.  (That means I can decide on my own how and when my work is done). |  |  |  |  |
| 21 | I can perform an entire piece of work from beginning to  end. |  |  |  |  |
| 22 | My job requires the performance of many different tasks |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | I am able to utilize my talents in the company to the best  of my ability |  |  |  |  |
| **NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 24 | I work within 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |
| 25 | I work more than 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | I work less than 8 hours daily |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 27 | I work during the weekends |  |  |  |  |
| 28 | I work during the public holidays |  |  |  |  |
| **REMUNERATION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 29 | I am adequately commensurated for the volume of work I do |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | My salary is good considering the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | My salary is enough/sufficient for me alone |  |  |  |  |
| 32 | My salary is enough/sufficient for my whole family |  |  |  |  |
| 33 | I feel fairly paid considering the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | Contract employees are covered by the same collective agreement on pay rate with permanent employees |  |  |  |  |
| **Entitlement to workers compensation, retirement & health insurance** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 35 | As an employee I receive a part of the company's profit |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | My organization contributes/participates towards pension deduction for categories of employees like me |  |  |  |  |
| 37 | I am well informed about the details of the retirement program |  |  |  |  |
| 38 | I am satisfied with the retirement program offered by my current employer? |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | My organization prepares projections of retirement expenses/plan |  |  |  |  |
| 40 | I currently have health insurance policy with my  organization (including programs like NHIS) |  |  |  |  |
| 41 | My insurance plan was provided by the organization I work for |  |  |  |  |
| 42 | My insurance plan was purchased directly from an insurance company or through a group (government programme) by me |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 43 | In the last 12months I got treatment, care or tested through the organization health plan |  |  |  |  |
| 44 | My health care coverage benefits are limited because of the pre-existing condition of my job status |  |  |  |  |
| 45 | My organization has adequate retirement plan for workers of my job status (contract, part-time etc) |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | My organization retirement plan has turned out to be very satisfying, moderately satisfying |  |  |  |  |
| **Benefits Offered (incentives): leave, facilities, feeding & transportation allowance, recreational facilities** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 47 | I receive benefits & incentives from the organization |  |  |  |  |
| 48 | I feel that the benefits I receive are sufficient |  |  |  |  |
| 49 | I partake in the organization stock option |  |  |  |  |
| 50 | The organization provides contract employees with annual leave |  |  |  |  |
| 51 | The organization provides paid sick leave for contract employees |  |  |  |  |
| 52 | The company pays for my sport/recreational activities |  |  |  |  |
| 53 | The company provides canteen facilities for contract  employees |  |  |  |  |
| 54 | The organization is responsible for my daily transportation to work (transport allowance) |  |  |  |  |
| 55 | The organization is responsible for my daily transportation to work (staff bus) |  |  |  |  |
| **TRAINING** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 56 | At my work I am able to sufficiently develop myself |  |  |  |  |
| 57 | My work allows me to enhance my education |  |  |  |  |
| 58 | My work allows me to develop myself |  |  |  |  |
| 59 | My work has provision for career development |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 60 | I am frequently sent on training |  |  |  |  |
| 61 | It is important to have opportunities to learn new things from my work |  |  |  |  |
| 62 | I feel motivated at my work to use my personal qualifications |  |  |  |  |
| **HEALTH AND SAFETY** | |  |  |  |  |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 63 | As a contract staff I am assigned to dangerous jobs |  |  |  |  |
| 64 | At my job I have adequate health and safety measure |  |  |  |  |
| 65 | I am entitled to my organization’s health insurance |  |  |  |  |
| 66 | I am entitled to compensation for any injury or disability sustained at my place of work |  |  |  |  |
| 67 | I am provided with adequate health and safety equipment (first Aid box, protective helmet, life jackets etc) |  |  |  |  |
| **SOCIAL PROTECTION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 68 | I am entitled to a retirement plan with the organization I  work for |  |  |  |  |
| 69 | As a contract staff my beneficiary(s) are entitled to my death benefit |  |  |  |  |
| 70 | In case of accident, contract staff are easily reabsorbed back into the organization |  |  |  |  |
| 71 | The termination of contract staff follow due process |  |  |  |  |
| 72 | When appointment is terminated, we are paid adequate terminal benefit |  |  |  |  |
| **LEVEL OF UNIONISATION** | | | | | |
|  | **STATEMENTS** | **SA** | **A** | **D** | **SD** |
| 73 | As a contract employee I belong to a trade union |  |  |  |  |
| 74 | I have time to attend union meetings during working hours |  |  |  |  |
| 75 | My organization willingly allows me to participate in |  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | union activities |  |  |  |  |
| 76 | Contract workers are covered by the same Collective Agreement with permanent workers |  |  |  |  |

**SECTION C**

##### OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

**Instruction:** Please give precise answer to the following questions. You may give practical examples where possible.

1. According to your contract how many hours do you need to work per week? ----------------
2. Do you feel the company (Oil and Gas) is doing enough to promote personal career development?
3. How do you feel about your work environment?
4. Do you feel the organization is doing enough to promote professional career development?

81. Do you feel you are involved in decision-making? -----------------------------------------------

82. Which other types of benefits do you like to have? -----------------------------------------------

##### THANK YOU AND GOD BLESS

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

The interview questions will be as follows:

* 1. Can you talk about your experiences working as a contract employee in a multinational oil and gas industry?
  2. Can you talk about the situations you faced and continue to face in which you believe you must adapt to different expectations, values, or working conditions in the Oil and Gas industry you work for?
  3. Can you talk about the experiences that you have had that you don’t want/look forward no other contract employee ever has to experience
  4. Can you talk about the experiences you had that you hope a contract employee who comes to this organization to work would have
  5. Discuss any special needs and desires you believe a contract employee should have when coming.
  6. Can you talk about anything else you want me to know about your experiences since coming to this organization that you feel might be helpful for me to understand your work situation.

f) Please write down any additional information about your job that you feel might be helpful for me to understand your work situation.

# APPENDIX B: SPSS OUPUT

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Degree of managerial control  Chevron USA | | 144  84 | 2.8944  2.9738 | .46527  .06787 | .03877  .00741 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test  for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | T | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal  variances assumed  Degree of | 114.131 | .000 | - 1.552 | 226 | .122 | -.07937 | .05112 | -.18011 | .02138 |
| managerial control Equal  variances  not |  |  | - 2.011 | 153.273 | .046 | -.07937 | .03947 | -.15735 | -.00138 |
| assumed |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Working hours  Chevron USA | | 142  84 | 2.4676  2.6429 | .39348  .11225 | .03302  .01225 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | T | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Working assumed | 92.571 | .000 | - 3.984 | 224 | .000 | -.17525 | .04399 | -.26194 | -.08857 |
| hours Equal variances not assumed |  |  | - 4.976 | 176.777 | .000 | -.17525 | .03522 | -.24475 | -.10575 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BD01(1 3)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=REMUn

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Remuneration  Chevron USA | | 144  84 | 1.9479  2.7401 | .53960  .08324 | .04497  .00908 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances assumed  Remuneration  Equal variances  not assumed | 178.151 | .000 | - 13.351  - 17.268 | 226  154.462 | .000  .000 | -.79216  -.79216 | .05934  .04587 | -.90908  -.88279 | -.67524  -.70154 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BD01(1 3)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=EnTitHi

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Entitlement to health insurance  Chevron USA | | 142  84 | 2.1068  2.7063 | .73386  .09976 | .06158  .01088 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence  Interval of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances Entitlement to assumed  health insurance Equal variances  not assumed | 160.624 | .000 | - 7.440  - 9.587 | 224  149.699 | .000  .000 | -.59954  -.59954 | .08058  .06254 | -.75833  -.72311 | -.44075  -.47597 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BD01(1 3)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=SoCProtc

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Social protection  Chevron USA | | 141  84 | 1.7035  2.6571 | .53055  .09089 | .04468  .00992 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Social assumed | 142.644 | .000 | - 16.317 | 223 | .000 | -.95360 | .05844 | -1.06877 | -.83843 |
| protection Equal variances  not assumed |  |  | - 20.835 | 153.506 | .000 | -.95360 | .04577 | -1.04401 | -.86318 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BD01(1 3)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=LEVunion

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Level of Unionisation  Chevron USA | | 144  84 | 1.5781  1.6399 | .55586  .22412 | .04632  .02445 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Level of assumed Unionisation Equal variances  not assumed | 48.833 | .000 | -.972  - 1.179 | 226  206.215 | .332  .240 | -.06176  -.06176 | .06350  .05238 | -.18689  -.16502 | .06338  .04151 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BD01(1 3)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=Remuneration\_Benefit

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Chevron Nigeria  Remuneration and Benefit  Chevron USA | | 141  84 | 2.0913  2.6151 | .42467  .14089 | .03576  .01537 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Remuneration assumed | 77.209 | .000 | - 10.944 | 223 | .000 | -.52383 | .04787 | -.61815 | -.42950 |
| and Benefit Equal variances not assumed |  |  | - 13.456 | 185.813 | .000 | -.52383 | .03893 | -.60062 | -.44703 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BDO2(2 4)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=DegCont

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| ExxonMobil Nigeria  Degree of managerial control  ExxonMobil USA | | 107  37 | 2.9196  2.9568 | .30698  .09586 | .02968  .01576 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Degree of assumed | 47.041 | .000 | -.722 | 142 | .471 | -.03713 | .05141 | -.13877 | .06450 |
| managerial  control Equal variances  not assumed |  |  | - 1.105 | 141.160 | .271 | -.03713 | .03360 | -.10356 | .02930 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BDO2(2 4)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=NOhWRK

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| ExxonMobil Nigeria  Working hours  ExxonMobil USA | | 107  37 | 2.5103  2.5730 | .31351  .08383 | .03031  .01378 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances Working assumed | 45.357 | .000 | - 1.199 | 142 | .232 | -.06269 | .05228 | -.16605 | .04066 |
| hours Equal variances not assumed |  |  | - 1.883 | 137.106 | .062 | -.06269 | .03329 | -.12853 | .00314 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BDO2(2 4)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=Remuneration\_Benefit

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| ExxonMobil Nigeria  Remuneration and Benefit  ExxonMobil USA | | 107  37 | 2.3477  2.4577 | .38429  .10081 | .03715  .01657 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the  Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances Remuneration and assumed Benefit Equal variances  not assumed | 38.268 | .000 | - 1.717  - 2.704 | 142  136.475 | .088  .008 | -.10999  -.10999 | .06406  .04068 | -.23662  -.19044 | .01663  -.02955 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BDO2(2 4)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=SoCProtc

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| ExxonMobil Nigeria  Social protection  ExxonMobil USA | | 106  37 | 2.0321  2.6703 | .65035  .17774 | .06317  .02922 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Social assumed | 15.668 | .000 | - 5.880 | 141 | .000 | -.63819 | .10853 | -.85275 | -.42364 |
| protection Equal variances  not assumed |  |  | - 9.170 | 136.513 | .000 | -.63819 | .06960 | -.77583 | -.50056 |

T-TEST GROUPS=BDO2(2 4)

/MISSING=ANALYSIS

/VARIABLES=LEVunion

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

##### Group Statistics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Country | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| ExxonMobil Nigeria  Level of Unionisation  ExxonMobil USA | | 106  37 | 1.7689  1.8176 | .57497  .19229 | .05585  .03161 |

**Independent Samples Test**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-  tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval  of the Difference | |
| Lower | Upper |
| Equal variances  Level of assumed Unionisation Equal variances  not assumed | 12.027 | .001 | -  .504  -  .759 | 141  140.881 | .615  .449 | -.04870  -.04870 | .09654  .06417 | -.23956  -.17557 | .14216  .07817 |

**Table 1: Reliability Statistics**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on  Standardized Items | N of Items |
| .855 | .841 | 8 |

**Table 2: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Degcont | NOhWRK | REMUn | EnTitHi | Boffer | TRAINing | HealthnSafty | SoCProtc |
| Degcont | 1.000 | .144 | .265 | .273 | .163 | .226 | .132 | .281 |
| NOhWRK | .144 | 1.000 | .209 | .254 | .144 | .052 | .119 | .202 |
| REMUn | .265 | .209 | 1.000 | .677 | .569 | .554 | .723 | .723 |
| EnTitHi | .273 | .254 | .677 | 1.000 | .579 | .281 | .646 | .629 |
| Boffer | .163 | .144 | .569 | .579 | 1.000 | .485 | .672 | .563 |
| TRAINing | .226 | .052 | .554 | .281 | .485 | 1.000 | .499 | .390 |
| HealthnSafty | .132 | .119 | .723 | .646 | .672 | .499 | 1.000 | .700 |
| SoCProtc | .281 | .202 | .723 | .629 | .563 | .390 | .700 | 1.000 |

**Table 3: Item-Total Statistics**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item- Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
| Degcont | 17.10 | 7.076 | .291 | .154 | .865 |
| NOhWRK | 17.49 | 7.256 | .214 | .086 | .870 |
| REMUn | 17.78 | 5.383 | .818 | .702 | .808 |
| EnTitHi | 17.66 | 5.555 | .701 | .595 | .824 |
| Boffer | 17.64 | 6.205 | .684 | .528 | .831 |
| TRAINing | 17.18 | 6.006 | .508 | .424 | .850 |
| HealthnSafty | 17.41 | 5.505 | .771 | .684 | .815 |
| SoCProtc | 17.90 | 5.158 | .749 | .620 | .818 |

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